2022

Retention Strategies for Human Service Nonprofit Employees

Ebonee F. Shaw
Walden University

Walden University

College of Management and Technology

This is to certify that the doctoral study by

Ebonee F. Shaw

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Jill Murray, Committee Chairperson, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. Tim Truitt, Committee Member, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. Patsy Kasen, University Reviewer, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2022

Abstract

Retention Strategies for Human Service Nonprofit Employees

by

Ebonee F. Shaw

MBA, University of New Orleans, 2003

BS, Xavier University of Louisiana, 2001

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

April 2022

Abstract

Human resource challenges are a pressing issue for nonprofit organizations. Nonprofit leaders who do not successfully implement retention strategies negatively impact organization performance and turnover rates. Grounded in the motivational needs theory, the purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore retention strategies leaders use to reduce turnover in the nonprofit industry. Study participants included three nonprofit leaders who successfully implemented retention strategies in human service agencies focused on children and families in North St. Louis County. Data were collected using semistructured interviews, a review of the current strategic plan, employee retention statistics, public records published by Guidestar, and annual reports on the agency websites. Through thematic analysis, four themes were identified: (a) building a team through effective hiring, (b) supportive leadership, (c) communication, and (d) staff recognition. A key recommendation for nonprofit leaders is to develop a hiring method that assists in building an effective team and evaluating candidate skillsets and personalities against current organization needs. Identifying which strategy motivates an individual employee can help them stay longer, reducing recruiting and training costs, which is critical in highly skilled positions. The implications for positive social change include the potential to retain skilled employees, allowing organizations to provide continuous social services to clients in the community, and improving human and social conditions.

Retention Strategies for Human Service Nonprofit Employees

by

Ebonee F. Shaw

MBA, University of New Orleans, 2003

BS, Xavier University of Louisiana, 2001

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

April 2022

Dedication

I dedicate this study to my handsome son, Timothy Martin Taylor, III, as well as my supportive parents, Ellis and Judy-Ferguson Shaw, my extremely intelligent sister, Dr. Mahauganee Dawn Shaw Bonds, and my beautiful nieces, Jurnee Morae and Trinity Aliyah Bonds, all of whom supported me throughout this educational process. My parents, retired educators, have consistently shared their passion for education and learning with me from an early age. Without the presence and support of my family standing in the balance, there is no way I could have achieved this major goal. I thank you and will forever be grateful for your patience, love, encouragement, and support.

"It always seems impossible, until it is done." – *Nelson Mandela*

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge everyone in my life who believed that I could complete this mission. Without their constant support and understanding, I could never have been mentally or physically capable of completing the journey. I am humbled by your belief in my abilities and am grateful to you for helping me to believe in myself. I would like to thank my committee for being patient with me. I'm a lot! Your inspiration and consistent pushing made for a better presentation. I am ready for the next challenge. Thank you.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Industries with specialized employees, such as nonprofit agencies, are concerned with employee turnover, an issue that is directly impacted by job satisfaction and job engagement. Turnover creates high costs for additional recruitment, training, and compensation. These costs can be especially burdensome for nonprofit agencies that typically operate on a fixed budget. Employee retention, motivation, commitment, and job satisfaction are factors that play a significant role in organizational growth and sustainability (Pandey & Asthana, 2017). It is useful for nonprofit managers to understand which retention strategies will reduce employee turnover. Developing and implementing retention strategies can create a positive influence on staffing in nonprofit agencies (Nusem et al., 2017). Identifying factors that motivate an employee to remain with an organization long term allows leaders to provide the workforce with the motivators needed to stay, influencing turnover intentions (Holston-Okae & Mushi, 2018). Nonprofit business leaders may use the results of the study to understand motivational behavior factors and create strategies for retention practices.

Background of the Problem

Employee retention and turnover have been topics of interest to business leaders over several decades (Babalola et al., 2016; Waldman et al., 2015). The annual turnover for nonprofit employees in the United States is estimated to range from 1,590,000 to 2,120,000 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016), creating low retention, increased costs, and reduced productivity (Lee, 2016). Consistent turnover leads to economic insecurity, employment displacement, and delayed economic growth, threatening organizational

viability and making it imperative for nonprofit agencies to encourage employees to remain long term (Vasquez, 2014). Employee longevity in an organization has a direct correlation to growth and stability within the economy and strengthens organizational reputation and image (Lee, 2016).

Problem Statement

Human resource challenges are the most pressing issue for nonprofit organizations (Baluch & Ridder, 2021; Evans et al., 2018). In the United States, the retention rate of staff in nonprofit child welfare agencies ranges from 20%–75% annually (Park & Pierce, 2020). The cost to recruit, hire, and train a new employee has been estimated to be 25% of the position's annual salary depending on the individual's role, specialization, and performance level (Hee & Rhung, 2019). The general business problem is that nonprofit human service agencies face increased operating expenses due to challenges in retaining qualified staff. The specific business problem is that some nonprofit leaders lack strategies to reduce employee turnover.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore strategies nonprofit leaders use to reduce employee turnover. The target population for this study included three leaders of three human service nonprofit agencies in the North St. Louis County region of the Greater St. Louis area who have successfully lowered employee turnover. By equipping nonprofit organizations with the tools to retain appropriately trained staff, the implication for positive social change could include providing families

receiving services from these agencies with continuity of care which is essential in making a change in the well-being of clients.

Nature of the Study

Qualitative research is appropriate when the goal is to describe what and why and assign meaning to how a phenomenon occurs (Myers, 2019). The qualitative method was relevant because the purpose of the study was to explore and better understand retention strategies for nonprofit leaders. Participants in this qualitative study were nonprofit leaders in the north county area of St. Louis, Missouri. Quantitative research requires analyzing statistical outcomes, measuring variables, and studying the variance by incorporating hypotheses and analytical equations to confirm the relationships (Zyphur & Pierides, 2017). The quantitative method was not appropriate for this study because I did not plan to examine relationships or conduct data analysis of variables. A mixed methods research design compares detailed empirical and theoretical data from both qualitative and quantitative research designs (Palinkas, 2014). A mixed methods research design was not appropriate for this study because quantitative research methods were not employed, though the results of this study could provide a foundation for future mixed methods or quantitative research in this area.

The study incorporated a multiple case study research design. The case study research design is useful when studying a phenomenon within a target population based on varied sources of evidence (Yin, 2018). The design for this study allowed for in-depth exploration of strategies used by nonprofit leaders to reduce employee turnover. In contrast, ethnography involves submerging oneself into a culture and then providing a

detailed description of that culture's characteristics and social construct (Morgan-Trimmer & Wood, 2016). Ethnography was not appropriate for this study because the goal of this study did not include studying social interactions, and I had no intention of embedding myself in the daily operations of the organizations under study. Phenomenology is used when attempting to gain knowledge of a problem through lived experiences that cannot be solved with general answers but requires further probing (Sohn et al., 2017). Phenomenology was not appropriate for this study because the goal was to explore strategies to reduce turnover at nonprofit agencies, not to study a lived experience amongst a group.

