The Voice and Action of Service: Exploring Nonprofit Volunteerism from a Dual Perspective

Colleen L. Mestayer

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THE VOICE AND ACTION OF SERVICE:
EXPLORING NONPROFIT VOLUNTEERISM FROM A DUAL PERSPECTIVE

by

Colleen Louise Mestayer

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate School
and the Department of Communication Studies
at The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

THE VOICE AND ACTION OF SERVICE: EXPLORING NONPROFIT VOLUNTEERISM FROM A DUAL PERSPECTIVE

by Colleen Louise Mestayer

May 2016

Key factors emerged for communicating with volunteers and staff in the nonprofit sector using a mixed methods approach in two phases. Phase I sought to explain volunteer satisfaction through the development of a new model that included motivation, identification with the nonprofit organization, attachment to the nonprofit organization and its mission, and the impact of interpersonal relationships formed between staff members and volunteers. Findings indicated that the model was an accurate predictor of volunteer satisfaction, and all variables were significantly correlated to volunteer satisfaction. Phase II sought to discover the communication patterns used by internal stakeholders of the nonprofit organization in the maintenance and recruitment of volunteers. Observations and interviews with the 11 internal stakeholders resulted in three overarching themes: people in the organization were uniquely friendly, spiritually driven, and involved in meaningful work. Further analysis revealed strategic and intentional communication patterns, especially during recruitment of volunteers. Patterns included message framing, specific language, and storytelling.

Several theories helped to explain the interactions found in this dual perspective study. First, stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) was used as a lens to understand the findings holistically. Observations and interview transcripts revealed that internal stakeholders must manage communication between and among various stakeholder
groups to ensure successful operation of a nonprofit. Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) was used to analyze both quantitative and qualitative data about volunteer satisfaction. Results indicated that internal stakeholders attempted to satisfy volunteers in the following three areas: competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Data analysis revealed that time spent volunteering increased satisfaction, motivation, identification with the organization, attachment to the organization and its mission, and interpersonal relationships formed between volunteers and staff members of the nonprofit organization. Finally, communication accommodation theory (Giles, 1973) explained the messages used by internal stakeholders in the maintenance and recruitment of volunteers. Results indicated that messages were intentional and strategic as staff members sought to satisfy both current volunteers and future volunteers. The study results and discussion prove useful for stakeholders of nonprofits seeking to recruit new volunteers and satisfy current ones.
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I would also like to thank my fellow graduate students who were so supportive and encouraging. A special thanks goes to Steve Young and Mo Ismail for their help with coding my data. Together, we were able to make sense out of more than 300 phrases!

I would also like to thank Ann McCullen, Executive Director of Edwards Street, and the staff and volunteers of Edwards Street, who made this project possible and supported me during the entire project.
DEDICATION

I dedicate this project to the thousands of people who have been impacted by and have impacted Edwards Street, and to Toney Robinson, whose love for Edwards Street and gardening inspired me to dig deeper. You are sorely missed.

And I would like to thank my family:

First, to my parents, Ray and Lou Mestayer, for instilling in me a love of learning. I know you are proud! Second, to my wonderful children, Allison, Rebecca, and Joshua – your love and support were undying…thank you! Third, to my siblings and their loved ones, Mac and Kathi, Michelle and Gerald, Steve and Adrienne, Mike and Suzanne, and Charlie and Jennifer – thank you for your encouragement and support!
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CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION

I concentrate on getting more people to become on-going partners.

Continuing to develop partnerships with donors and volunteers is huge because that is sustainability for our organization. (Ann McCullen, Executive Director, Edwards Street Fellowship Center)

Communication is the common denominator in organizations and “explains organizational phenomena” (Deetz & Eger, 2014, p. 30) in both large and small organizations, and for profit and nonprofit organizations. This project hopes to shed light on how local nonprofit organizations function communicatively as they gain control and effect change on a community level, especially through volunteer recruitment and maintenance. Nonprofit organizations have been in existence for years and have seen tremendous growth in the last few decades. Accordingly, “they have grown to occupy a substantial part of the U.S. economy, accounting by some estimates for as much as 10% of nonagricultural employment and perhaps for 8% or more of the gross domestic product (GDP)” (Hammack, 2002, p. 1640). Nonprofits are one of the fastest growing sectors of U.S. economy and have “surpassed the rate of both the business and government sectors” (Urban Institute, 2015, para. 1). As “the third-largest workforce in the United States” (Lambert, 2013, para. 2), nonprofit organizations seek to address social issues and problems. For instance, United States-based nonprofit organizations address issues in areas from art and culture to health and human services (GuideStar, 2015), and nonprofits continue to flourish as the need for services provided through these organizations increases, both in the United States and beyond. As the National Center for Charitable Statistics (2013), noted, there are nearly 1,500,000 nonprofit organizations in the United
States, an increase of more than 100,000 since 2003 (para. 1). Furthermore, according to the 2015 nonprofit employment practices survey, nonprofit organizations in the United States will continue to grow and this anticipated growth will be “at a rate much faster than their corporate counterparts” (p. 4); therefore, research about this sector of the United States economy must continue.

Although some nonprofit organizations may have paid staff, a large number of nonprofit organizations rely on volunteers to supplement staff in order to get the work done within the organization; in fact, nearly 63 million adults volunteered at least once during 2013 (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014, p. 11) representing more than 25% of all Americans aged 16 and above (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). “Volunteerism continues to spread, with the nonprofit organizations providing the structure that makes volunteerism effective” (Wilbur, 2000, p. x); further, as Smith and Kramer (2015) noted, “Numerous individuals contribute to and benefit from the important work of nonprofit organizations” (p. 1). As more nonprofit organizations open, the need for volunteers also increases; therefore, it is important to understand how these nonprofits attract and keep volunteers, especially when societal issues, such as poverty and inequality, seem to be ever present in our society. Research into the communication of nonprofit organizations is essential to understanding volunteerism.

An organization is a “social unit of people that is structured and managed to meet a need or to pursue collective goals” (Business Dictionary, 2016, para. 1), and can be considered a system because it is made up of “interacting and interrelated parts” (Harris, 1993, p. 10). In form or structure, for-profit and nonprofit organizations are essentially the same; however, nonprofit organizations are inherently different from other
organizational structures in purpose and goals. According to the Legal Information Institute (2015), a nonprofit organization is “a group organized for purposes other than generating profit and in which no part of the organization's income is distributed to its members, directors, or officers” (para. 2), and it “must operate exclusively for religious, charitable, scientific, public safety, literary, educational, prevention of cruelty to children or animals, and/or to develop national or international sports” (para. 3). Since nonprofit organizations do not generally seek to make a profit, they must rely on an active volunteer force to accomplish its mission, and they must also rely on “donations and grants from individuals, government entities and organizations” (Ingram, 2015, para. 3); for profit organizations rely on sales to generate income and conduct their business. However, not all nonprofit organizations conduct charitable work.

For purposes of this study, nonprofit organizations under consideration are those with a philanthropic mission, or those that operate “exclusively for the promotion of social welfare” (IRS, 2015, para. 1). In other words, a nonprofit with a social welfare emphasis “must operate primarily to further the common good and general welfare of the people of the community” (IRS, 2015, para. 2). The organization used for this case study is located in the Southeastern United States and focuses on a specific segment of the population of the community- those who live at or below the poverty line, as designated by the government. The main operation of this nonprofit is providing emergency food bags for this segment of the population. By elucidating the communication patterns between stakeholders involved in this nonprofit organization, this project sought more nuanced understandings of how interpersonal relationships shape the organization’s day-to-day operations. Much of the previous research about nonprofit organizations remains
outside the realm of interpersonal communication; therefore, the study presented here extends research on micro-level relationships and the effects of these relationships on organizational business, especially within the nonprofit sector. As Eisenberg and Eschenfelder (2009) argued, “communication research that takes into account the unique qualities of nonprofit organization will produce importing findings that have potential to improve quality of life for everyone” (p. 375). Using a systems theoretical approach, this research attempted to examine the impact of interpersonal relationships on organizational relationships.

As Norris-Tirrell (2014) argued, “community-based organizations and charities have been essential in addressing human service needs since the colonial days” (p. 304), and this sector of the United States economy has shown a “remarkable ability to adapt over time to changing demands and expectations” (p. 305). Since nonprofits must adapt to change over time, “the scope and breadth of the subsector of nonprofit human service organizations has evolved as societal problems and issues emerged” (Norris-Tirrell, 2014, p. 310). In order to continue addressing social problems in this ever-changing environment, nonprofit organizations must “invest in program creation, staff development, and collaborative processes” (Norris-Tirrell, 2014, p. 319). The nonprofit studied has evolved over time to address the most pressing needs of the poverty-stricken portion of this community.

Although research into nonprofits and their respective missions has been prolific (Deetz, 2001; Eisenberg & Eschenfelder, 2009; Koschmann, 2012; Lewis, 2005; Lohmann, 2001), many questions remain. In particular, more research is needed to identify the actual service providers, explain why staff and volunteers serve in these
agencies, describe the level of volunteer and staff satisfaction, and uncover how these nonprofit organizations recruit and maintain an active volunteer base. In other words, of great benefit to communication scholars and activists alike would be to discover patterns of communication within these organizations, and the communicative strategies most often employed as the nonprofit conducts business. Scholarly research in the area of communication within organizations and within relationships has been extensive (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Deetz, 2001; Putnam & Mumby, 2014); however, much of the research about both for profit and nonprofit organizations is removed from communication. Limited research examines the complexities of communication when organizational communication and interpersonal communication intersect: interstaff relationships, staff and volunteer relationships, staff and clientele interactions, volunteer and staff satisfaction, and the acceptance of changing organizational goals or missions; yet, organizations are primarily groups of people. Since communication “lies at the heart of organizational functioning” (Peters, Morton, & Haslam, 2010, p. 221), and communication is “the vehicle through which employees establish mutual understandings” (Peters et al., 2010, p. 221) about the organization’s goals, communication scholars can add insight into this sector of the United States economy. Further, since nonprofit organizations continue to expand despite the downsizing of many for profit organizations, direct experience with and research into these organizations is of utmost importance.

Organizations are comprised of individuals who work together to accomplish common goals, and often these individuals become more than just coworkers; they become friends. Friendships form the core of interpersonal relationships, and “human
relationships are constructed and maintained through interaction” (Fix & Sias, 2006, p. 35). The workplace environment, or the organization, is a “particularly important and consequential” (Sias, 2009, p. 2) arena for the study of interpersonal relationships because people spend a considerable amount of time at work. Researchers, especially within the fields of psychology and business, have shown the importance of these workplace relationships on employee motivation, satisfaction and well-being. For instance, Klauss and Bass (1982) noted that “managerial communication is probably the most critical area[s] of organizational communication in general and [that] it is the point at which managerial behavior can genuinely make a difference in influencing performance and employee attitudes” (p. 3). The researchers contended that, “communication clearly is a central phenomenon in organizations and is especially important for management” (Klauss & Bass, 1982, p. 3). Further, as Sias (2009) noted, “workplace relationships are vital to both organizational and individual well-being” (p. 18). Although research has helped to elucidate the intricacies and importance of communication with employees, such research is only beginning to reach the volunteer sector. With nonprofit organizations growing at such a tremendous rate and relying on volunteers to conduct its business, more emphasis should be placed on these particular interpersonal relationships and how these relationships affect both the volunteer and the nonprofit organization. Since communication is a basic human activity and has been shown to directly affect employees and organizations, research that is situated within nonprofit organizations and focused on interpersonal relationships of volunteers and staff could shed light on the bigger picture of organizational phenomena.
Studying small, community-based nonprofit organizations from a communication standpoint could uncover particular patterns and strategies used by the organization, especially in dealing with an expansive volunteer crew to fulfill its particular mission. Specifically, understanding the communicative processes and strategies employed by management, staff, volunteers, and the board of directors of the nonprofit will allow more understanding of how local nonprofits seek to attain mission goals in spite of, or in the midst of, inevitable change.

Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) guided this research. As a specific type of systems approach, stakeholder theory builds upon the concept of stakeholders as “any group or individual who is affected by or can affect the achievement of an organization’s objectives” (Freeman, & McVea, 2001, p. 2). Therefore, according to the theory, organizations must “formulate and implement processes which satisfy all … who have a stake in the business” (Freeman & McVea, 2001, p. 8). Further, the researchers contend that the main focus of this process is managing and integrating “the relationships and interests of shareholders, employees, customers, suppliers, communities, and other groups” (p. 8). Since nonprofits are situated within communities and rely on human resources to achieve their missions, this theory was most applicable to a study of nonprofit communication, especially since it is a “process” theory that focuses on managing and integrating relationships between employees, volunteers, board of directors, clients, city and government officials, donors, suppliers, or any other entity that affects the organization.

Although the theory emerged from a business perspective, three major assumptions of stakeholder theory focus specifically on patterns of communication that
are necessary for the successful operation of an organization: (1) communication between and among stakeholder groups is vital to the operation (or even the existence) of the organization; (2) management of these relationships and the integration of the relationships will affect the successful operation of the organization; and (3) although some stakeholder groups are more important during different phases or projects within the organization, all stakeholder groups must be considered during decision-making. The production and perception of relationships are implicit in stakeholder theory; however, how these take place is in not addressed in the theory.

The researcher chose to examine volunteerism by using a case study approach. This study of a “current, real-life case” (Cresswell, 2013, p. 98) allowed for more nuanced understandings of volunteerism by “illustrating a unique case” (Cresswell, 2013, p. 98). Although stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) guided the research, specific communication theories were also used to examine different aspects of the organizational relationships, especially since “organizational communication is essentially a process through which meaning is created, negotiated, and managed” (Cheney & Christensen, 2001, p. 241). In order to more fully explain and understand the processes of communication, both from an inside and outside perspective, two different theories were employed. First, self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) was used to better explain the satisfaction of volunteers who work for the organization (external stakeholder perspective), as well as better understand how staff members (internal stakeholders) sought to maintain a satisfied volunteer base. Communication accommodation theory (Giles, 1973) was used to more fully explain and understand the processes of intentional
communication used by organizational members seeking to recruit and satisfy volunteers (internal stakeholder perspective).

More fully understanding what variables affect the volunteer’s level of satisfaction with the organization and the communication processes involved in volunteer recruitment and maintenance from the organization’s standpoint will be both practical and helpful for nonprofits as they continue to work to solve problems affecting people in need. Volunteer recruitment and maintenance is a crucial portion of any nonprofit’s work; without volunteers, much of the work done by the nonprofit could not be accomplished.
CHAPTER II – REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Researchers from a multitude of disciplines have studied and uncovered a variety of issues relevant to this research agenda; therefore the review will be presented according to the following specific areas of interest: communication research in work organizations, nonprofit research, and volunteer research.

History of Nonprofit Organizations

There are nearly 1,500,000 nonprofits in America, and the number is continuing to grow (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2013, para. 1). As problems such as inequality, poverty, and homelessness become more visible through social media, the promotion of social justice or activism helps to balance our world by eliminating inequalities in society. Individuals, politicians, corporations, groups, and organizations spread the message of social justice while appealing to the public’s need to be involved in and care for those who cannot care for themselves. Often, these individuals or groups are set up as nonprofit organizations whose missions focus on problems in society. These nonprofits ask others to join the “fight” for social justice by contributing either time or money to help with the imbalance. Issues of morality and civic duty are often embedded in these nonprofits’ mission statements and goals.

Although philanthropy was evident even in the earliest stages of America’s birth, there has been a tremendous expansion in the 19th and 20th centuries. These nonprofits address a plethora of social issues, including, but certainly not limited to, disparities in poverty, race, education, immigration, government, crime, families, and healthcare (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2013, para. 2). These nonprofit organizations
bring attention to social issues and appeal to an individual’s sense of civic duty, thus appealing to volunteers to help carry out their specific vision or mission.

Nonprofits seek to bring persons to action, but in order to do so “the organization must prove to the donor that it is worthy of the contribution” (McKeon, 2004, p. 5). To be worthy, the organization must focus on an issue that is bigger than the individual, but one that also affects individuals. The idea that we can help someone other than ourselves is appealing. In fact, individuals gave nearly 2.8 billion dollars to support nonprofit organizations in 2011 (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2013, para. 5). Further, a recent study of American charitable giving found that “American households donated a median of $250 to secular charities in 2012” (Daniels, 2013, para 3). Although data of charitable giving reveals that older adults are more likely to give, a recent news report (Berkshire, 2012) found that young adults give at approximately the same rate, yet with smaller individual amounts. The key to attracting young adults is a personal connection to the organization. As Berkshire (2012) reported, “Young adults who volunteer were far more likely to make a donation” (para 1). Obviously, nonprofit organizations are important in American culture. They offer opportunities for the individual to act as a social agent for justice, either through charitable donations or volunteering, because people want to help others. Being a part of the solution makes people feel better about themselves and their world. As Kemp, Kennet-Hensel, and Kees (2013) noted, “giving to charitable causes might be a means through which individuals express their values and beliefs” (p. 69).

The nonprofit sector in the United States is quite diverse; however, many nonprofit organizations are born out of religious associations. According to Hammack
“Churches became increasingly significant as factors in American life over the course of the 19th century, and most nonprofit activity took place within religious contexts” (p. 1649). Recent statistics reveal that there are approximately 40,000 religious-based nonprofits (GuideStar, 2015, para. 1); however, not all nonprofits are religiously affiliated. Nearly 70,000 nonprofits in America focus on healthcare and nearly 100,000 nonprofits are education-based (Urban Institute, 2015). Nonprofit organizations in the United States are as diverse as the problems facing its citizens and are continuing to grow as new problems and issues arise. As Smith and Kramer (2015) noted, “giving and volunteering are indeed staples of the American culture” (p. 3). As the growth of nonprofits continues, research into this sector of the American economy is of utmost importance.

Theoretical Perspectives

Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholder Theory (Freeman, 1984) is a theoretical perspective from which analysis of organizations can build. Stakeholders refer to any individual or group who “have a stake in the success or failure of a business” (p. xv), and businesses comprise a “set of relationships among groups which have a stake in the activities that make up the business” (p. 24). In particular, the authors believe that stakeholders are the “fundamental drivers” (p. 11) of any business, and the relationships between the business and its stakeholders are ways “to maximize value sustainably” (Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar, & De Colle, 2010, p. 12) and “satisfy stakeholder interests” (Freeman et al., 2010, p. 12).
Stakeholder theory “focuses on the jointness of stakeholder interests” (Freeman et al., 2010, p. 15), and organizations “exist in a network of stakeholder relationships” (Freeman et al., p. 15). Businesses must “redefine, redescribe, or reinterpret stakeholder interests” (Freeman et al., p. 16) in order to increase commitment and worth for both the stakeholders and the organization.

In other words, organizations are comprised of relationships among and between various individuals or groups that are influenced by or influence the business in meaningful ways. A key component of successful operation of an organization is to “manage and shape these relationships” (Freeman et al., 2010, p. 24). As Freeman et al. (2010) noted, “The stakes of each stakeholder group are multifaceted, and inherently connected to each other” (p. 26-27). As this perspective elucidates, a systems approach is needed to understand the interconnectedness of these stakeholder groups. Ultimately, “communication is a strategic tool to manage relationships…among networked organizations and key stakeholders” (Maxwell & Carboni, 2014, p. 302); therefore, understanding the strategic communication patterns used to satisfy all stakeholders of an organization can elucidate best practices.

As businesses create identities, they do so through communication by showing an “organizational face to all stakeholder groups” (Fryzel, 2011, p. 61), and “building relations with stakeholders is part of corporate societal activity” (Fryzel, 2011, p. 71). For those nonprofit organizations that rely on volunteers to meet goals and complete projects, volunteers are considered a primary stakeholder group, and communication with this particular stakeholder group must be intentional and strategic. Managing this relationship is vital to the success of the organizations; volunteers must be satisfied to continue
volunteering. Communication is the vehicle in which relationships among and between stakeholder groups, such as volunteers, occurs. As Eisenberg and Eschenfelder (2009) noted, “partnering effectively with stakeholders is the single-most significant communication challenge facing leaders of nonprofit organizations” (p. 360); therefore, this system-oriented perspective was used to guide research into the communication from the organization with this particular stakeholder group.

Laplume, Sonpar, and Litz (2008) conducted an analysis of studies using stakeholder theory and found a disproportionate number of studies were on large corporations instead of small business and nonprofit organizations. The authors found this problematic because “publicly traded corporations are not representative of the population of organizations” (p. 1172), and the authors called for research within nonprofit and small organizations. Further, in a study of corporate social responsibility, Coombs and Holladay (2012) noted, “businesses are urged to consider their effects on the entire range of stakeholders connected with their operations, not just financial stakeholders” (p. 81), and that corporate social responsibility “initiatives should be driven by the organization’s vision and purpose” (p. 81). In a closely related study examining the effects of leadership on corporate social responsibility, Doh and Quigley (2014) sought to more fully understand both a “psychological pathway and a knowledge-based pathway” (p. 256) as they extended stakeholder theory to the realm of leadership responsibility. Using several case studies (Walmart, Coca-Cola, and Dupont), the authors found that consideration of stakeholders and responsibility of leaders (and leadership style) had an effect on both psychological and knowledge-based pathways “through
which responsible leaders influence outcomes at multiple levels of analysis within organizations” (Doh & Quigley, 2014, p. 270).

Olivier, O’Neil, and Lambiase (2012) recently conducted a case study of stakeholder involvement and outcomes of a nonprofit organization. Results revealed a strong correlation between the sharing of tasks with stakeholders and both organizational commitment and trust of the organization. Further, the research revealed that sharing of tasks with stakeholders was also correlated to intention to donate and volunteer. The researchers concluded, “Communicators working at nonprofit organizations should identify ways to connect and listen to stakeholders” (p. 10) to increase the stakeholder’s commitment to and trust in the nonprofit organization. Further, using a stakeholder approach to develop a “barometer” for donor satisfaction with a blood donation service in Germany, Liepnitz (2014) developed a scale to capture the difference between stakeholder’s overall satisfaction and stakeholder’s expectations of the service. Results indicated that stakeholder satisfaction is correlated to loyalty and identification with the organization. Further, the researcher found that “service quality” (Liepnitz, 2014, p. 173) affected satisfaction. Implications for nonprofit organizations included the following synthesis of the data: “high levels of satisfaction generate loyal donors who are more likely to feel connected to the organization, intend to donate again, and recommend the donation organization to others” (Liepnitz, 2014, p. 174).

Overall, stakeholder theory has been used to examine the relationships between the organization’s management and stakeholder outcomes such as satisfaction, loyalty, and commitment. The theory, although more general than specific, was a good
perspective to use when evaluating one particular stakeholder group, volunteers, and its connection to the nonprofit organization.

Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985) is a useful theory to understand and explain volunteerism, especially since volunteers do not receive compensation or tangible rewards for the work they do. According to SDT, motivation and performance will be greater if people’s needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy are satisfied. Furthermore, the theory describes the differences between the two main types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation refers to those activities that a person deems enjoyable. To be intrinsically motivated means to be “freely engaged out of interest” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 233). To be extrinsically motivated means having a basic physical or psychological need satisfied. Extrinsic motivation can act more like an intrinsic motivator if the task becomes more personally relevant for a person, or if they perceive a “tangible reward or positive feedback” (Deci & Ryan, 2008, p. 15). Finally, Deci and Ryan (2008) noted that the interpersonal communication style a person uses can influence the way others perceive the event or situation as either controlling or choice-oriented. When a situation is more choice-oriented, the person feels more in control of the task and is therefore better able to integrate the activity into one that becomes personally important to achieve a positive outcome. In other words, an activity can become important to people and can lead to greater motivation if it is perceived to be valuable to the person (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Specifically, the theory posits that within any significant life domain, opportunities to
experience autonomy, competence, and relatedness are essential in promoting life satisfaction and well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Although developed in the realm of psychology, SDT relies upon and is comprised of many communication concepts and behaviors. Self-determination, according to Deci and Ryan (1985), “is a quality of human functioning that involves the experience of choice” (p. 38) and “can be either supported or hindered by environmental factors” (p. 39). Further, the most productive environments to produce motivation are those “that provide optimal challenges, competence-promoted feedback, and support for autonomous activity” (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 122). In particular, “environmental events that provide people with the opportunity for choice and allow them to feel self-determining promote greater intrinsic motivation” (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 58). In other words, when a person receives positive feedback within a supportive environment, motivation to continue in this behavior is strengthened. Although psychological in nature, it is often the interpersonal communication and communicative environments that can hinder or support internal motivation. For instance, Deci and Ryan (1985) found that “when managers were more supporting of autonomy, subordinates felt more secure, were satisfied with their pay, and had more trust in the organization” (p. 303).

Intrinsic motivation “emerges spontaneously from internal tendencies” (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 43); however, “extrinsically motivated actions can also become self-determined as individuals identify with and fully assimilate their regulation” (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 74). Nonprofit organizations, although often run as commercial enterprises, also rely on the value and mission of the work. For instance, motivation to stay with a nonprofit organization is correlated to belief in the nonprofit’s mission
(Brown, Yoshioka, & Munoz, 2004). Specifically, Brown et al. (2004) found that “the presence of a salient mission statement reminds employees of the purpose of their work and helps managers guide employees in the fulfillment of that mission” (p. 30), and the mission statement “was the most significant predictor of overall satisfaction” (p. 36).

Volunteerism, in and of itself, is intrinsically motivated or self-determined. The act of working for someone else’s benefit comes from within a person; however, how satisfied the volunteer is, and how long he or she will continue to volunteer may be determined by external factors such as the organization’s mission, work environment, and the level of interpersonal communication while at the organization. “Organizations rely on their mission to attract resources and guide decision-making. Reliance on the mission as a management tool is recognized as an effective strategy to improve performance in many organizations” (Brown et al., 2004, p. 1). Using self-determination theory to analyze the volunteers’ satisfaction with the nonprofit organization helped to uncover the complexity of volunteerism for this nonprofit organization.

