

Self-Determination and Human Resource Retention: Employee and Volunteer

Motivation to Stay in Rural Oregon Nonprofit Organizations

Nicole Richman

George Fox University

Newberg, Oregon

SELF-DETERMINATION AS A PREDICTOR OF RETENTION

Approval Page

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by

Nicole Richman

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Signatures:



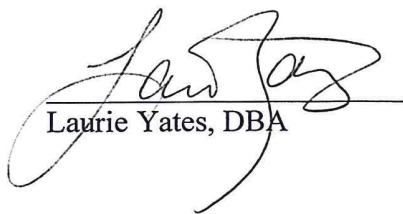
Dirk Barram, PhD, Chair

Date: 10-4-17

Members



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Laurie Yates, DBA

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Resilience and philanthropy may be taught behaviors that are environmentally shaped or the results of genetically formed personality traits. Whatever the reason or motivation, the altruistic spirit lives in few too many. Strength and persistence to achieve good for others have seemingly become political jargon aimed at attracting social attention for mere narcissist gain. This study is dedicated to all those that feel most satisfied by giving to others and serving the well-being of mankind. The question is why or what motivates some to go beyond the giving of material goods by giving more of self to guide, support, and provide an opportunity for the common good.

My dad, a painter and contractor by trade, was the most hardworking and kind-hearted man I have ever known. Like many others during the financial crises of the 1980's, my parents had very little of monetary value and often struggled to make ends meet. Yet, every day Dad gave his time and labor to others. Most often his time was spent as a friend to the elderly. Dad would dedicate countless chargeable labor hours sipping coffee, listening, and just providing a helping hand. He would take out the garbage, replace a light bulb, or anything else his customers needed. Dad never charged a dime for his time to help others. Many elderly women claimed him as a long-lost son. To the lonely, Dad filled a void by providing friendship and care.

As much as Mom would complain and worry about our financial condition, she was equally generous with her time and resources as Dad. Legally and biologically I was an only child, but our home sheltered countless children and teens over the years. Abused, abandoned, or poor youth in need clung to Mom for support, safety, and love. No matter the financial or emotional cost, Mom provides the comforting beacon to

troubled youth the way a lighthouse shines the path to ships in the fog. Mom worked hard every day and never gave up on the aspirations of others or her own. She pursued her Master's degree when most would be thinking of retiring. Even with the leverage of a graduate degree, Mom did not seek a high-salary career. Rather, Mom chose to serve the elderly as part of a nonprofit organization.

There is no doubt where Mom's generosity derived from. At eighty-years-old, my grandmother has survived the tragedy of war, financial depression, and kept up with the massive progress of technology. Throughout trials and triumphs, aches and pains, Grandma's servitude continue to bless countless lives. Every day Grandma first gives to the lives of others, caring for infants at the hospital, serving communion at church, providing meals to the homeless, or just lending a friendly shoulder.

For nearly three decades my husband and I have grown up, married, and raise our children in the same rural community. We have found that social support is unparalleled by the surrounding cities. Long roads, waterways, and hills form a geographic barrier to the fast-paced, impersonal urban lifestyle. The small population and physical barriers also limit tax revenue and access to critical public resources thus forcing a reliance on the generosity of neighbors and charitable programs.

We may never know exactly why some feel compelled to give to others before self. The lucky feel the presence of generosity at least once in their life. For me, I was raised by the giving nature of others. This influence has given me the desire to understand how organizations can better appreciate and retain those compelled to give.

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Abstract

The present study used an existing model, the Volunteer Functions Inventory, to test the functional motives of volunteers and employees to engage in or continue service with a rural nonprofit organization. Self-Determination theory provides the underlying framework for the Volunteer Functions Inventory and the six motivational functions: understanding, values, enhancement, career, social, and protective. The model was tested using a sample of 168 employees and volunteers from Area Agencies on Aging located in rural Oregon. The results indicated that the protective function, reducing personal guilt by serving others in the community with less means, similarly motivates employees and volunteers to begin or continue service with rural agencies. The study found no distinct differences in motivation based on agency location or length of service. However, the study concluded women are more motivated by career aspirations than men. The study also revealed a difference between participants age 35 and under and all other age categories. The 35 and under population had the highest motivation scores for enhancement and the lowest for understanding. The results of this study aid rural nonprofit organizations in understanding how to efficiently engage and retain talent by focusing on motivations similar to employees and volunteers and avoiding motives contradictory across talent demographics.

Keywords: Self-Determination Theory, volunteer, motivation, nonprofit, retention, attrition

Chapter 1

Introduction

“I am speaking of a new engagement in the lives of others, a new activism, hands-on and involved, that gets the job done. We must bring in the generations, harnessing the unused talent of the elderly and the unfocused energy of the young. For not only leadership is passed from generation to generation, but so is stewardship. And the generation born after the Second World War has come of age.

I have spoken of a thousand points of light, of all the community organizations that are spread like stars throughout the Nation, doing good. We will work hand in hand, encouraging, sometimes leading, sometimes being led, rewarding. We will work on this in the White House, in the Cabinet agencies. I will go to the people and the programs that are the brighter points of light, and I will ask every member of my government to become involved. The old ideas are new again because they are not old, they are timeless: duty, sacrifice, commitment, and a patriotism that finds its expression in taking part and pitching in.” (Bush, 1989)

Without a doubt, the vastly growing world continues, and will always, face the overwhelming problems created by scarcity. There simply are not enough resources to meet even the fundamental needs of every person. Traditionally, the world has aimed to

solve such problems through charitable organizations (M. Porter, 2013). Yet, even the masses as called by President Bush cannot meet the scalability necessary to reverse the imbalance of needs and resources. To effectively combat the unlimited needs for limited resources, requires a unified approach to efficiency across government, nonprofits, and for-profit organizations. It is not enough to call for more resources, every resource must be leveraged to maximum capacity (M. E. Porter & Kramer, 2006).

Rural communities and the aging population jointly suffer some of the largest resource deficits in the United States (Miller, Ph.D., 2010). Complex technological, economic, geographic, and social constraints limit the capacity for organizations to combat the imbalance of needs and means (The Urban Institute, 2001). The costs associated with employee and volunteer turnover specifically diminish the funds and capacity available for an organization to serve the community. A rural NPO is even less likely to survive the human resource turnover level that a for-profit or urban counterpart could readily absorb (Jamison, 2003; Kuo, Lin, & Lan, 2012; Selden & Sowa, 2015).

From financial transactions to operational decisions and beyond, the core of every business function relies on an organization's greatest asset, its human resources. Human resources boast significant responsibility for the success or failure of an organization (de Waal, 2007; Haslinda, 2009). Strategy literature more specifically recognizes the knowledge of human resources as the most valuable asset in any firm (M. E. Porter & Kramer, 2006; Torraco, 2000; Torraco & Swanson, 1995). How to maximize human resource potential is not as consistently understood in business practice. The common perception limits human resource management (HRM) and human resource development (HRD), to recruitment, compensation, and legalities of managing a workforce (Haslinda,

2009). Research suggests employee turnover in the nonprofit and social service sectors averages four to seven times higher than other industries and the for-profit sector worldwide (H.-H. Kang & Liu, 2014). To sustain a competitive advantage and maximize economic value, organizations must go beyond stereotypical human resource management activities to pursue innovative methods to attract and retain top talent (Ramlall, 2004). Innovative HRM requires an acute awareness of the potential and how to motivate maximum potential within and across the diverse pool of human resources.

Firm performance, both for-profit and nonprofit has been connected to shared values, career commitment and leadership style (Collins, 2009; Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Adversely human resource attrition, volunteer or employee, has proven to reduce organization productivity and efficiency (C. Kang, Huh, Cho, & Auh, 2015). Turnover is particularly damaging in the nonprofit sector. Not only are turnover rates four to seven times higher in nonprofits than in for-profit organizations, but also turnover costs consume resources that are more limited in NPOs (C. Kang et al., 2015). Moreover, public service organizations that rely predominantly on the contribution of human resources, as opposed to production and product capital, suffer a more impactful loss from human resource turnover (C. Kang et al., 2015). When attrition occurs in a service based organization, the remaining employees and volunteers must absorb the lost labor, thereby becoming increasingly strained and discouraged. Ultimately, human resource turnover compromises the overall effectiveness and level of contribution from the remaining employees and volunteers (C. Kang et al., 2015).

Centuries of research has been dedicated to understanding why or what motivates people to act or behave in certain ways (Rahimić, Resić, & Kožo, 2012). Contemporary

business science has turned toward motivation to explain the reasons why people decide to leave a job. Researchers and theorists have given specific attention to the sensitivity of rural and nonprofit organizations (Chen & Hsu, 2013; Kuo et al., 2012; Neuhoﬀ & Dunckelman, 2011).

Research has identified that human resource motivation results from and contributes to career commitment and effective leadership (Collins, 2009; Kotter, 2012). Contributors to the body of knowledge around human resource motivation have examined a variety of variables to determine the relationship with motivation and firm performance. There is an overwhelming consensus that personal values and company culture play a significant role with many individual and organizational outcomes (Collins, 2009; Kotter, 2012; Kouzes & Posner, 2012).

The focus on why or how people make choices is far from new or unique. More recently, self-determination theory (SDT) has introduced the notion that humans seek to satisfy psychological needs with the same fervor as they would physiological needs (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). The identification and prioritization of psychological needs present new perspectives in how or what motivates human behavior (Nencini, Romaioli, & Meneghini, 2015).

Definitions of Terms

The following definitions collected from existing literature clarify otherwise dispersed understandings for the key concepts presented throughout this study.

Nonprofit Organization (NPO). Nonprofit organizations are those agencies designated by the government as providing services and products to fill a need without seeking profit (Neuhoff & Dunckelman, 2011).

Area Agency on Aging (Agency). The Older American Act of 1965, requires that an Area Agency on Aging is responsible for providing services to meet the needs of senior citizens within the agency's designated region (Older Americans Act Handbook Workgroup, 2012).

Volunteer. "Volunteerism can be defined as long-term, planned, prosocial behaviors that benefit strangers and occur within an organizational setting" (Penner 2002, p. 448). Volunteers provide valuable human resource labor contributions to organizations, but without the expectation of remuneration as would a traditional employee.

Employee. An employee is any person that performs work for another person or organization in return for financial compensation (Muhl, 2002). Legal variations to the definition of an employee depend on the type of work performed, the length of engagement, or type of compensation (Muhl, 2002). Compensation, generally in the form of salary or wages, differentiates volunteers from employees in a nonprofit organization (Hrywna, 2015).

Rural. The classification of rural or urban varies depending on data use. Administrative decisions, land-use needs, and economic research all require a clear delineation of urban and rural boundaries. Rural development programs, such as those examined in this paper, most often lean on the administrative definition of rural to determine eligibility (Bucholtz & Cromartie, 2008, p. 2). The United States Department

of Agriculture (USDA) Economic Research Service (ERS) classifies population density by county into metro and non-metro. Metro counties have one or more urban cities with a population of 50,000 or greater, and the outlying areas provide a significant share of the employed population through commuting. Non-metro, or rural, defines counties that do not meet the definition of a metro region (Bucholtz & Cromartie, 2008; Economic Research Service, 2016).

Turnover. Average turnover is the total number of employees that leave for any reason during a given year, divided by the average total number of people employed in the same year (“SHRM,” 2015; Opportunity Knocks, 2010). For example, if an agency maintains a monthly workforce of 10 employees and an average of 5 employees leave the organization each year, the turnover rate is 50%.

Turnover rate may also be incorporated with non-paid employees after converting volunteer hours to the equivalent of a full-time contributor. The volunteer conversion formula divides total annual volunteer hours by the standard 2080 full-time annual hours available (“SHRM,” 2015; Opportunity Knocks, 2010). For example, an agency supported by an average of 1000 volunteer hours per month or 12,000 volunteer hours per year is expressed as 12,000 divided by 2080 which equates to 5.8 full-time volunteers. If the agency loses 5 volunteers during the same 12-month period and each contributed an average of 100 hours each per month or 1,200 per year, the full-time equivalent loss is calculated by 1,200 multiplied by 5 volunteers and divided by 2080. Thus, the volunteer attrition is equal to 2.9 volunteers and the turnover rate can be calculated as 2.9 divided by 5.8, or 49.7%. Average turnover rates provide a consistent measurement of program needs and costs of human resources (“SHRM,” 2015).

Self-Determination Theory. Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is the theory of motivation focusing on the human tendency to behave in a certain way as a result of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). The theory was originally presented by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan in 1985 and has since expanded as a platform for examining a variety of environments and classifications of people. SDT has been leveraged to study important issues such as intrinsic motivation, physiological and psychological needs, individual and cultural differences, and application of values (Pennock & Alberts, 2014).

Research Study

This study was developed to address the costs and burden of human resource attrition and retention in rural nonprofit organizations. As stated below, costs and constraints for nonprofit organizations are not only unique, but also weigh heavily on the ability to provide necessary services and resources to people in need.

Problem Statement

The Oregon NPO bears a critical burden for economic and social welfare conditions across the state. In particular, rural Oregon regions suffer increased welfare need and decreased resources (The Nonprofit Association of Oregon, 2014). Therefore, the Oregon NPO must achieve more outcome with less financial and service leverage. The cost of employee and volunteer turnover specifically hinders rural Oregon NPOs from maximizing resources and effectiveness (Kuo et al., 2012; Opportunity Knocks, 2010). Providing organizations with insight into employee and volunteer retention aim to decrease human resource costs and increase ability to provide critical social services to rural areas.

Significance

A vast majority of social welfare and public services are provided by nonprofit organizations. Nonprofits serve a diverse group of residents and needs (The Nonprofit Association of Oregon, 2014). Rapid technology changes, political and legal regulations, and swinging economic conditions affect organizations across the for-profit and nonprofit sectors (Schoshinski, 2013). However, limited resources, sparse populations, and geographical barriers add significant more complexity for those organizations serving rural communities (Newstead & Wu, 2009).

While NPOs operate with more limited resources and greater capacity demands than the for-profit businesses, the NPO economic contribution is proportionately more significant (The Nonprofit Association of Oregon, 2014). In Oregon, the nonprofit sector not only combats widespread poverty, dispersed population density, and a rapidly growing aging population. NPOs account for more than 8 percent of the state's gross domestic product, compared to 5.4 percent nationally. Oregon NPOs employ more than 166,000 people and 993,700 residents contribute over 116 million volunteer hours each year (The Nonprofit Association of Oregon, 2014).

Rural communities pose a more significant need for resources than their urban counterparts (Economic Research Service, 2016; Newstead & Wu, 2009). The geographic limitations and financial constraints of rural areas clash with increased social welfare needs (Economic Research Service, 2016). Social environment and culture influence individual values (Kotter, 2012). SDT provides that psychological and physiological needs also relate to how or what individuals perceive as the predominant value (M. A. Okun, O'Rourke, Keller, Johnson, & Enders, 2014). In the end, people are

motivated to make the decision that most closely meets or aims to meet the highest level of need (Gillet, Gagné, Sauvagère, & Fouquereau, 2013). The study targets higher understanding of the motivation factors that lead volunteers and employees to choose to stay with an organization. Specifically, rural nonprofit organizations do not have the ability to offer the monetary incentives that urban or for-profit organizations do. Focusing the study on a single type of organization in similar operating environments narrows the cultural variations and gives a clearer opportunity for rural nonprofits to target human resource retention. Retention encourages stewardship through reduced turnover costs and more efficient use of limited resources.

Purpose of the Study

Studies show that high performance organizations rely on the internal and external influences and resources which impact the financial sustainability of the firm (de Waal, 2007). Human resources make up the greatest source of capacity and capability within any organization, but especially nonprofit organizations (C. Kang et al., 2015; Richman, 2015). Moreover, nonprofit organizations face greater operating constraints, such as human resource retention, government regulations, and financial stability than their for-profit counterparts (de Waal, 2007; Neuhoﬀ & Dunkelmann, 2011).

Rural communities pose even greater limitations on nonprofit operations. Increased poverty rates and reduced business services lead to reductions in available support funding for nonprofit organizations and their contributions to the social welfare (Schoshinski, 2013; Skinner & Rosenberg, 2006). The financial constraints not only affect the capacity of rural nonprofit organizations to attract and retain top talent, the ability of the firm to withstand the high cost of employee turnover is also compromised

(Newstead & Wu, 2009). As a result, the rate of attrition has a significant financial and operational impact on the firm's performance and the overall service level of the firm to the community (de Waal, 2007; Gronlund, 2010; Minifie & Otto, 2011; Mohrman & Worley, 2009).

Within rural nonprofit operations, there are clear gaps in available resources and social welfare demands (Drucker, 1990; Newstead & Wu, 2009; Skinner & Rosenberg, 2006). As a result, nonprofit firms, particularly in rural areas, must focus management strategy on resource efficiency and cost reduction so that they may substantively contribute with fewer means than urban or for-profit counterparts (Drucker, 1990).

Hiring practices which promote value alignment between the organization and employee and volunteer staff best mitigate the cost of turnover. Reducing turnover costs requires NPOs to identify and implement long-term human resource retention strategies. Doing so expands the capacity of resources to provide greater service outreach (Minifie & Otto, 2011).

The purpose of this study is to investigate volunteer and employee motivation to stay with a rural nonprofit organization. The study examines motivation to stay through the six motivation functions of self-determination: values, understanding, protective, career, social, and enhancement. Specifically, the study focuses on Area Agencies on Aging based in rural Oregon. AAAs provide social welfare services to the aging population. The selected AAAs experience the same or similar constraints as other nonprofits and rural human services organizations. The goal of the study was to gain insight and understanding of employee and volunteer retention motivation through the lens of self-determination. The study adds to the bodies of knowledge in employee and

volunteer retention, rural nonprofit operations, and other areas of human motivation.

Specifically, the study provides valuable information to AAAs to maximize efficiency, minimize resource loss, and improve human service effectiveness.

Research Questions

- Q1. What functions of Self-Determination motivate employees and volunteers to serve rural Oregon nonprofit organizations?
- Q2. What are the differences in motivation between employees and volunteers of rural Oregon nonprofit organizations?
- Q3. Do any of the factors of age, length of service, gender, or agency location differ in the Self-Determination functions that motivate employees and volunteers to serve rural Oregon nonprofit organizations?

Delimitations

Study delimitations include organization type, geographic location, factors studied, and intent of findings. The study includes results from nonprofit organizations providing service to predominately rural communities. The study population is limited to employees and volunteers of Area Agencies on Aging. Because the author has a direct family connection to the Council on Aging of Central Oregon, contact information for the selected agencies is readily available. Furthermore, the connection creates depth and insight into the organization that otherwise might not be available through the research process. Last, the agency represents servitude with limited financial means to an underserved population. Ongoing social welfare contributions require stewardship.

The study includes only AAAs based in, and providing service to, rural Oregon counties. The geographic range provides a large representation of employees and

volunteers operating under rural nonprofit limitations. Natural barriers also seclude each of the selected agencies. Most prominent, the Cascade Mountain range separates most of rural Oregon from the major metropolitan areas. Notwithstanding inclement weather, the geographic boundary for this study is within range for the author to meet, interview, and collect data from each agency.