Research Question

A qualitative research study begins with a central research question (Yin, 2018). The central research question for this study was "Which strategies have effectively reduced employee turnover in nonprofit organizations?"

Interview Questions

To collect information on the experiences of nonprofit senior executives, I conducted semistructured interviews using the following prompts:

1. Describe the strategies you use to retain employees in your nonprofit organization.

2. Please describe how these strategies have been successful in increasing employee retention.

3. How did your organization assess the effectiveness of the strategies for increasing retention?

4. How do you consider employee behaviors and patterns in assigning job positions or duties?

5. What challenges has your agency faced regarding turnover with front line employees? How did you address these challenges?

6. What challenges has your agency faced regarding turnover within the management team? How did you address these challenges?

7. What were the key barriers to implementing your organization's strategies for employee retention?

8. What additional information can you share that is related to successful employee retention strategies?

Follow-up questions were used as necessary to probe for additional details.

Conceptual Framework

David McClelland's (1961) motivational needs theory was the conceptual framework for this study exploring successful strategies to reduce employee turnover by focusing on individual motivators. The motivational needs theory includes three behavior motivators that all people possess (Khurana & Joshi, 2017). These motivators include the employee's innate need for (a) achievement, (b) affiliation, and (c) power in the professional environment (McClelland, 1961). Employees have one dominant behavioral motivator, which is contingent upon an individual's culture, life experiences, and social processes (Verma, 2017). An organization's retention strategies have the potential to influence an employee's decision to remain with an agency. Retention strategies addressing the employee's dominant motivational need for affiliation, achievement, or

power influence the decision to leave or stay (Rasskazova et al., 2016). Identifying how employees best perform will help nonprofit leaders structure organizational roles, set goals, motivate, determine levels of commitment, and develop retention strategies (Pandey & Asthana, 2017).

McClelland's motivational needs theory provided a greater understanding of the intersection between motivation and turnover. Coordinating employee motivational factors to employee behaviors and patterns can help identify the connection between motivation and turnover (Hobbs et al., 2020). Study results will provide a better understanding of the business problem by exploring the current strategies used to reduce employee turnover. Researchers who explore the topic of employee turnover will have a better understanding of retention strategies.

Operational Definitions

The following definitions are terms associated with the topic of turnover and retention:

Human services: Human services is work done by professionals seeking to address complex social problems that are resistant to change, unpredictable, and uncertain (Carnochan et al., 2018).

Involuntary employee turnover: Involuntary employee turnover involves the process of firing or laying off employees by employer decision (Della Torre et al., 2018).

Motives: Motives are the needs, desires, wants, and impulses within an individual that propel them to act (Dhiman, 2017).

Nonprofit organization: A nonprofit organization is a tax-exempt charitable organization (U.S. Department of Labor [USDOL], 2016).

Retention: Retention is the ability of leaders to convince an employee to remain with the organization for the maximum time (Pittino et al., 2016).

Turnover: Turnover is the movement of a person from an institution across membership boundaries (Majeed et al., 2018).

Voluntary turnover: Voluntary turnover is when employees terminate employment (Hom et al., 2017).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

By definition, a research assumption is an idea considered to be true without validation (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). The first assumption was that participants would respond to the interview questions truthfully. The second assumption was that interviewees would agree to arrange and complete the interview process within 1 month of confirming participation. The third assumption was that employees who have been with the agency 5 or more consecutive years are committed to that organization.

Limitations

Limitations have the potential to prevent the completion of a study. Limitations can include misclassifications, which can bias study results (Holloway & Galvin, 2017). This study had several limitations, the first being a small sample size of three nonprofit leaders from agencies who provide direct care to family and children in North St. Louis County. Additional limitations included (a) finding participants who have implemented

successful retention plans, (b) not being able to identify participants who trust the researcher enough to provide honest responses, and (c) participants being unable to recall specific incidents due to the lapse in time.

Delimitations

Delimitations in this study were the controllable boundaries that narrowed the scope (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). The first delimitation was the geographic area bound by the borders of the municipalities that create the north county area of St. Louis, MO. Limiting the sample to organizations in one geographic region had the potential to control for extenuating factors (e.g., cost of living, etc.) that might disproportionately impact employee retention across organizations located in different geographic areas. The second delimitation was the selection of three nonprofit agencies and, subsequently, leadership employees at each agency. The limited sample size of three managers at three agencies was also a delimitation of the study.

Significance of the Study

The value of the findings from the current study to the field of business includes providing nonprofit industry leaders with awareness and knowledge of successful strategies used to encourage long-term employment across the organization. Employee retention, motivation, commitment, and job satisfaction are factors that play a significant role in organizational growth and sustainability (Pandey & Asthana, 2017). Nonprofit business leaders may use the results of this study to understand motivational behavior factors and create strategies for retention practices. Strategic plans that address employee

retention can potentially reduce the cost of turnover and increase productivity and profits, leading to growth and sustainability (Hobbs et al., 2020).

Contribution to Business Practice

The results of this doctoral study may provide insight into the factors that influence an employee's decision to remain with an agency. Creating and implementing retention strategies can create a positive influence on staffing in nonprofit agencies (Nusem et al., 2017). Identifying factors that motivate an employee to continue employment with an agency long term allows leaders to equip the workforce with the intrinsic motivators that lead to employee retention. Employee turnover may decrease if managers can pinpoint and leverage motivation. The findings of this study may be significant to managers and stakeholders because they may help highlight strategies to increase retention in the nonprofit industry.

Implications for Social Change

This study explored employee turnover and retention using the motivational needs theory. Increased employee turnover can cause community programs to deteriorate (Baines et al., 2017). But information about how to retain employees helps nonprofit agencies avoid training employees to handle turnover, which helps decrease work stress (Majeed et al., 2018). Retention of nonprofit employees allows agencies to provide uninterrupted social services to clients in the community, which improves human and social conditions. Steady employment may enable employees to participate in more economic activities, resulting in the growth of the nation's revenue and gross domestic product (Vasquez, 2014).

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

A literature review is a way of synthesizing research findings, presenting facts, and discovering opportunities for future research (Snyder, 2019). The literature review for this study includes a synthesis of relevant literature to substantiate this study, framing the impact of turnover and the relevance of retention strategies on nonprofit organizations. The review also provides information on the topics of employee turnover and retention and the motivational needs theory.