**Communication Accommodation Theory**

Communication accommodation theory (Giles, 1973) is a theory that resulted from a desire to understand the complexities of interactions, and was useful in analyzing and understanding messages that affected volunteer maintenance and recruitment. Message effectiveness can be understood by accommodating communication to meet the goals and intentions of particular people or groups. Originally, Giles introduced the theory to explain how our “dialects and words change” (Giles, 2008, p. 162) when we speak to different people; however, the theory soon morphed into other communicative areas, including paralinguistic, verbal, and nonverbal behaviors and patterns. Giles (2008)
posited that “accommodation is a process concerned with how we can both reduce and magnify communicative differences between people in interaction” (p. 163) because accommodation to others can reduce uncertainties and enhance similarities between people. Further, Giles (2008) introduced the concepts of convergence and divergence to explain how people use accommodation (or the lack thereof) to enhance similarities or increase differences between people or groups of people. Accommodations can be “mutual, reciprocated, symmetrical, or asymmetrical” (Giles, 2008, p. 166), and this will affect the interpersonal relations either negatively or positively. Finally, Giles (2008) noted, “accommodation is driven by interpersonal motives of gaining social acceptance and building social connections, ultimately leading to solid relationships and even life satisfaction” (p. 167). The theory has had widespread use by communication scholars seeking to understand and explain interactions of interpersonal dyads (both initial and ongoing) and small group communication across many areas, including health communication and online communication. Thus, communication accommodation theory was an appropriate theory to lead the researcher’s understanding of message strategies used by key people at the nonprofit as they sought to lead, fundraise, and advocate for their mission.

Studies using communication accommodation theory help to explain how the theory is used within particular contexts. For instance, Watson and Gallois (1998) examined the interactions between health care professionals and patients by using communication accommodation theory to guide their research because “each person’s behavior influences the perceptions and responses of the others” (p. 345). In the area of family communication, Soliz, Ribarsky, Harrigan, and Tye-Williams (2010) used
communication accommodation theory to examine “communication between family members with different sexual identities to enhance our understanding of the communication processes associated with harmonious relationships in this family type” (p. 78). Their findings indicated “respectful accommodation and self-disclosure …are negatively associated with anxiety in interactions and thus may have positive consequences for the relationship” (Soliz et al., 2010, p. 88). In a mixed methods approach, Gasiorek (2013) sought to understand how young adults are motivated to respond and the ways in which they respond to someone who has underaccommodated them. According to Gasiorek (2013), underaccommodations “are defined in terms of recipients’ subjective experience of communication as inappropriately adjusted relative to their needs or desires” (p. 606). Results indicated that participants responded in one of three ways: directly, indirectly, or through avoidance of the issue. Farley, Hughes, and LaFayette (2013) sought to examine the different ways people use their voices in romantic relationship as opposed to other relationships because “romantic partners continue to modify the sound of their voices when speaking to their intimate partners” (p. 125). Analyzing audio recordings, the researchers were able to ascertain whether the person was talking to a romantic partner or a friend with “greater than chance accuracy” (Farley et al., 2013, p. 134). This research helps to confirm communication accommodation theory’s propositions that people converge (accommodate) depending on to whom they are speaking. As noted by the researchers, “vocal samples directed toward romantic partners were rated as sounding more pleasant, sexier, and reflecting greater romantic interest than those directed toward same-sex friends” (Farley et al., 2013, p. 134).
By using communication accommodation theory as a lens to examine the messages used in various encounters (most particularly recruitment and maintenance of volunteers), the researcher was able to identify key elements of the messages used and how the messages converged or diverged depending on context, purpose, and audience.

Relevant Research

Communication Research in Work Organizations

Organizational communication researchers have inundated the field for many years by investigating a plethora of organizational phenomena including organizational environments and culture (Eisenberg & Eschenfelder, 2009; Eisenberg & Riley, 2001; Sutcliffe & McNamara, 2001), identification (Ashforth, Joshi, Anand, & O’Leary-Kelley, 2013; Asforth & Mael, 1989; Cheney & Christensen, 2001), and leadership/peer relationships (Fix & Sias, 2006; Frey & Sunwolf, 2005; Kouzes, 2010; Sias, 2009). Further, research in the area of organizational communication has uncovered basic differences between work organizations and other groups. The two primary characteristics that separate work organizations from other groups are “internal differentiation and shared purpose” (Peters et al., 2010, p. 221). More expansive definitions include “a sense of belonging to the group…and the potential to influence others” (Beebe & Masterson, 2009, p. 5). Ultimately, organizations are comprised of people, and it is communication that “links the organization’s members” (Klauss & Bass, 1982, p. 1); therefore, “communication lies at the heart of organizational functioning” (Peters et al., 2010, p. 221). Different people, or teams of people, perform different jobs at the organization with a common goal, and the “workplace is seen as a site of human activity” (Deetz, 2001, p. 24).
Research into the interpersonal relationships within organizations has been conducted; however, these research lines are quite fragmented. Although communication scholars have long known the impact of interpersonal relationships on individual outcomes such as satisfaction and commitment (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Fix & Sias, 2006; Klauss & Bass, 1982), the impact of interpersonal relationships on organizational structures is more limited. Management scholars, however, have noted the importance of these relationships within larger structures. For instance, Klauss and Bass (1982) addressed the importance of face-to-face interactions within management information systems. The authors concluded, “Managerial behavior can genuinely make a difference in influencing performance and employee attitudes” (p. 3). Further, in a study about friendship networks within work environments in Korea, Raile et al. (2008) found that closeness, or the “extent that a person can directly or indirectly reach or communicate with all others in the network” (p. 169), was positively associated to job satisfaction. Finally, understanding group life, Frey and Sunwolf (2005) argued, “groups are created in and sustained by members’ communication” (p. 175).

In a study about fundraising efforts of nonprofits, Waters (2009) proposed using interpersonal communication theory to understand the nonprofit-donor relationship. Specifically, Waters (2009) focused on the four variables of positive interpersonal relationships – trust, commitment, satisfaction, and power – to ascertain the effect of the four variables on intent to donate. Using data from more than 1,700 participants, the researcher found that all four variables were highly correlated to intention to donate. Further, the researcher sought to determine if there were differences between major gift donors (donations larger than $10,000/year) and annual gift donors (donations smaller
than $10,000/year) related to the interpersonal variables. Results indicated, “Major gift donors evaluated the relationship more strongly than annual giving donors did for all four relationship dimensions” (p. 464). Moreover, results from this study revealed that “trust and satisfaction were also the key variables in predicting which donors had donated during the organizations’ most recent fundraising campaign” (p. 470).

Satisfaction is an often-used outcome variable in research studies. For instance, in a recent study of employer communication competence and leadership style, Mikkelson, York, and Arritola (2015) surveyed nearly 300 industry workers to determine the correlation between supervisors’ behavior and employee satisfaction, motivation, and commitment to the organization. Results indicated that supervisors with more communication competence and a relationship-oriented leadership style were highly correlated to employee job satisfaction, motivation, and commitment (Mikkelson, York, & Arritola, 2015). In a similar study, Stringer (2006) examined the effects of the supervisor-employee relationship on the employee’s level of job satisfaction. The author contended that a high quality relationship between the supervisor and employee results in “good exchanges or high quality effective relationships [as supervisors and employees] share mutual trust, feel better, accomplish more, and the overall unit performance within organization is enhanced” (p. 125). Surveying 57 firefighters in the Southeastern United States, the researcher found that “high quality supervisor-employee relationships are positively related to job satisfaction” (Stringer, 2006, p. 134).

In another study, Ping, Murrman, and Perdue (2010) investigated the relationship between employee empowerment, service quality, and job satisfaction among workers in the hospitality industry. Findings from their research indicated that “empowered
employees are more satisfied with their jobs” (p. 46) and “employee perceived service quality has a positive relationship with job satisfaction” (p. 46). Finally, in a recent study examining management training programs and their effect on employee job satisfaction and retention, Choi and Dickson (2010) discovered that hotel managers who were involved in an intensive management-training program were more effective in their management of front-line employees. As the authors found, “the company achieved significant improvement in both reducing its employee turnover rate and enhancing employees’ satisfaction level” (p. 110). The aforementioned research studies attest to the value of understanding and explaining the importance of communication, especially with the outcome variable of satisfaction; therefore, understanding the level of connectedness volunteers have with staff is a viable area of research, which should be understood and evaluated more thoroughly.

Clearly, organizational communication researchers have continued to offer insights into the functioning and communication of organizations. With the recent growth of the nonprofit sector, researchers have also begun to address issues germane to this sector of the United States economy. Following is a review of recent research addressing the nonprofit sector.

Nonprofit Research

Recently, nonprofit research has exploded as the growth of nonprofits rises. This particular sector of the United States economy is both a rich and vital area for research, especially since this sector is attracting billions of dollars in donations and volunteer hours (Smith & Kramer, 2015). Further, nonprofit organizations and for-profit organizations share many similarities, as do volunteers and employees; however, there
are important differences, which need to be understood. A nonprofit organization must seek to “improve the quality of life in our communities” (Smith & Kramer, 2015, p. 1), and a volunteer for the organization usually performs a task without pay, although the term volunteer may also apply to those who do receive some sort of “remuneration for their time and service” (Smith & Kramer, 2015, p. 2). Recent demographic statistics reveal that the largest percentages of volunteers are white, married, educated, female, and middle-aged (Smith & Kramer, 2015, p. 3). Further, donations to nonprofit organizations have continued to rise, and the latest reports reveal that more than $350 billion was donated in 2014, with 72% of the total coming from individual donors (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2013, para. 5).

Researchers interested in understanding the complexities of nonprofits have also focused on the type of nonprofit organization, whether secular or religious-based. Molloy and Heath (2014) found that organizations that are faith-based have an “intrinsic transcendent focus on the spiritual, which is embedded in everyday work, mission, and practice” (Molloy & Heath, 2014, p. 388). These organizations have both “profit and mission-based values” (Molloy & Heath, 2014, p. 388). Molloy and Heath (2014) held that “solely focusing on work from secular perspectives limits our understanding of the complexities and possibilities within organizational communication” (p. 387). Similarly, in a recent study of religious nonprofits, Unruh (2010) found that “volunteers from the faith community offer other unique benefits to nonprofits” (p. 1) primarily because this volunteering can be “an embodied declaration of faithfulness, of gratitude to God, even of worship” (p. 4). The volunteers from a faith community “can promote agency visibility and legitimacy within religious institutions and networks, help reinforce an agency's
connection with its historic religious roots, strengthen the religious component of an organization's mission, and provide opportunities for leadership development” (Unruh, 2010, p. 3). Finally, Clarke and Ware (2015) argued that religion “provides a meaning for existence through which adherents interpret their own circumstances and make decisions on how to act and interact within wider society based on religious teachings” (p. 39). As their research into these organizations asserted, “organizations with a faith basis play a prominent, sometimes dominant, role within the non-government development sector” (Clarke & Ware, 2015, p. 40). Further, they noted that faith-based organizations “play a role outside their own faith boundaries” (Clarke & Ware, 2015, p. 44.) because “they operate at every level of society and are present in every community” (Clarke & Ware, 2015, p. 46). This supports the idea that faith-based nonprofit organizations are different; research with and into this sector of the United States economy must continue.

Although many nonprofit organizations rely on religious affiliations and appeals, there are many that are secular in nature and focus on civic morality instead of religious morality. As Jones-Bodie (2008) explained, “these organizations fulfill a unique need in American society by providing public benefit through their missions” (p. 2). Through these organizations, the individual has a means to “alleviate social problems” (Jones-Bodie, 2008, p. 7) without any religious ideologies attached. A sense of civic duty surrounds the goals of nonprofit organizations; by focusing on a problem in our society, individuals can join others to correct this problem. One alone cannot solve these societal issues, but the nonprofit organization offers a way to connect with others to solve problems. Therefore, though both secular and religious nonprofits seek to help with societal issues, they are somewhat different in their missions and results.
Since organizational communication has been the focus of much research for many years, there is a growing body of knowledge about nonprofit organizations in particular; however, as the nonprofit sector grows, so does the need to understand and present new communication theories and findings about the uniqueness of these particular types of organizations. As Koschmann (2012) argued, “much of what constitutes our experience of non-profit organizations is social, interactive, relational, meaningful—in short, communicative” (p. 141). Further, “what we know and experience as ‘nonprofit’ is a socially constructed concept that is reinforced (or not) through continued patterns of communication” (Koschmann, 2012, p. 141); therefore, Koschmann (2012) argued that “communicative theories of the nonprofit should seek to understand, explain, and direct our attention toward the ways in which existential qualities are constructed and how lived experiences influence a host of relevant social outcomes” (p. 142).

**Marketing research.** Nonprofit researchers from the field of marketing have uncovered many different aspects of nonprofits; however, most studies focus on donations instead of volunteerism. For instance, in a recent longitudinal study, Botner, Mishra, and Mishra (2015) examined nonprofit supportive claims (e.g. “Citizens for Urban Renewal”) and nonprofit combative claims (e.g. “Citizens Fighting Urban Decay”) (p. 40) to determine the differences on donor contributions. The researchers found that those nonprofits with a more supportive claim for their cause were “more likely to garner higher donations” (Botner et al., 2015, p. 47) than those nonprofits with a more combative claim. In another marketing study, Khodakarami, Petersen, and Venkatesan (2015) found that if donors were already giving to multiple causes, these same donors
would likely give to another, similar cause, and the amount of the donation would increase; these donors are “likely to give more than donors with a lower degree of donation variety” (p. 89).

Michel and Rieunier (2012) explored nonprofit brand image because it is an “important element in differentiating charitable organizations” (p. 701). Through in-depth interviews with donors and non-donors, the researchers created a scale that consisted of 37 items measuring an organization’s brand image. Further, the researchers sought to determine if brand image correlated to an individual’s giving time or money to the organization. Results from their study revealed that “nonprofit brand image correlates strongly with intention to give time or money” (p. 705). Further, this survey could be used by nonprofits to determine if their marketing strategies were helping or hindering their particular brand image.

Volunteer research. Volunteers are an important stakeholder group in nonprofit organizations, especially since the organization must often rely on volunteers to carry out its mission. Maintaining the satisfaction level of this particular stakeholder group may result in less turnover and more rewarding work. Past research revealed that several variables may be important in the maintenance of volunteers; therefore, each specific variable associated with volunteers will be discussed: motivation, identification, attachment, and interpersonal relationships.

Volunteerism and Motivation

Why people are so motivated to help others, especially through nonprofit volunteerism, is an area of interest in many disciplines. As Clary et al. (1998) noted, “the characteristic features of volunteerism … suggest that it may be productive to adopt a
motivational perspective” (p. 1517) to completely understand this complex psychological construct because there appears to be a “wide range of personal and social motivations that promote this form of sustained helping behavior” (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1518). Clary et al. (1998) presented six functions of motivation: values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement. Further, the authors contended that “people can be recruited into volunteer work by appealing to their own psychological functions” (p. 1518), and “they will continue to serve as volunteers to the extent that their psychological functions are being served by their service” (p. 1518). Clary et al. (1998) conducted several studies to confirm the six functional factors of motivation, and this research resulted in the creation of the volunteer functions inventory, a survey designed to measure the motivation behind volunteerism. Results also indicated that volunteers who perceived receiving benefits relating to an important function were significantly more satisfied with their volunteering experience and intended to continue the volunteering. By using this functional approach to understanding volunteerism, Clary et al. (1998) were better able to understand and explain the “process by which individuals come to see volunteerism in terms of their personal motivations” (p. 1528).

In a more recent study comparing the motivating factors of managers in the public sector with managers in the nonprofit sector, Park and Word (2012) found that both public and nonprofit managers were attracted to their jobs because their organizations were respected and they (the managers) were able to serve their communities through their work. In other words, both types of managers were motivated by intrinsic factors; however, they found that managers in the public sector were “more inspired by monetary motivation” (p. 725), and managers in the nonprofit sector were “more motivated by
work environments that allow for a balance between work and family than public managers” (p. 725). Further, Bassous (2015) researched the differences between monetary and non-monetary rewards of nonprofit workers and suggested that “while monetary incentives motivate the individual worker, nonmonetary incentives promote the concept of shared goals” (p. 362). His findings indicated that “motivation to achieve organizational objectives is directly linked to the mission, vision, and impact of the organization’s programs and activities” (Bassous, 2015, p. 374). This research confirmed a “significant correlational association between workers’ motivation level and nonmonetary incentives, leadership style, and organizational culture” (Bassous, 2015, p. 377).

Two recent research articles on volunteer motivation use SDT to understand volunteerism and staff engagement with the organization. Oostlander, Güntert, and Wehner (2014) examined “the influence of autonomy-supportive leadership” (p. 1373) on volunteer satisfaction in an international nonprofit organization. Organizations that engage in autonomy-supportive leadership encourage autonomy and self-determination among employees and volunteers. Overall, results suggested that “autonomy-supportive leadership style has a positive effect on volunteer satisfaction” (Oostlander, Güntert, & Wehner, 2014, p. 1379). In a similar study, Bidee et al. (2013) used SDT to investigate the connection between a person’s motivation to volunteer and their work effort in Belgian nonprofits. Results indicated that “autonomous motivation positively influences work effort … the more autonomously motivated the volunteer, the more this volunteer puts effort in her/his volunteer work” (p. 41). By using SDT to guide research on volunteer motivation and satisfaction, the following hypothesis emerged:
H1: Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of the volunteer will be positively correlated to volunteer satisfaction.

*Volunteerism and Identification with the Organization*

Motivation among volunteers and staff of nonprofits is an important area of investigation; however, another area of importance is how someone identifies with a group or organization. In particular, identification with an organization has been used to understand memberships and relationships between individuals and organizations. For instance, Gilpin and Miller (2013) sought to understand nonprofit identity through both online and offline social networks of a nonprofit organization to discover the organizational community and communication with this community. In particular, the researchers sought to understand how the organization “is publicly engaging with individuals, groups, and organizations to reinforce particular views of its identity internally, expand its community boundaries, and/or establish its position within the larger environmental setting in which it operates” (p. 367). The researchers defined a nonprofit organization as “occupying a complex functional community that emerges through both mediated and unmediated interactions to form relationships that contribute to the social capital of the organization and its key members, through processes of interdependency and identification” (Gilpin & Miller, 2013, p. 361). Specifically, they sought to understand how “organizational identity is constructed in complex settings, and the role of communication and stakeholder relations in these processes” (Gilpin & Miller, 2013, p. 355). An organizational community, according to Gilpin and Miller (2013) is a “dynamic, emergent, multilevel process of negotiation that involves numerous factors” (p. 355). Further, the authors concluded that nonprofit organizations “tend to be more
value-driven, and therefore play a different role in stakeholders’ identity construction than for-profit organizations” (p. 357), and the “interconnectedness of perceived networks, or structural ties, can be seen as contributing to the ongoing process of identity construction” (p. 369).

According to Kreiner and Ashforth (2004), “organizational members are said to identify with the organization when they define themselves at least partly in terms of what the organization is thought to represent” (p. 2). As Ashforth and Mael (1989) argued, “identification is the perception of oneness with or belongingness to a group” (p. 34), and this identification “induces the individual to engage in, and derive satisfaction from, activities congruent with the activity, to view him or herself as an exemplar of the group, and to reinforce factors conventionally associated with group formation” (p. 35). Given this perspective, it is important to understand how and why people choose to volunteer for a nonprofit agency that serves the underprivileged. It is vital for nonprofit organizations to understand how their volunteers identify with the mission and work of the nonprofit.

“Organizational identification refers to the extent to which one defines oneself in terms of the perceived attributes of the organization” (Ashforth et al., 2013, p. 2428). Moreover, as Albert, Ashforth, and Dutton (2000) argued, identity may “provide a way of accounting for the agency of human action within an organizational framework” (p. 14) because identity may explain why someone may “act on behalf of the group or the organization” (p. 14). “Identification,” according to Ashforth et al. (2013), “confers a sense of not only who one is, but of belonging and security” (p. 2426). Further, research into organizations has focused on how organizations create identities. They do so
through a variety of messages. Scholars in a variety of disciplines have studied organizational identification and discovered that “organizational identification is a specific form of social identification” (Ashforth, & Mael, 1989, p. 22). Moreover, as Cheney, Christensen, and Dailey (2014) argued, “organizations use their established identity programs and identity messages within networks of activities and projects, including mission statements, articulations of values and ethics, and marketing materials” (pp. 695-696); therefore, understanding the nonprofit’s identity and how this identity is communicated to others will add to our knowledge of how organizational identity is constructed, communicated, and maintained.

Organizational identification may be a key to understanding volunteerism because “a strong organizational identity is one that is widely shared and deeply help by organizational members” (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004, p. 8). Organizational identity is also directly related to communication. As Scott and Stevens (2009) argued, “Issues of identity and identification are fundamentally communicative ones” (p. 124), and these identities “are expressed primarily through language in our interactions with others” (p. 126); therefore, becoming a volunteer is assuming a label used to identify with an organization, based on the organization’s mission or work. Scott and Stephens (2009) argued, “We associate ourselves, via communicative processes, with groups or categories of others such as our occupational groups, divisions, organizations, or political and national groups” (p. 371). In the realm of nonprofit organizations, “issues related to their work motives, assessment of others’ communication, satisfaction, and intent to stay with the organization are all highly relevant to volunteers and their organization alike” (Scott & Stephens, 2009, p. 378).
In a recent study examining identification between volunteers and nonprofits, Steimel (2013) explored how particular messages from the organization may affect the volunteer’s identification with the nonprofit. In particular, Steimel (2013) focused on “memorable messages” (p. 13) to determine their effect on a volunteer’s identity with the nonprofit because, as Steimel (2013) found, “volunteers may be more likely than paid employees to rely on informal methods of organizational socialization like memorable messages to establish their identification with the organization for which they work” (p. 13). Memorable messages were described to the participants as “‘a piece of advice’ or ‘some words of wisdom’ received by the individual” (p. 14) from someone at the nonprofit. Results indicated “that there were significant differences in the level of volunteer identification reported by volunteers who had received different types of memorable messages during the initial days of their volunteer experience” (p. 16), and the most memorable messages “focused on the significance of the volunteer work for others, including clients and the community” (p. 18). Further, in a study of volunteer leisure activity, Meisenbach and Kramer (2014) discovered that “identity is a central feature of volunteering that may play into membership” (p. 189). Results from their study indicated that “participants articulated their participation in this leisure voluntary organization as a way of enacting nested identities... of choir, music, and family identities through active participation in the choir” (Meisenbach & Kramer, 2014, p. 196). This research supports the idea that communication is, indeed, important to a person’s ability to identify with an organization and may be a way for the nonprofit to “increase the identification of (and decrease the turnover of) volunteers” (Steimel, 2013, p. 18);
therefore, the aforementioned research about identification and volunteerism led to the second hypothesis:

H2: Identification with a nonprofit organization will be positively correlated to volunteer satisfaction.

Volunteerism and Attachment to the Mission

Attachment is yet another important variable to consider regarding volunteerism. Attachment relates to a person’s “awareness and contribution to the organization’s mission” (Brown, Yoshioka, & Munuz, 2004, p. 35). This variable sought to understand an individual’s perception of the organization’s mission, and more specifically, how this perception may affect his or her attitudes.

Examining attachment in the area of work behavior and employee retention, Brown, Yoshioka, and Munoz (2004) surveyed employees of a large nonprofit to determine correlations between employee attitudes and satisfaction and attachment to the mission of the organization. Results indicated that “mission attachment was the most significant predictor of overall satisfaction” (p. 37). In a study about board member’s participation in nonprofits, Brown, Hillman, and Okun (2012) found that “mission attachment was the most robust predictor in the model” (p. 153). In another similar study examining attachments to an organization, Hustinx and Handy (2009) focused on a volunteer’s “sense of belonging,” (p. 204) or attachment to the organization at which they worked. The researchers hypothesized that attachment to the mission of the overall organization would be different from attachment to specific programs in which the individual volunteer was directly involved. In other words, the researchers compared mission or organization attachment to activity attachment by surveying more than 650
volunteers of a nonprofit organization located in Belgium. Results from the study indicated that “attachments are primarily built at the local level” (p. 217); however, “loyalty and satisfaction … were strongly interwoven with the local volunteer experience” (p. 217).

In another study about employees, Scrima, Di Stefano, Guarnaccia, and Lorito (2015) sought to determine the correlation between attachment style and work behavior. Specifically, the researchers used attachment theory, a psychological theory, to examine if there were differences in correlations between attachment style and work behavior variables such as commitment and attachment to the workplace. Results from their study revealed that “attachment style is a personality variable that determines the bond between individuals and the work context” (p. 435). Further, in a study about youth’s attachment to their community and their levels of civic and political engagement, Boulianne and Brailey (2014) sought to determine the “subjective measures of community attachment [that] are important in assessing youth’s community attachment” (p. 377). Through surveying more than 350 Canadian college students, the researchers were able to ascertain which subjective measures were most salient to this particular participant group: “caring about others who lived in the city and liking living in the city” (Boulianne & Brailey, 2014, p. 182). Moreover, results from the study found “the effects of subjective measures of community attachment to be significant for both voting and volunteering” (p. 385) for this population of youth.

In another recent study, Kelly (2013) examined community attachment, religious involvement, and life satisfaction effects on an individual’s level of civic engagement. Results indicated that attachment to the community is related to problem-solving in the
community, engaging in helping behaviors, and attending religious services (p. 567).

Finally, Zenker and Rutter (2014) recently examined the effect of place attachment and civic engagement. Specifically, the researchers sought to “explore the role of citizen satisfaction in light of its influence on place attachment, the attitude towards a place and positive citizenship behavior” (p. 11). The researchers concluded that citizen satisfaction is the “main predictor for place attachment” (p. 15).

In the area of marketing, product attachment plays a role in purchasing behavior. For instance, in a recent study about attachment to specific brands of products, Yao, Chen, and Xu (2015) found that college students who perceived a brand to be more similar to their personality were more likely to be attached to that particular brand. Surveying nearly 200 college students, the researchers found that “consumers will develop and maintain emotionally charged relationships with brands that they perceive to reflect who they are” (Yao, Chen, & Xu, 2015, p. 1424).

Attachment to an organization and its mission, although similar to identification, is a valid variable to understand, especially within the realm of volunteerism, and therefore led to the third hypothesis:

H3: Attachment to the nonprofit and its mission will be positively correlated to volunteer satisfaction.