There are a number of factors or attributes which may aid rural nonprofit organizations in improving operational effectiveness. However, social stewardship requires each NPO to maximize resource potential. The largest resource for any organization is the pool of human talent (Jamison, 2003; Richman, 2015). By identifying the motivation functions of retention in rural nonprofit organizations, the study sought to support NPO stewardship by aligning organizations with the opportunities to retain talent and reduce turnover costs.

Last, the purpose of this study is to inform and influence the hiring and retention practices in rural Area Agencies on Aging. Granted business science may find multiple potential uses for the collected data. However, the delimitation of data in this study is to determine whether a rural nonprofit can leverage employee and volunteer motivation factors to decrease attrition rate and subsequent turnover costs through effective human resource management and development.

Summary

Limited resources create a vicious cycle within a nonprofit organization. Management skilled and experienced in resource efficiency demands a highly competitive salary, beyond the affordability of most nonprofits (Schoshinski, 2013). Thus, these organizations often lack the knowledge and resources to implement employee

and volunteer retention practices. As a result, rural NPOs often fail to realize the full potential of available resources (Skinner & Rosenberg, 2006). The NPO sector provides valuable social services to rural communities which suffer from greater need and less opportunity than urban areas (Economic Research Service, 2016). Improving the operational efficiency of an NPO will subsequently improve the capacity to reach social welfare needs across greater constraints (Jamison, 2003).

The study examined the tendency of volunteers and employees of rural nonprofits to choose to stay or leave based on motivational factors identified by SDT. SDT asserts that all people adapt behavior and decisions in response to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). By leveraging SDT, the study results provide valuable information to AAAs to identify and respond to what or how employees and volunteers are motivated. As a result, agency decisions can center on retaining talent, reducing turnover, and maximizing limited resources to provide effective service.

The nature of the relationship between organizational characteristics and retention of employees and volunteers is far clearer across industry specific studies. However, what is clear from NPO literature is that understanding what factors contribute to retention or attrition of high performance employees and volunteers is particularly valuable to organizational outcomes (Selden & Sowa, 2015). This study and research, in general, may not be able to definitively assert why all employees or volunteers choose to accept a role with an NPO. However, each step research takes in understanding the motives that drive servitude increases resource efficiency in the NPO sector and thus improves the capacity for service.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

For centuries, philosophers, researchers, and scientists have sought to understand why people do what they do. More contemporary self-determination research conclude the initiative to do something is highly influenced by an individual's surrounding culture (Nencini et al., 2015; Ramlall, 2004). Thus, a person's decision to work or contribute to an organization may be influenced by the culture of the organization and the demographics of the community (Nencini et al., 2015; Skinner & Rosenberg, 2006).

2008 marked a turning point in economic conditions. Since the financial crises, employment trends have experienced multiple violent shifts from the employer and employee perspectives. Dislocation forced people to learn new skills to seek alternative employment. The pool of entry-level employees is no longer limited to recent college graduates. Entry-level talent also includes employees forced to change careers or re-enter the workforce from retirement (C. Kang et al., 2015). When unemployment rates climb to record heights, the age and demographic of those changing careers to find employment vary considerably generating a more diverse workforce with varying levels of industry specific experience (Latack & Dozier, 1986).

Economic conditions also limited resources available to for-profit and nonprofit organization (Gronlund, 2010; Kuo et al., 2012). As a result, organizations have become much more sensitive to the cost associated with turnover, particularly in the public service industry (Jamison, 2003). The draining cost of turnover within the nonprofit

sector is not limited to the paid employee. In fact, volunteer turnover can be just as, if not more, costly than employee turnover. When financial resources are reduced, NPOs must rely more heavily on volunteer contributions. When turnover occurs in these conditions, the remaining employees and volunteers become increasingly strained and less productive resulting in fewer services and labor resources (Selden & Sowa, 2015). As a specific example, replacing an employee costs nearly 150% of the allotted annual salary and a volunteer vacancy equates to the loss of two times the average hours contributed by the volunteer (Hrywna, 2015; Kuo et al., 2012; Selden & Sowa, 2015).

Volunteer retention and employee retention have been separately studied across multiple nonprofit sectors and theories (Jamison, 2003). A common finding is that regardless of economic conditions, the average NPO must maintain a diligent focus on retaining talent, both employees and volunteers, to minimize turnover costs and maximize program outreach (Schoshinski, 2013; Skinner & Rosenberg, 2006). The NPO culture vastly differs from the business sector and government programs (Drucker, 1990; Geiser, Okun, & Grano, 2014). Because value alignment plays such an important role in organizational performance, the NPO must also leverage culture and values to ensure a lasting relationship with human resources (Schoshinski, 2013).

Greater program needs and geographic constraints create additional layers of complexity for organizations serving sparsely populated areas (Neuhoff & Dunckelman, 2011; Newstead & Wu, 2009). Traditionally, rural counties suffer from increased poverty, lower employment rates, and higher social service needs per capita than urban and suburban counties. Rural populations have also continued to decline in recent decades, specifically younger populations emigrating to more urban areas (Economic

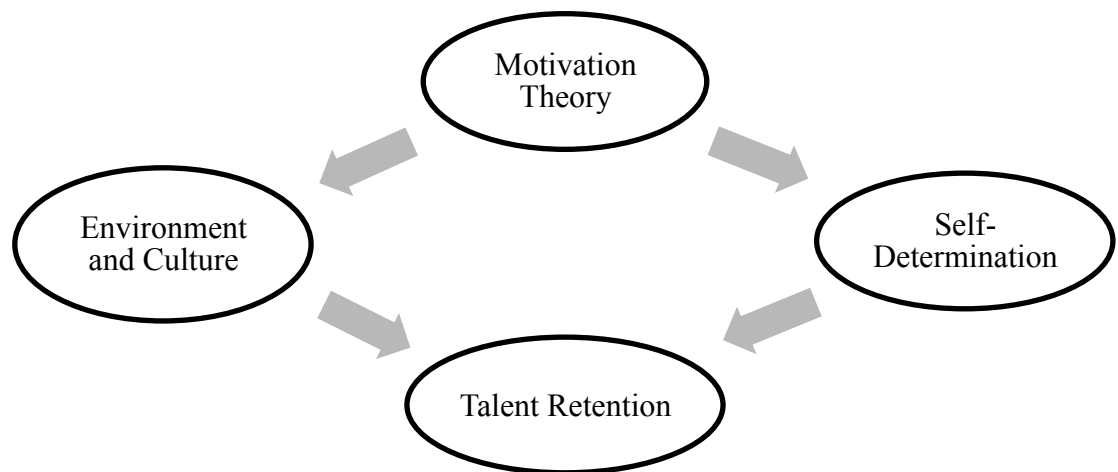
Research Service, 2016). The combination of an aging demographic and the emigration of more recent generations to urban areas not only decreases the overall population, but also the employable workforce in rural communities (Economic Research Service, 2016). A smaller workforce results in less employment tax revenue and private funding for social service programs (Newstead & Wu, 2009).

Continuously changing operational conditions resulting from economic fluctuations also draw the attention of research related to high performance work systems and adaptability (de Waal, 2007). Variables such as job commitment, job satisfaction, and job perception have frequently been used to assess conditions affecting or affected by employee turnover, morale, and resilience amongst other factors (Frye, 2012). The fields of psychology and organizational behavior have also dedicated increased study to the determinants of engagement and optimal performance in both personal and professional settings (Geiser et al., 2014; Nencini et al., 2015). As a result, motivation theory has rapidly resurfaced across literature within the new context of employee and volunteer retention (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008).

Motivation theory, specifically Self-Determination Theory (SDT) has led to valuable insight into the motives of employees and volunteers in NPOs (C. Kang et al., 2015; Selden & Sowa, 2015). Research results suggest that employees and volunteers have similar motives to stay or leave an organization and that the similarities may be an important link to improving human resource satisfaction (C. Kang et al., 2015). Thus, identifying the specific factors that connect employees and volunteers with an organization, NPOs may drastically reduce turnover cost and, in turn, better maximize resources to meet program demands (C. Kang et al., 2015).

Throughout motivation theory, culture and social environment are consistently acknowledged as a major influence on a person's decision to act (Allan, Autin, & Duffy, 2016). Therefore, it is not enough to understand what motivates employees and volunteers, the social context in which they operate is equally important (Allan et al., 2016). Self-Determination provides a platform for a comprehensive perspective of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators for both employees and volunteers. Specifically, SDT draws upon the vast history of motivation theory (Pennock & Alberts, 2014). Beginning in the late 20th century, SDT became a popular method to examine volunteer and employee retention studies. However, SDT literature has not yet provided a deepened view around the social and organizational constraints for rural nonprofit organizations directly connected with volunteer and employee retention. Figure 1 illustrates the indirect connections drawn across literature in motivation theory, work environment and culture, talent retention, and SDT.

Figure 1 - Map of Motivation Influence



Self-Determination Theory

The twentieth century progressed the evolution of motivation theory from the early identification of physiological and psychological needs to examining the job factors that influence employee performance. Advancement in motivation theory highlights the complexities of the human personality. Despite the differences in methodologies and research practices, more recent studies converge factors of organizational performance and human motivation.

One such theory, Self-Determination Theory, provided the framework to understand how external factors such as job design interact with internal factors such as personality to influence human action. “Self-Determination is the capacity to choose and to have those choices, rather than reinforcement contingencies, drives, or any other forces or pressures be the determinants of one’s actions” (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 38). Specifically, a self-determined person not only maintains control over the outcome but also has the element of choice (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Pennock & Alberts, 2014).

Self-Determination Theory (STD) “represents a broad framework for the study of human motivation and personality” (“Theory,” 2016). Like prior motivation theories, the roots of SDT can be traced throughout history and spans across sciences in human development, psychology, philosophy, business, and biology. The tenets of human development, social value, cultural belief systems, and psychological health evolved over time leading to broad developments in motivation theory and the foundations of SDT (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004; Pennock & Alberts, 2014).

The growth in motivation research provided valuable evidence supporting the psychological and physiological responses to the satisfaction of human needs (Ankli &

Palliam, 2012). However, the prior models did little to examine motivation within the context of the modern work environment (Ankli & Palliam, 2012). What can be inferred is a connection between prior motivation theories and Self-Determination as a specific applicability to an organizational context.

For example, Maslow's theory of Self-Actualization highlighted the value of personal choice and set the stage for contemporary motivation theory such as SDT (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). Self-Actualization introduced the concept that both physical and emotional needs must be met before one can achieve a sense of true self, a psychological outcome. Similarly, SDT distinguishes needs between physical and emotional needs but contends that both types of need must be met to preserve physiological function (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004).

Another example, Expectancy Theory, identified early concepts of control over the outcome as a core component to motivation (Chiang & Jang, 2008; E. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ramlall, 2004). Expectancy Theory research suggests a person's behavior will correlate with the expected outcome. Thus, to act intentionally assumes a person will have control over the outcome. Control or the perception is prevalent throughout motivation theory and a marked characteristic of SDT, though SDT differentiates between choice and control (Parker, Jimmieson, & Amiot, 2010). Specifically, a person may choose to give up control but still act without coercion. SDT clarifies that individual choice becomes violated when external pressures force a person to behave in a specific manner. The choice to pursue personal well-being also requires an acute awareness of one's own physiological and psychological needs (Allan et al., 2016; E. Deci & Ryan, 1985).

More clearly said, to be self-determined assumes a person has and keeps control over the outcome of a decision. However, control alone does not define a person as self-determined or the presence of self-determination (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). Control must coexist with the element of choice, thus, the pressure to achieve a particular outcome violates self-determination (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). So, while control is key, the choice is the superseding determinant for self-determination.

Psychological Needs

“The impact of social factors on motivation is mediated by the perceptions of competence, autonomy, and relatedness” (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 48). Setting SDT apart from prior motivation theories is the argument that certain psychological needs are just as fundamental to sustain life as physiological needs (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004; Pennock & Alberts, 2014). Essentially human well-being can be attributed to the satisfaction of animate, or physiological, needs as well as inanimate, or psychological, needs. Personal health and well-being require equal attention to animate and inanimate needs (E. L. Deci & Flaste, 1996; E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004).

Our biological needs, such as food, water, and air are consistent across all populations, thus can be relatively easy to identify. Inanimate needs are far more complex and difficult to characterize. Like animate needs, inanimate needs are the same for all people regardless of cultural and social influences. How people choose to satisfy or express inanimate needs will vary with cultural and social influences (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004). Hence, without contextual consideration, inanimate needs can be easily misidentified. Figure 7 illustrates the three categories of psychological needs asserted by

SDT: competence, interpersonal relatedness, and autonomy (Nencini et al., 2015; Pennock & Alberts, 2014).

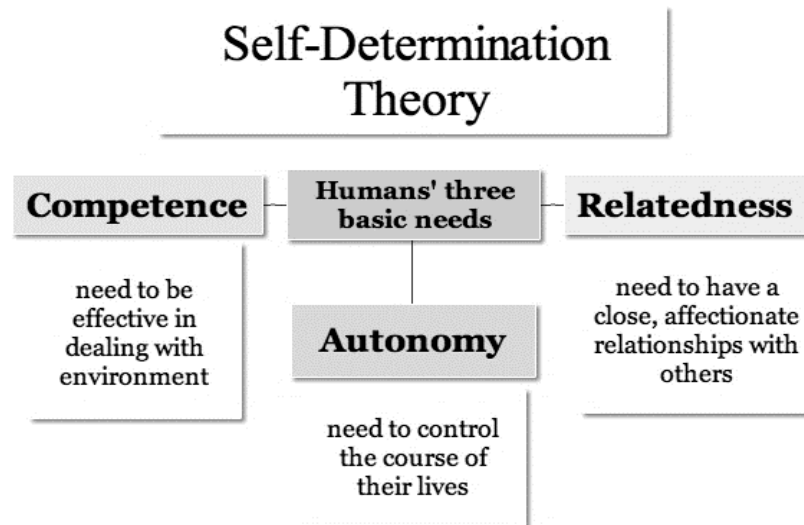


Figure 2 - Basic Human Needs (Pennock & Alberts, 2014).

Competence is the human need to feel effective in completing a particular activity. To feel competent means an individual believes he or she has the talent required to successfully achieve the desired outcome (Pennock & Alberts, 2014). Thus, the willingness to adopt an extrinsic goal requires perceived competence (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Relatedness lays the foundation for the effectiveness of extrinsic motivators. Factors outside of a person's control do not themselves create interest or engagement with a behavior. Thus, motivation occurs when a person feels connected with the external factor by values, belief or other commonality (Allan et al., 2016; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Relatedness provides the individual with a sense of belonging and connectivity to family, a peer group, or a broader social environment (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Employees express a need for relatedness when they place importance on feeling valued and appreciated by management.

Like relatedness, autonomy also supports the internalization of extrinsic factors (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Autonomy is often misrepresented as independence. However, autonomy does not necessarily mean freedom from control or influence, rather the sense of free will and ability to choose to do or not do something based on personal interests and values (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004; Pennock & Alberts, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Specific relationships between each element of self-determination and low work motivation, such as voluntary turnover, are not necessarily clear in the literature. However, the contrasting research in workplace behavior indicates that autonomous motivation most significantly relates to prosocial behaviors such as employee retention and volunteerism (Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier, & Villeneuve, 2009).

Motivation Hierarchy

Self-Determination Theory also distinguishes between extrinsic, intrinsic, and amotivation types (E. L. Deci & Flaste, 1996; Nencini et al., 2015; Word & Park, 2015). Intrinsic factors relate to individual personality characteristics and perceptions. Extrinsic factors include the systems processes, culture and other environmental aspects that may alter individual perceptions (Moran, Diefendorff, Kim, & Liu, 2012). In other words, intrinsic motivation results in someone doing something out of enjoyment or to satisfy a personal need. Alternatively, when a person chooses to behave in a way that will result in an external reward or outcome, the motivation is extrinsic. Amotivation exists when a person chooses to engage in an activity without a clear purpose or connection with behavioral outcomes.

A person is extrinsically motivated when their decision to act is not based on personal interest but rather external pressure or perception of positive reinforcement (E.

L. Deci & Flaste, 1996). Extrinsic factors include the systems, processes, culture, and other environmental aspects that may alter individual perceptions (Moran et al., 2012). Extrinsically motivated people may experience an outside influence or encouragement to act in a specific manner (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). The presence of external pressure cannot be assumed. To the contrary, external pressure equates to forced behavior, whereas extrinsic motivation still requires the element of personal choice to act (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Extrinsic motivation presents with one of four forms of regulation: external, introjected, identification, and integrated (see Figure 6). Motivation is externally regulated when the source of control is not held by the individual (Word & Park, 2015). A person motivated by salary is an example of external regulation (Richer, Blanchard, & Vallerand, 2002). Recent SDT publications indicate that people may partially internalize extrinsic motivation classified as introjected control. Introjected regulation occurs when the decision to participate is based on both internal interest and the desire to gain external approval (E. L. Deci & Flaste, 1996; Nencini et al., 2015; Richer et al., 2002). For example, a person choosing to act out of guilt as a result of an external pressure would be demonstrating introjected control (Word & Park, 2015).

When motivation is regulated by one of the last two types of regulation, identified and integrated, the perceived locus of causality includes high levels of autonomy (Word & Park, 2015). For example, identified regulation occurs when a person chooses to take action based on individual belief or value. Someone choosing to spend time with family instead of working on the weekend presents identified regulation (Richer et al., 2002; Word & Park, 2015). Integrated regulation most closely resembles intrinsic motivation.

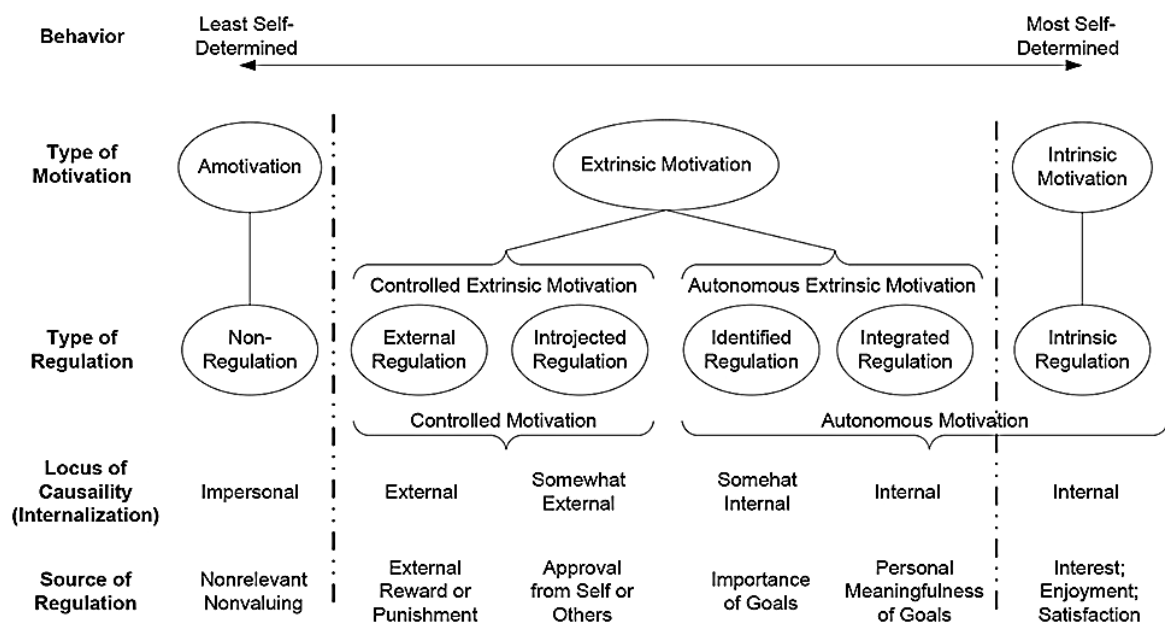
Integrated regulation occurs when a person has fully identified with the behavioral outcomes and assimilated them as personal belief or value (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Integrated regulation occurs “...through self-examination and bringing new regulations into congruence with one’s other values and needs. The more one internalizes the reasons for an action and assimilates them to the self, the more one’s extrinsically motivated actions become self-determined” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 62).