Organization of the Review

The review of literature begins with the exploration of the motivational needs theory, which was the conceptual framework for this study. The following section includes alternative theories such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Herzberg's two-factor motivational hygiene theory, Vroom's expectancy theory, and Adams' equity theory. To better understand past and present research on the topic, there is discussion of reoccurring themes such as voluntary employee turnover, turnover costs, motivation, nonprofits, engagement, and leadership strategies to reduce turnover. A comparison of previous studies follows each recurring theme.

Academic Literature

The following search terms yield relevant literature for this study: *nonprofit, voluntary employee turnover, employee retention, employees and motivation, job motivators, nonprofit turnover, nonprofit sustainability, needs theory, trichotomy of needs, retention strategies,* and variations of these terms. Searches were conducted on different databases for peer-reviewed sources including ProQuest, ABI/Inform, Google

Scholar, Business Source Complete, and Walden University's online library. I verified

peer-reviewed articles using Ulrich's Periodicals Directory. The total number of

references in this doctoral study was 165: 141 (85%) published between 2017–2021 and

153 (91%) peer reviewed. A review of a total of 135 articles and books completed the

literature review on past and present research, including three government websites, eight

scholarly seminal books, and 124 journals.

The purpose of this multiple case study was to explore strategies nonprofit leaders

use to increase employee retention. The factors that can impact employee turnover

include employee salary, benefits, motivation, engagement, working conditions, job

satisfaction, job stress, communications, and the relationship between the employees and

the direct supervisor (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017; McGinnis & Ng, 2016; Pandey &

Asthana, 2017). Exploring different theories may provide a greater understanding of the

current research topic.

Motivational Needs Theory

McClelland (1961) introduced the motivational needs theory to develop

achievement-based motivational theories and models. McClelland's (1987) motivational

models focus on improving employee assessment methods while advocating for

competency-based assessments and assisting in training workplace staff for motivational

thinking. McClelland studied workplace motivation and found that employees and

leaders have specific needs that influence job performance within the organization

(Verma, 2017).

McClelland emphasized that employees possess three specific behavior

motivators that impact job performance (Khurana & Joshi, 2017). These motivators include an employee's need for (a) achievement, (b) affiliation, or (c) power in the professional environment (McClelland, 1961). A combination of these three motives may impact the level of motivation employees possess and the effect on performance within the organization. Various factors motivate people, yet most individuals have one dominant behavioral motivator, which is contingent upon their culture, life experiences, and social processes (Verma, 2017). McClelland (1987) posited that few people have two prime motives, and a finite group possesses three.

Motives may have an impact on employee performance and retention. Employee motives are the needs, desires, and impulses of an employee that are natural incentives to perform (Dhiman, 2017). Natural incentives impacting employee performance include flexible work programs, compensation, benefits, and work–life balance programs (Townsend et al., 2017). Motives with natural incentives may explain the impact on behaviors and may be the reason motives link to emotion. Motives and emotions can influence employee performance (Lee, 2021). Leaders should consider various employee workforce needs and characteristics. Factors impacting employee workforce retention include professional development, on-site training, clear communication, work–family balance, and a system for recognizing achievement, among others (Delavallade, 2021; Sellers et al., 2015). Workforce retention strategies may impact employee retention. Retention is dependent on how well the retention strategies address the employee's dominant motivation (Rasskazova et al., 2016). Identifying various employee motives can support organizational roles, set goals, motivate, determine levels of commitment,

and develop retention strategies (Pandey & Asthana, 2017). Connecting employee behaviors to an identifiable motive may help determine the intent to stay or voluntarily leave.

Achievement Motive

McClelland's theoretical framework focused on exploring the reasons why some employees are more driven than others (Verma, 2017). In his original work, McClelland (1961) proclaimed that economic growth and decline is rooted in the need for achievement, identifying individual competency, and those interested in profitability. His goal with employee achievement levels was to better understand why some people are more driven to achieve than others. McClelland discovered that a person's perception of the difficulty of a task may impact their achievement levels and work outcomes (McClelland, 2010). The achievement motive is one of three motives that McClelland suggests.

The need for motivational achievement may influence an employee's behavior. McClelland (1987) identified the need for achievement as the most fundamental need in the work environment. The need for achievement supports the need to strive for success or perform well, showing effort to persevere during stressful times (Khurana & Joshi, 2017). An employee's need for achievement is highly identifiable and often projected onto coworkers (Doeze Jager-van Vliet et al., 2017). A person with a high level of achievement sets achievable work goals, takes calculated risks, accepts the responsibility of finding solutions to problems, and avoids failure when assessing performance against an established standard (McClelland, 1961, 1987). High achievers may have elevated

levels of motivation and are determined, hardworking, and focused on process improvement, accuracy, and precision (Doeze Jager-van Vliet et al., 2017).

Affiliation Motive

The need for affiliation involves desiring and needing interpersonal relationships and friendships with others (Verma, 2017). Characteristics of the need for affiliation include the desire to establish, maintain, and restore relationships among specific groups (Steinmann et al., 2016). McClelland (1987) described individuals who seek affiliation with a tendency to desire quality relationships with friends while projecting great efforts into being liked by others. For individuals who are motivated by affiliation, making decisions as a group is preferred, as some often play the role of peacemaker (Volmer et al., 2019). A person with a high need for affiliation may be concerned about how others perceive them. Managers who employ individuals with a need for affiliation may benefit from promoting teamwork (Brunstein, 2018). Affiliation counters the impacts of excessive power, forcing leaders to be cognizant of the employee's goals and personal development, and helps them maintain relationships to benefit the professional development and advancement (Steinmann et al., 2016). Encouraging teamwork allows for better performance, stronger relationships among coworkers, and employee satisfaction. By fulfilling this need for affiliation, motivation on behalf of the employee should increase (McClelland, 1987).

Power Motive

A person seeking power is infatuated with influence and control over others (McClelland, 1961). The need for power within individuals manifests in the desire for

status and recognition, control and influence, and the need to win (Doeze Jager-van Vliet

et al., 2017). People who are motivated by power often seek to persuade others, win

arguments, exert authority, and find positions to influence others (Arif & Uddin, 2016).

According to McClelland (2010), there are two specific elements of power, including

social and personalized power. Individuals seeking social power may apply inspiration to

help others achieve greatness, learn, and be happy. People who are motivated by

personalized power seek personal glorification, often demonstrating domination and

control over others (McClelland, 1987). Understanding the different elements of

motivation may help management understand the needs of employees.

Managers who employ power-seeking employees need to provide them with

responsibility, which will allow them to influence others (Doeze Jager-van Vliet et al.,

2017). Power seekers may also serve as great negotiators in situations where others need

to be persuaded. The desire for power ranges on a broad spectrum of reasoning. Power

for employees can mean anything from influencing the performance and quality of life to

having the responsibility to make decisions that directly impact the organization (Arif &

Uddin, 2016). Those who seek power are unique in that they possess the skills necessary

to use power for good to change the social construct of their communities.