Volunteerism and Interpersonal Relationships

One further area of interest is the perceived level of interpersonal relationships among and between volunteers and staff members of nonprofit organizations. Communication scholars have long known the import of interpersonal relationships, especially on the formation and duration of lasting and satisfying relationships, yet there
is limited research about the effect of interpersonal relationships on volunteerism; however, in an ethnographic study of a nonprofit service provider, Ashcraft and Kedrowicz (2002) argued that “social support is a central interpersonal mechanism that can facilitate organizational experiences conducive to volunteer tenure” (p. 91). Further, they posited, “support serves as a communicative connection and compensation that affirms and anchors volunteer involvement (p. 91). Scholars in the field of marketing have also examined the volunteer-organization relationship as a key marketing tool and found, “the relationship between the volunteer and the organization is crucial” (Bussell & Forbes, 2006, p. 155). Further, Bussell and Forbes (2006) argued that “an understanding of volunteer behavior should drive recruitment and retention decision” (p. 155). Findings from the Bussell and Forbes (2006) study indicated that “the success of the voluntary organization… is dependent on the relationship established and developed between the volunteer and the organization” (p. 156). Further, the researchers concluded, “the volunteer’s attitude toward the organization was formed by the messages received during the initial search process” (Bussell & Forbes, 2006, p. 158). Finally, “matching the needs of the volunteers with the benefits offered by the organization is a vital first stage of the relationship” (Bussell & Forbes, 2006, p. 17) between the volunteer and the organization.

In another research study about volunteerism, Hidalgo and Moreno (2009) argued that “social networks established by volunteers when doing their tasks may significantly influence their willingness to continue their work” (p. 596). Results from their study indicated that “good social relationships inside the organization” (Hidalgo & Moreno, 2009, p. 598) contributed to a volunteer’s intent to remain with the organization. In fact, “social networks with other members of the organization are quite important … because
they provide a good organizational climate and help to make the performed activity pleasant” (Hidalgo & Moreno, 2009, p. 599). They concluded that “the creation of affective bonds with other members of the organization can make volunteers reluctant to break those bonds” (Hidalgo & Moreno, 2009, p. 599). Haski-Leventhal and Bargal (2008) researched Israeli nonprofits as they sought to understand the stages of volunteerism within these organizations. As they argued, “non-profits and voluntary organizations are characterized by having strong social values that influence the organizational culture” (p. 71), and this organizational culture affected employees and volunteers alike. The volunteers in their study worked directly with clients, and the interpersonal relationships they formed with the clients affected their satisfaction and duration of volunteering. Further, in a study about the satisfaction of volunteer meal deliverers in Japan, Yanagisawa and Sakakibara (2008) discovered that “human relationships of volunteers with meal delivery users, fellow volunteers, and supervisory professional staff members were the most decisive factors related to satisfaction levels with volunteer work of volunteers in a meal delivery service for the elderly” (p. 476).

One area that has not been studied much is the interpersonal relationships between volunteers and staff members of nonprofit organizations; however, since volunteerism can be considered a form of community engagement, we can apply knowledge from communication scholars about the impact of interpersonal relationships on activism. Communication scholars agree that interpersonal communication can influence political activism and community engagement (Hooghe, Vissers, Stolle, & Maheo, 2010; Jeffres, Jian, & Yoon, 2013). Given this, the following hypothesis emerged:
H3: Satisfying interpersonal relationships between the volunteer and the staff members will be positively correlated to volunteer satisfaction.

Obviously there is a need to understand the workings of nonprofit organizations, especially volunteer-staff relationships, because they are different from other workplace relationships. Using tenets set forth in stakeholder theory, that anyone who has a “stake” in the organization will affect the organization, and using this viewpoint as an overall lens to understand the workings of volunteerism within a faith-based nonprofit could have implications for both the recruitment and retention of volunteers. Understanding volunteerism as it is associated with motivation, attachment, and identification could better explain the communication involved in recruiting and maintaining volunteers in a nonprofit organization. Additionally, understanding the interpersonal relationships between the volunteers and staff could further elucidate volunteerism. In this vein, the researcher proposes a multi-level model for understanding volunteer satisfaction. Obviously, as the aforementioned research indicated, volunteer satisfaction is determined by more than one single variable. The motivation of the volunteer combined with his or her identification with and attachment to the mission of the organization, and the volunteer’s perceived level of satisfying interpersonal relationships at the organization can lead to a better understanding of volunteer satisfaction. As figure 1 indicates, each aspect of volunteerism will contribute to the volunteer’s level of satisfaction.
Variables affecting volunteer satisfaction

The aforementioned variables are important to fully understanding volunteer satisfaction within the nonprofit sector, and thus contribute to a volunteer’s satisfaction with the nonprofit organization.

Volunteer Recruitment

Another important area to investigate is how internal stakeholders of nonprofit organizations recruit volunteers. As nonprofits grow and change, so does the need for more volunteers to fill these different roles. The nonprofit must devote time and energy to both recruiting and maintaining a satisfied volunteer base; however, the methods used to accomplish these complimentary goals are different. This research sought to identify and better understand the differences between these two interdependent activities. Further, the type of nonprofit will affect its recruitment practices because the volunteer base will be different. For instance, faith-based nonprofits may rely on affiliated churches or the faith community as a source for recruitment, while a secular-based nonprofit may not rely on a particular faith community. These issues are important to consider in understanding how the nonprofit seeks to recruit volunteers.
The differences between faith-based nonprofit organizations and those that are secular are seemingly obvious; however, researchers are only now seeking to understand those differences more fully. Finally, not all faith-based nonprofits are easily recognizable as different from their secular counterparts. Understanding how this may affect the support of volunteers is an area that has limited research; therefore, this research sought to identify and further understand the communicative message strategies and patterns used by staff of a faith-based nonprofit as it communicatively acts out its business and mission, especially in the area of volunteer recruitment. Recruitment of volunteers is directly related to the persuasiveness of a message or a series of messages, and it is therefore necessary to delve into persuasion, especially as it relates to volunteer recruitment.

Varying voices must be used to appeal to different audiences, and the effectiveness of a message rests in its persuasiveness to bring about attitude and behavior change. An attitude is comprised of a belief (things we hold as truths) and a value (the judgment of worth of the object, concept, person, etc.), and to change someone’s behavior, persuaders try to change either the belief or the value (Benoit & Benoit, 2008). Research about message effects abounds in a variety of social science areas, including mass and interpersonal communications; however, much of the research is focused on the individual consumer, with an emphasis on advertising. When persuading someone to give his or her time or money, the persuasive task is even more arduous. As Kronrod, Grinstein, and Wathieu (2012) noted, “persuading consumers to act in an environmentally/socially responsible manner is a particularly challenging task because the beneficiary of pro-environmental/social behavior is not always directly the consumer.
him- or her- self but often society, other consumers, or the planet” (p. 95). Further, how the message is communicated “will depend on the perceived motives of the interactant” (Miller, 2005, p. 157). Thus, nonprofit staff and volunteers must consciously alter messages depending on the recipient of the message, as well as the perceived outcome of the interaction. Messages to volunteers will be quite different from messages to donors or clients; therefore, understanding how a nonprofit alters its messages for perceived outcomes is vital to understanding the communication practice of the nonprofit.

In a study about an organization’s recruitment messages, Botero (2011) found that “information presented in organizational recruitment messages (i.e., message content) can serve as signals about the organization and its characteristics” (p. 3) and can have a direct effect on a person’s intent to apply to the particular organization. Results indicated that “message content affected the perceptions of organizational and job characteristics (i.e., job security, advancement opportunities, prestige, task diversity, and compensation)” (Botero, 2011, p. 4). Specifically, the results showed that “perceptions of job security, compensation, and organizational prestige were all positively related to organizational attractiveness” (Botero, 2011, p. 15) based on the organization’s recruitment messages. In a recent study about attracting the public for a nonprofit fundraising event, McKeever (2013) examined the connections between the fundraising effort and behavioral intent to participate. Inclusion in similar groups predicted support for a fundraising event (p. 324); thus, seeking volunteers from a group or organization that promotes volunteerism may result in more support from the members of that organization. In a similar study, Vecina, Chacon, Marzana, and Marta (2013) focused primarily on the volunteers of a nonprofit; in particular, the researchers focused on the volunteers’ engagement, commitment, and
well-being, “since volunteers may be compensated only in the form of positive meanings and feelings” (p. 294). Results from their study revealed that if nonprofit organizations wish volunteers to remain for a long period of time, the volunteers must feel committed to the organization; however, if the organization wishes the volunteers to feel good about themselves (well-being), then they must be sure that the volunteers are involved in engaging work, such as handling meaningful tasks or problem-solving (Vecina et al., 2013, p. 299). Further, Lee and Brudney (2012) studied the effect of both social capital and human capital on formal volunteering (volunteering with an existing organization) and informal volunteering (volunteering to help non-household individuals). Results from their study revealed that those who have more social capital (involvement in many social networks, such as religious organizations) are more likely to engage in both formal and informal volunteering, while human capital (an earned college degree) is only positively associated with formal volunteering (Lee & Brudney, 2012).

In a recent article, McAllum (2014) focused on the meaning volunteers give to their work. Her results indicated that volunteering was “an experience that was both agentic and relational, that developed oneself as well as one’s relationships with others” (p. 92). Specifically, her results indicated that volunteers engage in volunteering activities along two pathways: freedom-reciprocity or giving-obligation. Ultimately, participants “integrated both agency and relationality into their understandings of volunteering. Participants expressed agency by referring to freedom and giving; reciprocity and obligation indicated how volunteers gave meaning to the relationships created through volunteering” (McAllum, 2014, p. 103). Clearly, understanding how communication from nonprofits motivates and satisfies volunteers is an important line of research.
The messages nonprofits use to recruit and maintain volunteers must be carefully crafted and are an important aspect of volunteerism. Recruitment strategies used by nonprofit organizations can be classified into three areas: narratives, message framing, and language style.

Narrative Research

One way that nonprofits may seek volunteers is through storytelling. Bilandzic and Busselle (2013) defined the concept of narrative persuasion as “any influence on beliefs, attitudes, or actions brought about by a narrative message through processes associated with narrative comprehension or engagement” (Bilandzic & Busselle, 2013, pp. 201-202). The two most important aspects of narrative persuasion are identification with characters and transportation into the story. As people actively engage in stories, “the realization of the story exists in the mind of audience members as they experience the narrative” (Bilandzic & Busselle, 2013, p. 201). Stories may even provide the motivation to “form behavioral intentions” (Green, 2006, p.175), and using a narrative approach when seeking volunteers may in fact help nonprofits gain more volunteers. As Keyton (2014) noted, “Storytelling is a device for employees to make sense of their organizations” (p. 556) and may be an effective way of transmitting the organization’s mission and purpose to a larger audience.

Understanding how narratives might shape public policy was the focus of a study by Niederdeppe, Shapiro, and Porticella (2011). The researchers used different message formats, including narratives and summaries of evidence, to connect causes of obesity with solutions. When obesity was framed as a societal issue through narratives, people began to understand how obesity might be more than just a personal issue. The
researchers found that using a story that acknowledges personal causes of obesity, such as choice of unhealthy foods, but puts more emphasis on various external causes, such as the environment or society, may allow more social responsibility for obesity to occur (Niederdeppe et al., 2011, p. 301). In order to gain public support for political intervention, the researchers suggested that health campaigns focus on the causes of obesity such as “the marketing of unhealthy foods, cost and availability of fresh produce, and safe, affordable neighborhood opportunities for physical activity” (Niederdeppe et al., 2011, p. 312). Furthermore, the researchers held that framing messages in “short, personal narratives” (Niederdeppe et al., 2011, p. 313) may raise public awareness and support for public policy; however, in their study, the narrative approach alone was only effective with liberals. Others in the study were persuaded only when the narrative was combined with other forms of proof, such as summaries of evidence. Using narratives in the creation of promotional messages may be beneficial to the nonprofit.

Message Framing

Another research area about the persuasiveness of messages focuses on framing: gain vs. loss framing and episodic vs. thematic framing. Gain-framing is portraying the message in a positive manner (emphasizing the benefits of complying with the message), loss-framing is portraying the message in a negative manner (emphasizing the costs of not complying with the message), episodic framing is portraying the message in an individual manner (the individual is responsible for the outcomes of the behavior), and thematic framing is portraying the message in a social environmental manner that includes both corporate and public policy (society and policy are responsible for the
outcomes). Understanding the effects of message framing could also help nonprofits as they seek to attract new volunteers.

Researching message frames and their impact on public policy, Puhl, Heuer, and Sarda (2011) found that “message frames addressing weight-based stereotypes and research evidence increased the likelihood for support for antidiscrimination laws among women” (p. 870). Lawrence (2004) also noted the importance of reframing obesity to promote policy change: “Reframing health risks and responsibilities is crucial to changing the opinion environment in which policy change will be considered” (Lawrence, 2004, p. 62). He claims that, currently, obesity is framed as a biological disorder (it can be medically cured), as an individual behavior (that it is in the control of the individual), or as an environmental issue (unhealthy foods are advertised more, fresh produce is more costly and less available, opportunities for physical activity are limited) (Lawrence, 2004); however, the more obesity is framed as an environmental issue, the more the public will believe this to be true. This reframing can cause an increase in the understanding of “environmental causation” (Lawrence, 2004, p. 69), and through this reframing, policy intervention may be more accepted by the public.

Message framing is an important issue to consider when crafting volunteer recruitment messages. Internal stakeholders of the nonprofit must consider how messages are crafted and modify those messages according to the group they are addressing. Investigating whether the internal stakeholders are even aware of message framing techniques and how these message frames were used could lend insight into the strategic communication used by the nonprofit organization, especially when recruiting volunteers.
Language Style

Another area of persuasion research focuses on the language style used in recruitment messages. Reviewing and understanding the results from this line of research could help nonprofits create persuasive messages for volunteers. Kronrod and colleagues (2012) analyzed the assertive language (use of imperative language) used in today’s pro-health/pro-environment messages to determine the impact of this language on consumers. As they note, “usually assertive language demanding the consumer to comply with the request is met with resistance; however, when used in environmental promotions, the use of assertive language may signal urgency and importance to the consumer” (Kronrod et al., 2012, p. 96). Their study revealed that if “message receivers perceive an issue as important, they are affected more by assertive than nonassertive phrasing and are more willing to comply with the message” (Kronrod et al., 2012, p. 100). In another study focusing on different language styles, Miller, Lane, Deatrick, Young, and Potts (2007), sought to discover if concrete or abstract language would be more persuasive for young adults. Concrete language refers to “specific and particular words or phrases, while abstract language is less precise and requires consumers to infer and interpret the message” (Miller et al., 2007, p. 225). The researchers found that the level of concrete detail a health message contains “can have a significant effect on the acceptance and success of a promotional health message” (Miller et al., 2007, p. 235) to young adults. Concrete messages were received “with greater attention and viewed as more important than the less concrete messages … and the concrete message source was viewed more positively than the abstract message source” (Miller et al., 2007, p. 235).
Finally, in a recent longitudinal study, Botner and colleagues (2015) compared the types of messages used in nonprofits, including the “charity’s brand name, tagline, or mission statement, which may signal to prospective donors the charity’s intent” (p. 39). Specifically, the researchers studied the use of supportive messages (promoting a cause) versus combative messages (fighting against something) with level of donations, volunteering, and likelihood to survive. Results from their study indicated that nonprofits that use supportive positioning have more donations, more volunteers, and are more likely to survive in today’s economy. The authors concluded “a supportive orientation garners higher levels of donations over time compared with a combative orientation” (Botner et al., 2015, p. 50). This research supports the importance of messages, especially for nonprofits that “can utilize the name and/or accompanying message tone of their organization to sustain long-term contributions” (Botner et al., 2015, p. 50).

Volunteers are a primary stakeholder group for those nonprofit organizations with limited staff; therefore, the messages used to recruit volunteers are vital to the successful operation of the nonprofit. As the aforementioned research revealed, strategic messaging to this particular stakeholder group, including using narratives, framing, and language style, is imperative if the nonprofit seeks to grow its volunteer base; however, increasing a volunteer base may directly or indirectly affect the current volunteer pool resulting in a paradox for the organization. As stakeholder theory suggests, being aware of and maintaining the relationships between stakeholder groups is of utmost importance if these two stakeholder groups (old and new volunteers) are to be satisfied. Understanding this paradox and how the nonprofit balances this paradox will elucidate the communicative strategies needed for the successful handling of these two particular stakeholder groups.
Ideological Framing and Discourse

Communication is rife with contradictions, both in words and actions, and many communication scholars have addressed these inherent contradictions and how to manage them for more productive relationships. Mumby and Stohl (1996) offered a framework for understanding the role of communication in creating meaning in relationships: “the relationships among communication, culture and meaning can be fruitfully articulated by adopting the notion of ideology as an integrative concept” (p. 293) because “ideology mobilizes meaning in a particular way – it creates a certain relationship between sign and referent which predisposes social actors toward a certain interpretation of an event” (p. 297). This ideology framework emphasizes the component of power as a “constitutive element in the communication process” (Mumby & Stohl, 1996, p. 292). As Mumby and Stohl (1996) contended, “ideology provides the underlying logic which guides and constrains discourse, while at the same time discourse is the means by which ideology is continually produced and reproduced” (p. 302).

Research using an ideology framework can help to clarify issues surrounding organizational communication, particularly nonprofit or religious organizations, because they deal with contradictory issues continuously. In a study of a faith-based nonprofit, Molloy and Heath (2014) used the idea of competing ideologies to understand the discourses of employees and volunteers. The researchers identified the organizational ideologies present and examined the “bridge discourses” (Molloy & Heath, 2014, p. 387) used by the organization and how these contradictory ideologies were managed. These bridge discourses “reveal larger ideological messages of work” (Molloy & Heath, 2014, p. 389), and their research sought to “illuminate the various ways that competing
ideological commitments are negotiated in the work-place” (Molloy & Heath, 2014, p. 390). As the researchers explained, “Bridge discourses constitute organizational discourse because they are ways of talking about and within the organizations that are uniquely attributed to and constructed by organizational leaders and members” (Molloy & Heath, 2014, p. 397). Their findings suggested that a “faith-based or spiritual organization has an intrinsic, transcendent focus on the spiritual, which is embedded in everyday work, mission, and practice (Molloy & Heath, 2014, p. 388), but these organizations must hold both “profit and mission driven values” (Molloy & Heath, 2014, p. 388).

Competing ideologies can also be noted in the “business” of nonprofit organizations as they handle the contradictions between working for social good and being a responsible business. Sanders (2012) noted that “the existence of this tension [financial imperatives and pursuing a social mission] arises from the contradictory nature of the nonprofit sector itself” (p. 181). Nonprofits must follow effective business practices and also “contribute to the common good” (Sanders, 2012, p. 181); therefore, tensions between two contradictory issues—financial imperatives and social goals—arise. As Sanders (2012) argued, “as organizations seek to establish an identity with a broad and diverse public, they will need to communicate an identity that draws on the meaningfulness of nonprofit work as well as the economic sustainability of their operations” (p. 183). This organizational identity stems from the organizational ideology and may compete with the business aspect of the nonprofit. Further, Ganesh and McAlum (2012) found that there are competing ideologies about professionalism and volunteerism prevalent in nonprofit organizations. As they argued, “volunteering involves sustained
identity investments by volunteers performed and realized in organizational settings” (Ganesh & McAlum, 2012, p. 152); however, they also noted that “when volunteering and *professionalism* are held in tension, the very practices that constitute volunteering can be understood as forms of unpaid, amateur, and low-status labor” (Ganesh & McAlum, 2012, p. 153). This understanding seems to contradict the importance of volunteers within a nonprofit, and may result in less satisfying relationships or feelings about the nonprofit. Ideological contradictions may result in contradictory discourses and practices within the nonprofit.

Sanders and McClellan (2014), in an ethnographic study of a nonprofit, noted, “engaging in nonprofit work in a business-like manner conceptually draws upon a contradiction” (p.69), but “it is more productive to understand how nonprofit practitioners negotiate and live with these differing concerns in everyday organizational life” (p. 70). Their research focused on how nonprofit practitioners dealt with this tension. Results indicated that the nonprofit personnel did indeed view the nonprofit as a business, and dealing with it as a business “was seen as common sense, and a basic requirement for good management” (Sanders & McClellan, 2014, p. 76); however, as the researchers also noted, “being business-like was identified as raising and responsibly using money, but not associated with traditional business logics” (Sanders & McClellan, 2014, p. 76). Ultimately, the participants understood that business and social missions are “inseparably connected activities” (Sanders & McClellan, 2014, p. 76). Nonprofits must deal with these competing ideologies as they conduct the business of providing social support.
Finally, Wright (2013) studied the everyday tensions between the management and staff of several nonprofits. She analyzed the “experiences of individual employees …within the organization” (Wright, 2013, p. 80) to understand the “knowledge gap” (Wright, 2013, p. 80) that occurred between management and front-line employees. Wright’s (2013) findings revealed that upper management may be more likely to satisfy donors rather than clients; however, “individual employees, especially at lower levels, daily strive to provide high-quality care and bring about social change within the confines of a hierarchical and increasingly corporatized structure” (p. 81). This research revealed that a variety of competing discourses and ideologies were present in nonprofit organizations, and these contradictions should be observed and analyzed for a better, more nuanced understanding of how nonprofits handle these contradictions through discourse, especially in the area of volunteer recruitment and satisfaction of volunteer service.

This area of research would help scholars and practitioners alike understand and explain how communication of a nonprofit was enacted; therefore, several research questions were also posed to guide the research and more fully develop an understanding of volunteerism from an inside perspective. The following research questions guided the study:

RQ 1: How do staff members at a local nonprofit create and alter messages to influence others interpersonally?

RQ 2: How do staff members at a local nonprofit create and alter messages to accommodate others and handle contradictions with the organization and its mission?
Summary

These aforementioned studies and results suggested that recruiting and maintaining a committed volunteer pool for a nonprofit is a complex issue. Continued research into these communicative activities could reveal more nuanced understandings of the process, especially using several theories designed to guide this type of research. First, stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) was used as a general lens to analyze the study as a whole. Understanding the overall communication atmosphere and behavior of internal stakeholders would lead to an emergent understanding of stakeholder importance for this nonprofit. Second, self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) was used to analyze volunteer satisfaction using the new model of four combined variables: motivation, identification to the organization, attachment to the organization and its mission, and interpersonal relationships. Using both quantitative data from the volunteers and qualitative data from internal stakeholders would result in more nuanced findings, specifically of volunteer satisfaction. Third, communication accommodation theory (Giles, 1973) was used to analyze and understand the messages used by internal stakeholders as they sought to maintain satisfied volunteers and recruit new volunteers.

By using three theories, the researcher was able to extract deeper explanations and understandings of volunteerism from a dual perspective. Faith-based nonprofit organizations use communication differently than other nonprofit and for profit organizations. Engagement with these particular types of organizations can lend insights and understanding to the patterns, strategies, and tensions present. Namely, motivations of and identities or attachments with and relationships within faith-based organizations may affect how volunteers were recruited and maintained. In this specific study, data
were focused on what motivates volunteers of a local nonprofit to volunteer at the organization, how volunteers identify with and become attached to the nonprofit organization, and how interpersonal relationships affect the volunteers’ satisfaction. Secondly, understanding the effects of nonprofit messages of volunteer recruitment produced more nuanced understandings of the message patterns present in the variety of messages produced. Moreover, this research sought to identify the communication patterns and strategies used to develop and maintain relationships with volunteers of the nonprofit. Finally, this research sought to more fully understand how a faith-based nonprofit managed the apparent tensions in ideological contradictions of nonprofit work: specifically, to understand the discourse strategies used by a faith-based nonprofit to manage these ideological tensions as they sought to create a positive atmosphere for both staff and volunteers.
CHAPTER III – METHODS

The main purpose of this research project was to explore communication theory and communication strategy in a faith-based nonprofit organization. Edwards Street Fellowship Center (ESFC) is a nonprofit, faith-based organization located in a poverty-dense neighborhood within a deep South urban area. The Hattiesburg District of the United Methodist Church initially started the organization in 1979 as an after-school and weekend program for children and youth (ESFC History, para. 2). The organization operated out of a defunct Methodist church but soon morphed into an emergency food resource for the poor and underprivileged. The Church purchased land, and a building was constructed across the street from the original site. Today, the new site serves as an emergency food pantry for more than 1,000 families each month (ESFC Food Pantry, para. 1). Further, ESFC opened a thrift store in another underprivileged part of town to help disadvantaged families buy clothes at a reduced rate and generate income for the food pantry (ESFC Thrift Store, para. 5). Multiple community programs, like a women’s weekly bible study, a tutoring program for struggling young readers, and both boys’ and girls’ scouting programs are held at ESFC.

There are 12 employees at ESFC: an executive director, a program director, a full-time food pantry manager, a full-time thrift store manager, a part-time receptionist/customer service representative, two part-time food pantry workers, a part-time accounting clerk, and four part-time thrift store clerks. Approximately 50 volunteers work at the food pantry and thrift store each month. Additionally, two of ESFC’s volunteers actually have offices; one volunteer works a 40-hour week in the thrift store
and another volunteer works 30 hours each week at the food pantry, helping to maintain the grounds and coordinate volunteer activities. Both are unpaid by ESFC.

This study took an organizational case study approach, employing a variety of methods for data collection, including surveys and interviews, allowing the researcher to gather multiple perspectives rather than “relying on a single data source” (Cresswell, 2013, p. 45). The researcher sought to more fully understand the communicative processes involved amongst ESFC staff, volunteers, and board of directors. Such as understanding can only occur by “talking directly with people … allowing them to tell the stories unencumbered” (Cresswell, 2013, p. 48). Using a case study approach was appropriate for this study because ESFC is a unique non-profit organization whose overall mission is to end or seriously reduce the need for assistance; however, the services of the center sometimes contradict that goal. This study illustrated the uniqueness of ESFC’s constituent and stakeholder communication and behavior, thus offering a more detailed understanding of how organizational missions and services may be at odds with one another.