Intrinsic motivation assumes that all people inherently act in ways that fulfill their physiological and psychological needs (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). Motivation is expressed when a person chooses to participate in an activity based predominantly on personal values, autonomous interest, or personal needs (E. L. Deci & Flaste, 1996). Individual personality characteristics and perceptions are the primary factors for intrinsic motivation (Moran et al., 2012).

It is important to note that intrinsic motivation can only exist without external reward, the promise of gain, or control. The most recognizable characteristic of intrinsic motivation, self-esteem, often results in the feeling of internal pressure or tension to behave a certain way (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Tremblay et al., 2009). Performance outcomes such as creativity, flexibility, and spontaneity also suggest a person may be intrinsically motivated (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). Organizations and leaders can enhance intrinsic motivation by allowing self-determination instead of restricting intrinsic motivation through extrinsic motivation (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Meyer & Gagné, 2008). Perceived causality, the illusion of choice or the perceived choice created by environmental events, has also shown to improve intrinsic motivation (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Word & Park, 2015).

Amotivation, essentially antithesis of motivated behavior, occurs when a person possesses no value for an activity, does not feel competent to complete an activity, or does not believe the desired outcome will result from the activity (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In short, individuals who are amotivated behave without purpose and fail to see the positive or negative consequences of their behavior (Richer et al., 2002). A sense of helplessness often results from amotivation. For example, when a person chooses to go to work but indicates no worth or value is gained through work (Richer et al., 2002).



Adapted from several sources: Deci & Ryan 2000; Ryan & Deci 2000a; Gagne & Deci 2005; Sheldon et al 2003

Figure 3 - Self-Determination Theory (Clayton, 2015)

Motivation characteristics depend on the amount and type of external influence that is transferred to internal motivation (Germain, 1991). Differences in behavior and outcomes can readily assist in the identification of the underlying motivation. Failing to recognize the behavior reaction that accompanies the three classifications of motivation could lead to a misdiagnosis or naïve perception of a person's behavior (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Gagné & Deci, 2005). Regardless of the classification for motivation, the

fundamental determinants of SDT include individual will and intentional act. The premise of choice, without force, distinguishes motivation from outside control or pressure (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Regardless of motivation or regulation type, there may be any number of global, contextual, situational, or social factors contributing to a person's choice to act (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). Personality can provide some indication of the underlying motivation causality. However, to fully and accurately identify motivation type, requires consideration of the person's full life context (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004). For example, a person may occasionally exhibit the personality traits of a particular motivation type but are more inclined to the opposite. If only a brief moment is considered, the minority factors may inadvertently lead to an opposite assumption. As a result, management techniques to encourage or discourage behavior could have an unintended and conflicting effect (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004)

Motivation Functions

Functional motivation is based on the psychology precept that people can and will commit themselves to perform an ongoing service because that service fulfills different psychological and physiological needs (Clary et al., 1998; Phillips & Phillips, 2010). Existing functional theory research has led to valuable insight into the recruitment and retention of volunteers in the nonprofit sector (Phillips & Phillips, 2010). The Volunteer Factors Inventory provides a standard measure of motivation to volunteer or sustains volunteering with six functions: Values, Understanding, Social, Career, Protective, and Enhancement (Clary et al., 1998; Phillips & Phillips, 2010). Each function stems from prior broadly applied research in motivation.

Values. “Culture is the shared meaning that a group of people creates over time” (Mintzberg, Lampel, & Ahlstrand, 2005, p. 274). In the volunteer context, values are the expression of shared altruistic or humanitarian concern (Phillips & Phillips, 2010). Volunteer activities completed out of concern for others are often the greatest distinction from paid employment activities. Specifically, studies have shown that value expression is most frequently the predictor of service completion (Clary et al., 1998). The values function stems from value-expressive functions (Katz, 1960) and quality expressiveness functions (Smith, 1956) identified in prior motivation theories (Clary et al., 1998).

Understanding. Research of health and mental health programs revealed volunteers expect to receive self-development from service. Volunteerism leads to new understanding, knowledge, and learning through the practical use of skills and individual might not otherwise have the opportunity to use (Clary et al., 1998).

Social. Mintzberg et al. (2005) provide that culture results from the socialization of shared values. The opportunity to socially engage with others sharing like values often prompts the initial decision to contribute services. Individuals also feel rewarded for completing a socially favorable activity (Clary et al., 1998). The social function derives from the social-adjustive function (Clary et al., 1998; Smith, 1956).

Career. Career benefits from the experience gained during volunteer service are closely related to the utilitarian function (Clary et al., 1998; Katz, 1960). Because this function assumes a working demographic, it is often eliminated from the modified VFI studies focusing on older adults or non-career oriented services (Erasmus & Morey, 2016; Kwok, Chui, & Wong, 2013; M. A. Okun et al., 2014).

Protective. Ego defense (Katz, 1960) and externalization (Smith, 1956) are foundational elements of motivation that center on positive self-reflection. Volunteers indicate servitude alleviates or reduces the guilt felt over the disparity of others. Easing the misfortune of others serves to protect contributors from personal problems and negative self-image (Clary et al., 1998).

Enhancement. Enhancement is the functional premise that individuals seek satisfaction from personal growth or improved self-esteem (Phillips & Phillips, 2010). Clary et al. (1998) support the enhancement function stems from prior research indicating positive personal development and improved self-image gained through volunteerism. Enhancement is the counter to the protective function which serves to eliminate negative self-image (Clary et al., 1998).

Organizational Motivation

Existing research and literature have focused on employee and volunteer retention in private for-profit and nonprofit sectors. Specifically, significant contributions have been made to identifying the motivational factors of volunteerism and employee retention. There is a growing pool of studies on rural population and nonprofit organizations servicing rural communities. Self-Determination Theory predicates a significant and ongoing body of literature dedicated to human resource motivation under contemporary organizational constraints (E. L. Deci & Flaste, 1996; Moran et al., 2012). SDT assimilates findings from traditional motivation research in the field of psychology with human resource and organizational performance research in the industrial sciences. Ultimately, SDT provided a framework to identify how organizations can leverage motivation to improve organizational performance (E. L. Deci & Flaste, 1996).

Over 30 years of continued growth in self-determination, research has provided academia with a multitude of tools targeting various environmental and social applications to study motivation (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004). Questionnaires used to survey specific populations within more narrow contexts have been leveraged to examine and understand the outcomes of self-determination (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004). A variety of motivational scales have been vetted through research. The existing scales focus on specific population types such as students, elderly, and interpersonal. In contrast, situational and free choice motivational scales target individual perception rather than a population segment. Inventories, such as Voluntary Functions Inventory, leverage a questionnaire style method to evaluate the effects of social environment on motivation as well as the inverse relationship (Frye, 2012; Nencini et al., 2015).

Historical findings and modern research agree self-determination leads to positive outcomes in the work environment including increased work satisfaction, decreased ennui, and decreased employee turnover. Even beyond self-determination research, work satisfaction has repeatedly proven to negatively correlate with employee turnover rates (Richer et al., 2002).

As motivational theories developed, financial remuneration continued to receive considerable debate. SDT proposes that monetary rewards actually have a negative relationship with employee retention, specifically intrinsic motivation (E. Deci, 1972). Deci formally introduced the relational effects of monetary rewards on intrinsic motivation, specifically whether remuneration influenced a person's choice to act (E. Deci, 1972). Critics of Deci's studies argue the results were negatively impacted by the presence of pay in one period and lack of pay in another. However, E. Deci & Ryan

(1985) counter that participants in the Deci (1972) study knew compensation was temporary and, even more important, did not initially engage in the activity with an expectation of pay (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). Subsequent studies continued to reaffirm monetary reward effectively deters intrinsic motivation (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985).

The more traditional understanding of pay stems from economic agency theory which viewed the overall perceived value of the pay system as the motivation to align employee behaviors with organizational goals (Olafsen, Halvari, Forest, & Deci, 2015). The broader perspective considers all pay components, such as health benefits, personal leave, and remuneration, as a whole pay system rather than independent variables with separate effect on employee motivation and behavior (Olafsen et al., 2015; Treuren & Frankish, 2014). However, more recent SDT based research of pay found a more indirect correlation with motivation. Pay amount itself does not attract or detract employee behavior, rather employees tend to be more concerned with a sense of justice regarding the amount of pay and perceived managerial support (Olafsen et al., 2015). The importance placed on justice and managerial support suggest that the motivators more traditionally tied to pay, in fact, have universal implications for employees and volunteers.

The confounding, and highly debated, effects of monetary reward on intrinsic motivation ultimately led researchers to examine the effects of other extrinsic motivators on intrinsic motivation. A number of studies leveraging tangibles such as gifts and awards collectively supported the prior findings from monetary based research (Jensen & Murphy, 1990; Treuren & Frankish, 2014). “These rewards have been found to decrease intrinsic motivation by making the activity dependent on the extrinsic reward, thereby

decreasing self-determination, and changing the perceived locus of causality from internal to external” (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 54). Literature has repeatedly asserted that extrinsic motivation can negate intrinsic motivation in both employees and volunteers (Ankli & Palliam, 2012; Phillips & Phillips, 2010). Thus, effective human resource retention relies on the acute awareness and recognition of talent motivation with the positively correlating reward type (Ankli & Palliam, 2012).

The effect of performance evaluations on employee and volunteer motivation provide more significant findings for business practice (DeNisi & Kluger, 2000; Hellrung & Hartig, 2013). Evaluations are nothing more than an assessment of a person’s compliance with an external requirement. From the perspective of SDT, because evaluations are completed by an external person, they effectively undermine intrinsic motivation (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). One such example is the negative effect of Taylor’s per-piece rate based on the performance of another person (Nelson & Campbell, 1972). Taylor required that pay reflected individual performance as it compared to the performance of the first-rate employee. The external comparison negates the intrinsic motivation.

SDT studies also assert that motives can exist for a purpose other than need satisfaction, such as excess financial gain. In fact, the SDT framework suggests that some motives effectively distract the individual from fulfilling basic needs first (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Kwok et al., 2013). With this perspective, individual goal attainment does not always equate to psychological welfare (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004). In short, SDT generally provides that, when a person becomes controlled by a situation,

the freedom to choose to engage becomes interrupted, thereby prohibiting self-determination (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Prior literature restricted the concept of determination or will to meeting only psychological needs. To business, this meant that employees would seek only enough financial gain to procure physiological safety (E. L. Deci, 1984; E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004). However, Self-Determination suggests individuals are more likely influenced by their subjective experiences than their objective requirements. Motivation orientation is also formed from the individual perception of a person's environment (Allan et al., 2016; E. L. Deci, 1984; Germain, 1991).

Researchers have also utilized functional motivation tools, such as the VFI, to ascertain how specific constructs affect the choice to volunteer or sustained volunteerism. Okun et al. (2014) examined the value-expression function in older adults using religion and spirituality as moderators. Ultimately, religious affiliation positively correlates with volunteerism spirituality but does not relate to the choice to volunteer (M. A. Okun et al., 2014). Okun et al. (2014) concluded that older adults are more likely to identify with an organized religion, while younger adults are more likely to identify as spiritual but not part of organized religion. Erasmus & Morey (2016) further notes that social function is a particularly strong motivator for faith-based volunteerism. Most importantly, there is a significant link between social function and length of volunteerism in faith-based organizations (Erasmus & Morey, 2016).

Research agrees that motives and effects of volunteering vary across life stages (Kwok et al., 2013; M. A. Okun et al., 2014). Therefore, volunteer studies vary in primary functional motivation outcomes when age is considered and thus do not readily

generalize (Kwok et al., 2013). Thus, organizations aiming to recruit or retain older adult volunteers would do so best by aligning with helping others and altruistic values, particularly religious affiliation (M. A. Okun et al., 2014). However, the same approach would not necessarily be effective with a younger generation, and further research is needed to determine what motivators could be used to align with those spiritually but not religiously affiliated (M. A. Okun et al., 2014). Additionally, social-value positively affects volunteer retention with existing faith-based volunteers (Erasmus & Morey, 2016). Despite the disparities across generations, few studies have examined functional motivation moderated by age (M. Okun & Schultz, 2003).

A more recent approach to functional motivation theory is the Motivation to Volunteer (MV) scale developed by Grano and Lucidi (2005). Arising out of the VFI and self-determination theory, the MV scale uses six subscales to categorize the underlying premise to volunteer: amotivation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, integrated regulation, and intrinsic motivation (Geiser et al., 2014). Geiser et al. (2014) utilized the functional based MV to assess the impact of volunteer motivation on the frequency of volunteering. The approach is slightly different from VFI studies because it examines the number of times individuals submit to volunteer activities rather than the contexts that prompt volunteerism or encourage sustained contribution. The MV approach is similar to VFI in that both focus on the person-centered results versus the external variable-centered analysis (Geiser et al., 2014).

Dwyer et al., (2013) utilized a mixed survey approach to volunteer motivation and outcomes. The Dwyer et al., (2013) study used five scales to identify possible connections between leadership, work, relationships, and personal motives on the

outcomes of volunteer service. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and Team Member Exchange scale extrapolated the non-person-centered context around volunteerism, while the VFI provided intrinsic motivators for choosing to volunteer (Dwyer, Bono, Snyder, Nov, & Berson, 2013). The study connected the esteem enhancements, and social relationships gained through volunteering with the satisfaction with the organization. However, Dwyer et al. (2013) did not speak to the sustained length of volunteer service only the number of times and satisfaction level with participating in the activity.

The direct relationship between self-determination and heightened psychological function results in positive outcomes in both work and non-work contexts (E. L. Deci, 1984). Specifically, self-determination has proven to increase worker satisfaction, reduce emotional strain, and decrease work-related stress. A direct correlation exists with self-determination, improved job satisfaction and the resulting turnover reduction (Jamison, 2003; Moran et al., 2012). Moreover, the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover has also been established inversely with low job satisfaction relating to increased turnover (Davidson, 2012; Kuo et al., 2012). Motivation and work turnover rates have been reaffirmed throughout history and in a variety of contexts. Behavior and intention, such as turnover intention, to act has attracted continuous attention from business and psychology research. Decades of motivation research findings have brought important direction for the emergence of SDT.

Environment and Culture

Social clustering and social welfare are more than demographic variables, it is the culmination of specific enculturating influences which shape needs, opinions, and experiences of its members (Smith, 1956). The social environment is essentially a set of cultural patterns a person must cope with, adjust and respond to. Uniform opinions, perception, values, and beliefs formed as a result of a cultural patterning within a given social environment (Smith, 1956).

Need satisfaction results mostly from the environment, and leadership holds a majority of the responsibility for the work environment and job factors (Kovjanic, Schuh, Jonas, Quaquebeke, & van Dick, 2012). Transformational leadership has also shown to lead to person-environment fit, which results in satisfaction of autonomy, competence and relatedness needs (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). In fact, personal fit with job environment significantly improves the likelihood of a sustained long-term relationship with an organization (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009).

The natural or non-human environment has profound effects on human relatedness. The environment contributes to individual self-realization and personal identity, specifically creative stimulation and ability limitations (Germain, 1991). Connectedness to the natural environment also enhances and fosters a deeper appreciation for other human beings (Germain, 1991). The physical environment not only fosters an internal sense of self but also influences social behaviors. “Such spatial behaviors are commonly used by individuals and collectivities to regulate social intimacy and distance” (Germain, 1991, p. 31). Motivation operates on attitude formation through personal cognition and the socio-cultural environment of an individual (Smith, 1956).

From this perspective, the geographic and socio-economic conditions are a critical variable in evaluating what or how people of a certain region are motivated.

Researchers have examined individual variables related to employee and volunteer retention from the lens of multiple tools and methods. However, no literature exists specifically examining the rural nonprofit culture factors on employee and volunteer retention from the perspective of Self-Determination Theory (Allan et al., 2016; Moran et al., 2012). Across motivation theory, the influence of the external environment and culture has produced consistent results (Allan et al., 2016; Kotter, 2012). E.L. Deci and Flaste (1996) specifically found that where people live, work, and socialize plays a significant role in their actions and decisions. Rural communities and nonprofit organizations both present unique complexities that alter individual and social perspectives on needs and priorities (Neuhoff & Duncelman, 2011). Persistent poverty, rising age, and a lower employable population, plague rural areas. Compared to urban areas, rural counties face a more complex battle between social service needs and available resources (Newstead & Wu, 2009).

The literature agrees that depending on environmental and cultural influences, an individual may relate differently to each of the three psychological needs represented by SDT: autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). In fact, more recent studies have leveraged SDT to explore the impact of culture on psychological need satisfaction (Allan et al., 2016; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; M. Okun & Schultz, 2003). Studies have affirmed a relationship with social culture and self-determination, but little work has been done to determine how social culture influences

self-determination indirectly through organizational culture (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009).

Summary

An organization cannot circumvent a problem without first identifying the underlying cause. Thus, before a nonprofit organization can implement retention strategy, the honest reasons for employee attrition and retention have to be obtained and used. The used is underscored because requesting feedback and failing to act on it can cause more harm than originally existed (Opportunity Knocks, 2010). In psychology literature, there is a great deal of discussion on maintaining relationships and building partnerships. In some cases, the split between employee and employer can easily resemble the ending of a marriage. Nonprofit organizations face the daily battle to maintain the spark in their employee and volunteer relationships (Daxton, 2014).

Studies in volunteer retention and in employee retention have separately arrived at similar conclusions (Jamison, 2003). However, no studies specifically examining volunteer and employee motivators simultaneously could be identified. Those studies examining volunteer or employee retention in an NPO did so unilaterally across a single moderating variable such as gender, age, race, or location. Therefore, the cross-study comparisons are not controlled by the same environment for both employees and volunteers. The literature does agree that altruism does not exist selflessly. In other words, there has to be some form of intrinsic motivation to prompt people to contribute for a sustained period of time either as an employee or volunteer (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985).