Summary of Motives

Managers belong to one of the three motivational groups: those seeking

acceptance (affiliation), focused goal setters (achievement), and power builders through

influence (power; Jacobs & McClelland, 1994; McClelland & Burnham, 2008).A solid

understanding of the motivational needs for achievement, affiliation, and power of

employees is essential for managers identifying the various behavior patterns associated with each element (Rasskazova et al., 2016). By understanding an employee's need for structure, management can provide a conducive climate to activate intrinsic motivation to stay (Delavallade, 2021).

Alternative Theories

Motivation strategies are essential for employee retention (Pandey & Asthana, 2017). Motivation theories have two main categories: process and content. Process theorists approach motivation from an individual's viewpoint to include beliefs, expectations, and perceptions of the value one places on rewards (Bowling & Beehr, 2016). Two examples of process theories are Adams' equity theory and Vroom's expectancy theory. Content theorists focus on the needs of people, prompting the researcher to ask what motivates people (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017). Examples of content theories are Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's (1974) hygiene theories. Each of these theories uniquely allows the practitioner to concentrate on using one's needs to determine behavior (Osabiya, 2015). McClelland's (1961) motivational needs theory, commonly referred to as the trichotomy of needs theory, lies between content and process theories, adapting a trait from each. Motivational needs theory acknowledges the role of learning yet recognizes individual differences (Osabiya, 2015).

Expectancy Theory and Equity Theory

Process theorists Vroom and Adams approached motivation from an individual's viewpoint. Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory suggests that employee behavior results from deliberate decisions to increase pleasure and minimize pain. Vroom developed the

method based on three factors: (a) force, (b) valence, and (c) expectancy. Valence refers to the value someone places on an outcome, expectancy is the positive relationship between performance and exerted effort, and force is the product of both (Cook & Artino, 2016; Kingoo, 2019). The expectancy theory encompasses four assumptions: (a) people join groups with expectations to meet needs, incentives, and skills; (b) individuals expect benefits from the employer such as a decent salary or the ability to advance; (c) behavior is the result of an informed choice, and (d) people will choose alternatives to improve personal outcomes (Vroom, 1964). Vroom claimed that staff members base job performance on experiences, knowledge, and personality (Purvis et al., 2015). Motivation can be rooted from the employee's viewpoint.

In contrast to McClelland, Vroom identified variables that show individual differences in work relationship expectancies (Vroom, 1964). Both theories suggest that by meeting employee expectations, managers increase both motivation and retention. The structure of the expectancy theory is based on a combination of outcomes and studies how employees consciously select the most beneficial path. Leaders should focus on the relationship between performance, salary, and motivation when applying expectancy theory (Baumann & Bonner, 2016). Leaders can influence workplace behavior by using expectancy and valence in efforts to motivate behavior (Wood et al., 2015). Vroom (1964) concluded that employees must believe tasks can be accomplished to be on a path to increased performance.

The equity theory, developed by Adams in 1965, explained employee behavior that is motivated by establishing norms (Adams & Freedman, 1976). Adams posited that

when an employee is in an inequitable situation, the behavior may modify to reestablish equity (Vismara, 2016). The equity theory consists of four propositions: (a) people will maximize outcomes, (b) groups will maximize a collective award by creating a system that rewards those who treat others equitably and withholds rewards for those who do not, (c) people who participate in inequitable situations may be the recipient of the same behavior from others, and (d) people will restore equitability when in an unequal situation (Hatfield et al., 2016).

In alignment with the equity theory that states people should focus on the distribution of rewards to a group of peers, in expectancy theory, people will receive an award that will equal the input provided (Aidla, 2017). Expectancy theory focuses on the alignment of awards with an employee's wants, whereas equity theory considers the equities within a group. The assumption in expectancy is that an employee will increase productivity to achieve a higher reward and that an overperforming and under rewarded employee will decrease productivity to reach an equitable state (Hatfield et al., 2016). McClelland, Herzberg et al., and Vroom all adequately justified incentives that promote job satisfaction by focusing on different aspects of motivation.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

The hierarchy of needs is a theory proposed by Maslow focused on basic needs and the appearance of how the graduation to a new need depends upon the successful satisfaction of previous needs (Maslow, 2010). Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, comprised of five types of needs, has been useful when assessing employee motivation (Clegg et al., 2016). Researchers have applied Maslow's theory of needs in the

assessment of motivation leading to high performance and desired organizational results (Lee, 2021). Most often depicted in a pyramid shape, Maslow identified the needs in the highest order of necessity (Maslow, 1943). The needs are (a) physiological, (b) safety and security, (c) love and belonging, (d) esteem, and (e) self-actualization (Singh & Behera, 2016).

Physiological needs form the base of Maslow's pyramid of needs and include the basics that one requires to survive. Basic survival essentials include food, air, water, and shelter (Maslow, 1943). Each basic survival essential must be satisfied before one can advance to the next level. The physiological tier includes satisfaction and achievement, which is related to employees receiving a wage that allows for suitable living conditions. The second tier is safety and security, which means one is free from threat and harm, followed by the third tier of love and belonging (Lambert et al., 2014). The safety and security tier directly relate to the human need for love and affection. The following tier, esteem, compromises the need for appreciation, respect, and the approval of others. Level of self-esteem directly impacts behavioral outcomes (Ferris et al., 2015). Senior leaders can help employees reach self-actualization, the final level at the top of the pyramid (Dhiman, 2017). Self-actualization is the quest to be creative, grow, seek status, and the need to become all that one intends to be by developing one's fullest potential (Krems et al., 2017).

A critical element in Maslow's theory is motivation. Individuals are motivated to act based on a sense of need, desire, or fear (Mowbray et al., 2015). The hierarchy of needs implies that unsatisfied needs provide sources of motivation, and satisfying needs

create zero tension and zero motivation (Maslow, 2010). Maslow contended that

unsatisfied needs comprise and organize one's motivation (Maslow, 1943). Similarly, the

motivational needs theory focuses on the various fulfillment of needs given by the

organization. One's motivational needs may exist on different levels of Maslow's

hierarchy of needs, but the theory still applies when developing retention strategies

(Mowbray et al., 2015). Individual needs are influential and guide human behavior

(Maslow, 2010). Najjar and Fares (2017) argued that organizational leaders can use

Maslow's hierarchy of needs to guide the development of a system that responds to

employees' needs. McClelland's motivational needs theory was developed based on

Maslow's work on motivational theory; the theories align (Slaten et al., 2016).

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Similarities exist between McClelland's (1961) theory and Herzberg's (1959)

two-factor theory. Herzberg's theory identifies two sets of factors that motivate

employees in the workplace. The first set identifies satisfaction with the job, and the

second set identifies factors that contribute to employee dissatisfaction (Jing et al., 2017).