The multiple means used to gather data allowed the researcher to gain an “in-depth understanding” (Cresswell, 2013, p. 98) of ESFC communicative behavior and patterns. After data were collected, the researcher applied inductive reasoning to “build patterns, categories, and themes from the ‘bottom up’” (Cresswell, 2013, p. 45). To help the researcher see “a complex picture of the problem or issue under study” (Cresswell, 2013, p. 47), research was conducted in two phases. Phase I was a quantitative study of volunteers of the nonprofit, and Phase II was a qualitative study of the internal
stakeholders of the organization, consisting of observations and interviews with all staff and three long-term volunteers.

Phase I

Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984), suggests that communication is the mechanism through which all stakeholders are connected, and three assumptions set forth in the theory are particularly relevant here: (1) communication between and among stakeholder groups is vital to the operation (or even the existence) of the organization, (2) management of these relationships and the integration of the relationships will affect the successful operation of the organization, and (3) all stakeholder groups must be considered during decision-making; therefore, the satisfaction of volunteers for nonprofit organizations should be impacted by the communication from internal stakeholders. Specifically, the volunteer’s internal and external motivations, identification with the organization, and attachment to the organization and its mission should affect the level of the volunteer’s satisfaction with the volunteer experience. Since the survey instrument was a compilation of separate measures, a pilot test was conducted.

Pilot Study

After receiving IRB approval from the corresponding university, the researcher first conducted a pilot study to test the reliability and validity of the newly constructed survey.

Measures

The survey used was comprised of four instruments to best capture a complete picture of adults who work or volunteer for this nonprofit organization. Additional
demographic information (age, gender, length of volunteer service, and status within the organization) was also included on the survey and used in analysis. (See Appendix C).

**Volunteer job survey.** This 25-question survey was developed by Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) to assess the level of satisfaction volunteers feel toward their work at the organization. The researchers developed the survey instrument from a review of volunteer literature and tested the instrument’s reliability and validity in a study of 327 volunteers for an international nonprofit. The instrument consists of Likert-type items with the poles being very dissatisfied to very satisfied. Results from factor analysis indicated four dimensions of intent to remain: organizational support (Chronbach’s alpha = 0.91), participation efficacy (Chronbach’s alpha = 0.84), empowerment (Chronbach’s alpha = 0.75), and group integration (Chronbach’s alpha = 0.87). Using a Pearson’s product moment correlation, the researchers found significant correlations between the four factors. Regression analysis was used to test the predictive validity of the instrument with intent to remain at the organization. Of the four factors, two were significantly predictive: participation and group integration.

**Volunteer functions inventory.** This 30-item survey was developed by Clary et al. (1998) to determine the motivational factors of volunteering. Researchers developed the survey instrument from general psychological and social functions of volunteerism based on a review of literature and tested the instrument’s reliability and validity using 465 participants from five nonprofit organizations. The instrument consists of 30 Likert-type items with the poles being not at all important to extremely important. Factor analysis resulted in six dimensions of motivation: value (Chronbach’s alpha = 0.82), understanding (Chronbach’s alpha = 0.84), social (Chronbach’s alpha = 0.82), protective
(Chronbach’s alpha = 0.83), enhancement (Chronbach’s alpha = 0.85), and career (Chronbach’s alpha = 0.85). This survey instrument’s “reliably and validly taps a set of motivations of generic relevance to volunteerism” (Clary, et al., 1998, p. 1519).

To test the instrument further, Finkelstien (2009) used the volunteer functions inventory in a survey of 287 student volunteers. Results indicated that the volunteer functions inventory was a valid and reliable instrument to use to assess a person’s motivation to volunteer. Further, researchers found that the first five dimensions of the instrument were indicators of intrinsic motivation (Chronbach’s alpha = 0.95), and the sixth dimension (career category) was indicative of extrinsic motivation (Chronbach’s alpha = 0.85). Finkelstein (2009) noted that “the internal/external categorization provides a useful framework for re-examining the volunteer experience” (p. 654) and the results confirmed the “internal/external distinction” (p. 655). Finkelstien (2009) “used these two categories of motive rather than the six” (p. 655). Significant correlation was found between both intrinsic motivation and internal motives, and extrinsic motivation and extrinsic motives, thereby reinforcing the idea that “constructs fundamental to the volunteer process were systematically related to intrinsic and extrinsic tendencies” (p. 656).

Identification with the organization. This six-item survey was developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992) to explain organizational identification as “the perception of oneness with or belongingness to an organization, where the individual defines him or herself in terms of the organization(s) in which he or she is a member” (p. 104). The instrument consists of six Likert-type items with the poles being strongly disagree to strongly agree. Results from a survey of 297 alumni of an all-male religious university confirmed that
identification with an organization is indeed a dimension to be studied (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Although the authors did not report Chronbach’s alpha for this particular study, they did cite several other studies with Chronbach’s alpha ranging from 0.81 to 0.87.

Attachment to mission. This four-item survey, developed by Brown et al. (2004) was used to understand how employees perceive an organization’s mission and how this perception may affect employee attitudes. The instrument consists of Likert-type items with the poles from strongly disagree to strongly agree. A study of 304 employees of a nation-wide nonprofit (YMCA) was conducted. Mission attachment was assessed with four questions within a larger job satisfaction/attitude scale developed by the YMCA. Mission attachment questions specifically asked “employees about their awareness and contribution to the organization’s mission” (Brown et al., 2004, p. 35). Chronbach’s alpha for the four mission attachment questions was 0.76. These four items were altered to reflect the current nonprofit organization’s mission and were included in the survey to determine if the volunteers are aware of the organization’s mission. The complete instrument for this study can be found in Appendix C.

Participants

Long-term volunteers (n = 11) at a small nonprofit organization were asked to voluntarily participate in the study. Eleven volunteers accepted this invitation. Participants signed the consent form and completed the survey on a day they normally volunteered at the nonprofit. Of the participants, 6 were female and 5 were male; the mean age was 35.09 years, with a range of 25 years to 53 years. The mean of volunteer service time with the organization was 2.91 years, with a range of 1 to 5 years.
Procedures

After the participants signed the consent form, the researcher handed them the survey to complete. After participants completed the survey, the researcher asked for permission to interview them on their next visit to the organization.

Analysis

For the pilot study, reliability statistics were calculated for all variables to check the reliability of the measure. The researcher used Chronbach’s Alpha because it “provides an excellent technique for assessing reliability” (Carmine & Zeller, 1979, p. 50). Further, the developers of the individual instruments (Brown et al., 2004; Clary et al., 1998; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Mael & Ashforth, 1992) all used Chronbach’s Alpha to determine the reliability of their instruments; therefore, Chronbach’s Alpha was used to check reliability of the current instrument. Alpha levels were high for all variables: volunteer satisfaction = 0.95; internal motivation = 0.84; external motivation = 0.83; identification with the organization = 0.84; attachment to the organization and its mission = 0.92.

Principle Component Analysis was used to check validity because it “informs researchers about patterns within data sets” (Field, 2013, p. 705). For satisfaction, all item loaded on a single factor; however, one item was low. Although this item was low, (0.66), it was still included in the current study to see if it loaded differently than in the pilot study. For identification with the organization, all eight items loaded on a single factor; for attachment to the organization and its mission, all six items loaded on a single factor; for motivation, all items loaded on six factors, consistent with the same six factors previously noted in research (Clary et al., 1992; Finkelstien, 2009).
Regression analysis was used to predict the level of satisfaction from motivation of the volunteer, identification with the organization, and attachment to the organization and its mission. To determine if the three dependent variables (motivation, identification, and attachment) were correlated to the independent variable (satisfaction), correlation tests were run for each variable. A Pearson’s product-moment correlation was computed to assess the relationship between volunteer satisfaction and motivation of the volunteer, the volunteer’s level of identification with the organization, and the volunteer’s level of attachment with the organization and its mission.

Results

Reliability and validity tests revealed that the instrument used in the pilot study was both reliable and valid. Further, correlation tests reveal that the volunteer’s level of satisfaction was positively correlated to the volunteer’s level of identification with the organization, \( r = .820, n = 11, p = .002 \); however, results from a linear regression indicated that the model was significant. In other words, the overall combination of these three independent variables (motivation, identification, and attachment) did predict the level of volunteer satisfaction, \( F [3,7] = 4.8, p = .04 \); however, assessing each of the independent variables for its contribution, only identification was a statistically significant predictor.

Discussion

The pilot test revealed that the new survey was a reliable and valid instrument for testing volunteer satisfaction. The model was predictive of volunteer satisfaction; however a linear regression indicated only a relationship between the level of volunteer satisfaction and identification with the organization. Although past research has shown
strong positive relationships between motivation and satisfaction (Clary, et al., 1992) and attachment and satisfaction (Brown et al., 2004), no significance was noted in this pilot study. Further, since the sample size was so small, results from the linear regression and correlation tests were only conducted as preliminary findings to justify the fit of the new model to volunteer satisfaction.

After the surveys were completed, the researcher conducted interviews with the 11 volunteers of the nonprofit. Each of the participants were asked why they volunteered for the organization, to describe their work at the organization, what was most important to them about the volunteer work they did with the organization. Through these interviews, it was revealed that the interpersonal relationships between the nonprofit staff and the volunteers were a strong reason that the volunteers continued working for the nonprofit; participants said that they “really like the people they work with,” and that the staff of the organization were “friendly, and fun to be around.” Therefore, interpersonal relationship questions were added to the survey instrument for the current study. A review of interpersonal relationship literature was conducted, and questions about the nature and quality of relationships within the nonprofit were constructed using a summated rating scale.

The review of the literature allowed the researcher to “come to an understanding of the phenomenon” (Carmines & Zeller, 1979, p. 21) and revealed that interpersonal relationships were important, especially in employee satisfaction and levels of productivity. In a recent study about interpersonal relationships within businesses, Sulea (2014) noted that “relationships with individuals at work are essential to a satisfactory working life” (Sulea, 2014, p. 98). Further, in a meta-analysis of organizational research
dealing with interpersonal relationships within organizations, Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) concluded that “coworkers matter uniquely” (p. 1089). In another meta-analysis about the social characteristics of work, Humprey, Nahrgang, and Morgenson (2007), revealed that “social characteristics provide a unique perspective on work design beyond motivational characteristics” (p. 1347). The researchers examined the social context of the work environment including “interdependence, feedback from others, social support, and interaction outside the organization” (p. 1344), and found highly significant correlations between social context and job satisfaction. Further, in a recent study by Tews, Michel, and Allen (2014), the researchers found that the interpersonal relationships between coworkers in the service industry positively correlated to employee satisfaction. As the researchers noted, “coworker socializing is characterized as coworkers being friendly, outgoing and social” (p. 928). Results from their study found that coworker socializing was indeed important in decreasing employee turnover. As they noted, “entry-level employees in the hospitality industry appear to particularly value coworkers who are friendly, outgoing and who socialize with one another, as well as managers who allow and encourage fun on the job” (p. 940).

The aforementioned research revealed the importance of interpersonal relationships within working environments. It can thus be concluded that these same relationships would affect volunteers who often act as employees of an organization, and questions to address interpersonal relationships between the volunteer and staff of the nonprofit were included in the current study.
Current Study

Phase I

After receiving IRB approval from the corresponding university, the researcher conducted a survey to address the four hypotheses: (1) satisfaction of the volunteer will be positively correlated with volunteer motivations, (2) identification with the organization will be positively correlated with satisfaction of the volunteer, (3) attachment to the organization and its mission will be positively correlated with satisfaction of the volunteer, and (4) perceived level of interpersonal relationships will be positively correlated with satisfaction of the volunteer.

Measures. Measures of the three independent variables used in the pretest were used, along with items to assess interpersonal relationships between volunteers and staff of the nonprofit. Results from personal interviews with the pilot study volunteers revealed the importance of interpersonal relationships to the level of volunteer satisfaction and were therefore added to the final instrument. The six questions addressing interpersonal relationships were developed from an extensive review of interpersonal communication literature and focused on the volunteers’ relationship with staff members of the nonprofit organization. In particular, questions about friendships at work, sharing stories with others at work, and the general work climate were addressed in the six questions. The questions asked respondents to rate their interpersonal experiences on a seven-point scale with the poles being strongly disagree to strongly agree. Interpersonal relationships are complex and several items were needed to ascertain the quality and nature of these relationships. First, the interpersonal relationship construct was defined as such: the nature and quality of the friendships with staff and other
volunteers with whom the volunteer works and the friendliness of the work environment. Second, the construct definition gave direction to the scale development. The six questions addressed friendships, ability to be oneself while at work, and the atmosphere of the work environment, thus assessing several dimensions of interpersonal relationships between the volunteers and staff members or other volunteers; however, each item addressed only one idea. An item analysis was conducted to ascertain internal consistency. Factor analysis revealed that all six items loaded on one factor. To determine if the scale was reliable in consistently measuring the level and nature of the interpersonal relationships, the researcher conducted Chronbach’s alpha because this method can provide “an excellent technique for assessing reliability” (Carminers, & Zellner, 1979, p. 50). The six-question scale was highly consistent (.92). Further, Principle Component Analysis was used to recheck validity to determine if the scale accurately measured interpersonal relationships. Results indicated that the scale “measured its intended construct” (Spector, 1992, p. 6); thus, the six questions to address the quality of interpersonal relationships within the organization were added to the full survey for the current project.

Reliability and Validity Checks

To recheck reliability, Chronbach’s alpha was computed and the scales were reliable: satisfaction = 0.978, motivation = 0.948; identification = 0.911, attachment = 0.923, interpersonal relationships = 0.923.

Further, to recheck validity, factor analysis revealed that all variables again loaded on one factor except motivation, which loaded on six factors, as indicated by past research and the pilot study analysis. For satisfaction, all variables loaded on a single
factor and ranged from 0.682 - 0.899. For identification, all variables loaded on a single
factor and ranged from 0.782 - 0.909. For attachment, all variables loaded on a single
factor and ranged from 0.782 - 0.909. For interpersonal relationships, all variables loaded
on a single factor and ranged from 0.820 - 0.921. For motivation, all variables loaded on
6 factors and ranged from 0.571 - .0839. For loadings on all questions, see Table E1.

Procedures. The survey was available in three ways. First, paper copies of the
survey were available at the Edwards Street locations for current volunteers to complete.
Second, a brief explanation of the survey’s purpose and a link to the survey was emailed
to past and current volunteers and to the board of directors using Edwards Street database
(187 people) and information was posted on the University list serve to make the survey
available to students and faculty (many of whom volunteer at ESFC) of the University.

Participants. The survey was completed by 87 people, approximately 46% of the
original sample of 187 people. For a population this size, the sample was sufficient.
Based on the sample size of 87, the researcher can be 92% confident that the survey truly
reflects the population (Field, 2013). Of the participants reporting their sex, 41 were
female and 26 were male; the mean age was 34.5 years, with a range of 18 years to 88
years. Volunteer service time with the organization was obtained through categorical
levels. Of the participants reporting how long they had been volunteering, nearly one-
third of the volunteers (n = 28) were fairly new to the organization (only volunteered a
few times), one-third of the participants had volunteered from several months to about
two years (n = 23), and nearly one-third of the participants (n = 20) had volunteered more
than three years at the organization.
Phase II

During this second phase of data collection, the researcher worked from a qualitative perspective, using observations of the day-to-day activities and recruitment talks of the nonprofit staff, and conducted interviews with key internal stakeholders.

**Observations.** Since the researcher was a regular volunteer at ESFC, observations were unobtrusive and natural, therefore allowing for a more “naturalistic inquiry” (Tracy, 2013, p. 29) of the issues facing ESFC. The researcher had been volunteering at ESFC for the three and a half years and thus was a familiar face among staff, volunteers, and clientele. These observations allowed for an outsider’s view from the inside. As Tracy (2013) indicated, “participant observation includes not only *studying people*, but also *learning from (and with) people*” (p. 65); therefore, the researcher used this practice during the duration of the project. Additionally, the researcher took notes during and after the observations to help with recalling the encounters, allowing the researcher to “keep one foot outside the scene by consistently taking field notes and intermittently leaving” (Tracy, 2013, p. 109) in order to record the scene actively and accurately. Since “observation is one of the key tools for collecting data in qualitative research” (Cresswell, 2013, p. 166), this method of research is both valid and acceptable within the field of social sciences.

Since the researcher was a regular volunteer at the organization, she was able to observe behavior and action of the two main sites of ESFC, (the main office where the food bank is housed and the thrift store which was opened to financially support the food bank). When the project started, the researcher recorded the full range of activity; however, as the project progressed, the researcher focused on activities relevant to the
issues of interest for the study. By specifically focusing on activities pertaining to the research question, (how do staff members at a local nonprofit create and alter messages to influence others interpersonally, and how do staff members at a local nonprofit alter create and alter messages to handle and accommodate contradictions with the organization and its mission?), the researcher’s notes began focusing on interpersonal behavior of the staff and the overall environment within which these behaviors occurred.

Interviews. One-on-one interviews were conducted, as well. The researcher interviewed 11 people who either worked or volunteered at ESFC. All interviewees were key stakeholders of the organization and included all full-time staff members, all part-time staff members who had been working for at least one year, three long-term volunteers, and the current president of the board of directors. ESFC granted permission to the researcher to conduct the study, and a complete list of volunteers and board members was provided.

The interviews were semi-structured; the researcher entered the conversation with a set of questions, but she allowed the interview to “stimulate discussion rather than dictate it” (Tracy, 2013, p. 139). Further, the interviews were considered “respondent interviews” (Tracy, 2013, p. 141) because all key stakeholders were interviewed; however, all participants held different positions within the organization, and therefore had different experiences with the organization.

The semi-structured interviews were conducted using a narrative theory framework (Fisher, 1985), allowing the participants to tell their stories to the researcher while answering the questions. This method is a “reliable, trustworthy, and desirable guide to belief and action” (Fisher, 1985, p. 355). By allowing the participants to tell their
stories, especially of how they started working there and what they hoped to accomplish in their work, the researcher could better ascertain the complete picture of each participant’s answers. The researcher also asked specifically about the importance of recruiting and satisfying volunteers. Each interview lasted from 30 minutes to 1.5 hours and was audio taped. Next, the interviews were transcribed and resulted in approximately 50 pages of interview transcripts. These interview transcripts were analyzed thematically regarding volunteer recruitment, interpersonal relationships with volunteers and other staff members, the climate of the working environment, and strategies used to handle the contradictory tensions of the organization. The researcher did have a set of questions to ask participants (How long have you been working/volunteering at Edwards Street? How would you describe your work? Why do you work/volunteer here? What is the best thing about the work you do? What do you hope to accomplish through your work? How is working with volunteers?), and the questions were used to prompt discussion and storytelling from the participant. For a complete set of questions, see Appendix D.

The researcher read all transcriptions several times, seeking common themes between all of the participants’ stories of their work at the nonprofit. Once the researcher discovered a particular thematic idea, the data from the interviews were highlighted and labeled. This allowed the researcher to visualize the themes in the interview transcripts. In this “primary-cycle coding” (Tracy, 2013, p. 189), the researcher was able to distinguish common themes of the data. As the general themes emerged, the researcher created a codebook to make sense of the data, noting who said what in the codebook. Three main themes emerged from the data.
Analysis of Volunteer Maintenance Strategies

After the first level of analysis, the researcher unitized parts of the transcripts into short phrases or words used by the participants from several portions of the interviews: tell me about your work here, what do you hope to accomplish in your work, and how do you interact with volunteers and other staff members? The researcher used 308 units of the interviews to determine common patterns in language between participants. The researcher and two outside coders categorized the units. Initially, the coders were asked to “place” the units into the first-level codes reflecting the initial themes noted in the interview transcripts; however, many units did not fit into any of the original thematic categories; therefore, the researcher and coders met to discuss those units that did not fall into an established category. The researcher and coders added three more categories, and the coders were asked to “place” the other units into these newly created categories. The researcher and coders met again, and after discussion and revisiting the research questions that guided this project, two of the categories were collapsed into one more meaningful category. The final analysis resulted in four categories with overall agreement on 271 of the 308 units of discourse.

Analysis of Volunteer Recruitment Messages

The researcher was able to observe two different recruitment encounters, resulting in more field notes. Next, the researcher analyzed the answers to specific recruitment strategies. Although all internal stakeholders understood the importance of recruitment and portraying a positive attitude about the organization, only four internal stakeholders were official recruiters for the organization: the executive director, the program director, the president of the board of directors, and one long-term volunteer. The importance of
volunteer recruitment (and to some extent, donors) was evident in all interviews; however, the four official recruiters’ answers resulted in more data. Again, the researcher used a codebook to understand the data. The codebook allowed the researcher to visualize and make sense of the common patterns within recruitment strategies used by the internal stakeholders.
CHAPTER IV - QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESULTS

The previous chapter explained the methods used in both phases of the study. The methods used in phase I quantitatively investigated the relationship between volunteer satisfaction and several independent variables: motivation, identification with the organization, attachment to the organization and its mission, and the relationships formed between volunteers and staff members of the organization. The hypotheses presented in chapter two were derived from past literature and individual interviews with pilot test volunteers. Moreover, the previous chapter explained the methods used in phase two of the study. The qualitative methods included observations of the organization and interviews with key internal stakeholders of the organization, including employees and long-term volunteers. The results from each phase of the study will be presented separately.

Phase I Results

Phase I of this study was a quantitative study of volunteer’s satisfaction with the nonprofit organization under study. Using version 22 of SPSS, the researcher analyzed the collected data from 87 participants.

Regression

Regression analysis was conducted to explore the assumption that all four variables combined would be predictive of the level of volunteer satisfaction. As shown in Table 1, a linear regression revealed that the model was a significant predictor of the level of satisfaction for the volunteer, \( F[4, 52] = 1098.6, p = .000 \). As the model indicated, approximately 89% of the variance was attributable to the combination of these four variables. Assessing each of the variables for its contribution to this prediction
revealed that identification, attachment, and interpersonal relationships were all statistically significant. Motivation was not statistically significant.

Table 1

*Linear Regression of Model*

**Model Summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.945&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.894</td>
<td>.886</td>
<td>8.93050</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation, Identification, Attachment, Relationships

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
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<td>8739.463</td>
<td>109.580</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>79.754</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39105.053</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction
b. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation, Identification, Attachment, Relationships

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-2.115</td>
<td>8.512</td>
<td>-.249</td>
<td>.805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td>.242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attachment</td>
<td>1.695</td>
<td>.427</td>
<td>.384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>1.561</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>.395</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction
The high correlations between independent variables suggest that multiple
collinearity may exist. Collinearily diagnostics were performed. No variable had a
variance inflation factor above 5, a common indicator level (Field, 2013). The
significance of the t-tests demonstrated that reduction of power was not an issue, except
potentially for motivation, the only non-significant tolerance of 0.93 and a VIF of 1.08,
thus collinearity was not an issue for this variable. (See Table 2).
Table 2

Collinearity Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Tolerance</th>
<th>VIF</th>
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<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-2.115</td>
<td>8.512</td>
<td>-.249</td>
<td>.805</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td>.242</td>
<td>3.533</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attachment</td>
<td>1.695</td>
<td>.427</td>
<td>.384</td>
<td>3.969</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
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<td>.036</td>
<td>.029</td>
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<td>.534</td>
<td>.927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>1.561</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>.395</td>
<td>4.554</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.272</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

Correlation Tests

Using a Pearson’s product moment correlation, the researcher found significant
correlations between three of the independent variables on volunteer satisfaction:
identification, attachment, and interpersonal relationships as shown in Table 3.
Identification with the organization was positively associated with volunteer satisfaction,
thus, hypothesis 2 was accepted: \(r = .799, n = 63, \ p = .000\); attachment to the
organization and its mission was positively associated with volunteer satisfaction, thus,
hypothesis 3 was accepted: \(r = .908, n = 65, \ p = .000\); interpersonal relationships
between volunteers and staff were positively associated with volunteer satisfaction, thus, hypothesis 4 was accepted: \[ r = .879, n = 62, p = .000 \].

Table 3

*Correlation table of all variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>SAT</th>
<th>MOT</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>ATT</th>
<th>REL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.217</td>
<td>.799**</td>
<td>.908**</td>
<td>.879**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

SAT = satisfaction, MOT = motivation, ID = identification, ATT = attachment, REL = relationships

Motivation of the volunteer was not positively associated with volunteer satisfaction, thus, hypothesis 1 was rejected: \[ r = .217, n = 57, p = .105 \]; however, when the motivation variable was broken down into internal and external motivation, internal motivation was positively correlated with satisfaction, \[ r = .297, n = 57, p = .025 \], while external motivation was not correlated, \[ r = -.132, n = 60, p = .314 \]. See Table 4.

Table 4

*Correlation table of internal/external motivation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>Ex. Motivation</th>
<th>In. Motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.132</td>
<td>.297*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.314</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
To determine if the independent variables (identification, attachment, and interpersonal relationships) were related to the volunteer’s intention to remain with the organization, Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation tests were conducted and results are shown in Table 5. All variables were positively and significantly related to the volunteers’ intention to remain at the organization: identification and intent to remain ($r = .456, n = 66, p = .000$), attachment and intent to remain ($r = .494, n = 69, p = .000$), and interpersonal relationships and intent to remain ($r = .544, n = 66, p = .000$).

Table 5

*Correlations between independent variables and intent to remain*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>ATT</th>
<th>REL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unless unforeseen changes occur in your life, do you see yourself volunteering for Edwards Street... Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.456**</td>
<td>.494**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

ID = identification, ATT = attachment; REL = relationships

Finally, to determine if the volunteer’s level of satisfaction was associated with his or her intent to remain at the organization, a Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation was conducted. Results in Table 7 indicated a strong, positive relationship between the volunteer’s level of satisfaction and intent to remain, ($r = .538, n = 65, p = .000$).
Correlations between satisfaction and intent to remain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unless unforeseen changes occur in your life, do you see yourself volunteering for Edwards Street...</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>.538**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Exploratory Analysis

To determine if the time spent volunteering at the nonprofit organization affected the variables associated with volunteering, the time variable was recoded. First, the time variable was recoded into two categories, short-term volunteer \( (n = 33) \) and long-term volunteer \( (n = 32) \); next the time variable was recoded into three categories, shortest time volunteering \( (n = 26) \), medium time volunteering \( (n = 21) \), and longest time volunteering \( (n = 20) \).

First, using the time recoded into two categories (shortest to longer time spent volunteering), several one-way ANOVAs revealed that there were significant statistical differences between the two groups of volunteers on the independent variable and all outcome variables. Second, the researcher used the time recoded into the three categories (shortest time, medium time, and longest time), to conduct further analysis. Each variable and the recoded time constructs will be discussed separately.