While NPOs operate with more limited resources and greater capacity demands than the for-profit businesses, the NPO economic contribution is proportionately more

significant (The Nonprofit Association of Oregon, 2014). In Oregon, the nonprofit sector combats widespread poverty, dispersed population density, and a rapidly growing aging population. The literature agrees that, what and how people value or perceive value can determine the number of job factors including performance, product quality, retention, and attrition. Thus, to do more with less requires NPOs to have a deeper understanding of the motivation factors for both employees and volunteers. As a result, the research focused specifically on the retention of volunteers and employees in an NPO remains an urgent opportunity.

Motivation theory, specifically Self-Determination Theory (SDT) can provide leaders of nonprofits invaluable insight into the reasons employees and volunteers choose to stay or leave an organization. Identifying the specific factors that connect employees and volunteers with an organization, the NPO can drastically reduce turnover cost and, in turn, better maximize resources to meet program demands. Throughout motivation theory, culture and social environment are consistently acknowledged as a major influence on a person's decision to act. Therefore, it is not enough to understand what motivates employees and volunteers, the social context in which they operate is equally important.

SDT research has leveraged questionnaires to survey specific populations within more narrow contexts (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004). The SDT studies have led to the development of a variety of motivational scales. The existing scales focus on specific population types such as students, elderly, and interpersonal. In contrast, situational and free choice motivational scales target individual perception rather than a population segment. Inventories such as Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation and Voluntary

Functions Inventory, leverage a questionnaire style method to evaluate the effects of social environment on motivation as well as the inverse relationship (Frye, 2012; Nencini et al., 2015). The literature review suggests there are no studies that concurrently examine VFI results to determine if there are relationships between employee retention and volunteer retention with SDT.

Studies aimed at improving talent retention and management have increased in recent decades. Human resource turnover has been readily acknowledged as a crippling expense to for-profit and nonprofit operations. Self-determination theory has been used to examine why or what motivates employees and volunteers separately. Likewise, nonprofit organizations have been separately studied from for-profit organizations. However, there remains a need to examine how, or if, nonprofit organizations can more efficiently target talent motivation across employees and volunteers simultaneously.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology and Design

Chapter 3 outlines the design of this study, research questions, study participants, data collection process, instrumentation used, and process to analyze the data. Functional motivation, which extends from the self-determination theory, is the most widely cited method for assessing volunteer motivators of retention (Clary et al., 1998; Kwok et al., 2013). Because the VFI focuses on volunteers it is designed to study an organizational culture that relies on non-paid human resources. The design of the study, instrumentation and data analysis revolves around the VFI to best accommodate the selected pool of participants.

The population for the study was comprised of the seven Area Agencies on Aging serving rural populated regions of Oregon. All but one agency serves areas entirely East of the Cascade Mountain Range. The geographic location is a significant factor in accessing urban resources. The geographic constraints and nonprofit agency status create a unique culture and environment to study the six Self-Determination motivation functions as well as the delivery format for the study.

A statistical t-test is used to analyze the information and determine if there are differences in the motivation functions of employees and volunteers. An examination of differences between age categories, agency location, gender, and length of service are also incorporated in the data analysis plan.

Study Design

Like the vast majority of prior studies using self-determination, this study leveraged a quantitative approach. The data was collected from a survey that incorporates questions from a previously vetted Self-Determination tool, the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). The VFI has been vetted to examine the volunteer population in a variety of nonprofit organizations. Kim, Zhang, & Connaughton (2010) altered the questions of the VFI to include a specific organization and tested the response accuracy from the added content.

The targeted respondents include a cross section of volunteers and employees from select Area Agencies on Aging (AAA). The AAA is a federally designated NPO providing social services to the aging demographic. This study focuses on a narrow and unique section of agencies that extend a majority of services to rural Oregon populations.

Because participants all contribute to a small rural organization, it is assumed privacy and confidentiality are important factors in divulging information. Therefore, the quantitative approach offered participants reassurance that the results would be collective rather than individualized. The study was designed to extend existing Self-Determination and NPO research to a narrow subset of rural nonprofits in Oregon.

Research Questions

- Q1. What functions of Self-Determination motivate employees and volunteers to serve rural Oregon nonprofit organizations?
- Q2. What are the differences in motivation between employees and volunteers of rural Oregon nonprofit organizations?
- Q3. Do any of the factors age, length of service, gender, or agency location differ in the Self-Determination functions that motivate employees and volunteers to serve rural Oregon nonprofit organizations?

Participants and Design

The study examined a group of organizations designated by the Federal Government as an Area Agency on Aging (agency). The selected agencies possess distinctive characteristics unique to nonprofit organizations. All agencies are designated by the federal government and follow uniform regulations, requirements, and structure nationwide. Therefore, a consistent backdrop supports the study of nonprofit organizations servicing the aging population. However, this study focused on a narrow and unique section of agencies that extend a majority of services to rural Oregon populations. While some variances existed within the selections of agencies, the overall structure, characteristics, and regulatory requirements remained relatively consistent. As a result, limitations from survey population variation were minimal.

Population and Sample

The study surveyed a selection of Oregon-based agencies shown in Table 1 – Area Agencies by Population and Area Density, that meet rural classification by percent of the population located in designated rural areas or by average density of population per

square mile served by the agency. Nine total agencies were selected, of which eight serve only rural populations. One, the Council on Aging of Central Oregon, serves three counties, one urban and two rural. The Council on Aging is incorporated in this study because the average population density is 25.8 people per square. The next highest population density is served by the Rogue Valley Council of Governments which is classified as all urban and has an average density of 63.7.

There is a clear delineation between agencies serving rural populations versus those dedicated to urban regions. Further, the density compared to population classified as rural indicates that the Council of Aging of Central Oregon serves a small geographic area with high density, but a majority of the service area is low, or rural population density. Because geographic barriers and population sparsity are prominent factors in this study, it is logical to include Council of Aging participants.

Table 1 - Area Agencies by Population and Area Density

Area Agency on Aging	Metro		Rural		Total	
	%	*P	%	*P	Avg Density	P
Harney County**	0%		100%	7,200	0.7	7,200
Malheur Council on Aging **	0%		100%	30,380	3.1	30,380
Community Connection of NE Oregon**	0%		100%	55,836	5.4	55,836
Klamath Basin Senior Citizens Council**	0%		100%	73,845	5.8	73,845
Mid-Columbia Council of Governments**	0%		100%	53,809	11.7	53,809
Community Action Program East**	0%		100%	87,721	14.6	87,721
Douglas County Senior & Disability**	0%		100%	107,685	21.0	107,685
South Coast Business Employment**	0%		100%	85,604	23.1	85,604
Council on Aging of Central Oregon**	80%	175,268	20%	44,296	25.8	219,564
Rogue Valley Council of Governments	100%	297,312	0%		63.7	297,312
Community Action Team	100%	49,600	0%		72.1	49,600
Oregon Cascades West	82%	208,119	18%	47,038	73.5	255,157
Lane Council of Governments	100%	362,895	0%		76.9	362,895
Northwest Senior & Disability Services	89%	512,750	11%	63,484	116.1	576,234
Clackamas County Social Services	100%	401,515	0%		213.7	401,515
Washington Co. Dept. of Disability	100%	574,326	0%		790.6	574,326
Multnomah County Aging & Disability	100%	790,294	0%		1697.0	790,294

*P= Population. Some agency names have been shortened. **Agencies designated as rural for this study

Preliminary demographic surveys were sent to the Director of each of the nine agencies identified above as rural. The initial survey asked each agency to identify the total number of paid employees, including management and leadership, and the total number of volunteers, including those volunteering for programs directly managed by or supporting the AAA.

Table 2 – Study Population shows the employee and volunteer totals for each agency responding to the initial survey. One agency, the South Coast Business Employment did not provide demographic information and did not participate in the study. Of the eight agencies joining the study, there were a total population of 988 to be surveyed, 22.4 percent employees and 78.2 percent volunteers. The target response rate was between 15 and 20 percent of the total population, or a minimum of 150 surveys collected. The diverse compilation of the workforce reflects the regulatory oversight, mission, vision, and values of the organization thus improving the validity of the participant pool.

Table 2 – Study Population

Agency	Population					
	E	% E	V	% V	Total	% Total
Central Oregon Council on Aging (COCOA)	17	7.7%	260	33.9%	277	28.0%
Klamath Basic Senior Citizens Council (KLCCA)	11	5.0%	18	2.3%	29	2.9%
Harney County Senior Citizen Services (HCSCS)	22	10.0%	40	5.2%	62	6.3%
Community Action Program East Central Oregon (CAPECO)	49	22.3%	25	3.3%	74	7.5%
Malheur Council on Aging & Community Services (MCACS)	29	13.2%	75	9.8%	104	10.5%
Community Connection of Northeast Oregon (CCNO)	85	38.6%	250	32.6%	335	33.9%
Douglas County Senior & Disability Services Division (DCS)	7	3.2%	100	13.0%	107	10.8%
Total	214		768		988	

**E = Employees. V= Volunteers. % of E and % of V = Percent of employees and volunteers compared to the total declared by all agencies*

Setting

The seven participating agencies are located in rural regions throughout Oregon. The Figure 12 - Area Agency Districts illustrate the home office location for each agency and the geographic area covered by agency services.

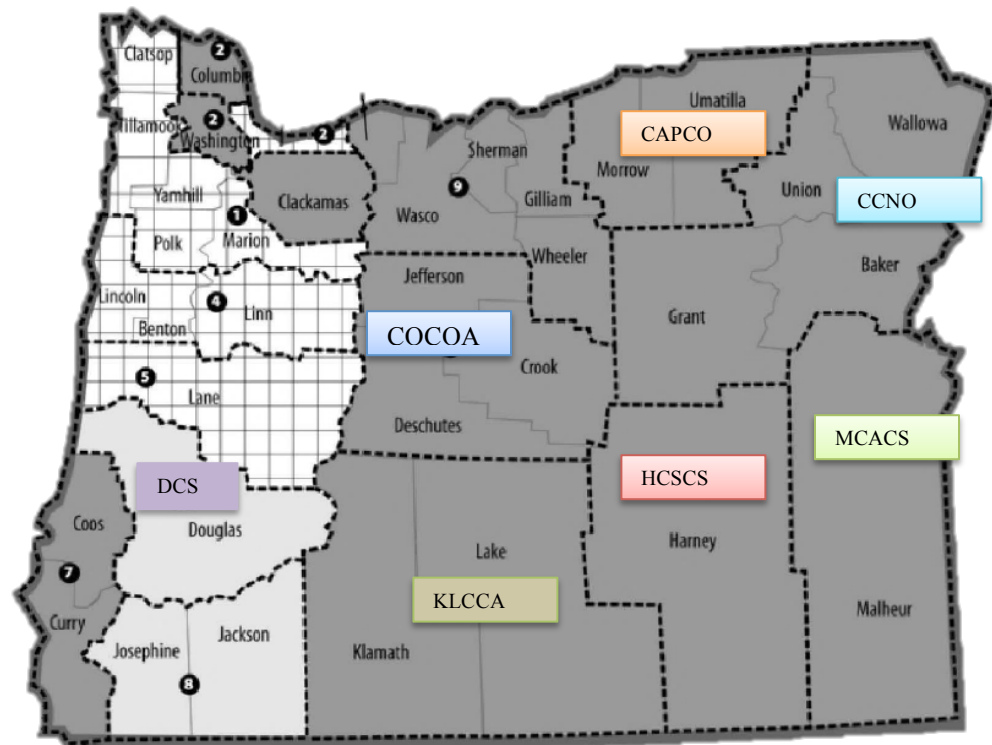


Figure 4 - Area Agency Districts (Watt, 2017, p. 3)

As shown in Figure 13 – Cascade Mountain Range, the largest geographical barrier for the studied agencies is the Cascade Mountain Range (Cascades). The Cascades effectively separate Eastern Oregon from the urbaner populated regions of Western Oregon. Six of the agencies studied are East of the Cascades. DCS is divided by the Cascades with services both East and West of the mountain range.

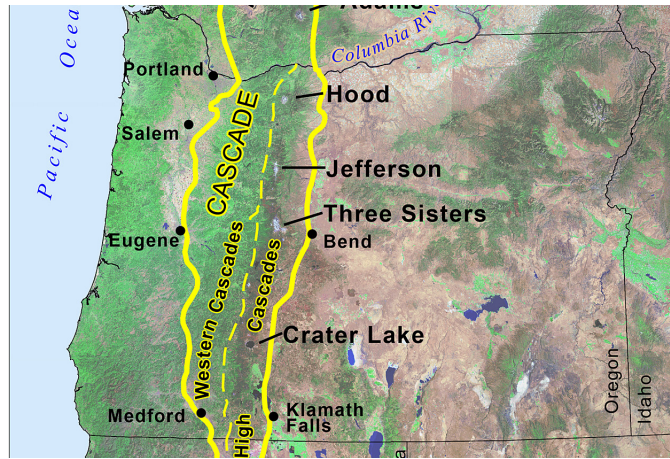


Figure 5 - Cascade Mountain Range

Based on population and county square mile data reported by National Association of Counties (2016), DCS has the smallest geographic area and the second highest population per square mile. The largest area in square miles is served by KLCCA. HCSCS has the smallest population per square mile and serves the fourth largest geographic area. In contrast, the Council on Aging of Central Oregon has the largest persons per square mile, but the third smallest geographic area.

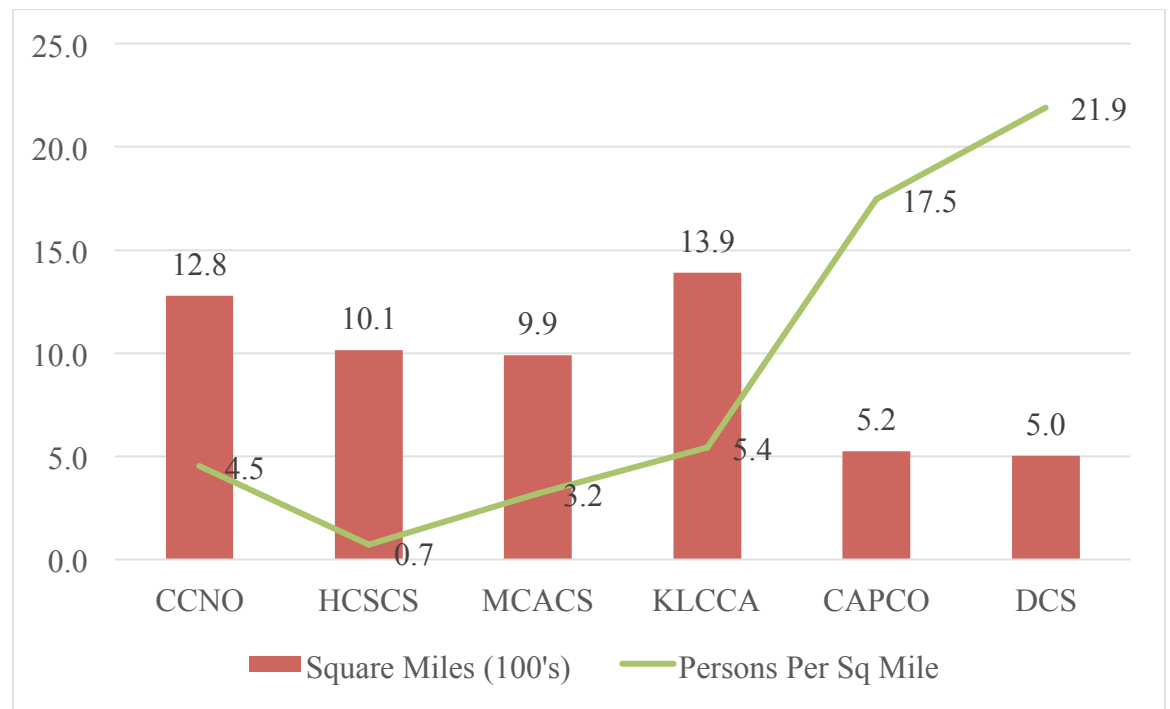


Figure 6 - Agency Size and Population

Assumptions and Limitations

One limitation of particular concern is the willingness of participants to be completely transparent in their survey responses. The small community and agency sizes may influence participants to withhold information for fear that the findings may be correlated with individual responses. The format of the study incorporates steps and processes to ensure response confidentiality. Further, because the study involves human subjects, a vetted communication plan including timing, style, and approach mitigated participant apprehension.

Additionally, because the participants range significantly in age and experience, the ability to complete the survey accurately becomes a concern for this study. Some participants may need to complete a paper version, while others are more comfortable with an electronic format. It is assumed utilizing different formats did not alter the actual response outcomes, but rather improve response rate.

Data Collection

Appendix A – Human Subjects Approval authorizes the collection of data from human participants. The Council on Aging of Central Oregon completed a demographic survey of volunteers and paid staff. Using this survey as an example of rural data collection results, there are three factors that could negatively affect response rate if not properly mitigated: technology, confidentiality, and geographically dispersed respondents.

The preliminary communication and introduction letter was sent to each Area Agency on Aging contact (Appendix E – Preliminary Communication) with a link to complete the initial demographic survey mentioned above. The initial survey also

indicated how each agency preferred to distribute participant surveys and provided authorization to conduct the study with employees and volunteers.

Based on information from the Bureau of Labor and Statistics, 2016, the researcher anticipated that more than one-third of the participants would be over the age of 55. According to the National Institute on Aging (2008), communication should accommodate the cognitive transition that occurs in late adulthood. Accommodations for this study included two delivery formats, age-appropriate typeface, and separated content with redundant instructions.

Electronic surveys were presented in four sections with the instructions for each section appearing at the top. The format reiterated the applicability of all questions to both volunteers and paid employees, thus mitigating the response error and improving instruction memory (National Institute on Aging, 2008). Similarly, paper surveys followed the guidelines for designing text for older adults and maintained a similar format as the electronic survey. Times New Roman, 14-point font improves legibility instruction retention (Appendix I – Survey Questions). Both the paper format and the electronic format were preceded with a cover letter (Appendix H – Instructions and Letter to Participants) explaining the study and the instructions to complete.

Rural AAA averaged a lower number of employees and volunteers than urban counterparts. Thus, participants may have feared disclosure of individual responses to leadership. Response anonymity was critical to mitigating employee and volunteer apprehension to disclose likelihood to separate from the organization. To prevent disclosure and still collect important demographic information, agency employees were not privy to the electronic responses and paper surveys were sent with a privacy envelope

to be sealed and mailed directly to the researcher. Google forms anonymous submission option, and the pre-addressed return envelopes also prevented the researcher from matching responses with respondent information.

Volunteers were geographically dispersed more than 100 miles around AAA offices. Due to geographic barriers, the researcher could not rely on every participant having access to a reliable internet connection to complete an electronic survey. To maximize outreach, the survey was delivered directly to each agency contact in two formats, online via Google Forms and paper delivered via United States Mail. Both the paper format and the electronic format included a cover letter (Appendix H – Instructions and Letter to Participants) explaining the study and the instructions to complete.