Herzberg studied the correlation between motivation, job satisfaction, and whether those

factors influence an employee's decision to leave.

Herzberg's studies formulated the basis for his motivational needs theory and

dual-factor theory. Herzberg's first set of needs, hygienic needs, consists of interpersonal

relationships, rewards system, salary, working conditions, status, and job security that

should motivate employees and increase the desire to achieve (Herzberg et al., 1959). The

second set of needs is known as growth needs and consists of motivation factors such as

advancement, achievement, and public recognition of completed work (Jing et al., 2017). Herzberg's theories focus on the internal needs of employees and suggest that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not in opposition but instead are controlling factors (Imam et al., 2018). Herzberg concluded that employees associate job satisfaction with the job and outcome of the work, whereas job dissatisfaction is a result of the surrounding environment (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Herzberg posited that the satisfaction of the motivation factors that he identified lead to higher performance levels and leaders need to understand the connection between employee attitudes and subsequent behavior (Herzberg, 1987). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivators influence employee performance. Munyengabe et al. (2016) suggested that intrinsic factors are necessary to motivate employees to become high performers, while extrinsic factors ensure that employees are not dissatisfied. Intrinsic motivation arises from within the individual and is prompted by personal interests or pleasure often showcased through behaviors like play, exploration, and challenge (Nyambegera & Gicheru, 2016). Intrinsic factors, including achievement, recognition, advancement, work, possibilities of growth, and responsibility, motivate employees to stay with the organization (Imam et al., 2018).

Extrinsic motivation arises from influences outside of the individual, like salary and employee recognition. Herzberg's 10 extrinsic factors are: (a) company policy and administration, (b) technical supervision, (c) interpersonal relationships with supervisor, (d) interpersonal relationships with peers, (e) interpersonal relationships with subordinates, (f) salary, (g) job security, (h) personal life, (i) working conditions, and (j)

status (Herzberg et al., 1959). Extrinsic factors may not lead to long-term satisfaction, but the absence of extrinsic factors may contribute to an employee's dissatisfaction (Nyambegera & Gicheru, 2016).

Today's workforce comprises different generations, skills, abilities, backgrounds, and needs. An understanding of the reasons for employee turnover, and strategies to reduce turnover, might help leaders implement the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational incentives appropriate for a diverse workforce. The difference between McClelland's theory and Herzberg's theory is that the latter emphasizes socially acquired needs that are shaped by one's life experiences (McClelland, 1987). In alignment with McClelland's theory, Herzberg believed that hygiene factors exist, are necessary for having happy and satisfied employees, and are not related to motivation (Herzberg, 1974).

The theories developed by McClelland, Maslow, and Herzberg are all similar in that the focus is on the needs and motivations of employees. Needs-based theorists define turnover as the absence of select implicit and explicit needs from an employee's position (Majeed et al., 2018). The motivational needs theory, hierarchy of needs theory, and the two-factor theory align on the need for affiliation, achievement, and recognition offered by the organization. The need for power from McClelland's theory may align well with turnover research of leadership-level employees (Iftikhar & Khan, 2019), while the motivational needs theory better aligns with the current study.

Motivation

In the competitive world, employees are crucial to any organization's success or failure. Retaining the best employees tends to be challenging, emphasizing motivation to

keep core employees (Aguenza & Som, 2018). Motivation is the process individuals use to initiate and sustain goal-directed activities within the organization (Cook & Artino, 2016). Individual employee goals are essential to leaders as they may help the organization reach overall performance goals or corporate social responsibility commitments. Fundamental to functioning as a motivated individual is manipulating one's behaviors to achieve goals (DeSousa Sabbagha et al., 2018).

How employees choose to attack goals depends on their beliefs in their capabilities, values, and interests. One's belief in the ability to produce desired outcomes that may have an impact in life is self-efficacy (Osemeke & Adegboyega, 2017). Cook and Artino (2016) argued that self-efficacy is more about the belief that one can accomplish a task rather than whether one can physically or psychologically. Motivation is an important part of employee retention because it links to positive job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1987; Imam et al., 2018; Jing et al., 2017). According to DeSousa Sabbagha et al. (2018), employees often are led by intrinsic or extrinsic needs, and the willingness to complete acts to achieve desired goals.

Motivators entice employee performance. While motivations reflect people's wants and desires, motivators are the incentives that drive individuals to satisfy these wants (Aguenza & Som, 2018). Organizational leaders can influence motives by creating environments that are favorable to certain drives (McClelland, 1987). For example, employees at nonprofit organizations who have developed a reputation for delivering excellent care and service tend to be motivated to contribute to the organization's reputation. Employees who can effectively communicate with clients to accomplish goals

that positively impact the employee–client relationship and push the organization forward tend to have higher job satisfaction (Nyambegera & Gicheru, 2016). Similarly, organizations that have high-performing, well-liked managers tend to have an existing workplace culture that expects high-quality management. Adequately motivated employees are more invested in their work, feel more engaged, and are more productive (Osemeke & Adegboyega, 2017).

Motivators also influence an individual's behavior and drive for accomplishment. People can satisfy wants in multiple ways (Mowbray et al., 2015). For example, a person can satisfy a need for affiliation by being active in a social group rather than in a business. One can meet the need for achievement by doing just enough at work to maintain a position rather than climbing the corporate ladder or satisfy the need for power by leading an employee group rather than running the board of directors (Brunstein & Heckhausen, 2018). It becomes the leaders' responsibility to identify the motivators that lead their team to perform in a manner that boosts the organization (Najjar & Fares, 2017).

The basic element of all human behavior is physical or mental activity (Neff, 2017). Human behavior is a series of activities that will lead the researcher to ask which activity one will undertake at some point, and why. Activities are goal-oriented, leading one to accomplish a task. The primary goal of leaders is to get employees to help the organization execute the mission and achieve strategic goals by encouraging employees to complete individual or team activities (Imam et al., 2018; Najjar & Fares, 2017). Knowing what may motivate employees can help managers to effectively lead. Human

motives model human needs (McClelland, 1987). Maslow (1943) mentioned that some needs are first-tier physiological requirements for water, air, food, and shelter. Secondary needs include self-esteem, affection, accomplishments, and status (Jing et al., 2017). Over time the urgency for these needs will vary by individual. Motivation generally describes drives, desires, wishes, and needs (Cook & Artino, 2016). For a leader to address the drives, desires, wishes, needs, or motives that entice the employee to work towards the organization's mission, specific goals and needs should be met (Imam et al., 2018). The effort employees are willing to put into work depends on how well their motivational needs are met (Aguenza & Som, 2018).