Satisfaction. First, overall satisfaction of the volunteer was statistically different for the two groups \( [F(1, 63) = 7.24, p = .009] \). Although the two groups of volunteers were statistically different on levels of satisfaction, further analysis allowed the
researcher to analyze if this difference was meaningful, as well. First, the means and standard deviations reveal a 16-point difference between the two groups of volunteers ($M_1 = 142.7$, $SD_1 = 28.19$; $M_2 = 159.1$, $SD_2 = 20.14$). The scale to measure satisfaction consisted of 25 questions on a 7-point Likert scale, leading to a total possible point difference of 168 total points. The 16-point difference between the two means revealed an approximate 10% difference between the two groups; therefore, this difference was not only statistically significant, but also meaningful to understand the difference between satisfaction of new volunteers and the satisfaction of volunteers who had been volunteering for a year or more. Finally, using the time construct recoded into three categories, a one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences in the three groups [$F (2, 62) = 4.74$, $p = .012$]. Post Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for shortest time volunteers ($M_1 = 139.7$, $SD_1 = 30.29$) were significantly different from the medium time volunteers ($M_2 = 161$, $SD_2 = 12.83$). However, the mean scores for the longest volunteer time ($M_3 = 155.15$, $SD_3 = 24.37$) were not significantly different from the mean scores of the medium time volunteer; in fact, the mean scores for the longest time volunteer were a bit lower than the mean score for the medium time volunteer, resulting in somewhat interesting and contrary results; however the differences were very small and may be the result of random error. The ceiling effect could have also affected this drop in mean scores. If the questions were not thorough enough to capture the level of satisfaction a person feels after volunteering for a long time at one organization, then mean scores may not be as high as the mean scores of medium time volunteers. Another possible explanation is that satisfaction of volunteers was related to other extraneous factors that have not been accounted for in the instrument, or the
volunteer may not have much interaction with the staff, even though he or she has been volunteering for a long time.

![Satisfaction of Volunteers](image)

**Figure 2.** Satisfaction of volunteer compared with time recoded

**Motivation.** Motivation of the two volunteer groups was also analyzed with the time recoded into two categories and time recoded into three categories to determine if there were differences between time spent volunteering on motivation. Using the two recoded time categories, a difference between the two groups on motivation in general was noted \( [M_1 = 153.35, SD_1 = 30.6] \) (\( M_2 = 134.87, SD_2 = 33.93 \)) \((F (59, 58) = 1.16, p =.029)\)). Again, the scale to measure motivation consisted of 30 questions on a 7-point Likert scale, leading to a total possible point difference of 203 total points. The 18.5-point difference revealed nearly a 10% difference between the two groups. Although this difference is statistically significant, it is only somewhat meaningful to understand the difference between motivation of new volunteers and the motivation of volunteers who
had been volunteering for a year or more. Since motivation is a complex variable, the researcher chose to look at both aspects of the variable, internal and external, to determine if there was a difference between the two groups of volunteers on either internal motivation or external motivation. Analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the two groups of volunteers on external motivation \[(M_1 = 19.2, SD_1 = 6.08) (M_2 = 10.68, SD_2 = 7.76) (F (1, 63) = 24.4, p = .000)\], but there was not a significant difference between the two groups of volunteers on internal motivation \[(M_1 = 134.23, SD_1 = 26.27) (M_2 = 123.73, SD_2 = 28.54) (F (1, 59) = 2.23, p = .140)\]. This finding indicated that even those new to volunteering with the organization may be internally motivated to spend time working for the organization; therefore, the two groups were not different on internal motivational factors, but those who were externally motivated were significantly different from those volunteers who were internally motivated.

The researcher also used the three recoded time groups to get a better understanding of when volunteers may internalize their external motivations. Analysis revealed that there were significant differences between the three groups of volunteers, \[(F_2, 62) = 16.6, p = .000\]. Post Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for shortest time volunteers \((M_1 = 19.04, SD_1 = 6.7)\) were not significantly different from the medium time volunteers \((M_2 = 16.76, SD_2 = 7.8)\). However, the mean scores for the longest volunteer time \((M_3 = 7.79, SD_3 = 5.1)\) were significantly different from the mean scores of the medium time volunteer and the shortest time volunteers; therefore, those volunteers who had just started volunteering and those who had been volunteering for a few months were significantly different from those
volunteers who had volunteered anywhere from 1 – 3 years. Motivation to volunteer can either be internal or external since it is the impetus for behavior; however, for those externally motivated, the time spent volunteering may help them internalize this motivation to a more intrinsic form.

![External Motivation of Volunteers](image)

**Figure 3.** External motivation of volunteer compared with time recoded

The researcher also used the time recoded into three times was significantly different for those participants who were internally motivated. The researcher conducted a one-way ANOVA, and results indicated a moderately significant difference, \([F(2, 58) = 3.49, p = .037]\). Post Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for shortest time volunteers (\(M_1 = 133.78, SD_1 = 30.09\)) were not significantly different from the medium time volunteers (\(M_2 = 135.57, SD_2 = 22.14\)). However, the mean scores for the longest volunteer time (\(M_3 = 114.65, SD_3 = 26.62\)) were significantly different from the mean scores of the medium time volunteer and the shortest time
volunteers; therefore, internal motivation appears not to be a significant variable after a volunteer has been working at the organization for a considerable amount of time.

**Figure 4.** Internal motivation of volunteer compared with time recoded

*Identification.* The third variable analyzed against the recoded volunteer time construct was identification, or “the extent to which one defines oneself in terms of the perceived attributes of the organization” (Ashforth et al., 2013, p. 2428). This variable was also analyzed with the time recoded into two and three categories. Using the time construct recoded into two categories, a one-way ANOVA revealed a significant difference between the two groups of volunteers [(F (1, 65) = 5.72, p = .020) (M₁ = 41.59, SD₁ = 9.75) (M₂ = 47.03, SD₂ = 8.85)]. Comparing the means of the two groups of volunteers revealed a difference of nearly 5.5 points. The identification survey consisted of 8 questions on a 7-point Likert scale, resulting in a 49 point spread. The differences in
means resulted in an 11% difference, which is quite meaningful as well as statistically significant. Identification is a construct that is “created in interactions” (Schnurr & Zayts, 2011, p. 42) and therefore is “dynamically negotiated in interactions” (Schnurr & Zayts, 2011, p. 40), and as such, individuals may need exposure to the organization and its work to develop a stronger identification with the organization; therefore, the differences in the two groups of volunteers is important and not surprising since identification with an organization is a cognitive, evaluative, and emotional process (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). “Organizational members are said to identify with the organization when they define themselves at least partly in terms of what the organization is thought to represent” (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004, p. 2). Identification is also organization specific; as Ashforth, Harrison, and Corley (2008) argued, “the individual’s identity and fate become intertwined with those of the organization, and he or she becomes a microcosm of the organization” (p. 333); therefore, the differences in the two groups of volunteers is quite meaningful.

To further analyze this variable, the researcher also used the time construct recoded into three variables to determine when identification becomes more salient to the volunteers. Results of the ANOVA did not reveal significant differences, \( F (2, 64) = 2.89, p = .063 \). Post Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for shortest time volunteers \( (M_1 = 40.85, SD_1 = 10.85) \) were slightly different from the medium time volunteers \( (M_2 = 45.95, SD_2 = 8.8) \). However, the mean scores for the longest volunteer time \( (M_3 = 47, SD_3 = 8.3) \) were not significantly different from the mean scores of the medium time volunteer; therefore, those volunteers who had just started volunteering were slightly different from those volunteers who had been
volunteering for several months or had volunteered anywhere from 1 – 3 years.

Identification, then, occurred rather quickly for the volunteers. Those volunteers who had just started volunteering were only slightly different from those who had been volunteering for several months, and these volunteers were not significantly different on levels of identification with the organization than those who had been volunteering for 1 – 3 years.

![Graph showing Identification of Volunteers](image)

**Figure 5.** Identification of volunteers compared with time recoded

*Attachment.* A fourth variable associated with volunteer satisfaction was attachment to the organization and its mission. This construct is similar to both internal motivation and identification; however, as Brown et al., (2004) noted, organizations, especially nonprofit organizations, distinguish themselves from other organizations through their missions and values; therefore, “employee attitudes toward the mission are influenced by … an awareness of the mission, agreement with its principles, and confidence in one’s ability to help carry it out” (p. 32). Using the time recoded into two
constructs, a one-way ANOVA revealed significant difference between the two groups of volunteers \([F (1, 68) = 7.18, p = .009) (M_1 = 35.8, SD_1 = 6.6) (M_2 = 39.3, SD_2 = 3.9)]\). Comparing the means of the two groups of volunteers revealed a difference of 3.5 points. The attachment survey consisted of 6 questions on a 7-point Likert scale, resulting in a 35 point spread. The differences in means resulted in a 10% difference, which is quite meaningful as well as statistically significant. The questions asked volunteers about their awareness of the mission and their contribution to the nonprofit organization’s mission; therefore, a 10% difference in the two groups of volunteers indicated that the longer a person volunteered at the organization, the more aware he or she became of the nonprofit’s mission as well as their contributions to carrying out this mission.

However, analyzing the attachment variable using the time recoded into three variables revealed interesting and contrary results. A one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences between the three groups, \([F (2, 67) = 4.51, p = .015]\). Post Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for shortest time volunteers \((M_1 = 35.19, SD_1 = 6.9)\) were significantly different from the medium time volunteers \((M_2 = 39.65, SD_2 = 3.7)\). The mean scores for the longest volunteer time \((M_3 = 38.30, SD_3 = 4.7)\) were statistically different than the shortest time volunteers; however, they were lower than the medium time volunteers. As these results indicated, attachment also increases with more time spent at the organization, but it levels out after a certain time: those volunteers who had worked at the organization the longest were less attached to the organization and its mission. This finding seems contradictory when compared to the other variables and may be the result of random error; however, another possibility is the ceiling effect if the questions on the survey did not address attachment thoroughly
enough for those volunteers who had been volunteering with this particular organization for the longest period of time.

![Attachment of Volunteers](attachment_image)

**Figure 6.** Attachment of volunteer compared with time recoded

*Interpersonal Relationships.* A fourth variable that was affected by time spent volunteering was interpersonal relationships. Interpersonal relationships, especially at work, develop over time and function as sources “information exchange” (Sias, 2009, p. 93), and “provide a unique and uniquely useful form of support” (Sias, 2009, p. 96). Using the time recoded into two categories, a one-way ANOVA revealed significant difference between the two groups of volunteers \([F(1, 65) = 5.59, p = .021] (M_1 = 34.74, SD_1 = 7.11) (M_2 = 38.42, SD_2 = 5.54)\). Comparing the means of the two groups of volunteers revealed a difference of 3.7 points. The interpersonal relationship survey consisted of 6 questions on a 7-point Likert scale, resulting in a 35 point spread. The
differences in means resulted in more than a 10% difference, which is quite meaningful as well as statistically significant. This difference can be better understood within the idea of developing relationships. Relationships, as noted by Sias (2009) are “impacted by similarity with respect to attitudes and demographic factors, as well as physical proximity” (p. 99). It is only through this similarity and physical proximity that meaningful interpersonal relationships can develop between volunteers and staff members of an organization. Finally, as Sluss and Ashforth (2008) argued, “frequent interaction encourages the formation and stability of the relationship” (p. 809); therefore, interpersonal relationships are certainly different for new volunteers to the organization as compared to those who have been volunteering for longer periods of time because both similarity between people and proximity are needed for these relationships to develop.

To test this assumption, the researcher used the time construct recoded into three categories. A one-way ANOVA revealed moderate differences between the three groups, $(F (2, 64) = 3.24, p = .046)$. Post Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated similar results to the attachment variable. The mean scores for shortest time volunteers $(M_1 = 34.08, SD_1 = 7.8)$ were significantly different from the medium time volunteers $(M_2 = 38.43, SD_2 = 3.8)$. However, the mean scores for the longest volunteer time $(M_3 = 37.80, SD_3 = 6.5)$, although significantly different from the mean scores for the shortest time volunteer, were slightly lower than the mean scores of the medium time volunteer. Again, this may be cause by random error, or the ceiling effect may have affected this variable. The questions asked may not have captured the essence or level of interpersonal relationships a volunteer may have with staff members of the organization after so much time has been spent volunteering at the organization.
Interpersonal relationships of volunteers compared with time recoded

Overall, using a variety of independent variables, such as motivation, identification, attachment, and interpersonal relationships, and analyzing the data more thoroughly, the researcher was able to develop a more nuanced understanding of important factors affecting volunteer satisfaction. The four variables were found to be both statistically different and meaningful in comparing new volunteers and those who had been volunteering for a longer period of time. Furthermore, identification, attachment, and interpersonal relationships were all significantly associated with the volunteer’s satisfaction; therefore, the aforementioned new model of volunteer satisfaction offers a more complete picture of how the satisfaction of a volunteer may be affected by more than one variable.
Phase II Results

Observations

The researcher observed both locations of the nonprofit and kept field notes about each observation. The observations will be addressed by location.

*Main Location: Administrative Offices and Food Bank.* Observations by the researcher found the overall climate of the organization’s two main locations was positive, friendly, and conducive to developing relationships. The climate at the main location was much like any organization with a reception or waiting area and a “behind the scenes” working area. The reception area was much more quiet than the working area, with an overall air of calm and efficiency. The working area was louder, more jovial, and had somewhat of a factory floor feel—workers were busy, yet consistently interacting with one another. Many conversations were happening at once and these conversations were interspersed with bursts of laughter. Teasing, joking, and storytelling could be heard as workers prepared the food bags for clients. Notes from the researcher revealed the “feel” of the main location:

Sharon [receptionist] was busy today. There were so many clients there to pick up food bags that she barely had time to tell me hi. She had a volunteer helping her check in the clients, but they could barely keep up. I guess it was because today is the first pick-up day of the month.

As this comment suggested, the work of the organization is quite hectic; however, there was still interaction between the researcher and the staff person, even though it was a busy day. The next comment focused on the working area of the main location:
Eddie [food bank manager] had on one of his crazy t-shirts today. It said something like, Take a look and be jealous. I think he really thinks about what t-shirts he is going to wear because they are always the focus point and we laugh at them. Maybe he wears them to help make people feel comfortable.

Even clothing worn by staff members can affect the atmosphere of an organization, as the above comment suggested. One final comment about the atmosphere of the organization from the researcher’s field notes allowed the reader into the scene and exemplified the overall “feel” of the organization.

Wow, there was a lot going on today. Besides all the clients there to pick up food bags, the nursing students were there. They took several clients back into the small office, I guess to do some kind of checkup (maybe). Nancy (board president) was there, too, helping to put some kind of packets together. When I went into the back, Eddie and his crew were laughing up a storm. It’s a wonder that they ever get any work done, but they do! As soon as I walked in, Eddie started his teasing and picking on me. I just gave it right back to him and then the other workers and volunteers loved that! They never missed a beat though…filling those bags and talking the whole time!

As the above comments suggested, the atmosphere at the main location of the organization is busy, yet jovial and conducive to creating relationships.

*Thrift Store.* Observations from the thrift store revealed a much different atmosphere than the main location. The store was set up with the checkout counter
located in the middle of the store near the entrance, and it had several sections for the various items: clothing, shoes, books and school supplies, appliances and other home goods. A curtain along the back wall of the store separated the work of preparing the donated items from the customers. Customers, store workers, and volunteers milled about. The store workers and volunteers brought new items out to the floor from the back, rearranged items on the floor, and tidied up.

Overall, there was a cheerful feel to the store. Everyone was greeted by the main store worker (working the cash register) as they entered. Full windows along the front of the store let in light, so the store had an airy quality, but it was also a bit messy. The racks of clothing were overstuffed, and new items were being brought out all the time. The store manager constantly moved between her office, the store, and the work area, speaking to different people she encountered along the way. She seemed to know many of the customers and asked personal questions and engaged in conversations with them. Store workers and volunteers also asked her questions, and there was a feeling of “busyness” in the store, but the overall feel was pleasant and welcoming. The researcher’s field notes revealed this atmosphere:

This store is so busy and so cramped with stuff. Everybody seems happy to be there, though. And, Tammy [manager] knows everybody. The back area is piled with donations. How can they even begin to make sense out of the stuff they get? People really do give a lot of stuff to the store, but going through it all must be daunting!

Again, the “feel” of this location, revealed through the researcher’s field notes, was one of busyness, yet conducive to relationship building. The following comment was from an
organized event at the thrift store; however, the comment also indicated the type of atmosphere most prevalent in this location.

Today was the grand opening of the expanded store. Besides the regular clients, there were a lot of people there. The store looked really good and everybody seemed so happy that the store is expanding to hold more merchandise. The people in the store continued shopping during the ceremony, but they were each given a piece of the cake and lemonade if they wanted.

The researcher’s field notes revealed the overall impressions of the nonprofit’s work atmosphere. The worker’s interactions helped to create a positive atmosphere in both locations, although busyness seemed to prevail.

Interviews

The interviews were transcribed and coded for common themes and then further analyzed in two phases: to discover the patterns in language used for volunteer maintenance, units of the interview transcripts were analyzed, and then to discover the patterns and strategies most used for volunteer recruitment, those portions of the interviews were coded and categorized. Analyzing the complete interview transcripts revealed three common themes among participants: spiritually driven, meaningful work, and uniquely friendly. Each participant told his or her story of how they came to work for the nonprofit organization. Apparent in all of their stories was the importance of the work being done by the organization for those less fortunate in the community. For instance, one participant said, “The best thing about my job is meeting people and knowing that I
am helping those who need it.” Another commented about what he hoped to accomplish in this manner: “Our overall goal is giving goodness, so goodness can be passed on.”

The researcher became immersed in the data by transcribing all interview transcripts, and then reading and rereading all answers. Two phases of data analysis allowed for a more thorough understanding of the interview transcripts.

First level thematic analysis. During the first phase of data analysis, the researcher looked for common themes among the interview answers. During this phase, several themes emerged from the data and these were coded to reflect the overall feeling of the data. Coding, as Tracy (2013) argued, is the “active process of identifying, labeling, and systemizing data as belong to or representing some type of phenomenon” (p. 202); therefore, the researcher found three common themes among the interview data. Each will be discussed separately.

Spirituality

Each participant explained how important spirituality is in the workplace. All mentioned God, especially when talking about why they work for the organization. For instance, one participant said, “I wish we could put ourselves out of business, but the bible tells us that the poor will always be with us, so we will always have new people to feed.” Another following comments reveal the spiritual emphasis of the work:

I truly believe God called me here. I think God equipped me, I have had lots of different jobs during the years and all of these skills and experiences seem to line up for this position.

Spirituality seems to permeate the atmosphere, although there are no direct
outward signs of any particular religiousness except for a small Methodist logo (the flame and cross) on one wall of the main reception area. The organization is certainly faith-based, however, and spirituality seems to be an overriding theme to the work done by the organization.

The following quote reiterates the participant’s inner spirituality while doing the work of the organization:

I pray before I speak to know what need to lift up. For instance, in a talk I gave last week, I asked God what need I should bring up. During my talk, I mentioned needing a pallet jack, and a man in audience brought one to us the next day.

Connecting spirituality with the work environment, one participant commented: “I always like to put the radio on K-Love, so the store feels Christian and upbeat.” This intentional behavior added to the feeling of spirituality that emanated throughout both locations. And, finally, one participant’s comment discloses how a sense of spirituality pervades the organization: “The volunteers are friendly, Christian people. Nobody smokes or cusses; it is a good atmosphere.”

These above comments, gleaned from the interviews, allowed the researcher to conclude that the workers were conscious of promoting a sense of spirituality and this emphasis was obvious in both locations. Furthermore, this movement to having a spiritual feel to an organization has been noted by scholars. For instance, Sias (2009) noted that one movement in organizations is to that of “workplace spirituality” (p. 196, emphasis in original). As she explained, “workplace spirituality does not refer to a religious movement, but rather to a broader focus on human experience, growth, and
advancement” (Sias, 2009, p. 196). As these interviews indicated, there is a “clear connection between workplace spirituality and workplace relationships” (Sias, 2009, p. 197), and “workplace relationships as they contribute to a spiritual sense of community are linked to healthy and organizationally productive employee attitudes” (Sias, 2009, p. 198).

Meaningfulness of Work

Another theme that recurred throughout the interviews was the meaningfulness of the work, especially as this work related to the mission of the organization. When asked about the meaningfulness of the work, all spoke of working to help those less fortunate. For instance, one participant explained the mission of the organization in this way:

Our mission is to share the light of God’s love…that just means to treat every person with love and with acceptance and with dignity and with respect. The vision we have is that in doing this, we can help people begin to feel their own self-worth and in some cases, maybe even help some people change their lifestyles to find ways that they could help themselves. Some of them could improve their lives.

In another interview, when asked about why she worked for the organization, one participant commented:

I love being here. I believe in what we are doing, and I believe as a Christian, it is our obligation. It is our obligation to take care of our neighbors. I enjoy telling people how they can plug into that.

Engaging in meaningful work and seeking to accomplish the mission of this particular nonprofit was evident in the interviews.
Finally, another overall theme noted in the interview transcripts was the organization’s desire to be uniquely friendly. As one participant noted, “we don’t preach to them, we don’t criticize. We try to be their friend. We don’t want anyone to feel uneasy.” Another comment speaks to the uniquely friendly atmosphere of the organization: “A lot of the clients are just a number to other agencies. They are rude to them there. This is one place that has got to be different, so my goal is to be friendly.” Another comment from a participant reinforces the importance of the organization to be uniquely friendly:

This organization, to me, is something completely different. The other agencies don’t take pride in what they do. We have fellowship and we take pride in what we do and having the best stuff we can to give the clients.

One last comment speaks to the idea of friendliness among staff and volunteers. The participant explained the work environment and his work goal in this way:

The atmosphere is always jovial. Well, uh, everybody that comes here, they know us by now. We ask them [volunteers] what classes they take, what their hobbies are. We start talking to them from day one. We want to know them. If we can’t have friendships I don’t want to be here. It would be so boring, the day would be so long. We all tell stories to get to know each other and help each other out.

To be friendly with others and developing friendships were important to the participants, as the above comments suggested. The participants indicated that they sought to create and maintain an atmosphere conducive to developing relationships; therefore, the
connection between atmosphere and developing relationships is important to this particular organization and aligns with past research into organizations. As Sias (2009) noted, “peer coworker relationships are of great importance to both organizations and the individuals who participate in these relationships” (p. 57). Participant comments revealed that employees of the nonprofit organization sought to develop friendships with the volunteers and hoped to create an atmosphere conducive to that end. Furthermore, as evidenced by the quantitative data collected by the researcher, the interpersonal relationships developed between staff and volunteers of the organization led to overall satisfaction for the volunteer.

Overall, the participant interviews revealed that being spiritually driven, engaging in meaningful work, and seeking to be uniquely friendly were of utmost importance to the organizational staff. As the above comments indicated, participants talked about how spirituality was an important aspect of this work, the meaningfulness of the work they do, and how they sought to be something different than other organizations. Observations from the researcher confirmed the importance of these three themes in developing an atmosphere conducive to developing relationships and doing good work; therefore, answering the first research question. Specifically, these three emergent themes revealed that staff members create and messages used to influence others interpersonally.

*Secondary thematic analysis.* In order to further analyze the data, the researcher chose to break the interview segments into units and employ outside coders to help with the analysis. These units of transcripts were extrapolated to determine the most utilized language used by internal stakeholders. Discourse, as noted by Tracy and Mirivel (2009),
is the “actual instances of talk” (p. 154) from the internal stakeholders of the nonprofit organization and “looking closely at talk and its surrounding context is a valuable method for communication scholars” (p. 153). The researcher and two coders analyzed units from a portion of the interview transcripts that dealt with the day-to-day activities of these internal stakeholders. Specifically, the researcher extrapolated units of language from the first portion of the interview transcripts (describe your work and work relationships, why do you work here, and what do you hope to accomplish through your work), and the researcher and coders analyzed these units.

The researcher segmented the interview transcripts into 308 units of language used by the internal stakeholders of the nonprofit organization, and trained two outside coders about the coding process. The three themes found during thematic analysis were used as a starting point for the coding; however, many of the units did not “fit” into the original categories and other categories were added. Agreement between the three coders was reached on 271 units and resulted in four categories: two of the original categories of themes, (spiritually driven and meaningful work), as well as two more categories (having a positive work environment and developing friendships, especially with volunteers). The number of units within each category is shown in Table 7.
Table 7

Categories of units and amounts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thematic Category</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Meaningful Work</td>
<td>111 units</td>
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<tr>
<td>Positive Atmosphere/Work Environment</td>
<td>58 units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual Connectedness with Work</td>
<td>25 units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing Friendships</td>
<td>73 units</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See Table 1D for complete codes.

Examples of the language are as follows: units that were coded within the category of the work/mission is important or meaningful include the following: “Helping people who are down and out”; “I provide a service that people need”; “We give out food without discrimination”; “We must take care of our neighbors”; “So many people need help”; and “I want people to know they are cared for.” These partial quotes indicated that the internal stakeholders believe the work of the organization is important and meaningful, and were discussed by all of the internal stakeholders during the interviews.

Units that were coded within the category of spiritual connectedness to the work of the organization include the following: “Having my job is a miracle”; “God brings me staff and volunteers”; “God prepared me for this”; “I volunteer because I have a calling, a gift”; “When you bless someone else, you get blessed, too”; and “I want people to see the ministry of what we do here.” The spiritual connection emerged again as important to this organization, as is evidenced by these comments.

Units that were coded within the category of positive atmosphere and work environment of the organization include the following: “I love being here”; “We have
fun”; “We laugh and joke”; “The atmosphere is great”; “It feels like a family.” Again, these quotes indicated that the atmosphere of this particular organization is positive and friendly, confirming that the overall theme of friendliness found in the original interview transcripts is also found in the work atmosphere or environment.