Instrumentation

The goal of this study is to identify similarities across the three fields of literature-volunteerism, employee retention, and rural NPOs. To bridge the functional research areas, the study utilized the Volunteer Factors Inventory (VFI) modified to fit both employee and volunteer responses.

The VFI incorporates 30 questions that examine the functional motives of individuals voluntarily contributing to a cause. The scale divides responses into six factors: Protective motives, Values, Career, Social, Understanding, and Enhancement. For each question, respondents identify how important each of the 30 reasons is for volunteering work. The survey uses a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (does not apply to me at all) to 7 (completely applies to me) (Clary et al., 1998).

The instrumentation and delivery method have both been thoroughly vetted and are relevant to the selected population. The VFI has been utilized in longitudinal and

cross-sectional studies (Erasmus & Morey, 2016; Kwok et al., 2013; M. A. Okun et al., 2014) and developed to identify general behavioral influences (Tremblay et al., 2009; Clary et al., 1998). Specific environmental contexts have been studied using the instruments for more than 15 years and have produced results consistent with the initial development (Erasmus & Morey, 2016; Kwok et al., 2013; M. A. Okun et al., 2014; S. L. Parker et al., 2010; Tremblay et al., 2009). The modification to incorporate the organization's name has also been vetted (Kim et al., 2010).

Clary et al (1998) developed the VFI to match individual motivational functions with volunteer opportunities (See Appendix A - Initial VFI Factor Loading). Development of the VFI included a preliminary study that identified key functional themes and ruled out statistically irrelevant questions. The study was validated three additional times under three different situations. Only factors +/- .30 were kept post validation (see Table 1). The process of developing and validating the VFI provided a clearer picture of the multitude of influences that motivate sustained altruistic behaviors (Clary et al., 1998). The initial study identified both disposition and situation affect individual behavior. Clary et al (1998) called for further research to specify the exact nature of joined influences. The data results from the initial VFI study maximized volunteer opportunities to benefit both NPOs and volunteers. Additional inquiry is needed to identify which of the identified opportunities exist under diverse influential applications (Clary et al., 1998; Jiranek, Kals, Humm, Strubel, & Wehner, 2013).

Since the initial development in 1998, the VFI has been adapted and used frequently across NPOs, for-profit organization, paid employees and volunteers (Clary et al., 1998; Hochstetler, n.d.; Jiranek et al., 2013). The VFI follows the Self-determination

theory in a functional approach to assessing the motives of volunteers. Therefore, the questions stress self-oriented aspects and do not balance with other-oriented concepts and influences (Jiranek et al., 2013). See Appendix B - VFI Initial Factor Loading.

Brayley, Obst, White, Lewis, Warburton, & Spencer (2014) utilized the VFI to explore the motivations to volunteer with skilled retirees. Brayley, et.al. (2014) found that all of the motivation scales were moderate to highly reliable with Cronbach alphas ranging from .86 to .92. Wu, Lo, & Liu (2009) used a principal component factor analysis with oblique rotation to evaluate the reliability of the 30 items comprising the six motivation functions. The Kaiser Criterion and screen test both determined all six factors were reliable. The reliability alpha ranged from .70 to .91 (Wu, et.al., 2009).

Kim et al., (2010) modified the VFI questions to specifically address contributions to a single program. Testing the reliability of the modified questions, Kim et al., (2010) also found that the Cronbach Alpha reliability score exceeded .70 for each of the six dimensions, ranging from .75 to .82. The Kim et.al. (2010) findings are particularly relevant because this study similarly modifies the questions for the AAAs and incorporates both employees and volunteers by replacing the word “volunteer” with “serve”. It is thus concluded that survey modification to include agency name does not alter the reliability of the data collected.

Data Analysis

The initial data analysis categorized the survey respondents by age range, gender, volunteer versus employee, length of service, and agency. The descriptive statistics addressed the generalizability of the study as well as the volume and fit of the data

collected for the models used. The demographic data collected was converted to numerical identifiers and entered into SPSS for analysis.

The second group of questions (Appendix I – Survey Questions) includes the modified VFI scale. The VFI questions use a 7-point Likert scale. All factors are positively scored with the exception of Understanding. Table 3 – VFI Factor Scoring shows the questions included for each factor and the positive or negative scoring model. All survey results were entered into SPSS and the individual questions for each factor were summed and averaged for a total factor score.

Table 3 - VFI Factor Scoring

Factor	Scoring	Questions
Enhancement	+	5, 13, 26, 27, 29
Career	+	1, 10, 15, 21, 28
Social	+	2, 4, 6, 17, 23
Values	+	3, 8, 16, 19, 22
Protective	+	7, 9, 11, 20, 24
Understanding	-	12, 14, 18, 25, 30

The Chronbach's alpha baseline 0.90, was used to measure and assess the reliability of the VFI questions (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). Next, two model were used to evaluate the primary and secondary findings. The means statistic compares the mean results for each VFI factor against the other study variables. The survey means were analyzed based on the ranges shown in Table 4 - Likert Scale Ranges. Means greater than 4.5 were deemed an applicable motivator. Means below 3.5 were deemed a non-motivator or detractor. Between 3.5 and 3.9 were neutral responses that somewhat do not apply. Between 4.1 and 4.5 are neutral responses that somewhat apply.

Table 4 - Likert Scale Ranges

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Completely Does Not Apply	Mostly Does Not Apply	Somewhat Does Not Apply	Neutral	Somewhat Applies	Mostly Applies	Completely Applies



Second, the t-test cross examined the mean results for the employee and volunteer categories to determine if there were any differences or similarities between the outcomes. The .05 alpha level of significance was selected to test the three research questions stated above. The .05 level is the standard acceptable level of significance in social science research (McCall, 1970). The level of significance is designated by Sig (2-tailed).

Chapter 4

Research Results

Chapter 4 details the results of data analysis post-collection. This chapter focuses on the data reliability and statistical t-test outcomes. The results are listed by motivation function, agency, age group, length of service with the organization, and gender. The six self-determination motivation functions examined include career, enhancement, values, social, protective, and understanding. The population and sample estimates are based on the seven agencies shown in Table 1 - Area Agencies by Population and Area Density. All results identify agencies by the short-name. In total, volunteers represent approximately 78 percent of the total population, while employees make up the remaining 22 percent.

The survey data collected was analyzed against the research questions using the statistical t-test method and means summary. First, the Chronbach's Alpha model was used to determine data reliability. Second, a simple test for Skewness was run to interpret the level of skew of the results from a normal distribution. The primary analysis, the t-test, was used to determine whether there was a significant difference between the mean results of two independent groups, such as the employee and volunteer population in this study (Lewin, 1979). The means breakdown of the remaining demographic information, age range, gender, location, and length of service, provide a basis for comparison with the t-test results and highlight any other potential influences on

motivation. The study findings and results have been derived from the statistical outcomes as applied to the sample population.

Participants

Surveys were sent electronically to the specified contact for each agency. If requested in the preliminary survey, paper copies of the survey questions were also mailed to the agency contact. Table 4 – Survey Response rate shows the number of responses for each agency by an employee, volunteer, and total respondents. The responding employees and volunteers are compared with the total population reported by each agency in the preliminary data.

Employees had the highest response rate at 36.9 percent compared to the volunteer rate of 11.5 percent. This is likely due to the geographical disbursement of volunteers relative to the central office location for each agency. The total response rate of 17.1 percent falls within the response of 10 to 20 percent previously deemed acceptable.

Table 5 - Survey Response Rate

Agency	Received				Total	% of All
	E	% of E	V	% of V		
COACO	9	52.9%	37	14.2%	46	16.6%
KLCCA	11	100.0%	7	38.9%	18	78.3%
HCSCS	9	40.9%	7	17.5%	16	25.8%
CAPECO	10	20.4%	5	20.0%	15	20.3%
MCACS	11	37.9%	5	6.7%	16	15.4%
CCNO	20	23.5%	14	5.6%	34	10.1%
DCS	7	100.0%	13	13.0%	20	18.7%
None Selected	2 --		1 --		3 --	
Total	79	36.9%	89	11.6%	168	17.1%

**E = Employees. V= Volunteers. % of E and % of V = Percent of employees and volunteers responding compared to the total number of employees and volunteers declared by the agency in Table _____. Total % of E and V = The percentage of all employees and volunteers responding across all agencies.*

Participants were asked to complete three demographic questions for comparison including, age range, gender, and length of service to the AAA. Table 5 – Demographic Responses indicates the overall number and percentage of employee, volunteer, and total respondents segmented into the categories of age, gender, and length of service.

Age. The age category 56 – 65 years was highest for employees at 32.9% and the 66 – 75 age group was highest for volunteers at 42.7%. In total, 57.8% of the participants were between the ages of 56 and 75 years old. Age categories 16 – 25 and 26 – 35 were combined (< 35) to maintain meaningful $N > 10$. Age categories 76 – 85 and 86+ were also combined (> 75) to ensure $N > 10$.

Gender. The female respondents were highest for both employee and volunteers. Out of the total surveys received 72% were female and 26.8% were male.

Length of Service. 27.8% of employees have served the AAA for 1 – 2 years and 23.6% of volunteers have served the AAA for 5 to 10 years. In total, 78% of the participants have served the AAA for more than one year.

Table 6 - Demographic Responses

	Employees	% of Employees	Volunteers	% of Volunteers	Total Received	% of Total
Age						
16 - 25	3	3.8%	1	1.1%	4	2.4%
26 - 35	9	11.4%	3	3.4%	12	7.1%
36 - 45	14	17.7%	2	2.2%	16	9.5%
46 - 55	16	20.3%	2	2.2%	18	10.7%
56 - 65	26	32.9%	22	24.7%	48	28.6%
66 - 75	11	13.9%	38	42.7%	49	29.2%
76 - 85		0.0%	18	20.2%	18	10.7%
86 +		0.0%	2	2.2%	2	1.2%
None Selected			1	1.1%	1	0.6%
Gender						
Female	62	78.5%	59	66.3%	121	72.0%

Male	16	20.3%	29	32.6%	45	26.8%
None Selected		0.0%	1	1.1%	1	0.6%
Prefer not to say	1	1.3%		0.0%	1	0.6%
Years with AAA						
< 6 months	3	3.8%	11	12.4%	14	8.3%
6 - 12 months	6	7.6%	15	16.9%	21	12.5%
1 - 2 years	22	27.8%	13	14.6%	35	20.8%
10 + years	16	20.3%	12	13.5%	28	16.7%
3 - 4 years	14	17.7%	16	18.0%	30	17.9%
5 - 10 years	17	21.5%	21	23.6%	38	22.6%
None Selected	1	1.3%	1	1.1%	2	1.2%
Total Response Population						
	79	47.0%	89	53.0%	168	100.0%

Data Reliability

A Chronbach's alpha was used to measure and assess the reliability of the VFI questions. The Chronbach's alpha correlates the score for each of the 30 VFI questions with the total score for each participant response and compares the correlation to the variance for all individual scores (Gliem & Gliem, 2003; University of Virginia Library, 2017). Table 6 - Reliability of Coefficients shows that the responses to the 30 Likert-scale questions are internally consistent with an alpha of .935. According to Gliem & Gliem (2003), an alpha of 0.9 or greater signifies an excellent range of consistency.

Table 7 - Reliability of Coefficients

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.935	0.935	30

Second, a simple test for Skewness was run to interpret the level of skew to the right or left of the normal distribution each variable was. The skew statistic was divided by the standard error to determine the level of skew for each variable. In all cases, the

threshold of ± 1.96 is used (Rose, Spinks, & Isabel Canhoto, 2014). Visual representation is shown for any values larger than the threshold.

Table 8 - Skewness Test

	Cases				
	N	Mean	Skewness		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Skew
Role	168	1.53	-0.120	0.187	-0.642
Gender	167	1.26	0.888	0.188	4.729**
Service	168	3.80	-0.300	0.187	-1.602
Age	167	3.9461	-0.609	0.188	-3.241**
Career	168	4.4048	-0.419	0.187	-2.239**
Enhance	168	3.7500	0.026	0.187	0.141
Social	168	3.6488	0.101	0.187	0.537
Values	168	4.2857	-0.327	0.187	-1.748
Protective	168	5.2798	-1.060	0.187	-5.660**
Understanding	166	4.2771	-0.191	0.188	-1.013
Valid N	164				

**Significant skew +/- 1.96

As shown below, gender is skewed to the right of the woman with the mean weighted heavily with woman respondents. Additionally, the combined age categories are skewed to the left of the mean which is weighted with the higher number of respondents over the age of 55.

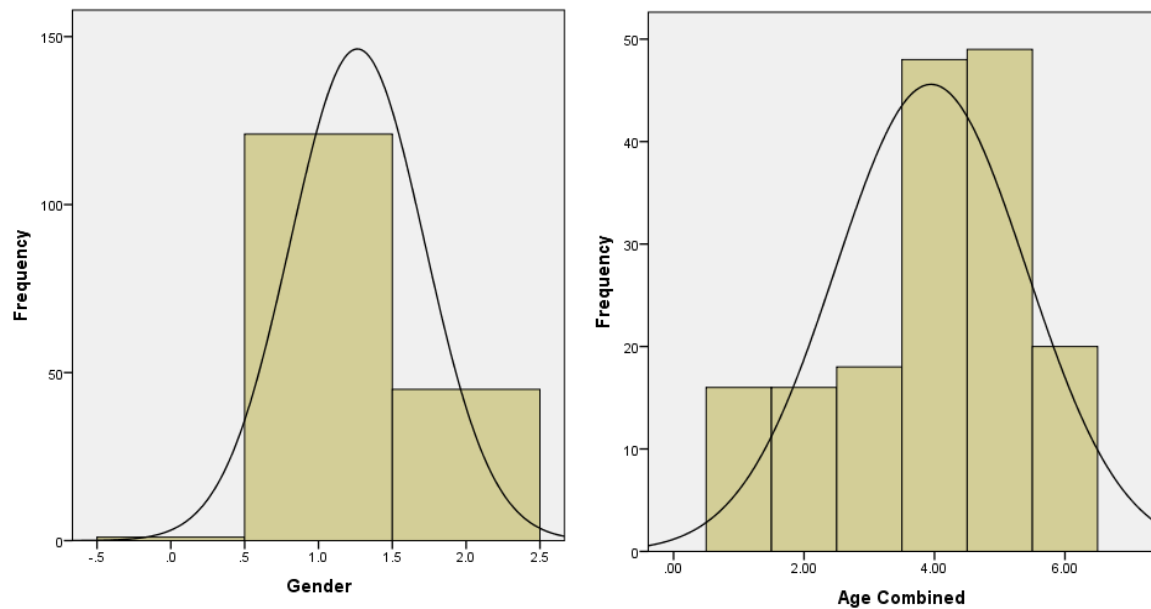


Figure 7 - Gender and Age Skew

Figure 16 – Career and Protective Skew illustrates the actual results relative to the normative curve for each of the two variables. As shown there is a large right-hand skew in the protective category with the mean weighted by the frequency of scores above 6. The career category is skewed to the left with the normative curve weighted by the number of scores above 4.

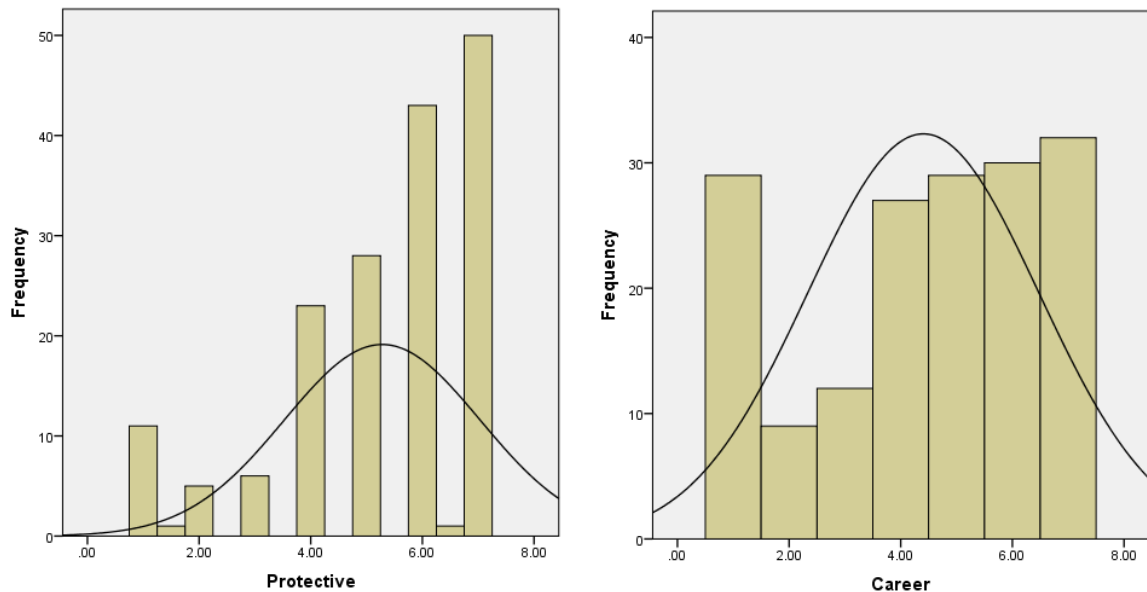


Figure 8 - Protective and Career Skew

The skewness test does not conclude the interrelatedness of variables or indicate a cause and effect of variances. Rather, the skewness test highlights which variables are significantly different from the study responses (Rose et al., 2014).

Research Questions

The cross-data analysis is driven by the three research questions listed below. A t-test method is used to first compare the mean scores for each of the motivation function separately by volunteer and employee responses. The volunteer and employee categories are then combined to determine if there are any consistencies in the mean scores for each motivation function. The last set tests use a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to compare mean scores for each function with the demographic categories age, gender,

length of service, and location of the agency to determine if there are any outliers skewing the volunteer and employee comparisons.

- Q1. What functions of Self-Determination motivate employees and volunteers to serve rural Oregon nonprofit organizations?
- Q2. What are the differences in motivation between employees and volunteers of rural Oregon nonprofit organizations?
- Q3. Do any of the factors age, length of service, gender, or agency location differ in the Self-Determination functions that motivate employees and volunteers to serve rural Oregon nonprofit organizations?

Volunteer and Employee Results

The independent samples t-test draws on three basic assumptions: independent observations, normality, and homogeneity. Each entry into SPSS represents a different participant, thus the assumption for independent observations is met. Second, the normality assumption does not apply because the sample size is greater than 25 ($N = 168$). Last, the standard deviation of our dependent variable must be equal to both employees and volunteers if, and only if our sample size is sharply unequal. In this study, volunteers represent 53.0 percent compared to employees at 47.0 percent of the total population. Thus, the difference in population size does not require the test for homogeneity.

T-Test Results

The .05 alpha level of significance was selected to test the three research questions stated above. The .05 level is the standard acceptable level of significance in social science research (McCall, 1970). The level of significance is designated by Sig (2-

tailed). The computed statistic t indicates which group has a significantly higher mean value (Yeager, 2017). A positive t value indicates the mean score for the first group, employees, is significantly higher than the mean value for volunteers. The inverse, a negative t value indicates employees have a significantly lower mean value than volunteers. A t score is significant at $+/- 2.06$ (Yeager, 2017). The sign for mean difference corresponds with the sign for t and indicates the higher or lower separation between groups (Yeager, 2017).