Measurement of Motives

Measuring motivational needs encompasses two methods: (a) self-report methods for goals and preferences and (b) projective technique that uses storytelling and content analysis to rank scoring (Kihlstrom, 2019). The self-report method assumes that the drivers of behavior can be communicated. The thematic appreciation test (TAT) is an assessment used with the projective technique, that involves administrators asking people to write stories about expressly provided pictures. The stories resulting from administered TAT are then content analyzed for each of the three motivational needs (Bazire et al., 2018). The self-report and projective techniques do not correlate, potentially indicating that the two reflect separate motive systems: explicit and implicit (McClelland et al., 1989).

Several studies on the affiliation of motivation on business production, student performance, gender studies, and international studies have used McClelland's

motivational needs theory (Khurana & Joshi, 2017; Knapp et al., 2017). The studies

focused on a range of industries including nonprofit and nursing. Motivational needs

theory involves three primary social motives that govern up to 80% of human behavior

(McClelland, 1987). McClelland's theory suggests that intrinsic motivators are critical to

engaging employees (Khurana & Joshi, 2017). Motivators describe a person's behavior

pattern; identified motivators predict potential behavior (Osabiya, 2015).

One's motivation is a unique phenomenon. The makeup of motives varies from

person to person and job to job. Organizational leaders may find that the key to

motivating staff is in the goals available to employees within the position (Landers et al.,

2017). As a result of goals being external to the individual, motivational theorists

(Herzberg et al., 1959; McClelland, 1987) found that managers can potentially create

environments that satisfy individual needs by providing appropriate goals. Landers et al.

(2017) found a positive relationship between goal commitment and performance.

Employee Turnover and Costs

Turnover is the disassociation of an employee from the respective organization,

whether voluntary or involuntary (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). The topic of

employee turnover has been studied in different industries (Dhanpat et al., 2018;

McGinnis & Ng, 2016). Results from studies identify numerous challenges. Turnover

intent has specific indicators such as compensation, employee engagement and personal

development, organizational culture, and overall job satisfaction (Alfes & Robinson,

2018; Dhanpat et al., 2018; Fletcher et al., 2018; Perreira et al., 2018). Organizational

leaders need to identify employee turnover risks and develop strategies to reduce

employee turnover intention and increase retention (Chin, 2018; Friedman & Schnorr, 2016). Identifying turnover risks may be the starting point for creating mitigating strategies.

The reasons why employees leave nonprofit organizations often include wage and benefits, motivation, lack of intrinsic benefits, relationship with management, and connection to the mission (Ng et al., 2016). Reasons for leaving are personal to the employee. The most common indicator of turnover intent is job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2018). According to Mathieu et al. (2016), job satisfaction connects to a sense of belonging by the employee and organizational commitment in both small and large organizations. While reasons for leaving are personal to the employee, job satisfaction relates to organizational culture. Other components of job satisfaction include employee networks within the organization and the fit between the employee and the company (Ma et al., 2018).

Mobley et al. (1979) emphasized that voluntary employee turnover intentions impact employee actions and the measure of turnover intent will aid in forecasting actual turnover. The different types of employee behavior that impact employee turnover include retirement, quitting a job, or dismissal from an organization (Majeed et al., 2018). Mobley et al. found that managing the direct correlation between turnover intentions and voluntary employee turnover behavior leads to an increase in organizational commitment.

Voluntary employee turnover is a significant challenge for most organizations as it is costly and disruptive (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017; Lee et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2018; Perreira et al., 2018). Between 2006 and 2015, a total of 284.5 million employees

voluntarily left organizations in the United States (USDOL, 2016). In the United States, the turnover of staff in nonprofit human service agencies ranges annually from 30%–50% (Claiborne et al., 2015). Employee turnover leads to vacant positions within an organization. Unfilled positions create a dependency on outsourcing because organizations experience increased costs and decrease the ability to create organizational capability (Nusem et al., 2017). The rate of employee turnover may have a financial impact on organizational production costs.

Additional increased costs due to turnover grow from recruitment, training, and the retention of new employees (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017). Costs occurred during prematch hiring or the search for a candidate account for 21% of organizational hiring costs, whereas the postmatch hiring costs, formal training, and instruction account for 53% of the hiring costs (Muehlemann & Leiser, 2018). Nearly three quarters of the search for a new employee is incurred in the search and training process. The loss of skilled employees and vacant positions can also impact organizational performance and job satisfaction experienced by the employees left behind (Friedman & Schnorr, 2016). Replacing an employee who leaves is a daunting task that requires organizational leaders to embrace daily operational costs (Palanski et al., 2014).

Impact of Voluntary Employee Turnover

Developing strategies to reduce turnover is critical to preserving an organizational budget as it greatly reduces the cost to recruit and train new employees. Turnover costs include losses while a position is vacant, and once filled, productivity loss during training and recruiting (Hennes et al., 2014). The period of a new hire getting acquainted and the

cost to hire and train new employees comes with a huge cost for the organization (Vasquez, 2014). In nonprofit organizations, potential turnover is often not built into the budget or sustainability plan, causing hardship during recruitment, hiring, and training (Selden & Sowa, 2015; Sparks et al., 2016). Proper onboarding and professional development opportunities aid in an employee's willingness to stay (Selden & Sowa, 2015).

Turnover impacts the organization and employees in situations of involuntary turnover or voluntary turnover (Manz et al., 2015). According to Majeed et al. (2018), a negative relationship exists between employee turnover and organizational performance. In the United States nonprofit industry, turnover impacts business operations and hurts employee performance and productivity (Cohen et al., 2016). Turnover costs greatly impact organizations; developing strategies to mitigate turnover may reduce costs.

The nonprofit workforce requires specialized training, making it hard to replace employees which results in increasing costs (Mitchell & Calabrese, 2018). Nonprofit organizations requiring a lower skill set from employees have lower turnover costs and a minimal relationship between turnover and organizational performance (Rasskazova et al., 2016). Conversely, nonprofit organizations requiring a high-level skill set, such as emergency response staff, chief executive officer, or senior management, necessitate additional resources to recruit, train, and orient new employees (Mitchell & Calabrese, 2018). Skilled employees may have less difficulty obtaining new employment, making it worthwhile to retain qualified and experienced employees. Employees who remain within an organization with vacant positions may be required to accept additional

responsibilities and an increasing workload (Nusem et al., 2017). Other work responsibilities may prevent the remaining staff from accomplishing performance goals (Mitchell & Calabrese, 2018).

Employee turnover rates may or may not directly impact organizational profits, employee performance, and sustainability (Lee, 2017). However, some voluntary turnover may have a positive impact on an organization. According to Ferris et al. (2015), there are advantages to employee turnover within organizations, such as rotating employees, opportunities to reorganize programs, and a decrease in cost, suggesting the cost of turnover has secondary benefits. New employees may provide nonprofit organizations with unique skill sets and creativity, resulting in improved performance and relationships (Arif & Uddin, 2016). Planning for employee turnover may have an impact on profit, retention rates, and organizational costs.