Finally, units that were coded within a fourth category, developing friendships, especially with volunteers within the organization, included the following: “Volunteers are important”; “The volunteers and I talk about everything”; “The volunteers are my friends”; “We tell stories to one another”; “My number one goal is to be friendly.” Relationships are clearly important to internal stakeholders of the organization as these comments suggested. These relationships help to facilitate an atmosphere that is uniquely friendly between staff and volunteers and conducive to developing relationships.

Although these units of language were obtained from interviews and not from the day-to-day talk of staff members, this analysis allowed the researcher to more fully understand and explain both the how and why of organizational staff members. As Tracy and Mirivel (2009) argued, “the analysis of recorded discourse has become an equally important way to study culture…and how people talk about an event to an interviewer can be a topic of interest in its own right” (p. 158). Specifically, the language used shows the communication of internal stakeholders when speaking about their work, their relationships at work, and what they most hope to accomplish through their work; therefore, this secondary analysis also answered the first research question by revealing how staff members create and alter messages to influence others interpersonally.

The categories that were uncovered during this analysis indicated that the organization’s internal stakeholders talked about those issues that were most important to
them as internal stakeholders of the nonprofit organization: the importance of volunteers, the mission of the work, the work atmosphere, and the spiritual connectedness found in the organization. Further, as the above comments revealed, developing friendships and having a uniquely friendly environment for these friendships to occur was an intentional communication strategy used by all internal stakeholders.

*Analysis of Volunteer Recruitment Patterns and Strategies*

Both observations of recruitment encounters and question responses from the interviews were used during this analysis. Both will be discussed separately.

*Recruitment encounters.* On several occasions, the researcher was able to observe internal stakeholders recruiting volunteers, either through class presentations or welcome speeches to international volunteering groups. Two stakeholders spoke to students at the local university about volunteer opportunities at the organization. Both speakers were engaging, entertaining, and provided a good overview of the organization’s mission and day-to-day operations to help students visualize not only the various works done by the organization but also the mission of the organization. The speakers (the executive director and the president of the board of directors) were well prepared, understood the service-learning component of the particular class, and had handouts ready for the students. Through observing the recruitment strategies used by these two internal stakeholders, the researcher could ascertain that recruitment is vitally important to the organization and that recruitment is intentional, strategic, and well implemented. Using communication accommodation theory (Giles, 2008) to guide this portion of the project, the researcher was able to observe convergence by the speakers. Both sought to satisfy the groups by focusing on specific ways students could be involved. One speaker spoke
about the need for “fresh eyes” to help them figure out if their social media coverage was effective in gaining new volunteers and donors. The other speaker spoke about “needing new people to connect with the clients,” especially in working with the Boy Scout group and the girl’s group. This speaker asked the group to “be creative” and “help to form relationships with these young people.” These instances reveal how internal stakeholders intentionally converged or accommodated different groups, especially during recruitment efforts and answered the first research question by showing how staff members at a local nonprofit create and alter messages to influence others interpersonally.

**Interviews.** The researcher asked each internal stakeholder about the recruitment of volunteers, and all participants spoke about the importance of recruiting and their methods of recruiting. Again, using communication accommodation theory (Giles, 2008) to guide analysis, the researcher was able to identify how the internal stakeholders accommodated or converged during the recruitment process.

Although official recruitment was only done by four of the internal stakeholders, the support staff also noted the importance of this activity, as can be evidenced through these interview segments: “I am always recruiting”; “I give advice to the volunteers about what works best for me”; “I am always representing Edwards Street”; “You’ve got to be careful about what you say everywhere you go”; “I am always posting things on my Facebook page about Edwards Street”; and “I talk about Edwards Street all the time.” These snippets of conversation revealed that all internal stakeholders understood the importance of recruiting volunteers and representing the organization any time they were out in public. Further, they showed that all internal stakeholders attempted to accommodate to future volunteers or donors.
The interviews with the four internal stakeholders responsible for volunteer recruitment revealed that language, storytelling or message framing, and understanding and adjusting to competing ideologies were vital to successful recruitment of volunteers for this organization. Each will be discussed separately.

Language

During the interviews, using the right words to get the right message out to volunteers was foremost on the minds of the participants. All four of the stakeholders spoke about how intentional and important these talks were to recruiting volunteers and how the language used must resonate with the specific group.

For instance, the executive director talked about “plugging in” and “planning her talks” with the “audience in mind.” As she noted, “I want to inspire groups to do something creative and challenging.” She added, “I must always know the group I am speaking to and help them plug in with Edwards Street.” She intentionally accommodated her language to meet the group’s needs. When asked about the best part of recruiting people to get involved with the organization, she responded:

It is our obligations to take care of our neighbors. And so I enjoy telling people how they can plug into that. It is fun for me to try to figure out what is going to appeal to this group and make them want to be a part of this. If you are a college kid, why do you want to do this instead of sleeping in? If you are in a civic club and you are already doing community service, why would you want to add to your plate? If you are an old lady and you feel like you don’t have anything to give, what can you give? It’s helping people realize how they can use their talents.
Another internal stakeholder told the researcher that she “tries to have a direct tie-in with the group” when she is asked to give a talk. She explained, “I have to constantly remind myself to think twice and speak once.” She did not give recruitment talks regularly, but when she did, she wanted to make sure she sent the right message out to the group. For instance, when asked about recruiting volunteers, she said:

My main message is that there is a great need and that Edwards Street is here as one means of trying to meet that need and we can use your help and support to do it. The work is more than we can do ourselves.

Being aware of the language used in recruitment messages was apparent in these interviews. All four of the internal stakeholders responsible for recruitment of volunteers or donors were conscious of the language he or she used, especially in planning talks to various groups. This analysis answered the second research question by revealing how staff members create and alter messages to handle and accommodate others, especially during recruitment.

**Storytelling**

Another way all of the internal stakeholders recruited volunteers and donors was through storytelling. This technique, often called episodic framing (relating a message to a particular person or event rather than a social issue) was mentioned by three of the four stakeholders. Through storytelling, the recruiters could accommodate their audiences more effectively. One of the participants spoke specifically about this issue:

I have been involved in getting people to help Edwards Street for a long time, and I have finally learned how to do this - by telling future volunteers or donors personal stories about how our clients are helped.
They want specific stories about how their work helps others. These stories make it real for the audience and it helps them see the real purpose in the ministry of Edwards Street.

In another interview, the participant focused on how she approached recruitment by doing the work herself before she asked others to do the work.

I always try to experience the work myself before I ask someone else to volunteer. That way, when I ask people to help, I can honestly say that I love it, and I can honestly tell people how much fun it is.

Using storytelling as a recruitment tool helped these internal stakeholders make the message more meaningful for potential volunteers or donors, thereby answering the second research question by revealing how staff members of the nonprofit organization create and alter messages to handle and accommodate others, especially during recruitment.

*Ideological Tensions and Discourse*

Managing a nonprofit as an efficient business can be contradictory to the nature of the work of a nonprofit with a humanitarian focus. As Sanders (2013) noted, “the notion of being business-like in the nonprofit sector can be understood as a communicative construction whose meaning is not fixed but is negotiated and transformed in practice” (p. 206). The issues that arise when dealing with many stakeholder groups may result in tensions; however, as Sanders (2013) noted, “tension between mission and market concerns is an inherent feature of all nonprofit organizations that cannot be resolved without compromising the purpose of the nonprofit sector” (p. 208). These tensions must
be dealt with and it is important to uncover how internal stakeholders of a nonprofit organization handle these tensions.

Two primary tensions felt in this nonprofit dealt with both client needs and volunteerism. First and foremost, the nonprofit feels the tension of increasing numbers of clients and hoping to end people’s need for food. Although the nonprofit seeks to feed the hungry, it is also hoping that the need to feed people will be lessened by their efforts. Unfortunately, the number of clients served by this nonprofit was increasing; the number of clients (those living at or below the poverty level in this particular metropolitan area) increased from approximately 1,000 clients each month in 2013 to more than 1,200 clients each month in 2015 (ESFC Website, Fall 2015 Newsletter, p. 2). When speaking about this apparent tension, the Executive Director commented: “I would reach my goal if I could shut this place down. But it is told to us in the bible that the poor will always be with us. So, it will be new people that we serve.” She explained this apparent tension further:

It saddens me because the numbers are going up. It has grown from nearly 1,000 households to currently nearly 1,200 households. It looks like 2015 will exceed that. We hit the record of distributing 384 bags of groceries in one day – in 7 hours. And these people can only come once a month, so it is not like they were just here.

The nonprofit sought to provide clients with emergency food; the items given were basic essentials, such as chicken, beans, rice, and vegetables. With the number of clients increasing, it meant that the need for food assistance was also rising. This tension is apparent in the contradictory nature of nonprofit work.
To illustrate the tension between mission and market concerns further, the Executive Director spoke about an emerging need of food bank clients. Recently, many of the food bank clients started asking for help with pet food, so the food pantry manager initiated a pet food bank to help those clients feed their pets. This decision brought about much controversy in the community, however. The executive director found out during a talk to one of the local civic organizations that this particular community sponsor group did not think the pet food bank was a good idea, and questioned the organization’s use of donor money to provide this service. As she explained,

This particular sponsor group felt like if people can’t afford food, they don’t have a right to a pet. Now, I automatically say, ‘The reason we have a pet food bank is because people have changes in their life’s circumstances. They may have had a pet and then they lose a job or become disabled, or the breadwinner spouse dies. Studies show that senior citizens, even if they are starving, are going to feed that pet before they will eat themselves because that pet is the most important being in their world. That is the one person with them everyday. Having a pet is good emotionally, mentally and physically.’ So I try to counter that. Once we heard these complaints, we changed the way we package pet food. It used to be that when the employees had down time, they would bag pet food. Now, because of the complaints, only volunteers bag pet food. And no donor money goes to this ministry unless they designate that is where the money should go.

As this comment suggested, internal stakeholders of this organization recognized and attended to contradictory tensions of the nonprofit, especially when there are tensions
between the mission and market concerns of the organization between the various stakeholder groups, especially clients and donors.

Another tension felt in this nonprofit was the need for community involvement and not enough particular work for large volunteer groups. The organization must depend on volunteers, but large groups of volunteers sometimes equaled more work for the nonprofit organization and its staff. This apparent tension was difficult to deal with, especially when volunteers were so necessary to the organization’s work within the community. When asked how this tension is handled, one participant noted:

We walk a fine line between needing volunteers and having too many. We need volunteers, but we really need active workers in the community. We appreciate people wanting to be involved, but it is hard to communicate to someone without sounding ungrateful, that we don’t need that kind of group help. And, sometimes the large volunteer groups don’t have a vested interest in Edwards Street. I suggest holding a food drive instead of group volunteering. There are only so many tasks to be done, but we can never have too much food. We serve so many people, so our need is great. If we had more food, we could give so much more. The goal is so we don’t have to spend our money on food, we could use the money for other programs, which are also necessary.

Needing volunteers to handle the day-to-day operations of the nonprofit and having too many is a real tension for this nonprofit. Handling this tension is precarious and this was evident in the above illustration.
Another closely related tension involved maintaining and satisfying regular volunteers and meeting the needs of large volunteer groups. As one participant noted, “When groups come in and do the work that the usual volunteer does, he or she may feel that you don’t need him or her anymore, and we don’t want that to happen.”

Managing tensions with the nonprofit is difficult work and must be handled strategically. Being aware of the tension and addressing the tension directly are two communication strategies used by this nonprofit. As noted above, the tensions are noted and addressed strategically through communicative techniques. One participant addressed tensions directly by changing the way the nonprofit handles the purchasing and packaging of pet food. Another participant addressed the need to “walk the line” between seeking volunteers and encouraging other type of work outside the organization, such as conducting food drives. She noted,

Sometimes the groups that want to volunteer cause more problems than they solve. They want to come when we are closed, or they want a big project and we have to think of things for them to do. Many groups come from Churches, especially the Methodist Church, and it is hard to find things for them to do. I wish we didn’t have to bend over backwards for groups that are not committed to Edwards Street. I believe that 50% of large volunteer groups don’t have a vested interest in Edwards Street. It ends up being a photo op for the group instead of them really wanting to help. I really want to say, ‘Instead of coming out and we have to create something for you to do, instead hold a food drive’.
Tensions arise within any organization; however, the tensions felt by nonprofits may involve the various stakeholders groups that must be satisfied. This analysis revealed how staff members create and alter messages to accommodate contradictions with the organization and its mission. This nonprofit used strategic communication to address and counter these tensions, especially in finding different ways of handling the work of the organization while at the same time satisfying supporting stakeholder groups.

Interaction of Findings

Overall, results from this mixed method study reveal that current volunteers are satisfied with the organization, and the internal stakeholders of this organization use strategic communication to transmit particular messages to volunteers. In particular, the messages transmitted were noted in both observations and interview analysis.

As the quantitative results suggested, volunteer satisfaction is directly correlated to internal motivation, identification with the organization, attachment to the organization and its mission, and the interpersonal relationships formed while volunteering. This satisfaction is also correlated to a volunteer’s intent to remain at the organization; therefore, it was imperative for the researcher to determine if the internal stakeholders of this organization intentionally focused on communication strategies to enhance the satisfaction of the volunteer. Through observations and one-on-one interviews, the researcher could ascertain that internal stakeholders sought to make the organization’s atmosphere one that fostered interpersonal relationships and reflected the “goodness” of the organization’s work. Internal stakeholders identified with the meaningfulness of the work done by the organization, and sought to exhibit this “goodness” through interactions with volunteers. Volunteers also identified with the organization and were attached to the
mission, thus reinforcing the importance of the work done by the organization for both staff members and volunteers. Further, through analyzing the actual language used by internal stakeholders when speaking of their work and developing relationships with volunteers, four themes emerged: the mission of the work, volunteer relationships, the work atmosphere or environment, and spirituality. As quantitative findings indicated, volunteer satisfaction was also correlated to these same concepts; therefore, understanding what contributes to the satisfaction level of the volunteer, combined with the interviews of internal stakeholders allowed for a greater understanding of how the intentional communication of staff members contributed to the volunteer’s satisfaction in regards to these variables: identification, attachment, and interpersonal relationships. Volunteers of this faith-based nonprofit were satisfied with their volunteer experience there. Internal stakeholders of this nonprofit were intentional in their communication with volunteers as they sought to develop relationships, do meaningful work in the community, and exhibit a feeling of spirituality in the work environment.

Analyzing the recruitment strategies used by internal stakeholder revealed several areas of intentionality, especially when recruiting volunteers or donors: language style, storytelling or message framing, and handling ideological tensions. Internal stakeholders used particular and intentional language and storytelling to recruit volunteers or donors depending on the group addressed. Using language to appeal to various groups and using specific examples of how clients were helped by the organization allowed the potential volunteer and donors to connect with the work done by the organization. Finally, several ideological tensions were apparent, and the organizational staff dealt with these tensions either directly or indirectly through differing message strategies. The first apparent
tension, needs of clients versus the needs of donors/volunteer, was clearly a tension that the internal stakeholders addressed. When external stakeholders, either donors or volunteers, questioned a new need of the clients, the organizational staff had to handle that tension. Results from the interviews indicated that internal stakeholders were not only aware of these tensions, but they also worked creatively to address them, so that both stakeholder groups were satisfied. The second tension, the need for volunteers and having too many volunteers, forced the internal stakeholders to “walk a fine line” between recruitment of new volunteers and maintenance or satisfaction of current volunteers. Again, this tension was evident to the internal stakeholders, and was addressed whenever possible. The organization relied heavily on volunteers, but there were “only so many tasks to be done”; therefore, this was a delicate issue or tension, which was dealt with constantly by the internal stakeholders responsible for recruitment of volunteers.
CHAPTER V – DISCUSSION

Nonprofit organizations are vital to the economy of our world and are the fastest growing industry in the United States (Nuckolls, 2015, para. 1). These organizations can be found in all regions of the United States and address a myriad of services, including, but certainly not limited to, those with a humanitarian emphasis. These nonprofit organizations range from large, international corporations to small, community-based operations as problems such as poverty, homelessness, health care, and education are addressed.

Many nonprofits who seek to “‘do well and do good’ are further changing the nature of the nonprofit and philanthropic communities” (Aviv, 2014, p. xxv) by “experimenting with new organizational models as a way to serve the common good” (Aviv, 2014, p. xxv). In order to stay competitive and keep up with a vastly changing world, nonprofit leaders must be “inventive leaders who work together to find new ways of serving people and communities” (Aviv, 2014, p. xxvi). This includes serving clients, employees, volunteers, and other stakeholder groups which are important segments of the nonprofit organization.

This project sought to uncover the intricacies of communication between the internal stakeholders of a local, faith-based nonprofit and one particular stakeholder group, volunteers. This mixed method case study was conducted in two phases to address the hypotheses and research questions. Phase I was a quantitative study measuring volunteer satisfaction. Four independent variables were used: motivation, identification with the organization, attachment to the organization and its mission, and interpersonal relationships formed within the organization. Phase II was a qualitative study focusing on
the communication strategies used by internal stakeholders of the organization in the maintenance and recruitment of volunteers. By using a case study approach, the researcher managed to “catch the complexity of a single case” (Stake, 1995, p. xi). In this type of approach, the researcher was able to “enter the scene with a sincere interest in learning how they [nonprofit organizations] function in their ordinary pursuits and milieus” (Stake, 1995, p. 1). The case under study is both unique and common to the more than 1.5 million nonprofits in the United States that employ more than 10 million workers (Grant Space, 2016, para. 1). The researcher conducted an “instrumental case study” (Stake, 1995, p. 3) to better understand the communication patterns and strategies used in the maintenance and recruitment of volunteers of one small faith-based nonprofit organization. By understanding how this one nonprofit conducts its business communicatively with a particular stakeholder group, namely volunteers, a better understanding of nonprofit communication emerged.

Theoretical Perspectives

Before delving into the discussion of results from this study, the theoretical perspectives used during both phases of the study need to be revisited.

*Stakeholder Theory*

Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) guided this research holistically. As the theory suggests, organizations consist of various stakeholders, those individuals or groups that affect or are affected by the organization. One particular stakeholder group, volunteers, is vital to the operation of many nonprofits; therefore, this research sought to better understand what satisfies volunteers and how the internal stakeholders of the organization communicated with this particular group of stakeholders. Stakeholder theory
contends that in order to survive and flourish, organizations must manage the communication between and among stakeholder groups. Further, implicit in this theory is that communication from the organization must be strategic and must seek to satisfy all stakeholder groups.

**Phase I.** One especially important stakeholder group for this particular nonprofit organization is volunteers. As this study elucidates, volunteers within this organization were satisfied, and this satisfaction correlated to the volunteer’s intent to remain with the organization \( r = .538, n = 65, p = .000 \). Using Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) as a lens to understand this construct, satisfaction, shown by this particular stakeholder group, will lead the volunteers to continue volunteering with the organization unless unforeseen changes occur.

To understand how the nonprofit satisfied its volunteers, several factors needed consideration. First, the atmosphere of the organization was certainly important. Researchers have noted the connection between work climate and employee satisfaction for years. As Coda, da Silva, and Custodio (2015) noted, “the organizational climate construct is … focused on how employees experience their work environment” (p. 1827), and this construct can be defined as the “characteristics that describe and distinguish an organization from others and influence behavior of their members” (p. 1831); therefore, the climate (or atmosphere) of the nonprofit organization was important for volunteers as well, since they often do the work of employees, especially for small community-based nonprofits. Another factor, which must be considered when understanding volunteer satisfaction, was the development of interpersonal relationships. The atmosphere of the organization can help or hinder the development of these relationships. As Sias (2009)
noted, “the nature of the workplace is associated with the nature of the organization’s friendship network” (Sias, 2009, p. 104). Moreover, several factors improve the development of interpersonal relationships, especially in the workplace. As Sias (2009) noted, workplace relationships are affected by both individual and contextual factors. The contextual factors that have the most impact on relationship development in the workplace are perceived similarities, proximity, and frequency of contact. Within the context of this study, the researcher analyzed duration of time spent volunteering to determine if this variable impacted the volunteer’s level of satisfaction with the organization. In other words, the time spent volunteering allowed for relationships to develop and foster, thereby leading to higher levels of satisfaction for the volunteer. The time spent volunteering variable was recoded; first, the researcher recoded the variable into two categories: shortest time volunteers ($n = 33$) and compared this group to the longer time volunteers ($n = 32$) to determine general differences between those volunteers who had just started volunteering with the organization and those volunteers who had been volunteering for several months or years. Next, to analyze the data more thoroughly, the time variable was recoded into three categories: shortest time ($n = 26$), medium time ($n = 21$), and longest time ($n = 20$). This three category recoding allowed the researcher to better determine if and when differences occurred for the volunteers.

First, using the time recoded into two categories (shortest to longer time spent volunteering), several one-way ANOVAs revealed that there were significant statistical differences between the two groups of volunteers on the dependent variable and all outcome variables. Second, the researcher used the time recoded into the three categories (shortest time, medium time, and longest time), to conduct further analysis. Results
indicated that there were significant differences between the three groups of volunteers on satisfaction, motivation (both external and internal), identification, attachment, and interpersonal relationships.

Satisfaction of the shortest time volunteer was significantly different from both the medium time volunteer and the long time volunteer. External motivation was also significantly different between the three groups: although there was no significant difference between the first two groups (shortest time and medium time), there was a significant difference between the first two groups and the longest time volunteer. For internal motivation, there was moderate significance between the three groups of volunteers. Again, there was no significant difference between the first two groups (shortest time and medium time), but there was a difference between the first two groups and the longest time volunteering. For identification, there were slight differences between the three groups of volunteers. Shortest time volunteers were slightly different from both medium and long time volunteers. For attachment of the volunteer, significant differences were noted between the three groups: the shortest time volunteer was significantly different from both the medium time volunteer and the long time volunteer. And, finally for interpersonal relationships, statistical analysis reveal significant differences between the three groups of volunteers: the shortest time volunteer was significantly different from both the medium time volunteer and the long time volunteer.

Overall, using a variety of independent variables, such as motivation, identification, attachment, and interpersonal relationships, and analyzing the data more thoroughly, the researcher was able to develop a more nuanced understanding of important factors affecting volunteer satisfaction from a stakeholder perspective. The
four variables were found to be both statistically different and meaningful in comparing new volunteers and those who had been volunteering for a longer period of time. Furthermore, identification, attachment, and interpersonal relationships were all significantly associated with the volunteer’s satisfaction; therefore, the aforementioned new model of volunteer satisfaction offers a more complete picture of how the satisfaction of a volunteer may be affected by more than one variable.

**Phase II.** The researcher conducted one-on-one interviews with 11 internal stakeholders of the organization. Thematic analysis, viewed within a stakeholder theory perspective, revealed the importance of managing communication between and among varying stakeholders of the organization. Using stakeholder theory to guide the analysis of the interview transcripts allowed the researcher to better understand the themes that emerged from the language of internal stakeholders.

**First Level Thematic Analysis**

Analysis of the interview transcripts revealed three themes salient to the internal stakeholders of this nonprofit organization: uniquely friendly, spiritually driven, and meaningful work. Each of the 11 internal stakeholders spoke about the uniquely friendly feel of the organization, how spirituality plays a role in the work the organization accomplished, and how important it was to engage in meaningful work. As Sachs and Ruhli (2011) argued, “an increasing number of people want to be involved in the value creation process as stakeholders based on their values, knowledge, and experience” (p. 58); therefore, it is imperative to the well-being of an organization that internal stakeholders understand the need to not only be aware of stakeholder interests but also to manage these relationships communicatively. The three overall themes found in the
interview transcripts address communication with stakeholders, both indirectly and directly, and revealed how the staff members of the nonprofit organization create and alter messages to influence others interpersonally. Each will be discussed separately.

_Uniquely friendly._ Both observations by the researcher and interviews with 11 internal stakeholders of the organization revealed an intention to be friendly. The researcher noted in her field notes that “everybody is greeted when they walk in the door” thus enhancing the idea that “this place feels friendly.” These observations were confirmed during the interviews with the internal stakeholders of the nonprofit organization. The interviewees included three upper-level managers, four lower-level employees, and four long-term volunteers. Each spoke about the importance of being friendly at work. For instance, the food pantry manager talked about how he has to be the same at work as he is outside of work. As he stated, “I am friendly with everybody. If I was not friendly here, then I couldn’t be friendly outside of here.” Another interviewee was a long time volunteer at the organization who works with a group of girls from the community. She does not often deal directly with the staff of the nonprofit organization; however, as she stated, “Anytime I go in to the main office, I am welcomed. The workers at Edwards Street are good and friendly to me.” One final comment from one of the food pantry workers showed the importance of having a friendly atmosphere at work. He stated, “People here are in good spirits, smiling, and have good attitudes. People here care about how others feel.” Both observations from the researcher and interviews with internal stakeholders revealed the importance of being friendly and promoting an air of friendliness to all: staff, volunteers, clients, and any other stakeholder who enters the
building. The intentional friendliness of the internal stakeholders revealed an understanding of strategic management and communication with various stakeholders.

_Spirituality._ A feeling of spirituality pervades this operation, although the researcher did not witness any religious promotion or much religious-based speaking; however, a Christian radio station was playing at the thrift store each time the researcher entered. Other than the radio station playing, there were no overtly religious undertones; however, the researcher noted in her field notes, “this place feels good to me. Even when it is crazy busy, it feels calm.” Spirituality was one of the main themes of the interviews, and internal stakeholder spoke of God or spirituality or goodness during the interviews; however, there were differences between upper-level managers, long-term volunteers, and the other staff members. All three of the upper-level managers spoke about God directly in their interviews. For instance, the executive director spoke about the ministry of the work, reading the bible, and praying before giving talks. The program director spoke about working for the greater good, and the thrift store manager spoke about keeping the store Christian and upbeat, and how God brought her to this position.

The interviews with the long-term volunteers revealed more indirect references to religion and spirituality. For instance, one of the full-time volunteers spoke about how he was honored at his church for his dedication to the organization. He stated, “There was a big celebration at the church for me because I had over 5,000 volunteer hours. Now, I have accrued even more than that. I think I am up to 10,000 hours because I volunteer about 1,800 hours each year.” Although he didn’t speak directly about God, his mentioning the service at his church revealed the importance of volunteering within his religion. Another long-term volunteer spoke about why she has continued volunteering
for the organization in this way, “I saw an opportunity to build something that would make a difference in the lives of people in this particular area.” She went on to further explain why people get so involved in this particular nonprofit. “Serving is what Christianity is all about. It is serving others and that is what volunteers do.” When asked what she thought the common denominator was in the volunteers at the organization, she said, “so many of our volunteers are connected with some religious group, so that may be a common denominator, but it is really more of just an implicit desire to serve others.” These above statements revealed that spirituality permeates the work of the organization.