Table 9 - t-test for equality of means

Motivation Function	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Career	2.34	166.00	0.020**	0.74	0.32
Enhance	2.42	166.00	0.017**	0.81	0.33
Social	0.81	166.00	0.418	0.28	0.35
Values	-0.12	166.00	0.904	-0.04	0.31
Protective	1.77	166.00	0.079	0.48	0.27
Understanding	-5.70	164.00	0.000**	-1.11	0.20

**Significant at $p < .05$

Career. The T-Test for Career as a motivation factor for employees and volunteers concludes that the mean scores do differ, $t(166) = 2.34$, $p = 0.020$. There is a 1.9% probability that the sample mean for volunteers will equal the sample mean for employees. Equal means for Career is rejected. The employee means the score is an average of 0.74 points higher than the mean score for volunteers.

Enhance. The result of the T-Test for Enhances as a motivation function for employees and volunteers concludes that the mean scores for volunteers and employees do differ $t(166) = 2.42$, $p = .017$. There is a 1.7% probability that the sample mean for volunteers will equal the sample mean for employees. Equal means for Enhance is

rejected. The mean score for employees is an average of 0.81 points higher than the mean score for volunteers.

Social. The T-Test for Social concludes that the mean scores for employees and volunteers do not differ, $t(166) = 0.81$, $p = .418$. There is a high probability that the value placed on Social as a functional motivator by employees are not significantly different for employees than for volunteers. Equal means for Social is not rejected.

Values. The T-Test for Values concludes that the mean scores for employees and volunteers are equal, $t(166) = -0.12$, $p = .904$. There is an extremely high probability that Values as a functional motivator is not significantly different for employees than for volunteers. Equal means for Values is not rejected.

Protective. The T-Test for Protective as a motivation function for employees and volunteers concludes that the mean scores do not differ, $t(166) = 1.796$, $p = .079$. There is a low probability (7.4%) that the mean scores for Protective as a motivation function with employees will not differ from the scores for Protective with volunteers. However, the probability is too high to reject equal population means. Equal means for Protective is not rejected.

Understanding. The T-Test for Understanding concludes that the mean scores for volunteers and employees differ, $t(164) = -5.70$, $p = .000$. The equal means for Understanding is rejected. The mean score for employees is an average of 1.11 points less than the mean score for volunteers.

Mean Comparisons

Based on the Independent Samples T-Test, three motivation functions, Career, Enhance, and Understanding, differ in sample means across employees and volunteers.

The total sample means for Career suggests that Employees find Careers as a functional motivator more applicable than volunteers. Both employees and volunteers find Enhance only slightly applicable to their motivation to serve. However, Volunteers place far less value on Enhance than employees. The largest difference between employees and volunteers is with Understanding. Understanding is the only motivation function reverse scored. Therefore, volunteers scored Understanding as somewhat applicable as a motivation to serve, while employees scored understood is somewhat inapplicable as a motivation to serve.

The remaining three motivation functions, Social, Values, and Protective do not differ across employees and volunteers. Both employees and volunteers scored Social, Values, and Protective motivation functions similarly. The highest total mean is Protective at 5.28. Employees and volunteers similarly find Protective a highly applicable motivation function. The lowest mean 3.65 is Social. Employees and volunteers did not score Social as a motivator to serve the AAA but scored Protective as somewhat to mostly applies as a motivator to serve the AAA.

Table 10 – Volunteer and Employee Means Comparison

Role	Career	Enhance	Social**	Values**	Protective**	Understanding
Employee	4.80	4.18	3.80	4.27	5.53	3.69
Volunteer	4.06	3.37	3.52	4.30	5.06	4.81
Total	4.40	3.75	3.65	4.29	5.28	4.28

**No statistical difference across group means

Additional Findings

A paired samples t-test was used to assess each motivation function across respondent demographic categories of agency location, age range, length of service and gender. Scores were removed for no selection made.

Agency

The ANOVA test for agency location and motivation function found no statistical basis that there is a difference in mean scores by agency location. Therefore, the study rejects agency location as statistically relevant to the research question findings.

Table 11 – Agency ANOVA Results

Function * Agency		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Career * Agency	Between Groups	18.54	7	2.65	0.605	0.751
	Within Groups	699.94	160	4.38		
	Total	718.48	167			
Enhance * Agency	Between Groups	41.54	7	5.93	1.249	0.279
	Within Groups	759.96	160	4.75		
	Total	801.50	167			
Social * Agency	Between Groups	31.17	7	4.45	0.887	0.518
	Within Groups	803.11	160	5.02		
	Total	834.28	167			
Values * Agency	Between Groups	44.88	7	6.41	1.64	0.128
	Within Groups	625.41	160	3.91		
	Total	670.29	167			
Protective * Agency	Between Groups	22.77	7	3.25	1.063	0.39
	Within Groups	489.58	160	3.06		
	Total	512.35	167			
Understanding * Agency	Between Groups	19.69	7	2.81	1.518	0.165
	Within Groups	292.76	158	1.85		
	Total	312.45	165			

Age

The ANOVA for age and motivation function indicates that there is a statistical basis to relate age with variations in the mean scores of the motivation functions enhance and understanding.

Table 12 - Age ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Career * Age	Between Groups	36.26	5.00	7.25	1.741	0.128
	Within Groups	670.55	161.00	4.16		
	Total	706.81	166.00			
Enhance * Age	Between Groups	53.36	5.00	10.67	2.297	0.048**
	Within Groups	748.08	161.00	4.65		
	Total	801.44	166.00			
Social * Age	Between Groups	18.00	5.00	3.60	0.716	0.612
	Within Groups	809.22	161.00	5.03		
	Total	827.22	166.00			
Values * Age	Between Groups	12.47	5.00	2.49	0.620	0.684
	Within Groups	646.96	161.00	4.02		
	Total	659.43	166.00			
Protective * Age	Between Groups	7.88	5.00	1.58	0.503	0.774
	Within Groups	504.39	161.00	3.13		
	Total	512.27	166.00			
Understanding * Age	Between Groups	51.70	5.00	10.34	6.308	0.000**
	Within Groups	260.65	159.00	1.64		
	Total	312.35	164.00			

** Significant at $p < .05$

The age category for 35 and under had the highest mean for enhancement and the lowest mean for understanding. The same age group had the least standard deviation across responses within that group for both enhance and understanding.

Table 13 - Age Means Comparison

Report		Enhance		Understanding	
Age	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean	Std Deviation
< 35	16	5.4	1.7	2.8	1.1
36 - 45	16	3.6	2.2	4.0	1.3
46 - 55	18	3.9	2.1	4.0	1.4
56 - 65	48	3.6	2.2	4.4	1.4
66 - 75	49	3.4	2.0	4.6	1.1
> 75	20	3.6	2.6	4.9	1.4
Total	167	3.7	2.2	4.3	1.4

Gender

The ANOVA results for motivation function means by gender showed that only two functions, career and understanding are statistically different across gender categories.

Table 14 - Gender ANOVA Results

ANOVA Table		Sum of		Mean		
		Squares	df	Square	F	Sig.
Career * Gender	Between Groups	42.01	2.00	21.00	5.107	0.007**
	Within Groups	674.49	164.00	4.11		
	Total	716.49	166.00			
Enhance * Gender	Between Groups	25.97	2.00	12.99	2.757	0.066
	Within Groups	772.44	164.00	4.71		
	Total	798.42	166.00			
Social * Gender	Between Groups	25.20	2.00	12.60	2.563	0.080
	Within Groups	806.34	164.00	4.92		
	Total	831.54	166.00			
Values * Gender	Between Groups	12.74	2.00	6.37	1.589	0.207
	Within Groups	657.46	164.00	4.01		
	Total	670.20	166.00			
Protective * Gender	Between Groups	13.77	2.00	6.89	2.279	0.106
	Within Groups	495.60	164.00	3.02		
	Total	509.37	166.00			
Understanding * Gender	Between Groups	19.21	2.00	9.60	5.320	0.006**
	Within Groups	292.47	162.00	1.81		
	Total	311.68	164.00			

**Significant at $p < .05$

The means comparison confirms that the mean results for the male respondents in career were lower than the total career mean. Furthermore, the mean result for the male respondents in understanding is higher than the total mean for understanding. The standard deviation for understanding is the same for both male and female respondents, but the deviation for career is higher than the female deviation and the total deviation.

Table 15 - Gender Means Comparison

Gender	N	Career		Understanding	
		Mean	Std Deviation	Mean	Std Deviation
Female	121	4.7	2.0	4.1	1.3
Male	45	3.7	2.2	4.8	1.3
Total	167	4.4	2.1	4.3	1.4

Length of Service

The ANOVA test for length of service and motivation function found no statistical basis that there is a difference in mean scores categorized by length of service. Therefore, the study rejects length of service as statistically relevant to the research question findings.

Table 16 - ANOVA Results Length of Service

ANOVA Table

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Career * Service	Between Groups	44.14	6.00	7.36	1.757	0.111
	Within Groups	674.33	161.00	4.19		
	Total	718.48	167.00			
Enhance * Service	Between Groups	48.81	6.00	8.13	1.740	0.115
	Within Groups	752.69	161.00	4.68		
	Total	801.50	167.00			
Social * Service	Between Groups	21.57	6.00	3.59	0.712	0.640
	Within Groups	812.71	161.00	5.05		
	Total	834.28	167.00			
Values * Service	Between Groups	24.65	6.00	4.11	1.024	0.411
	Within Groups	645.64	161.00	4.01		
	Total	670.29	167.00			
Protective * Service	Between Groups	33.26	6.00	5.54	1.863	0.090
	Within Groups	479.09	161.00	2.98		
	Total	512.35	167.00			
Understanding * Service	Between Groups	11.46	6.00	1.91	1.009	0.422
	Within Groups	301.00	159.00	1.89		
	Total	312.45	165.00			

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusions

The discussion and conclusions draw upon the Introduction, Literature Review, Study, and Results to analyze the results of the hypotheses tests and evaluate the statistical outcomes.

Motivation theory has progressed through literature from early identification of physiological needs to the equal inclusion of psychological needs. Self-Determination theory provided the framework for this study to understand how external and internal factors influence the choice employees and volunteers make to engage in or continue service with rural Oregon Area Agencies on Aging, a group of nonprofit agencies designated by government policy to provide resources and services to the aging population.

Prior research has consistently held the positive outcomes of self-determination. Employees and volunteers have been the focus of separate studies incorporating intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors to determine how or what leads classifications of individuals to make the choice to stay or leave an organization (E. L. Deci & Ryan, 2004; Olafsen et al., 2015; Treuren & Frankish, 2014). However, no research could be found that connected the motivations to volunteer with the motivations to work for a nonprofit organization. Thus, the focus of this study was to determine if employees and volunteers

are similarly motivated to work within the constraints of a nonprofit organization in rural Oregon.

Financial remuneration, the largest difference between employee and volunteer roles, has received considerable attention in employee motivation research. Studies have consistently held that pay itself does not attract or detract employee behavior, rather other extrinsic and intrinsic motivation functions play a more significant role in why individuals choose to work for a particular organization (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Olafsen et al., 2015). Additionally, pay level more closely aligns to industry and geographic location than for-profit or not-for-profit organization status (Butler, 2009). Therefore, pay was not a necessary focus to study the similarities and dissimilarities in motivation functions between employees and volunteers.

The Volunteer Function Inventory has traditionally been used to survey just volunteer motivations. However, this study utilized the VFI to examine the functions of motivation for employees and volunteers in the rural Oregon AAAs. The VFI separates intrinsic motivation into six functions: Career, Enhance, Social, Values, Protective, and Understanding. Research utilizing the VFI has identified a number of variables positively and negatively motivating individuals to volunteer with a nonprofit organization including, age, gender, religious affiliation, and others (Allen, 2013; Clary et al., 1998; Clary, E. Gil & Snyder, 1999; Dwyer et al., 2013). This study modified the VFI to accommodate both employees and volunteers and determine if there are any similar motivations to contribute to a nonprofit organization between the two groups.

Discussion

Self-Determination is the motivation theory that individuals tend to behave in a way that reflects intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors (E. L. Deci, 1984). According to SDT, people are motivated to satisfy psychological needs with the same fervor as physiological needs (Nencini et al., 2015). Functional motivation, a subset to SDT, classifies psychological motivation into six motivation functions: Values, Understanding, Social, Career, Protective, and Enhancement. The six motivation functions guide the three hypotheses for this study. A review of Self-Determination literature found no existing study that examined the six motivation functions in employees and volunteers simultaneously.

The study results determined that there are differences in why employees choose to work for a nonprofit and why volunteers choose to contribute service. More specifically, the needs of the communities served by the AAA seem to influence overall outcomes by functional motivator rather than the differences between employees and volunteers. In fact, two demographic categories are immediately ruled out as having no significant differences between population means agency location and length of service. Thus, the following discussion omits agency location and length of service as relevant to the identified differences.

Career

Career stems from the value of the experience gained from service relative to the career goals of the individual. The career function assumes the participants are within the working demographic and thus have career oriented aspirations. For this reason, career is often excluded from VFI studies focusing on an older or non-career oriented population

(Erasmus & Morey, 2016; Kwok et al., 2013; M. A. Okun et al., 2014). This study examined an age range encompassing employable and non-employable individuals as well as paid employees and non-paid volunteers. Thus, the career function helps to identify how career aptitudes differ between employees and volunteers.

The t-test for Career supported that employees and volunteers are dissimilar in the value attributed to Career as a motivation to serve an AAA. As could be expected, employees and volunteers differ in the career category. Specifically, the employee means score was 4.80, an average of .74 points higher than the volunteer scores. Ferreira, T. Proenca, J. Proenca (2012) found that career recognition specifically influences an individual's extrinsic satisfaction. However, similar to this study, Ferreira, et. al. (2012), concluded that career has a significantly low value relative to the other motivational functions.

As previously mentioned, prior research often eliminates the career function when the population is not within the working age below 60 years old (Erasmus & Morey, 2016; Kwok et al., 2013; M. A. Okun et al., 2014, Lewis, et.al., 2014). However, this study found that eliminating the career function based on the age of participants is too presumptive. In fact, the ANOVA test found that there was not a significant difference in mean scores by age. Therefore, career should be included in functional motivation studies regardless of participant age range.

Literature has found that the lower population of rural communities leads to higher competition for employment opportunities. This study found that employees are somewhat motivated by career which is further supported by the competitive job environment of rural communities. Moreover, regardless of population and community

location, women are at a significant disadvantage to men in the job market. According to “Global Employment Trends for Women”, (2012), the gender gap in unemployment is approximately 0.7 percentage points, up from 0.5 percentage points in 2007. Therefore, it is no surprise that there was a significant difference in the mean career score for this study between gender groups. In fact, the mean career score for women was 27% higher than the mean score for men and women reported career as a motivator while men did not.

Enhancement

Enhancement is the functional premise that individuals seek satisfaction from personal growth or improved self-esteem (Phillips & Phillips, 2010). It is particularly important to note that enhancement is the counter to the protective function which serves to eliminate negative self-image (Clary et al., 1998). The results of this study found that enhancement is significantly different between employees and volunteers. The mean score for employees is an average of 0.81 points higher than the mean score for volunteers. Employees scored above neutral indicating that enhancement is a motivator to work for an AAA while volunteers scored below neutral in the range of somewhat not a motivator.

The study results for enhancement indicate significant differences between age groups, but not in gender. All age groups 36 years-old and above indicated enhancement is not a meaningful motivation to serve. However, volunteers and employees age 35 and below reported the enhancement function is a prominent motivation to serve an AAA. That said, the age group in this study for 35 years-old and younger represents 9.5% of the total sample, but only 4.5% of the volunteer population compared to 15.2% of the

employee population. This is not particularly unusual as the working demographic is considered under the age of 60 (Brayley, et.al. 2014).

Prior research findings also support that age range is likely a greater determinant of the differences in the enhancement function than the employee versus volunteer. A study in youth sports volunteerism had a mean score of 4.9 for understanding.

Conversely, the mean score for understanding in a study of retiree volunteers was 3.3.

Compared with the findings from this study, enhancement varies more by age category than by role within the organization.

Social

The social function derives from the satisfaction individuals feel when completing a socially favorable activity or engaging with others who share similar values and beliefs (Clary et al., 1998). Nencini et al., (2015) argues that one of the most important factors of a sustained relationship in the nonprofit sector is social support. In fact, social support has been positively related to volunteer commitment in older people (Nencini et al., 2015). Interestingly, this study found that the social factor is not a significant motivator for employees and volunteers alike. Furthermore, there were no significant differences found in age or gender population categories. The results suggest that the population examined in this study may be influenced by other variables or that social factors are mediated by the full context of the individuals studied (Allan et al., 2016, E. Deci & Ryan, 1985).

As previously noted, the social context in which employees and volunteers operate is equally important to understand the individual motivation functions (Allan et al., 2016). The total social environment incorporates all of the cultural patterns,

influences, and experiences individuals must cope with, adjust, and respond to (Smith, 1956). More clearly restated, individuals may not relate social ideals or approval as a motivation to volunteer or work for an organization because the collective culture is one which is more intrinsically motivated than extrinsically motivated (E. Deci & Ryan, 1985).

In fact, similar studies using the VFI have also found that social is not a motivation to volunteer or serve an organization (Brayley et al., 2014; Ferreira, Proenca, & Proenca, 2012; Wu, Wing Lo, & Liu, 2009). Since culture results from the socialization of shared values (Mintzberg et al., 2005), the study indicates that the geographic separation of the population influences the weight of the social function of employee and volunteer motivation. In fact, role identity which stems from research in the for-profit sector has been shown to have a direct connection between the degree of contribution and the likelihood to leave an organization (Nencini et al., 2015). The importance of self-identification to volunteer and employee satisfaction in the nonprofit sector helps to explain the lack of motivation from social perspectives.

Values

The isolation of rural communities fosters a unique culture influenced by its socioeconomic conditions. Sparse population is paired with consistent poverty, lower education, lower employment opportunities, and a higher aging population (Korff, et al., 2015, Newstead & Wu, 2009, Drucker, 1990). Rural culture also influences organizational climate, the collective values, opinions, and actions within an organization (Nencini et al., 2015).

According to Clary et al., (1998), activities completed out of concern for others is often the most significant distinction between volunteer and employee motivation to complete an activity. Shared altruistic or humanitarian concern is the most frequently cited predictor of volunteer motivation (Phillips & Phillips, 2010). This study concluded that the functional motivator values are not significantly different between employees and volunteers. Furthermore, shared values do not significantly differ across other demographic categories such as age and gender.

The consistency of values across demographics and job role is also supported by prior VFI studies. The values function is consistently held across research, and in this study, as a significant motivation to serve. However, the level of motivation may be influenced by other factors such as geographic location. In this study, values had a mean score of 4.3 suggesting participants are neutral to values as a motivation function. In prior studies values most often had a mean score above 5.0, applicable as a motivation function.