Nonprofit Organizations

Employee turnover rates may have a significant impact on nonprofit organizations. USDOL (2016) defines the nonprofit sector as tax-exempt and charitable organizations. The term nonprofit encompasses a variety of organizations. For an organization to be a nonprofit, there are specific guidelines in which the mandate must benefit the public's interest. Nonprofit organizations began as a spinoff of government agencies and are regulated entities that implement regularity in operating activities and programming (Dobrai & Farkas, 2016).

Nonprofits operate independently from local, state, and federal government regardless of the funding source. Most nonprofit organizations are governed by a board of

directors, with charitable legal status, and an Internal Revenue Service designation of 501c(3) (Cheng, 2019a). Nonprofits are typically mission-based with members of the board of directors serving in a voluntary capacity (Dobrai & Farkas, 2016). The board of directors usually focuses on organizational governance, allowing internal leadership and staff to focus on operations and program implementation (Mitchell & Calabrese, 2018). Like other businesses, nonprofits rely on human assets to meet their goals and objectives.

Source of Employment

Nonprofit organizations are a substantial source of employment across the United States and significant contributors to the American economy (National Council of Nonprofits, 2016). There are over 1.5 million independent nonprofit organizations in the United States, supporting various charitable causes (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019). A significant part of the nonprofit sector is human service organizations. Human service organizations focus on individuals, including the prevention of problems, and remediation to improve people's quality of life (Mitchell & Calabrese, 2018). Examples of well-known human service organizations in the United States include the Boys and Girls Clubs of America, Urban League, YMCA, and YWCA.

In 2016, nonprofit organizations employed 11,426,870 people, equivalent to 10.3% of the United States' private sector employment (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). Previous studies have shown that in the nonprofit sector, human resource challenges negatively impact organizational capacity (Evans et al., 2018; Knapp et al., 2017). Claiborne et al. (2015) suggested that the turnover rate for nonprofit staff ranges from 30%–50% annually. The high attrition rate implies that staff turnover occurs every

3–5 years, resulting in a loss of knowledge. Employee retention is essential to the overall sustainability of nonprofit agencies (Nusem et al., 2017).

The nonprofit sector is unique in that organizational leaders, with the help of the board of directors, work annually to raise funds needed to meet financial needs so that they may then address social needs. Leadership often relies on the commitment of the employees and volunteers to help meet the needs of those the organization serves (Persson et al., 2021; Simsa et al., 2019). Nonprofit sector employees are intrinsically motivated people who are self-directed and mission driven (Arif & Uddin, 2016). Employees and volunteers often find their motivation within the organization's mission.

The rate of growth in the nonprofit sector is increasing, warranting a need to consider the factors that contribute to job satisfaction (Lee, 2016). The results of a national survey by Unemployment Services Trust (UST), involving 1,270 nonprofit employees, rated job satisfaction and engagement in the organization based on 16 factors. The factors were: (a) strong affinity for the organization's mission or purpose, (b) culture or office environment, (c) flexibility/work–life balance, (d) a sense of purpose/calling in work, (e) sense of accomplishment/achievement, (f) benefits and or perks, (g) employee appreciation, (h) respect for/satisfaction with leadership, (i) respect for employee feedback, (j) job stability (no risk of losing their job), (k) employee autonomy, (l) employee training opportunities, (m) compensation, (n) performance evaluations and goal-setting, (o) job advancement or growth opportunities, and (p) other (UST, 2015). Human service nonprofits depend on direct service staff to facilitate outcomes, making the retention of highly qualified staff essential to meeting organizational goals.

Understanding how to increase retention is valuable to nonprofit leadership (Selden &

Sowa, 2015). According to the *UST Nonprofit Employee Engagement and Retention*

Report (2015), 84% of survey respondents said the engagement is due to a strong affinity

with the organization's mission, closely followed by a sense of purpose.

     The Society for Human Resource Management (2015), conducted a similar

survey of U.S. companies with 600 respondents who rated job satisfaction and

engagement on 31 factors. The factors were: (a) respectful treatment of all employees on

all levels, (b) trust between employees and senior management, (c) benefits, (d)

compensation/pay, (e) job security, (f) relationship with immediate supervisor, (g)

opportunities to use your skills and abilities in your work, (h) immediate supervisor's

respect for my ideas, (i) organization's financial stability, (j) management's recognition

of employee job performance, (k) communication between employees an senior

management, (l) feeling safe in your work environment, (m) management's

communication of organization's goals and strategies, (n) the work itself, (o) overall

corporate culture, (p)career advancement opportunities within the organization, (q)

autonomy and independence, (r) meaningfulness of job, (s) relationships with coworkers,

(t) teamwork between departments/business units, (u) job-specific training, (v)

communication between department/business units, (u) career development opportunities,

(v) contribution of work to organization's business goals, (w) variety of work, (x)

networking opportunities, (y) company-paid general training, (z) organization's

commitment to corporate social responsibility, (aa) organization's commitment to a

diverse and inclusive workforce, and (bb) organization's commitment to a "green"

workspace (Society for Human Resource Management, 2015). The Society for Human

Resource Management and UST survey results both ranked contribution of work to

organization business goals highly. Generally, nonprofit employees have a personal belief

in helping the organization meet its goals and fulfill its mission (Arif & Uddin, 2016).

Nonprofit employees strive to meet the needs of the community stakeholders

while balancing limited budgets and scarce resources. Long-term success in the nonprofit

sector relies on the valued relationship between the organization, the employees, and

volunteers. Nonprofit leaders should consider the value that employees place on job

security, compensation, and the meaningfulness of the job as recruitment and retention

efforts develop. Employee retention is challenging due to the skill set, knowledge base,

and specific programmatic needs (Ng et al., 2016). Nonprofit organization leaders would

benefit from diversifying retention strategies and developing multiple approaches that

leaders can use to cultivate talent (Solaja & Ogunola, 2016).

Voluntary employee turnover stifles the ability to achieve the organization's

mission and negatively impacts the budget (Renz, 2016). Knapp et al. (2017) found that

age, professional development opportunities, community perception, and salary influence

employee intention to leave. A clear understanding of employee turnover intentions and

nonprofit sector turnover may assist in creating effective leadership strategies.

Failure with Nonprofit Organizations

The sustainability of nonprofit agencies may be difficult in the United States.

New nonprofit organizations are frequently starting, and existing nonprofit organizations

are failing at high rates (Morris et al., 2007). According to Arbogust (2020), factors

related to the failure of nonprofit organizations include: (a) increasingly complex social needs in the community, (b) growing affluence, (c) increased competition for financial and human resources, (d) increased accountability to funding agents and new regulations, and (e) increased cost. Small for-profit and nonprofit businesses are a booming part of the American economy.