For the lower-level staff members, two of them had come to Edwards Street to receive services because they were experiencing hard times themselves. After receiving food from the food bank, they both started volunteering, and this volunteering led to employment with the nonprofit. Both of these staff members talked about understanding the clients’ needs because they had “been there before” and how their jobs were not to “preach” to anyone, but to offer help to “those who need it.” As one of the lower-level staff members stated about his job, “It gives you a chance to do something good.” Again, although spirituality was not directly addressed by any of these staff members, a sense of doing the right thing and helping those who need the help was communicated in all of their interviews.

**Meaningful work.** The third theme noted from the interviews was engaging in meaningful work through the nonprofit. Each internal stakeholder talked about the importance of serving others who were less fortunate and how the work of the nonprofit allowed them to be engaged in this type of meaningful work. For instance, the executive director stated, “I believe in what I am doing here.” She went on to explain,
If we can educate children, and help their self-esteem and get them to stay in school, if we can make adults healthier either through the clinic or the walking trail, or helping their diets, so they can go get a job and they can care for their families, then we are succeeding.

This statement revealed her belief in the actual work of the nonprofit. By engaging in this type of meaningful work, the nonprofit is helping people who most need this help.

The thrift store manager spoke about how meaningful her work was, as well. She stated, “We all have a journey in life and everybody is going through something, so we try to relate to that. We are more than just a store.” She also spoke about making the work meaningful to her employees.

I am sending the staff and volunteers to the food bank, so they can get a feel for the whole operation. They need a visible, tangible thing to see to understand the whole operation of Edwards Street, so they know how important our work is.

Another staff member spoke about the meaningfulness of the work in this way, “I work here because I like what we do – helping people.” And, finally, one of the long-term volunteers spoke about how meaningful her volunteering is to the clients. She stated,

If I can help, I want to help them. I want to better their lives. I have taught them to sew, and given them other skills and experiences they may not get otherwise. I love to motivate them and then see them accomplish goals.
As the aforementioned quotes demonstrated, the staff and long-term volunteers of this nonprofit organization believe the work they are doing is indeed meaningful and communicated that feeling through their interviews.

Second Level Thematic Analysis

Again, using stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) to analyze the language used by internal stakeholders revealed intentional and strategic patterns of communication as staff members create and alter messages to influence others interpersonally.

This second level of thematic analysis involved separating the interviews into language segments for analysis. The researcher and two other coders analyzed the 308 units for patterns in the language used by internal stakeholders to better understand the communication of the organization. The analysis revealed four general categories, two of which were the same as the first level thematic analysis. The third and fourth categories, promoting a positive work environment and developing friendships, revealed other issues that were important to these internal stakeholders. Transcript excerpts revealed language that focused on meaningfulness of the work and the mission of the organization, the importance of developing relationships/friendships within the organization, having a spiritual connectedness with the work done by the organization, and promoting a positive work environment. These four categories of language units were analyzed within a stakeholder theory perspective because each category revealed the intention to satisfy various stakeholders of the nonprofit organization and will be discussed separately.

Meaningfulness of work. During interviews, the researcher asked each participant to describe his or her work and what he or she hoped to accomplish through this work. Each internal stakeholder spoke about how important the work was for members of the
community who are served by the nonprofit organization. Analysis resulted in 111 units that focused on the meaningfulness of the work done by the nonprofit organization. Participants spoke about “helping people in need,” how they were “providing a needed service,” how they “believe in the work of the organization,” and the necessity of “providing clients with knowledge and opportunities.” These examples of the language spoken by internal stakeholders of the nonprofit organization revealed the awareness of the meaningfulness of the work.

*Developing relationships.* Another category of language revealed through this second level analysis was the importance of developing relationships, especially with volunteers. The researcher and coders coded 73 instances of language within this category. The participants spoke about “sharing with volunteers,” the importance of “being friendly with each other and having personal relationships with volunteers,” and how they “enjoy the interactions at work.” These examples of the language used by internal stakeholders also revealed how important relationships were to the staff members of the nonprofit organization.

*Spiritual connectedness.* A third category of language used by the internal stakeholders of the nonprofit organization revealed the spirituality present in the organization through 25 units. Both direct references to God and spirituality and indirect references such as “doing the right thing, and blessing others though the work” revealed a spiritual connectedness between the internal stakeholders and the work done by the nonprofit organization. Again, the language used by internal stakeholders sought to emphasize the feeling of spirituality that emanated from the nonprofit organization.
Positive work environment. Finally, 58 units were coded within the positive work environment category. The participants spoke about the “camaraderie and jovial atmosphere,” how they “laugh and joke with each other,” and how they “tell stories to one another to help each other out.” Further, participants added, “Nobody smokes or cusses,” and “It is a good atmosphere.” These language units revealed the importance of creating and maintaining a positive work environment, both for the staff and for others who come to volunteer or receive services.

Analyzing language units used by the internal stakeholders of the nonprofit organization allowed the researcher to more fully understand how language was used within the nonprofit organization. Specifically, staff members create and alter messages, through language, to influence others interpersonally and to promote the overall organizational climate of the organization. Discourse, according to Putnam (2014), “is a key building block or foundation on which organizational life is built” (p. 275), and can shed light into how the internal stakeholders of this nonprofit organization used language to satisfy various stakeholder groups, especially volunteers.

Self-Determination Theory

Phase I. To further analyze the data collected in this study, the researcher also used self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This theory, although developed within the realm of psychology, is useful to understand the various independent variables, namely motivation, that lead to volunteer satisfaction. As the theory contends, people become motivated based on levels of competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Since motivation (internal and external combined) was not correlated to the volunteer’s level of satisfaction, it was necessary to break apart this variable into its subcategories: internal
and external. Analyzing motivation in its two subcategories allowed for greater understanding of this variable. Those volunteers who were internally motivated to volunteer were more satisfied with the volunteering; however, those volunteers who were externally motivated were not as satisfied. This can perhaps be explained by time spent volunteering. Those who were externally motivated to volunteer had not been volunteering for a long enough time to develop relationships with the staff or other volunteers, and therefore had not transferred or “internalized the extrinsic motivation, accepting it as their own” (Deci, 2013, TAHP-4). As self-determination contends, to be extrinsically motivated means having a basic physical or psychological need satisfied. Yet, extrinsic motivation can act more like an intrinsic motivator if the task becomes more personally relevant for a person, or if they perceive a “tangible reward or positive feedback” (Deci & Ryan, 2008, p. 15). Time is needed to develop relationships that can provide tangible rewards or positive feedback; therefore, those volunteers who were new to the organization may have been externally motivated to volunteer but may not have had the time invested to feel internally motivated. Only when volunteers felt internally motivated was there a correlation to satisfaction; therefore, motivation may be a latent variable that changes over time. Perhaps volunteers, through the development of interpersonal relationships, may be able to internalize external motivation into internal motivation and be more satisfied with the volunteering experience. For those volunteers who are externally motivated, more time might also lead to stronger identification and attachment, and ultimately more interpersonal relationships.

Management researchers have recently sought to uncover the importance of motivation and its connection to interpersonal relationships within work contexts.
Focusing on the idea that some people seek to really make a difference in their work (having a prosocial disposition), this same idea can be transferred to the work of volunteers, whose work is usually focused on others, or the volunteer’s work is prosocial in nature. Findings gleaned from past research with paid workers who had a prosocial disposition could help to explain how important interpersonal relationships are to volunteers as well. As Grant (2010) noted, “despite the evidence that employees are motivated to make a positive difference in other people’s lives, the organizational literature is relatively silent about the sources of this motivation” (p. 107). He further elucidated the problem: “the motivation to make a prosocial difference is an inherently relational phenomenon; interpersonal relationships both cultivate and result from the motivation to make a prosocial difference” (Grant, 2010, p. 108); therefore, focusing on the interpersonal relationships formed between volunteers and staff in this nonprofit organization could better explain the impact of interpersonal relationships on the volunteer’s motivation to continue to engage in this type of prosocial behavior, and ultimately his or her level of satisfaction with volunteering at this particular nonprofit organization.

Further, by using well-established surveys to address other variables such as identification with the nonprofit organization and attachment to the organization and its mission, the researcher was able to ascertain a better understanding of what might result in more satisfied volunteers. Results from correlation analysis indicated that identification was positively correlated to volunteer satisfaction \[r = .813, n = 63, p = .000\], and attachment was also positively correlated to volunteer satisfaction \[r = .900, n = 67, p = .000\]. Another variable that proved significantly correlated to volunteer
satisfaction was interpersonal relationships. Results from correlation analysis revealed a strong positive correlation between volunteer satisfaction and interpersonal relationships \([r = .869, n = 62, p = .000]\).

Further analysis revealed that the time spent volunteering with the organization was significantly correlated to overall satisfaction and intent to remain. Moreover, identification, attachment, and interpersonal relationships were all positively correlated to volunteer satisfaction; therefore, a more nuanced understanding of what made these particular volunteers satisfied emerged from this study. As self-determination theory suggests, relatedness, one of the main tenets of the theory, refers to “willingness to establish and maintain interpersonal relationships with their group members” (Kim, 2005, p. 3). Developing interpersonal relationships may be a better predictor of volunteer satisfaction.

**Phase II.** Phase II of the study focused on qualitative data obtained by the researcher from internal stakeholders of the organization. Observations and interviews were conducted to ascertain how strategic and intentional communication focused on both maintenance and recruitment of volunteers. As the following paragraphs elucidate, internal stakeholder communication was both intentional and strategic for the maintenance and recruitment of volunteers. Self-determination theory was also used to better understand the qualitative data.

Motivation to volunteer is the first step in recruiting and maintaining a volunteer base, especially for a small community-based nonprofit that relies on volunteers to get the work of the organization completed. Motivation is the impetus for action or behavior change. “Motivation” as described by Deci (2013), “revolves around whether people's
needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are supported versus thwarted. If a person is to be motivated, he or she must feel autonomous, competent, and related to others” (Deci, 2013, TAHP-4). These three tenets of self-determination theory will be used to examine the communicative strategies and patterns used by internal stakeholders of the nonprofit under study, especially in maintaining a satisfied volunteer base, and each will discussed separately.

**Competence**

In order for a person to be motivated to act, he or she must first feel competent to complete the action. This idea is reinforced through the answers the internal stakeholders gave to the question about working with volunteers. As one employee commented: “When I work with volunteers, I give advice to them about what works for me to do my job better.” This comment suggests that internal stakeholders seek to make the job easier for volunteers. Another employee commented this way: “We try to start them out on something easier and then let them work on more complicated things. Usually after telling them the first time, they know how to do it.” Obviously, the internal stakeholders understand that for a volunteer to continue to be motivated to work for the organization, he or she must be able to perform the tasks of the organization.

**Autonomy**

Having choice in which tasks to complete is also another motivating factor. This is also understood and important to internal stakeholders, as the following comments suggest: “Especially with new volunteers, we don’t preach to them, we don’t criticize. We try to be their friend. We don’t want anyone to feel uneasy. That’s the best way to get them [new volunteers] started”; “We are going to let them decide what they want to do
most days. We will ask them to do some things, but we let them do whatever they want to.” These quotes from internal stakeholders of the organization reveal that volunteers have choice in the work they do for the organization. As another internal stakeholder contends:

I try to keep the activities fun and challenging to keep the volunteers engaged. I never have them sweep or dust; I want to help them learn life skills, so I work hard to make their work at the store beneficial.

Finally, one long-term volunteer puts it this way: “I am free to take vacations whenever I want to. I have freedom, and I have a choice about whether to be here or not.”

Another area related to autonomy occurs in the Thrift Store. The majority of volunteers for the store are community servants who must meet some requirement of community service. These volunteers are externally motivated; they earn “hours” for volunteering. Interestingly, the store manager commented that she has hired many of these community servants after they have served their time at the store. As she commented:

Most of my volunteers are people who must earn volunteer hours, and I have actually hired many of them to work part-time in the store. When they come, you get to see the good and the bad. You try them on for size, and they try you on for size. Because sometimes it’s crazy here. It’s very busy, and other times it is more relaxed, so I get to see how they handle each situation.
As each of these comments revealed, internal stakeholders were not only aware of the need for independence or autonomy of their volunteers, but staff members worked strategically to induce a feeling of autonomy for the volunteers.

Relatedness

In a recent interview, Deci (2013) contended that “people need to get their need for relatedness satisfied in the workplace in order for there to be retention and satisfaction” (p. TAHP-3z). This same idea may hold true for volunteers, many of whom behave as employees of this particular nonprofit. The construct used in this study to capture relatedness was the term friendliness, especially as it related to the developing of interpersonal relationships between the staff members and volunteers. The concept of friendliness and developing friendships with volunteers was a major theme in each of the interviews. As one participant stated: “We start talking to them (volunteers) from day one. We want to know them.” As he continued speaking about his interactions with the volunteers, he responded, “These people are my friends.”

When asked about what one participant thinks the nonprofit feels like, he responded, “People here are in good spirits, smiling, and have good attitudes. People here care about how others feel.” This feeling of goodness, or friendship, is apparent in this participant’s observations about the nonprofit. Finally, one other participant said, “It is all about personal connections.”

The three most important factors in self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) were all salient to this group of internal stakeholders, as evidenced by their interview comments. Seeking to address competence, autonomy, and relatedness for the volunteers was important for each internal stakeholder; these patterns of strategic
communication by internal stakeholders can be connected to the levels of satisfaction from the external stakeholder group of volunteers who serve in the organization.

*Communication Accommodation Theory*

To further understand the data collected during the qualitative stage of the study, communication accommodation theory (Giles, 2008) was used. According to the theory, communicators seek to either “reduce or magnify communicative differences between people in interaction” (Giles, 2008, p. 163). If a communicator wants to enhance similarities and reduce uncertainty, he or she will seek to converge, or accommodate to the other person or group of people. Using communication accommodation theory, the researcher was able to better understand how the internal stakeholders of the nonprofit organization created or altered messages to influence others interpersonally, in both the maintenance and recruitment of volunteers. Further, this theory helped the researcher understand how the internal stakeholders sought to converge or diverge during recruitment of volunteers, even when addressing ideological tensions that arise between different stakeholder groups of the organization.

*Maintenance of volunteers.* Through both observations and interviews with internal stakeholders, the researcher was able to better understand the communication strategies used to maintain a satisfied volunteer base. This analysis answered the first research question by revealing how staff members of the nonprofit organization create and alter messages to influence others interpersonally.

First, the organizational culture, as noted through observations, was both business-oriented and friendly. Upon several occasions, the researcher noted that the atmosphere of both locations was “busy, but had an air of friendliness.” As Keyton
(2014) argued, “culture is manifested through communication as artifacts, values, and assumptions” (p. 550). Artifacts include the physical environment, and anything that is “visible and tangible” (Keyton, 2014, p. 550). Values are beliefs and principles that guide the organization and are “manifested in the behaviors of organizational members” (Keyton, 2014, p. 550). Assumptions are “deeply entrenched beliefs” that are disclosed through “work conversations with others and in talking about their work experiences” (Keyton, 2014, p. 550). Analyzing both field notes and interview transcripts with the internal stakeholders revealed how important organizational culture was to the nonprofit organization and how the internal stakeholders sought to accommodate their communication to satisfy stakeholders, especially volunteers.

Organizational culture can also be used to understand the atmosphere or feel of an organization and can be seen in the “patterns of human action” (Eisenberg & Riley, 2001, p. 294); therefore, both observations of an organization at work and interviews with the workers of the organization can add to understandings about the organization’s culture. For instance, during the interviews with the internal stakeholders, it was revealed that staff members of the organization sought to make the organizational atmosphere friendly to a variety of stakeholder groups, including clients, volunteers and others. In particular, the internal stakeholders spoke specifically about the atmosphere, as exemplified in the following statement by one long-term volunteer: “It is the friendliest place for the volunteers. The staff of the pantry love each other and they just pull the volunteers in.” Another related comment by another long-term volunteer revealed how she sought to create a supportive atmosphere for other volunteers: “I don’t ever just send a volunteer to do something without my being there to support them.” Finally, one last comment from a
part-time worker at the thrift store revealed how the staff of the nonprofit organization sought to make the organizational atmosphere friendly: “The staff make the volunteers feel comfortable. Before I started working here at the thrift store, I volunteered at the food pantry. Every time I went there, it was an enjoyable experience.” These quotes elucidate how the internal stakeholders of the nonprofit organization converge with others, especially volunteers, to make the volunteering experience an enjoyable one.

Recruitment of volunteers. Observations of two recruitment encounters revealed that the spokespersons for the organization sought to accommodate, or become more similar to, the groups of potential volunteers, and this analysis answered research question two by revealing how staff members create and alter messages to accommodate others and handle contradictory tensions felt within the organization. The two observed recruitment encounters were at the local university, and were presented to upper-level students in communication classes. For instance, the speakers choose words and images that would resonate with these students such as asking for “fresh eyes” and “creative problem-solving” and “forming personal relationships” with the clients served by the organization. The speakers sought to make the work done by the organization appealing to college-aged students who were eager to work in the community to make a difference.

Results from the interviews with internal stakeholders of the organization also revealed strategic patterns of communication, especially when recruiting volunteers. Accommodation is the term used to describe “the ways in which individuals in interaction monitor and perhaps adjust their behavior during interactions” (Miller, 2005, p. 153). As the following observation notes and interview segments revealed, the internal stakeholders of the nonprofit organization use “communication to manage … social
relationships” (Gasiorek, Giles, & Soliz, 2015, p. 2), especially when recruiting volunteers.

The first step in the process of recruiting volunteers is knowing the audience and what they expect. As revealed in the following statement, the executive director understood the importance of audience analysis:

One of the best things about my job is talking to different groups. It is fun for me to try to figure out what is going to appeal to this group and make them want to be a part of this.

She explained, “I plan my talks to fit my audience.” This statement speaks to the intentionality of message strategizing, thus extending the idea of communication accommodation theory. Although it is clear from the theory that people change their language to accommodate to others during interactions, accommodation may also occur in the planning stages. These aforementioned interview segments revealed that the executive director was well aware of the need to accommodate to her audience even in the planning stages of her recruitment messages. Perhaps accommodation is more than an adjustment during interaction, but a part of the conscious planning process, as well. During the executive director’s interview, it became quite obvious that the thought process in planning recruitment talks was a conscious decision on her part. She continued this way: “When I know I have to give a talk, I must think about the audience’s time restraints and why they are doing this service. I always give them what I think they will want.” As evidenced from this comment, accommodation appears to be a conscious part of the decision-making process and aids the recruiter in designing the most appropriate
message for the group being addressed. One final comment from the executive
director revealed the intentionality of this communication accommodation:

  People want to help, but you have to put it at a place where they can help.
  If you are with communication students, you tell them ways you need help
  with communication. If you are with health and nutrition students, you tell
  them about ways they can help dealing with health and nutrition. Know
  who your group is and help them plug in.

This illustrates a clear application of communication accommodation theory.

Another area that was analyzed using communication accommodation theory
involved handling ideological tensions that arise, especially when client needs clashed
with donor or volunteer beliefs. When asked how she handled these tensions, the
executive director responded:

  If I was not talking to a variety of groups, I would never hear about how
  my external stakeholders feel. Typically, people in churches don’t ask the
  tough questions because they don’t want to seem judgmental. But in a
  civic arena or a class, they ask the tough questions.

She went on to explain how she handled one particular controversy that involved the
clients’ desires for help with pet food.

  If I had not been out talking to this particular civic group, I would never
  have known how controversial this issue was to this group. People felt like
  if our clients can’t afford food, they don’t have a right to a pet. But, I felt
  like this was a legitimate request and I understand that sometimes life’s
  circumstances change. Yet, I knew this particular group did not agree with
me, so I had to find an alternative source for funding and I had to make changes in how we package pet food. Now, because of the complaints, only volunteers bag pet food. And no donor money goes to this ministry unless they designate that is where the money should go.

This comment shows how the nonprofit organization accommodates various stakeholder needs and beliefs. By changing the source of funding and how the pet food was packaged, the nonprofit could both satisfy client needs and external stakeholder beliefs.

Seeking to satisfy different, even opposing, stakeholder groups requires communication accommodation, not just in language adjustment, but in decision-making processes as well. A controversial issue was handled strategically by the nonprofit organization through innovative decision-making.

Another controversial issue that this particular nonprofit had to contend with was the need for more volunteers and satisfying the current volunteer base. Again, this accommodation was not only evident in the language used by the internal stakeholder, but in the decision-making process as well. As the program director stated, “I need to remind myself that I must handle everyone with kid gloves. I have to think twice and speak once, especially when recruiting volunteers.” She continued, “I constantly struggle with having people help and realizing how much more work that means for our operation.”

During the interview, she showed her frustration with handling this tension. “It is very hard to accommodate large groups of volunteers, and I always
worry that it will make the current volunteers feel unneeded. There are only so many tasks that need to be done on a daily basis.” She concluded:

But community service has gotten such a big push lately. It is a cool thing to do. Probably every class at USM has a service component and we are supposed to accommodate all of them. We appreciate it, but it is hard to communicate to a group that you really don’t need them without sounding ungrateful.

This is an ongoing tension within the organization, and it must be handled delicately in order to satisfy these two important stakeholder groups, current volunteers and future volunteers. Communication accommodation is once again an important function of message strategy and decision-making. Through interactions with the public and listening to client needs, the communication strategies of this nonprofit organization must accommodate and satisfy various stakeholder groups. As the aforementioned interview comments suggested, the internal stakeholders of the organization were not only aware of tensions between stakeholder needs and beliefs, but also worked intentionally to ease these tensions.

Conclusions

Communication is truly a core component of organizational life, especially for this particular case study of a small, faith-based nonprofit organization. By using a mixed method approach, the researcher was positioned to explain and better understand both sides of volunteerism: the quantitative study uncovered four prominent variables useful in explaining volunteer satisfaction, and the qualitative study uncovered strategies used by
the internal stakeholders of the organization to maintain a satisfied volunteer base, as well as communication strategies for recruitment of volunteers.

Volunteers for this nonprofit organization were satisfied overall with their experiences, and this satisfaction was correlated with identification with the organization, attachment to the organization and its mission, and to interpersonal relationships formed within the organization. Further analysis revealed that time spent volunteering was affected by the variables, as well. Although overall motivation was not correlated to volunteer satisfaction, results from statistical analysis revealed that there was a difference between motivations related to time spent volunteering. Those who were new to the volunteering tended to be more externally motivated when compared to those who had been volunteering for a year or more. These volunteers were more internally motivated, and therefore, were more satisfied with the experience.

Researcher observations and interviews with internal stakeholders were also analyzed. Thematic analysis of the interview transcripts revealed three themes salient to the internal stakeholders of this nonprofit organization: uniquely friendly, spiritually driven, and meaningful work. Each of the 11 internal stakeholders spoke about the uniquely friendly feel of the organization, how spirituality plays a role in the work the organization accomplishes, and how important it was to engage in meaningful work.

Second level thematic analysis of the internal stakeholder’s language patterns revealed that several themes were prevalent, especially when discussing interactions between staff members and volunteers. Transcript excerpts revealed language that focused on meaningfulness of the work and the mission of the organization, the importance of developing relationships/friendships within the organization, promoting a
positive work environment, and having a spiritual connectedness with the work done by the organization. This analysis revealed that internal stakeholders were aware of the work they do, and they intentionally sought to make the organization meaningful and satisfying to volunteers through their day-to-day interactions.

Observations of volunteer recruitment instances and interviews with the internal stakeholders responsible for recruiting volunteers revealed that the internal stakeholders intentionally and strategically created and altered recruitment messages to satisfy future volunteers (and donors) based on an understanding of the group’s desires and needs. Finally, internal stakeholders accommodate, or seek to satisfy, varying stakeholder groups when ideological tensions arise. Communication is strategic and the handling of these tensions is part of the decision-making process.

Overall, communication of internal stakeholders is intentional and strategic in both maintaining a satisfied volunteer base and recruiting future volunteers for this particular nonprofit organization.

Limitations and Future Directions

Of course, as with any research study, there were limitations to this study. First, this was an instrumental case study of one small, faith-based nonprofit’s communication strategies and patterns. Although the findings may very well be useful to other small community-based nonprofit organizations, it is unclear if the patterns and strategies of communication found in this study would be the same for other organizations. Second, although this is a faith-based nonprofit organization, and the internal stakeholders spoke of the spiritual connectedness to the work done by the organization, the volunteers surveyed were not asked about spirituality. Future studies could incorporate spirituality
questions to learn how spirituality is associated with the volunteer’s level of satisfaction. It would be also be interesting to discover if religion or spirituality was a motivating factor among the majority of the volunteers. Finally, the surveys used in the study asked participants about their satisfaction at this point in time, but did not seek to understand if this level of satisfaction had been different previously. This would have allowed for even more nuanced understandings of how effective volunteer maintenance strategies were for this particular group of volunteers and if changes should be made by the organization.

Using a more complete model of volunteer satisfaction and exploring how the satisfaction of volunteers was handled from internal stakeholders of the nonprofit organization allowed for greater understandings and explanations of how a local, faith-based nonprofit organization communicatively conducted its business. This model also lends itself to other approaches of analysis. In particular, rhetorical analysis could uncover even more intricate patterns of communication between the communication strategies used by internal stakeholders and the resulting satisfaction of the volunteers for the nonprofit organization. The site of rhetorical analysis, whether the nonprofit organization itself or the interview texts, could uncover specific rhetorical strategies used in the recruitment and maintenance of volunteers. As Smith and Kramer (2015) noted, organizational and communication scholars are well poised not only to further examine extant concepts and theories in nonprofit and volunteering contexts but also to develop new ideas and insights that may be uniquely related to the nuances of working and volunteering in the nonprofit sector” (p. 9); therefore, communication research into this segment of the United States economy should continue.
Finally, this study is the first step in building a new communication theory of the nonprofit experience. This study investigated inquiry from both external stakeholders and internal stakeholders, which allowed more in-depth meanings to emerge. Using this inductive approach, the researcher was hoping to uncover and explain “the systems in which people operate, the systems that explain why people do what they do” (Babbie, 2010, p. 14). Since it was a mixed method approach, the researcher sought explanations about volunteerism and predicting outcomes for this external group of stakeholders, as well as a deeper understanding of volunteerism from the internal stakeholders of the organization.