The key conclusion to the values function is the component of shared altruistic or humanitarian concern. Like social, volunteerism is more driving by self-identification and intrinsic value. Wide geographic disbursement effectively prevents employees and volunteers from developing shared concern, rather it is can be concluded that individual value for altruistic needs is more relevant in the rural context. The similar responses across demographic variables and job roles infer rural culture, is a significant link in perspectives of the studied population.

Protective

Germain (1991) argued that the natural or non-human environment has profound effects on human relatedness. The isolation of rural communities contributes to individual self-realization and personal identity. Rural isolation and environment conditions enhance and foster a deeper appreciation for other human beings (Germain, 1990). In line with personal identity and self-realization, ego defense (Katz, 1960) and externalization (Smith, 1956) are foundational elements of motivation that center on positive self-reflection.

In previous studies, volunteers indicated servitude alleviates or reduce the guilt felt over the disparity of others. Easing the misfortune of others serves to protect contributors from personal problems and negative self-image (Clary et al., 1998). Unlike values, protective is the intrinsic feeling that comes from altruistic activities. In fact, the overall mean score for protective was 5.3, compared to 4.3 for values.

The Protective results for this study concludes that employees and volunteers do not significantly differ related to Protective as a motivation function. Protective did not vary across age groups or gender as well. This study also indicates that protective is the most significant motivation for service to AAAs regardless of job role, gender, age, or other demographics. In fact, all categories had a mean score above 5.0 suggesting that protective is a significant motivation to serve.

Interestingly, most prior studies have resulted in mean scores below neutral for protective. This comparison highlights the age of the sample for this study and the type of population served by the AAAs. More specific, the largest sample population, 69.7% for this study were over the age of 56 years-old. The AAAs service demographic are

individuals over the age of 60 years-old. Thus, it can be concluded that identification with those served by the agency is a significant influence on the protective motivation to alleviate the disparity.

Understanding

The research concludes that volunteers, particularly in the service industry, expect to gain new knowledge and understanding from the volunteer experience (Clary et al., 1998). By volunteering in the social service sector, individuals have the opportunity to utilize skills and talents that might otherwise go untapped (Clary, E. Gil & Snyder, 1999). Similarly, studies show employees are more likely to engage with an organization that fosters ongoing learning and development (Ankli & Palliam, 2012). This study concludes that understanding is not similar for employees and volunteers. In fact, volunteer results agree with prior literature that new understanding is a marginal motivator to serve. While prior research in employee motivation reports motivation from learning and development, this study did not find that that ability to use and gain new skills is a significant motivation for employees to serve a rural nonprofit agency.

The t-test results indicated there is a significant difference between employees and volunteers in the value attributed to understanding as a motivation function. In fact, employees scored Understanding as the lowest functional motivator, just below neutral indicating it does not apply as a functional motivator. Conversely, volunteers scored Understanding as the second highest motivation to serve.

Understanding was also significantly different across age groups and gender. Like enhancement, the age separation in mean scores for understanding was at the 35 and under group. Age 36 and above scored at or slightly over neutral with regard to

understanding as a motivation function. However, the 35 and under population had the lowest mean score of any motivation function suggesting enhancement is actually a detractor to the age group. The gender gap was not as large as the age gap in mean scores. Specifically, men scored understanding as a motivator, but women were more neutral to the function. In both age and gender, the higher scoring population is comprised mostly of volunteers. Based on these findings, it is concluded that a majority of the variance between employees and volunteers can actually be attributed to age and gender demographics of the two groups.

Summary

The AAAs participating in this study provide resources and services to a specific aging population within rural communities. The results of this study indicate that the population served acts as a significant motivator to serve with both employees and volunteers. Furthermore, statements made directly by the employees and volunteers largely identify with similar values and the feeling of “doing good”.

The six individual motivation functions, Career, Enhancement, Social, Values, Protective, and Understanding, represented by the VFI categorize the influences on choice. The independent samples t-test was used to analyze the six categories within the context of the three research questions.

- Q1. What functions of Self-Determination motivate employees and volunteers to serve rural Oregon nonprofit organizations?

Volunteerism is justifiably rising in research importance. Volunteering employers and enriches the lives of the volunteers and the service recipients (Dwyer et al., 2013; Kwok et al., 2013). Prior research has shown that organizational fit and fulfillment from

service duties play a significant role in the length and frequency individual volunteers (Nencini et al., 2015). Research also agrees that motives and effects of volunteering vary across life stages, community environment, gender, and other demographics (Kwok et al., 2013; M.A. Okun et al., 2014). Specifically, the VFI has been used to identify how or why volunteerism is influenced by a variety of demographic constraints (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Kwok et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2009, Ferreira et al., 2012; Brayley et al., 2014).

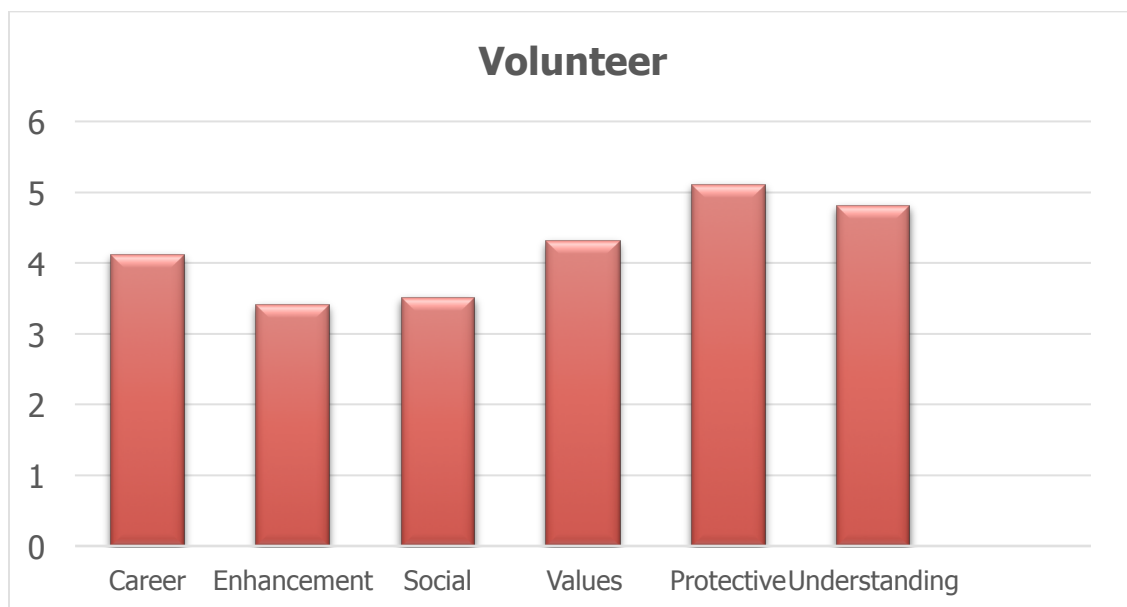
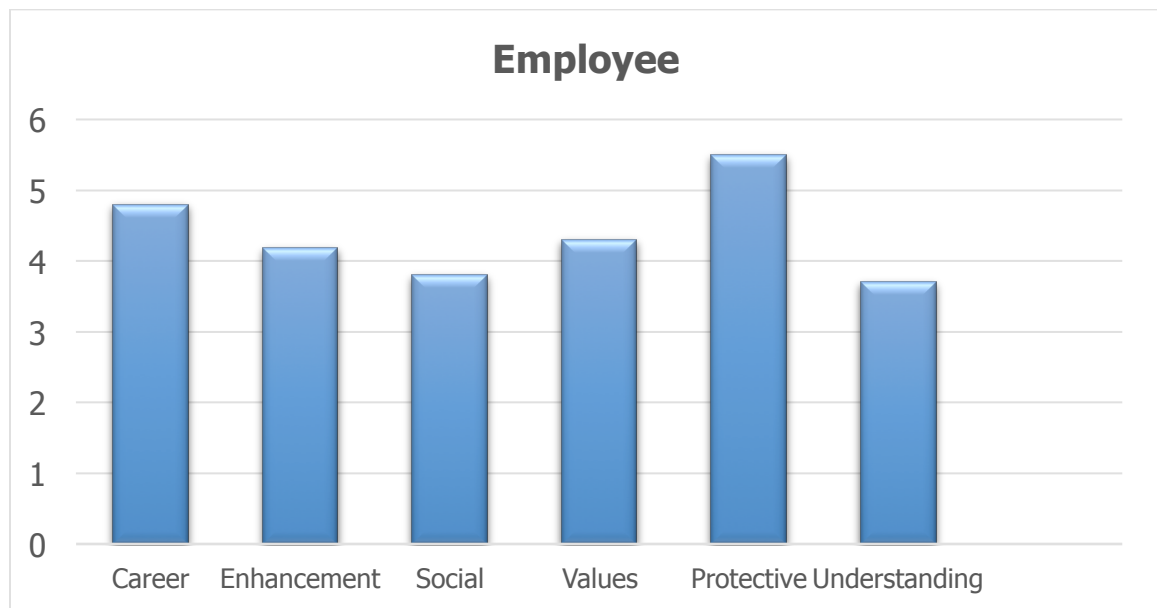


Figure 9 - Volunteer Motivation Functions

This study agrees with prior findings that easing the misfortune of others leads to volunteers feeling less burdened by personal problems and negative self-image. Within volunteer responses, the protective function scored the highest. In fact, protective was the only motivator with a mean score above 5.0, indicating mostly applies to the population.

Volunteers also identified with understanding as a motivator to serve the AAA. Prior research found that opportunities to use skills and gain new knowledge are

important to volunteers, particularly in the health and mental health programs (Clary, E. Gil & Snyder, 1999). Since the Area Agencies on Aging provide social welfare services to the aging population, it is not surprising that the protective function is a significant motivation to volunteer for the AAAs.

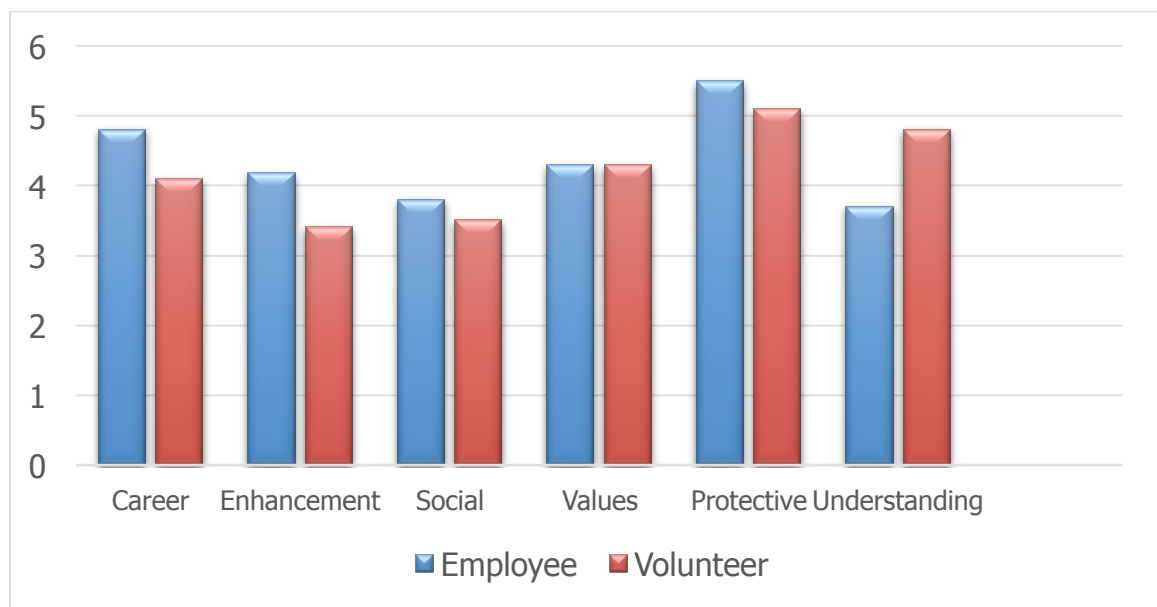


Prior research asserts that individuals seeking employment in the NPO sector most often do so out of a desire to serve others, increased personal development, and learn through work opportunities (Selden & Sowa, 2015; Word & Park, 2015). However, in the last decade, employers have experienced a multi-generational talent pool. As a result, what motivates employees to choose or continue to work for an NPO vastly differs even within geographical boundaries (Johnson & Ng, 2015).

Like volunteers, employees participating in this study also identified most with the protective motivation function. The protective function was the only function with a mean score above 5. The score for protective suggests an alignment with the average age of employees participating in the study.

Employees ranked career second with a mean score of 4.8. Career recognition is the need for an individual to seek satisfaction from an extrinsic source. As a government designated nonprofit organization, experiences gained by employees could be perceived as avenues to a variety of career options such as nonprofit, social service, government services, and healthcare.

Q2. What are the differences in motivation between employees and volunteers of rural Oregon nonprofit organizations?



The independent samples t-test reveals three motivation functions, Social, Values, and Protective have equal means between volunteers and employees. Both employees and volunteers positively identify with Values and Protective as functional motivation to serve the AAA. The most significant motivator for both employees and volunteers is Protective. Easing the misfortune of others alleviates individuals from personal problems and negative self-image. By volunteering or working for an AAA, individuals comparatively weight personal burden with the needs of those being served. The AAAs

participating in the study serve a uniquely despair population of elderly adults living in sparsely populated communities with high levels of poverty.

Though only slightly, employees and volunteers similarly identified with the Values function as well. The concern and expression of shared altruistic or humanitarian concern also align with the findings for Protective. In short, employees and volunteers for the rural Oregon AAAs express shared a concern for rural elderly populations and feel a reprieve from personal problems by focusing on the needs of those served by the agencies.

In contrast, employees and volunteers similarly failed to identify with Social motivators. While shared humanitarian values and community protection equally motivate employees and volunteers, the social perspective of the contributions is not a significant factor in the choice to work or volunteer for an AAA.

Employees and volunteers differed in the values for Career, Enhancement, and Understanding. Employees aligned with Career and Enhancement, while Volunteers identified with Understanding. In each of the three functions, Career, Enhancement, and Understanding, employees and volunteers deviated significantly and presented opposing value on the motivation functions.

Q3. Do any of the factors age, length of service, gender, or agency location differ in the Self-Determination functions that motivate employees and volunteers to serve rural Oregon nonprofit organizations?

The literature agrees that depending on environmental and cultural influences, an individual may relate differently to psychological needs and motivations (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). Furthermore, rural communities and nonprofit organizations both

present unique complexities and constraints that can and do alter individual and social perspectives on psychological needs and motivations (Neuhoff & Dunkelman, 2011).

The ANOVA tests for the length of service and agency location did not present any significant differences between category groups. It can thus be inferred that the culturally bound population studied has like perspectives on motivation to serve the AAA and length of services are determined by factors other than motivation.

Prior studies examining age and motivation to volunteer have found that older adults are more likely to volunteer for social services and over a longer period of time (M. Okun & Schultz, 2003). Age has been the focus of motivation studies in both the volunteer and the employee role, in nonprofit and for-profit sectors (M. Okun & Schultz, 2003; Brayley et al., 2014). The one-way ANOVA for age and motivation functions resulted in just two functions that presented with significant differences across age groups: understanding and enhancement. Specifically, the 35 and under age group were motivated by the enhancement function, while all other age groups were either neutral or enhancement was more of a detractor to serve. The opposite effect is seen in the understanding function with the 35 and under age group having a mean score below 4.0 and all other age groups scoring between 4.01 and 5.0. These findings agree with prior research that motivation functions change with life experience and age. Additionally, one function can contradict the motivations of another function as is the case with enhancement and understanding reversed in age groups.

“Global Employment Trends for Woman”, International Labor Organization (2012) points to an increasing trend in career focused woman across the world. The gap between men and women in the workforce in volume and remuneration fosters a

competitive environment that increases career focus for women (International Labor Organization, 2012). Therefore, it is no surprise that there was a significant difference in career orientation as a motivation between men and women. Thus it is a logical conclusion that women are motivated by career orientations, while men are more neutral and even slightly detracted by career.

As previously stated career, enhancement, and understanding are the only three functions to differ between employees and volunteers. Understanding is the only motivation function to present differences in all three groups, job role, age, and gender. These findings suggest that understanding is influenced by multiple variables and supersedes cultural influence. Inversely, career differences in job role appear to be more affected by the ratio of men to women as opposed to the job role. Likewise, the differences in enhancement as a motivator are more likely related to age than job role.

Limitations

The limitations of this study arise from the method used, study population, and quantitative analysis technique applied to the data. The purpose of this study was to understand the differences in the motivations of nonprofit employees and volunteers.

The survey methodology provides an effective measure to quantify social attitudes and behaviors (Creswell, 2009). The survey method is also a benefit to studying large populations across wide-spread geographic regions without exorbitant costs and time (Creswell, 2009). Quantifying attitudes in sparsely located study population called for the benefits of the survey method.

The survey method used was not without limitations. The surveys were delivered via paper and electronically through Google forms. Participants self-administered the

survey which did not allow for clarification or interpretation of questions and available response options. Additionally, paper surveys could not require participants to answer all questions. All surveys and communication to the participants were forwarded by the individual designated as the point contact for each agency. The researcher provided each agency point person with communication templates and included the letter of explanation at the front of each paper survey and the beginning of the electronic survey. However, the consistency, timing, and frequency of communication to the participants cannot be accurately measured. As a result, the null effect from delivery and messaging must be assumed.

The lower response rate (N=168) could affect the generalizability of the results. The collection period could have been extended to gather additional responses, but this would have extended the cost and time for the study. Prior studies in motivation self-determination and talent motivation have affirmed accuracy from populations less than 200 (Millette & Gagné, 2008; Olafsen et al., 2015; Parker et al., 2010).

The study used a quota sampling method with a target response set at 10 percent of the total population reported by all participating agencies. Because agencies reported estimated employee and volunteer numbers, there was not a precise baseline population to measure from. Quota sampling based on the entire estimated population limited the ability to draw statistical inferences when the population of any demographic category fell below 10. As noted in chapter 4, two such sample groups were identified in the age category. To protect the accuracy of statistical conclusions, the 16 to 25-year-old group and the over 85 years-old group were combined with the next highest and lowest age

bracket respectively. Because the groups were combined, some erosion to the representativeness of the group may have occurred.

The data was collected for this study at a single point in time, which does not include any effect from seasonal, political, or other changes occurring over a longer period of time. A longitudinal study would have addressed the singular time frame but would have again added substantial time and cost.

This study was delimited to focus on employees and volunteers of Area Agencies on Aging in rural Oregon. There are several factors which were not accounted for in the survey outcomes. AAAs are government designated nonprofit organizations. The AAA culture is a blend of NPO, government agencies, and rural organizations. While the specific nature of the study populations limits the results and interpretations, it also provides for very specific practical implications discussed below.

Practical Implications

Recent economic conditions have not only constrained available resources for nonprofit and for-profit organizations alike; there is also a heightened sensitivity to the financial costs and loss of service level associated with human resource turnover (Gronlund, 2010; Kuo et al., 2012; Jamison, 2003). Heavy reliance on government and philanthropical funding forces NPOs to lean heavily on volunteer contributions. As a result, when turnover occurs in an NPO, the remaining employees and volunteers become increasingly strained and less productive resulting in fewer services and labor resources (Selden & Sowa, 2015). It is generally accepted and acknowledged that NPOs must maintain a diligent focus on retaining talent, both employees and volunteers, to minimize turnover costs and maximize program outreach (Schoshinski, 2013; Skinner &

Rosenberg, 2006). Moreover, greater program needs and geographic constraints create additional layers of complexity for organizations serving sparsely populated areas (Neuhoff & Dunckelman, 2011; Newstead & Wu, 2009). Traditionally, rural counties suffer from increased poverty, lower employment rates, and higher social service needs per capita than urban and suburban counties (Economic Research Service, 2016).

Motivation theory, specifically Self-Determination Theory (SDT) has led to valuable insight into the motives of employees and volunteers in NPOs (C. Kang et al., 2015; Selden & Sowa, 2015). The results of this study offer a specific understanding about the motivations of employees and volunteers in rural Oregon nonprofit organizations. By finding which motivation factors are contradictory across employees and volunteers, rural organizations can avoid implementing talent retention and attraction programs that will effectively target one job role while detracting the other.

Similar studies have examined contradictory motivations such as remuneration and tangible gifts and awards and found that an extrinsic reward can ultimately decrease intrinsic motivation and thus decrease self-determination (Jensen & Murphy, 1990; Treuren & Frankish, 2014; E. Deci & Ryan, 1985). To support effective human resource recruitment and retention needs an alignment between talent motivation and reward type. More specifically, effective talent management in the NPO sector requires a three-way alignment between volunteer motivation, employee motivation, and organizational rewards (Ankli & Palliam, 2012; Phillips & Phillips, 2010).

It is not enough to address the motivation functions that attract employees and volunteers, caution must be taken with the motivation functions that detract employee and volunteer servitude. As pointed out in this study, there are differences found between

volunteer and employee motivation in the career, enhancement, and understanding functions. Recruitment and retention strategies aimed at motivating human resources through career goals, promotion of self-enhancement opportunities, or prospective growth in understanding could limit or detract from one job function over another. For example, focusing on a career may motivate female employees, but would deter all volunteers and male employees. Similarly, understanding would motivate volunteers to stay, but could drive away or detract employees.

The motivation similarities and differences between employees and volunteers are equally important to productivity and community service level as it is to attracting talent in sparsely populated regions. Mitigating human resource turnover is key for an NPO to operate as efficiently and effectively as possible (C. Kang et al., 2015; H.-H. Kang & Liu, 2014; Opportunity Knocks, 2010). Moreover, rural NPOs suffer from increased service needs, less charitable gifts, and a lower employable population to recruit from (Opportunity Knocks, 2010; The Nonprofit Association of Oregon, 2014). Targeting motivation functions similar in employees and volunteers and across other demographic variables narrows the focus and cost of talent recruitment and retention strategies. Highlighting the motivation functions of a culture with which the NPO operates in, gives clear direction to recruit from a limited pool of talent.

The findings from this study highlight the specific differences between older adults and the employable population in rural Oregon. Specifically, the enhancement and understanding functions have opposing motives based on age. Recruitment and retention programs offering employees and volunteers with on-the-job training, personal growth, and increased responsibilities would be attractive to people under the age of 35.

However, the same recruitment and retention practices will detour and even push away the employees and volunteers over the age of 36, and even more specifically, the older adult population. This could be a useful approach if the agency seeks to diversify the generational workforce. However, given that the population of older adults is higher in rural Oregon, agencies would ultimately repel the largest talent pool (The Nonprofit Association of Oregon, 2014).

In the case of the agencies taking part in this study, protectiveness equally motivates employees and volunteers across demographic variables such as age, location, and gender as well. Prior literature has showed several incentives and actions organizations can take to advantageously use protective behaviors. One such finding is the incentive to influence policy or regulation that would provide greater resources for the protected population (Quirk, 2014). In other words, promoting the agency influence on policy and reform for programs aimed at serving the rural elderly population could effectively entice volunteers and employees for rural Oregon AAAs to begin or continue contribution.

Moreover “many gerontologists believe that the protective effects of volunteering are especially valuable to older adults because of the role loss they are likely to be experiencing” (Musick & Wilson, 2007, p. 503). From the perspective of Musick & Wilson (2007), volunteering rejuvenates a sense of usefulness for older adults no longer considered employable. Employment provides people with a sense of productive contribution to the welfare of community overall. In rural Oregon, unemployment, poverty, and aging populations are the highest (The Nonprofit Association of Oregon, 2014). Like older adults, unemployed working-age adults may also suffer from a sense

of uselessness and failure to prevent the downward economic spiral in the community. Thus, rural Oregon AAAs can use the satisfaction gained by contributing to the overall welfare of the community to both paid and non-paid staff. One such example is quantifying the value of the labor contributed either in number of people served, dollars saved, or hours spent. Acknowledging and rewarding employees and volunteers based on the value of services gained by the community can effectively enhance the psychological health and perspective for the otherwise unemployed or unemployable.

Narrowing the focus on those motivation functions that similarly attract volunteers and employees across age groups, gender, and other demographics not only aids in talent retention, but minimizes the cost of talent as well. Rural nonprofit organizations can thus maximize human resource retention in both employees and volunteers, without contradicting efforts by detracting an age group or gender. This study points to protective as the leading motivator across the demographic categories including employee and volunteer job functions. Thus, focusing on the value of protecting the community members through servitude will lead to a decrease in cost of talent and increase in services provided.

Further Research

Major theories of motivation have evolved and branched into a more specific understanding of how or why people do what they do (E.L. Deci & Flaste, 1996). However, prior to this study, literature had not yet examined the differences between employees and volunteers within the same geographical and organizational structure. Future research would benefit from examining the differences and similarities between

employees and volunteers with other forces or pressures that influence human action and motivation.

This study focused on rural Oregon nonprofit organizations. Future research should be conducted to determine if similar findings arise out of an urban or suburban environment, or rural organizations nationwide. Furthermore, the organization studied is a government designated organization with a uniquely specific structure and governance. Ongoing research should be done to ascertain if the findings can be generalized to rural private and government appointed nonprofit organizations.

Conclusion

Mitigating human resource turnover and attracting top talent from a limited pool of employable resources continue to challenge rural nonprofit organizations. At the same time, the very conditions that challenge rural nonprofits also increase community need and demand for services. Thus, effective and efficient operations require diligent attention to human resource needs, wants and motivations (C. Kang et al., 2015; H.-H. Kang & Liu, 2014; Opportunity Knocks, 2010). Using the Volunteer Functions Inventory, a survey tool vetted through Self-Determination and motivation research, this study sought to understand the differences and similarities between employee and volunteer motivation. Rural nonprofit organizations can better target retention and attraction strategies by understanding which motivation functions will attract or detract employees or volunteers, and which motivation strategies can maximize human resources.

As a specific example, the rural AAA talent retention and attraction would benefit from calling to the satisfaction of serving and protecting the community. Often

misunderstood is the volunteer desire to socialize through volunteer activities. However, in this study, social perception or social networking opportunities do not significantly motivate rural volunteerism. Rather, both employees and volunteers for rural AAAs seem to empathize with a demographic of people that are similar in age and location, but without means.

This study brought closure to the gap in motivational research that had previously focused only on employees or volunteers or omitted the geographical and cultural constraints facing rural Oregon NPOs. However, there is continued need to understand how to leverage human resource motivation to improve agency performance and maximize program outreach.

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Appendix A - Human Subjects Review Approval

GEORGE FOX UNIVERSITY
HSRC INITIAL REVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE
Page 6

Title:

Self Determination and Retention: Motivation Similarities and Dismilarities

in Employees and Volunteers in Rural Oregon No-Profit Oregons

Principal

Researcher(s): Nicole Richman

Date application completed: _____


COMMITTEE FINDING:

Yes 1) The proposed research makes adequate provision for safeguarding the health and dignity of the subjects and is therefore approved.

_____ 2) Due to the assessment of risk being questionable or being subject to change, the research must be periodically reviewed by the HRSC on a _____ basis throughout the course of the research or until otherwise notified. This requires resubmission of this form, with updated information, for each periodic review.

_____ 3) The proposed research evidences some unnecessary risk to participants and therefore must be revised to remedy the following specific area(s) of non-compliance:

_____ 4) The proposed research contains serious and potentially damaging risks to subjects and is therefore not approved.

Chair or designated member  Dirk Barram-PhD

Date April 24, 2017

Appendix B - VFI Factor Loading

VFI scale and items		Factor					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
1 – Protective							
7	No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.	.53					
9	By volunteering, I feel less lonely.	.63					
11	Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others	.43					
20	Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.	.72					
24	Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	.78					
2 – Values							
3	I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself		.63				
8	I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving		.64				
16	I feel compassion toward people in need		.72				
19	I feel it is important to help others.		.7				
22	I can do something for a cause that is important to me.		.62				
3 – Career							
1	Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.			.83			
10	I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.			.85			
15	Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.			.68			
21	Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession			.73			
28	Volunteering experience will look good on my resume			.68			
4 – Social							
2	My friends volunteer				.58		
4	People I'm close to want me to volunteer.				.59		
6	People I know share an interest in community service				.7		
17	Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.				.9		
23	Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.				.8		
(5) Understanding							
12	I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.					-.43	
14	Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.					-.56	
18	Volunteering lets me learn things through direct hands-on experience					-.64	
25	I can learn how to deal with a variety of people					-.65	
30	I can explore my own strengths					-.82	
(6) Enhancement							
5	Volunteering makes me feel important.						-.62
13	Volunteering increases my self-esteem						-.75
26	Volunteering makes me feel needed.						-.64
27	Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.						-.77
29	Volunteering is a way to make new friends.					-.42	

Appendix C - Oregon Demographics**Population Density by County Type**

County Type	Square Miles		Population		Density
	%	Total	%	Total	Avg
Non-Metro / Rural	78.02%	76759.45	16.30%	656898	13
Metro / Urban	21.98%	21626.27	83.70%	3372079	288

Table 4 - Population density by county type

Employment Industry by Population

Industry	Metro / Urban		Non-Metro / Rural		Oregon	
	P*	%	P*	%	P*	%
Farm		0.0%	14,228	2.2%	14,228	0.3%
Government	418,272	12.4%	78,384	11.9%	496,656	12.3%
Manufacturing	694,873	20.6%		0.0%	694,873	17.2%
Non-Specialized	2,083,666	61.8%	385,283	58.7%	2,468,949	61.3%
Recreation	175,268	5.2%	179,003	27.3%	354,271	8.8%

Table 5 - Industry by population P* = Total Population

Appendix D - Permission to Use and Modify VFI

From: Mark Snyder <msnyder@umn.edu>
Sent: Friday, April 28, 2017 3:25 PM
To: Nicole Richman
Subject: Re: Permission to Use - Volunteer Functions Inventory

Dear Nicole,

Thanks for writing to us about your research, and your interest in including the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) in it.

You have our permission to include the VFI in your dissertation research on motivations of employees and volunteers of rural nonprofit organization in Oregon. Making slight modifications to the wording of the VFI items so that they can refer both to employees and volunteers seems reasonable to us.

We wish you well with your research, and hope that you will keep us informed about your findings.

Sincerely,
Mark Snyder

Mark Snyder
McKnight Presidential Chair in Psychology
Director, Center for the Study of the Individual and Society
University of Minnesota
75 East River Road
Minneapolis, MN 55455

(612) 625-1507 (voice)
(612) 626-2079 (fax)
msnyder@umn.edu (e-mail)

On Thu, Apr 27, 2017 at 1:16 PM, Nicole Richman <nrichman12@georgefox.edu> wrote:
Good Afternoon:

I am a doctoral candidate for George Fox University in Newberg Oregon. I am presently working on my dissertation "Self-Determination and Retention: Similarities and Dissimilarities in the Motivation Functions of Employees and Volunteers of Rural Oregon Nonprofit Organizations". I would like to use the volunteer functions to correlate similarities and dissimilarities across paid employees and volunteers for the rural Area Agencies on Aging.

The study would require replacing the word "Volunteer" so that the questions apply to both volunteers and employees. Modeling after another study the injected the name of the organization into the question I plan to use "Serving a Nonprofit" or "Serving the Area Agency on Aging" in place of volunteer.

Thank you for publishing the VFI for use. However, I wanted to respect your work and obtain your permission to modify the tool as mentioned above to conduct the research for my dissertation. I respect any thoughts, concerns, or comments you may have and appreciate your response.

Truly,
Nicole Richman, DBA(c)
George Fox University
Doctoral Candidate
(503) 501-8232

Appendix E - Preliminary Communication

[Contact Name], [Position]

[Agency Name]

I am a doctoral candidate with George Fox University Doctorate of Business Administration program. I am currently in the final stages of my dissertation research work and hope to engage rural Oregon Area Agencies on Aging in my study.

What does this mean?

I encourage you to read about my study below and ask you to grant permission for your agency to participate in the web survey. The permission can be granted through the attached link which asks a few preliminary questions regarding the agency.

What is the timeline?

- I am asking for the preliminary information and permission to participate to be completed by May 15, 2017.
 - Please [click here](#) to submit information and permission for [Agency Name] to participate
- Once the preliminary information is compiled I will release the survey with instructions to the agency contact for distribution to each employee and volunteer. The target date to release the survey is May 22, 2017.
- I will also forward a reminder communication and report the total number of surveys received from your agency on June 5, 2017.
- My target is a 75% response rate, based on the preliminary number of employees and volunteers reported, received by June 12, 2017.

What is the study?

The purpose of this study is to investigate what motivates volunteers and employees to serve in rural nonprofit organizations. Specifically, the proposed study will focus on Area Agencies on Aging based in rural Oregon. AAAs provide social welfare services to the aging population. The selected AAAs experience the same or similar constraints as other nonprofits and rural human services organizations. The goal of the proposed study is to gain insight and understanding of employee and volunteer retention motivation through the lens of self-determination. The proposed study will add to the bodies of knowledge in employee and volunteer retention, rural nonprofit operations, and other areas of human motivation. Specifically, the study will provide valuable information to AAAs to maximize efficiency, minimize resource loss, and improve human service effectiveness.

You may see a preview of the questions included in the survey here: [Study Preview](#)

Why?

I live in a rural county in Northern Oregon. I treasure the people and gifts that my community has to offer. I also know that the rural nature also limits the availability of resources needed to meet the increased need of the people. I hope to provide valuable information to rural nonprofit organizations so that limited resources can be maximized to provide the most effective assistance to our communities.

What Next?

Please submit **Preliminary Information and Permission** by **May 15, 2017**. Please feel free to contact me (below) with any questions or for additional information on the study or my program.

Thank you!

Nicole Richman, DBA(c)
George Fox University
nrichman12@georgefox.edu
Cell: (503) 501-8232

Appendix F - Preliminary Survey Questions

Appendix G - Participating Agencies

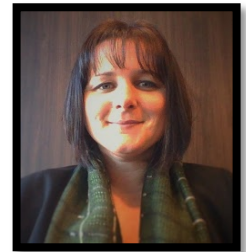
AAA	Counties	Employee	Volunteer
Community Action Program East Central Oregon - CAPECO	Morrow Umatilla	15	66
Community Connection of Northeast Oregon	Baker Grant Union Wallowa	25	470
Douglas County Senior & Disability Services Division	Douglas	16	101
Harney County	Harney	11	76
Klamath Basin Senior Citizens Council	Klamath Lake		
Malheur Council on Aging & Community Services	Malheur Hood		
Mid-Columbia Council of Governments	River Sherman Wasco		
South Coast Business Employment	Coos Curry		
Council on Aging of Central Oregon	Crook Deschutes Jefferson		

*Incorporates the results of the preliminary survey.

Appendix H - Instructions and Participant Letter**Nicole Richman, DBA(c)**

George Fox University

(503)501-8232

nrichman12@georgefox.edu

I am a doctoral candidate with George Fox University Doctorate of Business Administration program. I am currently in the final stages of my dissertation research work and hope to engage rural Oregon Area Agencies on Aging in my study.

I live and raise my family in a rural county in Northern Oregon. I treasure the people and gifts that my community has to offer. I also know that the rural nature also limits the availability of resources needed to meet the increased need of the people. I hope to provide valuable information to rural non-profit organizations so that limited resources can be maximized to provide the most effective assistance to our communities.

This is a brief survey of all volunteers and paid employees (including management and executive leadership) for Area Agencies on Aging serving predominantly rural communities in Oregon.

The purpose of this study is to investigate what motivates volunteers and employees to serve in rural non-profit organizations. Specifically, the proposed study will focus on Area Agencies on Aging based in rural Oregon. AAA's provide social welfare services to the aging population. The selected AAA's experience the same or similar constraints as other non-profits and rural human services organizations. The goal of the proposed study is to gain insight and understanding of employee and volunteer retention motivation through the lens of self-determination. The proposed study will add to the bodies of knowledge in employee and volunteer retention, rural non-profit operations, and other areas of human motivation. Specifically, the study will provide valuable information to AAA's to maximize efficiency, minimize resource loss, and improve human service effectiveness.

Thank you for your contribution to my doctoral studies and to progress support for rural non-profit organizations.

Nicole Richman, DBA(c)

Appendix I - Survey

In general, how do you feel about serving the Area Agency on Aging?							
Complete the following questions rating from 1 (does not apply to me) to 7 (applies completely to me).							
		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	No matter how bad I've been feeling, serving the AAA helps me to forget about it.						
2	By serving the AAA, I feel less lonely.						
3	Doing work for the AAA relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others						
4	Serving the AAA helps me work through my own personal problems.						
5	Serving the AAA is a good escape from my own troubles.						
6	I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself						
7	I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving						
8	I feel compassion toward people in need						
9	I feel it is important to help others.						
10	I can do something for a cause that is important to me.						
11	Serving the AAA can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.						
12	I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.						
13	Serving the AAA allows me to explore different career options.						
14	Serving the AAA will help me to succeed in my chosen profession						
15	The experience serving the AAA will look good on my resume						

In general, how do you feel about serving the Area Agency on Aging?								
Complete the following questions rating from 1 (does not apply to me) to 7 (applies completely to me).								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	My friends serve a nonprofit							
17	People I'm close to want me to serve a nonprofit.							
18	People I know share an interest in community service							
19	Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.							
20	Serving a nonprofit is an important activity to the people I know best.							
21	I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.							
22	Serving the AAA allows me to gain a new perspective on things.							
23	Serving the AAA lets me learn things through direct hands-on experience							
24	I can learn how to deal with a variety of people							
25	I can explore my own strengths							
26	Serving the AAA makes me feel important.							
27	Serving the AAA increases my self-esteem							
28	Serving the AAA makes me feel needed.							
29	Serving the AAA makes me feel better about myself.							
30	Serving the AAA is a way to make new friends.							