Theory functions to solve problems or offer explanations about our social world, and this study is a first step in developing a theory of volunteerism, especially from a communication standpoint. In order for a theory to be developed, five criteria must be fulfilled – the theory must be accurate and consistent, have a broad scope, be parsimonious, and have fruitful results (Miller, 2005). Future studies must be conducted using the new model of volunteer satisfaction to confirm the accuracy and consistency of this model. Further, studies of various types of nonprofit organizations will help verify the broad scope of the model. Finally, as this study elucidates, there are several steps involved in volunteerism. First, the recruitment of volunteers, regardless of the message strategy used, must match the communication climate and communicative behavior of the nonprofit organizational members. Second, message strategies, such as using specific language targeted to the future volunteers or storytelling, can add to the persuasive impact of the message. Additionally, internal stakeholders responsible for recruitment must be aware of ideological tensions and adjust behavior and messages accordingly.
Once the volunteer enters the nonprofit, the maintenance of the volunteer-staff relationship must begin. As this study elucidates, the organizational climate and the communicative behavior of internal stakeholders must seek to satisfy the volunteer. This study revealed several variables, which are highly correlated to a volunteer’s level of satisfaction with the volunteer experience – motivation to volunteer at the organization, identification with the nonprofit organization, attachment to the nonprofit organization and its mission, and the development of interpersonal relationships between the volunteers and staff members. The communication of the internal stakeholders must be intentional and strategic as it aims to create more satisfied volunteers. Continuing to study the communication of internal stakeholders of nonprofit organizations will allow for more nuanced understandings of the volunteer experience and must continue. As the nonprofit sector continues to grow, so does the need for more volunteers. Understanding the relationship between internal and external stakeholders of nonprofit organizations may be the key ingredient needed for continued expansion of this segment of the United States economy.
NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

The project has been reviewed by the University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the “Adverse Effect Report Form”.
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months. Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 15050608
PROJECT TITLE: The Action of Sustainability
PROJECT TYPE: New Project
RESEARCHER(S): Colleen Mestayer
COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Arts and Letters
DEPARTMENT: Communication Studies
FUNDING AGENCY/SPONSOR: N/A
IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Exempt Review Approval
PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 06/03/2015 to 06/02/2018

Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board
NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months. Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 15061801
PROJECT TITLE: The Voice and Action of Service
PROJECT TYPE: New Project
RESEARCHER(S): Colleen Mestayer
COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Arts and Letters
DEPARTMENT: Communication Studies
FUNDING AGENCY/SPONSOR: N/A
IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Expedited Review Approval
PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 07/20/2015 to 07/20/2016

Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board
APPENDIX C - Volunteer Survey

General Demographics

1. What is your age? __________

2. What is your gender?
   a. male
   b. female

3. What is your status with the organization? (Circle all that apply)
   a. current volunteer
   b. past volunteer
   c. board of directors
   d. service learning volunteer (requirement for class/program)

3. How long have you been volunteering at Edwards Street?
   a. just a few times
   b. several months
   c. about 1 year
   d. about 2 years
   e. 3 or more years

4. How did you find out about volunteer opportunities at Edwards Street?
   a. friend or family member
   b. staff or volunteer for Edwards Street
   c. organized presentation by a staff member or volunteer for Edwards Street
   d. course or work presentation
   e. other: ____________________________________________________________
5. What made you want to volunteer at Edwards Street (check all that apply)

a. you had available time
b. you believe in the mission
c. you knew someone who volunteered at Edwards Street
d. you knew someone who received services from Edwards Street
e. other: __________________________________________________________
Please indicate your level of satisfaction with the following statements:

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<th></th>
<th>Very Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Somewhat Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Somewhat Satisfied</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
<th>Very Satisfied</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The availability of getting help when I need it.</td>
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<td>2. The realism of the picture I was given of what my volunteer experience would be like.</td>
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<td>3. My relationship with paid staff.</td>
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<td>4. The support network that is in place for me when I have volunteer-related problems.</td>
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<td>5. The way in which the agency provides me with performance feedback.</td>
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<td>6. The flow of communication coming to me from paid staff and board members.</td>
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<td>7. The support I receive from people in the organization.</td>
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<td>8. The amount of information I receive about what the organization is doing.</td>
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<td>9. How often the organization acknowledges the work I do.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. The amount of permission I need to get to do the things I need to do on this job.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. The degree of cohesiveness I experience within the organization.</td>
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<td>12. The degree to which the organization communicates its goals and objectives to volunteers.</td>
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<td>13. The progress that I have seen in the clientele served by my organization.</td>
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<td>14. The difference my volunteer work is making.</td>
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<td>15. My ability to do this job as well as anyone else.</td>
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<td>16. The opportunities I have to learn new things.</td>
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<td>17. The fit of the volunteer work to my skills.</td>
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<td>18. How worthwhile my contribution is.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Very Dissatisfied</td>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
<td>Somewhat Dissatisfied</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Somewhat Satisfied</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>Very Satisfied</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Please indicate the importance of each of the following items to you as a volunteer:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Not at all Important</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Extremely Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. People I'm close to want me to volunteer.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Volunteering makes me feel important.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. People I know share an interest in community service.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. By volunteering I feel less lonely.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. I feel compassion toward people in need.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. I feel it is important to help others.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not at all important</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Extremely Important</td>
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<tr>
<td>20. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21. Volunteering will help me to succeed.</td>
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<tr>
<td>22. I can do something for a cause that is important to me.</td>
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<tr>
<td>23. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.</td>
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<tr>
<td>24. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.</td>
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<tr>
<td>25. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.</td>
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<tr>
<td>26. Volunteering makes me feel needed.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>28. Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. I can explore my own strengths.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Totally Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Totally Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The work environment at Edwards Street is friendly and comfortable.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I look forward to volunteering at Edwards Street.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I enjoy the people I work with at Edwards Street (staff and other volunteers).</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. It is easy to be myself while I am volunteering at Edwards Street.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. We have meaningful conversations while I am working at Edwards Street.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. I would consider the staff and other volunteers I work with my friends.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Unless unforeseen changes occur in your life, do you see yourself volunteering for Edwards Street one year from now? Certainly not | Neutral |

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APPENDIX D – Interview Questions

Name:

Age:

1. How long have you been working/volunteering at Edwards Street?

2. How would you describe your work?

3. What is the mission of Edwards Street?

4. Why do you work/volunteer here?

5. What is the best thing about the work you do?

6. What do you hope to accomplish through your work?

7. Are volunteers important to ESFC?

8. Do you often talk about ESFC to potential donors or potential volunteers?

9. Have you ever been asked to give a talk about ESFC?

10. If so, what part of ESFC do you focus on?

11. If you could change anything about Edwards Street, what would it be?
APPENDIX E – Validity Table

Table E1 Principle Component Analysis (of all questions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction - Component Matrix&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Component 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The availability of getting help when I need it.</td>
<td>.733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The realism of the picture I was given of what my volunteer experience would be like.</td>
<td>.829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. My relationship with paid staff.</td>
<td>.760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The support network that is in place for me when I have volunteer-related problems.</td>
<td>.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The way in which the agency provides me with performance feedback.</td>
<td>.774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The flow of communication coming to me from paid staff and board members.</td>
<td>.871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The support I receive from people in the organization.</td>
<td>.845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The amount of information I receive about what the organization is doing.</td>
<td>.773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. How often the organization acknowledges the work I do.</td>
<td>.890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The amount of permission I need to do my job as a volunteer.</td>
<td>.864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. The degree of cohesiveness I experience within the organization.</td>
<td>.899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. The degree to which the organization communicates its goals and objectives to volunteers.</td>
<td>.785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. The progress that I have seen in the clientele served by my organization.</td>
<td>.747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. The difference my volunteer work is making.</td>
<td>.758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. My ability to do this job as well as anyone else.</td>
<td>.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. The opportunities I have to learn new things.</td>
<td>.835</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. The fit of the volunteer work to my skills.</td>
<td>.887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. How worthwhile my contribution is.</td>
<td>.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. The amount of effort I put in as equaling the amount of change I influence.</td>
<td>.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. The chance I have to utilize my knowledge and skills in my volunteer work.</td>
<td>.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. The access I have to information concerning the organization.</td>
<td>.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. The freedom I have in deciding how to carry out my volunteer assignment.</td>
<td>.820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. My relationship with other volunteers in the organization.</td>
<td>.851</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. There is a similar sense of purpose in this organization.</td>
<td>.808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. This organization has a clear and unique vision.</td>
<td>.682</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

<sup>a</sup> 1 components extracted.
### Identification Component Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26. There is a strong feeling of unity in this organization</td>
<td>.680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. This organization has a specific mission shared by its employees &amp; volunteers.</td>
<td>.614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. When someone criticizes this organization, it feels like a personal insult.</td>
<td>.767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. I am very interested in what others think about this organization.</td>
<td>.843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. When I talk about this organization, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.</td>
<td>.831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. This organization's successes are my successes.</td>
<td>.910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. When someone praises this organization it feels like a personal compliment.</td>
<td>.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. If a story in the media criticized this organization, I would feel embarrassed.</td>
<td>.750</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.

### Attachment Component Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>34. I am well aware of Edwards Street’s direction and mission.</td>
<td>.880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. The programs and staff of Edwards Street support the mission.</td>
<td>.909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. I like to work for Edwards Street because I believe in its mission and work.</td>
<td>.845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. My work contributes to carrying out the mission of Edwards Street.</td>
<td>.782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. The friendships I have made while volunteering here.</td>
<td>.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. The amount of interaction I have with other volunteers in the organization.</td>
<td>.834</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.

### Interpersonal Relationships Component Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I would consider the staff and other volunteers I work with my friends.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. We have meaningful conversations while I am working at Edwards Street.</td>
<td>.820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. It is easy to be myself while I am volunteering at Edwards Street.</td>
<td>.833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I enjoy the people I work with at Edwards Street (staff and other volunteers).</td>
<td>.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I look forward to volunteering at Edwards Street.</td>
<td>.912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The work environment at Edwards Street is friendly and comfortable.</td>
<td>.834</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.
Motivation Component Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Component Matrix</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I</td>
<td>0.571 -0.276 0.576 -0.136 0.153 0.268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>would like to work.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. My friends volunteer.</td>
<td>0.445 -0.188 0.313 0.567 0.406 0.033</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.</td>
<td>0.266 0.778 0.265 -0.074 0.032 -0.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. People I'm close to want me to volunteer.</td>
<td>0.686 0.010 -0.048 0.633 0.051 0.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Volunteering makes me feel important.</td>
<td>0.763 0.024 -0.007 0.264 -0.001 0.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. People I know share an interest in community service.</td>
<td>0.564 0.284 -0.069 0.289 -0.339 0.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget</td>
<td>0.671 0.177 -0.319 -0.133 -0.241 -0.081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>about it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.</td>
<td>0.276 0.777 0.011 -0.018 0.102 0.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. By volunteering I feel less lonely.</td>
<td>0.682 -0.041 -0.280 -0.343 0.277 -0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.</td>
<td>0.778 -0.280 0.363 -0.140 -0.147 0.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being</td>
<td>0.748 -0.136 -0.160 -0.023 0.314 0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more fortunate than others.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.</td>
<td>0.709 0.098 0.126 -0.056 -0.117 -0.442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Volunteering increases my self-esteem.</td>
<td>0.785 -0.064 -0.226 -0.056 0.349 -0.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.</td>
<td>0.296 0.379 0.579 0.012 0.362 -0.361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.</td>
<td>0.721 -0.355 0.323 -0.011 -0.099 0.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I feel compassion toward people in need.</td>
<td>0.359 0.839 0.091 -0.021 0.050 0.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Others with whom I am close place a high value on volunteering.</td>
<td>0.569 0.078 -0.095 0.626 0.010 -0.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.</td>
<td>0.616 0.104 0.124 0.171 -0.284 -0.378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I feel it is important to help others.</td>
<td>0.299 0.603 0.040 -0.100 -0.195 0.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.</td>
<td>0.765 -0.173 -0.324 -0.097 0.256 0.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Volunteering will help me to succeed.</td>
<td>0.812 -0.301 0.212 -0.126 -0.158 0.145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>I can do something for a cause that is important to me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Volunteering makes me feel needed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Volunteering is a way to make new friends.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>I can explore my own strengths.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 6 components extracted.
APPENDIX F – Language Segment Codes

Table F1 Coded Units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work/Mission is important or meaningful (111 Units)</th>
<th>Volunteer Relationships/Friendships in the organization (73 Units)</th>
<th>Positive Work Atmosphere/Environment (58 Units)</th>
<th>Spiritual Connectedness with work (25 Units)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Helping people who are down and out</td>
<td>I enjoy meeting people.</td>
<td>Nobody smokes or cusses.</td>
<td>Shining God’s light in dark places.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like knowing that I am helping those who need it.</td>
<td>Volunteers are extremely important.</td>
<td>It is a good atmosphere.</td>
<td>The volunteers are friendly, Christian people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I provide a service that people need.</td>
<td>I could not do my job by myself.</td>
<td>The new boss has better connections.</td>
<td>Our mission is to shine the light of God’s love, strengthen families.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our mission has always been the same, but we have really grown in the last year.</td>
<td>I get help from volunteers.</td>
<td>The new bosses are more understanding and sympathetic.</td>
<td>My mission is to shine the light of God’s love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our mission is to give food without discrimination.</td>
<td>I give advice to the volunteers about what works for me on the job.</td>
<td>We do not preach to our clients.</td>
<td>But, the bible says that the poor will always be with us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you need food for any reason, if you come in here you are going to get it.</td>
<td>Volunteers are not a hindrance.</td>
<td>We try to accommodate our clients.</td>
<td>I believe God called me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We feed people without any judgment at all.</td>
<td>The volunteers and I can talk about everything.</td>
<td>If you are rude to them, if you are huffy to them they are going to get mad and spread it to other people.</td>
<td>God equipped me through my past jobs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We try to give them what they need.</td>
<td>The volunteers and I share on Facebook.</td>
<td>Word of mouth is gonna come back to us.</td>
<td>And I believe as a Christian that this is an obligation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That is the bottom line with the mission.</td>
<td>I have very personal relationships with many of the volunteers.</td>
<td>Even the new volunteers, we don’t preach to them, we don’t criticize.</td>
<td>People use their talents to God’s glory...as our response of gratitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We hope that we have gave people food, helped them with that need.</td>
<td>If I see volunteers out in the street, I will chat with them.</td>
<td>We don’t want anyone to feel uneasy.</td>
<td>We must show the love of Christ through our actions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being kind, being friends with them, will help them realize that if they are good to the clients, they can pass it on.</td>
<td>I see volunteers around a bunch.</td>
<td>We try to get them [volunteers] started out on something easier.</td>
<td>We do put a devotional book in every grocery bag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The overall goal is giving goodness, so goodness can be passed on.</td>
<td>I see some volunteers out when I am picking up food.</td>
<td>We let them decide what they want to do most days.</td>
<td>We are committed to adding a spiritual component to our programming.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our job is to help people, so if it is a better way, we do it.</td>
<td>We are friendly with each other.</td>
<td>We will ask them to do some things, but we let them do whatever they want to.</td>
<td>We do ask program participants to pray for others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We give out basics and we try to make them understand that.</td>
<td>If we were not friendly here, then we couldn’t be friendly outside of here.</td>
<td>The atmosphere in here is always jovial.</td>
<td>Our clients are not going into a traditional church setting because they smell bad, or they don’t have the clothes, or they don’t have the transportation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work/Mission is important or meaningful (111 Units)</td>
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<td>Spiritual Connectedness with work (25 Units)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When we are out picking up food, we have people asking what we are doing.</td>
<td>These people (volunteers) are my friends.</td>
<td>It would be boring and the days would be so long.</td>
<td>I’d like to offer something to help people build their relationship with God.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have even got money from people.</td>
<td>Our volunteers have been faithful for 10 years.</td>
<td>We all tell stories to one another to help each other out.</td>
<td>God prepared me for this.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wish we had more money or more food to give out.</td>
<td>We are all friends.</td>
<td>It’s not a one-way street.</td>
<td>I pray before I speak to know what need to lift up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wish we could give more.</td>
<td>We try to be their friend.</td>
<td>If it is a better way, we will listen to them.</td>
<td>Our mission is to shine God’s light.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It keeps me in touch with what people’s concerns are.</td>
<td>Being friendly is the best way to get them started.</td>
<td>We have some volunteers who sometimes we have to ask to quiet it down because they are cutting up so much.</td>
<td>I believe that God brings my staff and volunteers to me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hand in hand with my mission is to help people out of poverty.</td>
<td>Volunteers don’t give us any problems.</td>
<td>We start joking.</td>
<td>And having my job is a miracle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would love to put ourselves out of the business of the food pantry.</td>
<td>We couldn’t do this without volunteers.</td>
<td>We joke with each other.</td>
<td>I want people to see the ministry of ES.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My goal is to shut this place down because no one would be hungry.</td>
<td>Even if we have to monitor them [volunteers], it is extra people doing work.</td>
<td>One time the joking offended a client, so we need to tone it down some because we do not want to offend anyone.</td>
<td>God has given me the gift of working with children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are succeeding if we can educate children</td>
<td>After we show them the first time, they usually know exactly what to do.</td>
<td>We was all back here joking</td>
<td>I volunteer at ES because I have a calling, a gift.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are succeeding if we can help with a child’s self-esteem</td>
<td>Everybody who comes here knows us by now, and even if they are just starting, we start talking to them.</td>
<td>You’ve got to watch what you do and say.</td>
<td>When you bless someone else, you get blessed, too.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are succeeding if we can get a child to stay in school</td>
<td>We want to be friends.</td>
<td>You’ve got to be careful of what you say everywhere you go.</td>
<td>We do want to have more a spiritual component.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are succeeding if we can make adults healthier.</td>
<td>If you can’t have friendship, I don’t want to be here.</td>
<td>I love being here.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are succeeding if we can help adults get a job and care for their families.</td>
<td>We have learned a lot from the volunteers.</td>
<td>The atmosphere of food pantry is jovial, hysterical sometimes, pretty positive.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some people will always be dependent on the food pantry.</td>
<td>A lot of them come in here and they have better ideas about what we do.</td>
<td>The food pantry feels like comrades working together.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have grown from 1,000 households to 1,200 households.</td>
<td>Jimmy knows everybody that walks in here.</td>
<td>The atmosphere in the store is light and friendly.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is overwhelming to think of the need.</td>
<td>Every time they come up, they talk to him and he talks to them.</td>
<td>We laugh and joke.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have donors who have us built into their budgets, so we don’t worry about being able to help.</td>
<td>It’s a perfect relationship.</td>
<td>The atmosphere is positive and very busy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>All those experiences all line up to work here.</td>
<td>It is friendly.</td>
<td>If they are happy they are more productive employees</td>
<td>Schedules are important to happy employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was a board member, and was already involved when I decided to apply for the job.</td>
<td>Some volunteers are here just to make their hours, but some want to learn why the people need food.</td>
<td>I enjoy being here.</td>
<td>The atmosphere is fun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I concentrate on getting more people to become ongoing partners with ES.</td>
<td>If a volunteer asks questions about why we give food to Mexicans without asking for their cards, we act friendly.</td>
<td>We cannot run this business just like it is without volunteers.</td>
<td>The atmosphere is great.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe in what we are doing.</td>
<td>They (volunteers) need to know how we do it.</td>
<td>I enjoy being here.</td>
<td>It is almost like family, a big family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is our obligations to take care of our neighbors.</td>
<td>We cannot run this business just like it is without volunteers.</td>
<td>The atmosphere is great.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>And so I enjoy telling people how they can plug into help.</td>
<td>So if you are friendly to them (new volunteers and other people in the community) they are going to come out here and see what’s going on and volunteer.</td>
<td>We kid around here.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is fun for me to try to figure out what is going to appeal to this group and make them want to be a part of this.</td>
<td>My number one goal is to be friendly.</td>
<td>Communication here is open.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s helping people realize how they can use their talents.</td>
<td>My goal is to be friendly.</td>
<td>We could not do this without volunteers.</td>
<td>We kid around here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Christian groups support ES.</td>
<td>We get lots of news coverage from local media.</td>
<td>People want to help, but you have to put it at a place where they can help.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We get lots of news coverage from local media.</td>
<td>We thank volunteers whether or not they delivered what they said they could do.</td>
<td>We thank volunteers whether or not they delivered what they said they could do.</td>
<td>We kid around here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People want to help, but you have to put it at a place where they can help.</td>
<td>Volunteers are really like the customer.</td>
<td>Volunteers are really like the customer.</td>
<td>People here are in good spirits, smiling, and have good attitudes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If my message speaks to them, they will want to get plugged in.</td>
<td>Volunteers are always right.</td>
<td>The volunteers need to also be respectful and follow rules.</td>
<td>People here care about how others feel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We give a hand up, not a hand-out.</td>
<td>The volunteers need to also be respectful and follow rules.</td>
<td>We have a core of volunteers that are needed to run this operation.</td>
<td>I think they are attracted to the people here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We hope we don’t see the same people in the food pantry again.</td>
<td>We have a core of volunteers that are needed to run this operation.</td>
<td>We are providing people with knowledge of the grace and the opportunities that are available.</td>
<td>Anytime I go in to the main office, I am welcomed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We hope to connect clients to other avenues for help.</td>
<td>Volunteers are easy to deal with if you let them do what they want to do.</td>
<td>I continued volunteering because I like the atmosphere.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are providing people with knowledge of the grace and the opportunities that are available.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My mission is to facilitate helping people the best way I can. We deal with vulnerable populations.</td>
<td>We can use your help and support to do it. The work we do here is more than we can do ourselves. We appreciate volunteers.</td>
<td>The staff make volunteers feel comfortable. Every time I went there, it was an enjoyable experience. Everybody who is there really wants to be there.</td>
<td>We have an upbeat atmosphere. The environment is friendly, peaceful, and comforting. Everybody gets along.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a great need, and ES is here as one means of trying meet that need. But we can never have too much food. We serve so many people, so our need is great. I grew up poor, so I can relate to the clientele of the store. Developing those partnerships is huge because that is sustainability. I also refer people to other service agencies when I can.</td>
<td>We need volunteers. I want our current volunteers to still feel needed. My volunteers and staff get to help out in all different ways. I know many of the client’s names and I speak to them personally.</td>
<td>There is never any tension or drama. Every part is a vital piece of the whole operation.</td>
<td>There is never any tension or drama. Every part is a vital piece of the whole operation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I give clients individual attention. I am a concierge of services because people who come in need more than just a shirt. I try to assess and help any way I can.</td>
<td>I don’t want any volunteer to feel like he or she is not needed. It has to be about relationships. We celebrate birthdays and anniversaries.</td>
<td>The clients know we don’t judge them. They let me do what I was comfortable with.</td>
<td>The clients know we don’t judge them. They let me do what I was comfortable with.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our mission is to help with every aspect of a person – emotional, physical, and spiritual well-being. My mission is to help out in every way.</td>
<td>Our volunteers are nice, polite, friendly, and willing to do what needs to be done. We try to be direct and friendly and helpful.</td>
<td>I love the atmosphere.</td>
<td>I love the atmosphere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to help clients. My clientele are on their journey and I try to help in all ways. I want to help volunteers learn life skills. My job is a calling. I talk about ES all the time. It makes me feel good to come here everyday.</td>
<td>We always have friendly conversations. Volunteers can form relationships with clients.</td>
<td>Our volunteers are nice, polite, friendly, and willing to do what needs to be done. We try to be direct and friendly and helpful.</td>
<td>Our volunteers are nice, polite, friendly, and willing to do what needs to be done. We try to be direct and friendly and helpful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We could not do as much without our volunteers.</td>
<td>I love the connections with the people I meet everyday. I love my relationship with my customers.</td>
<td>I love the connections with the people I meet everyday. I love my relationship with my customers.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The mission is shining light in the dark places of human needs.</td>
<td>You cannot scold volunteers.</td>
<td>It is about the relationships formed.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering here gives me a sense of my life counting in some way.</td>
<td>Volunteering is a win-win situation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to serve in a meaningful way.</td>
<td>We are so appreciative of the volunteer’s help.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m doing this to help the poor.</td>
<td>Volunteers appreciate us and the work they do.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel needed.</td>
<td>Volunteers really want to be there, too.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I see my work here as an opportunity to build something.</td>
<td>People want to hear specific stories about how their service counts.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I work here because I like what we do – helping people.</td>
<td>I work here because I like what we do – helping people.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like what this job is about.</td>
<td>I wish we could increase the amount of food given.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I tell stories about our work to make it real for the audience.</td>
<td>The job gives you a chance to do something good.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wish we could increase the amount of food given.</td>
<td>I am helping people in need.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The job gives you a chance to do something good.</td>
<td>I think they like to come here because of what we do – serving and helping others.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am helping people in need.</td>
<td>We respond to everyone.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We respond to everyone.</td>
<td>I am helping people who need the help.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers who come here see it as a chance to help other people.</td>
<td>Volunteers who come here see it as a chance to help other people.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They like the way we respond to the people needing help.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We don’t just help people with food.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We listen to their problems and try to help in different areas.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do this to help these girls get out of poverty.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I love the kids.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The mission is to help others in any way possible. The mission is nondenominational. I want to better their lives. My mission is trying to get these people out of the circle of poverty. The best thing about volunteering is seeing the change in the girls. If I can help, I want to help them. Volunteers really make a difference. People who get involved see the purpose in helping. Everybody wins when you help. We work to help people who can’t help themselves. I wouldn’t trade my job for anything. ES is a mission agency. I will call around and try to find the item for the customer. I work hard to make their work at the store beneficial. By serving others, I have meaning. I want to make a difference in the lives of people. I want to get them to believe in themselves. We need recognition for success. I want to get these children out of poverty. Volunteers want to see the changes in this population. The mission is to shine light in dark places. I talk about ES and my work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
REFERENCES


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