Ethical failures in nonprofit organizations, coupled with competition amongst organizations, may lead to failure. Competition between nonprofit organizations is high due to the decline in welfare system support, reduced government budgets, and the lack of corporate funding (Hamilton & Haozous, 2017). Nonprofits can avoid operational downfalls by receiving training to align actions with ethical standards, the law, and the organization's mission to meet the expectations of society and the clients (Nusem et al., 2017). Meeting the expectations of both can help nonprofits get on the right path to solidifying sustainability.

In the current economic climate, the need for social services has increased (Bukh & Svanholt, 2020). Nonprofit organizations are vital to individuals within communities because the employees provide services at reduced to no cost (Xie & Bagozzi, 2014). As once-lucrative avenues are blocked, and resources diminished, it becomes imperative for nonprofit organizations to operate smoothly, retain funding, recruit professional staff, and execute exceptional programming (Cheng, 2019b). Individual motivation to learn, team dynamics, and organization culture practices all have a significant level of influence on organizational learning and sustainability in nonprofit organizations (Pandey & Asthana, 2017). An understanding of nonprofit turnover and reason employees leave is important

to provide effective leadership.

Strategies to Reduce Employee Turnover

Organizations may apply various methods to reduce voluntary turnover among employees. Many nonprofit organizations may develop work–life balance programs for employees to address the underlying issue of balancing stress in the workplace. Others use compensation, incentives, and recognition to meet recruiting and retention goals. Providing work–life balance programs to employees may reduce turnover rates.

Work–Life Balance Programs

In the United States, more than half of adults report that family responsibilities are a significant source of stress (Oludayo et al., 2018). Family responsibilities often mix with work responsibilities causing employees to ineffectively manage time, which can impact the levels of productivity (Kumar & Mathimaran, 2017). The emphasis employees place on work may significantly impact home life; change in one world may cause an imbalance in the other. Organizations can develop work–life balance programs to improve employee retention (Townsend et al., 2017). Developing work–life balance programs tailored to the needs of employees is a strategy that organizational leaders can implement to create strong relationships with the workforce (Chung & van der Lippe, 2018). Work–life balance programs can also support the needs of women by maintaining working hours after childbirth, allowing women to remain in high-stress positions (Fuller & Hirsh, 2018).

Similarly, Boamah and Laschinger (2016) suggested that retention of staff will increase when implementing strategies that enhance workplace characteristics and

conditions and promote work–life balance. Employees in the GenX age group, those born between 1965–1980, value a balance between social, family, and work time (Johnson & Ng, 2016). In congruence, Millennials, those born after 1980, have been raised with high levels of positive reinforcement and attention, seeking a balance between work and social time (Ng et al., 2016). The absence of flexible plans and support may lead to one's intention to leave the organization (Chan & Ao, 2019). The importance of these benefits as it relates to nonprofit employees is the foundation of the problem to be studied.

Organizations address the work–life imbalance in several different ways, most commonly by establishing work–family programs that stimulate productivity and job satisfaction (Umamaeswari & Krishnan, 2016). Work–family programs are vital because success in business depends on employee initiative, ideas, labor, and buy-in to change (Kotey, 2017). As shared by Umamaeswari and Krishnan (2016) work–family programs require an extraordinary amount of employee commitment to the organization and often include multiple job flexibility options, which is beneficial to both the employee and the organization. Offering flexible work schedules, job sharing, telecommuting, and programs that allow employees the flexibility to care for children, elderly, or ill family members are the most effective employee retention strategies that support work–life balance programs (Chung & Van der Horst, 2018; Kotey, 2017; Petterson & Solstad, 2021).

Employees working in nonprofit organizations often experience nontraditional work schedules, making work–life balance programs attractive and beneficial (Moen et al., 2016). Employees with job flexibility have a more functional work–family balance

and can work longer before the work–family balance is adversely affected (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015). When the organizational culture supports work–life balance programs, employee stress is reduced and job satisfaction increases (Umamaeswari & Krishnan, 2016). Organizational leadership that allows employees to decide the work schedule fosters an environment that can lead to increased job satisfaction and employee retention (Pandey & Asthana, 2017).

Perception of Work–Life Balance Programs

The employee perception of a work–life balance program within organizations may harm employee retention. The perception of a work–life balance program can lead to employee turnover when the employee is unable to balance commitments between work and home (Feeney & Stritch, 2017; Kumar & Mathimaran, 2017). Respondents to the UST (2015) survey rated work–life balance in the top three drivers of job satisfaction. Providing balance and assisting employees in finding balance improves organizational culture and helps reduce stress (Chung & van der Lippe, 2018; Townsend et al., 2017; Umamaeswari & Krishnan, 2016).

The creation of the Family Medical Leave Act of 1993 helps people balance the demands of the workplace with the needs of the family (USDOL, 1993). According to the United States Labor Department Wage and Hour Division, organizations that stress the use of family medical leave among employees have observed that 90% return after taking medical leave (USDOL, 2016). The initial design and development of the work–life balance programs were intended to benefit working women, but recent researchers have agreed that work–life balance programs help all employees (Feeney & Stritch, 2017).

Voluntary turnover in nonprofit agencies presents high costs for the organization and lowers performance (Selden & Sowa, 2015). Umamaeswari and Krishnan (2016) expressed that the availability of work–family benefits encourages employees to remain committed to the organizations reducing voluntary turnover. A previous study shows that balanced employees taking advantage of alternate work arrangements produce positive returns on investment by reducing overhead and improving productivity (Moen et al., 2016). In contrast, employee production decreases when flexible work programs are nonexistent (Umamaeswari & Krishnan, 2016). Organization leaders should meet employee needs by establishing flexible work plans that improve overall retention efforts (McGinnis & Ng, 2016). Environments that foster work–family programs may provide employees the relief needed to balance home and work life, reducing voluntary turnover.

Compensations, Incentives, and Recognition

Providing employee compensation, incentives, and recognition may be an effective strategy to support employee retention in nonprofit organizations. Salary, benefits, healthcare, and retirement are some of the components that can be in a compensation package (Knighton et al., 2018). Compensation consists of any form of monetary remuneration paid to an employee directly for time worked as well as indirect benefits for being an employee of the organization (Campbell et al., 2019). Benefits are received after wages to include, for example, health insurance, life insurance, EPA program, vacation time, sick time, and stock options. Benefits are considered indirect compensation because they are not usually tied to job performance. A sound, equitable, and attractive compensation structure lends itself to successful recruitment and retention

of employees (Vidal-Salazar et al., 2016). Underpaid employees can lead to increased turnover (Kim et al., 2016).

To assist in retention, some researchers have focused studies on strategies to help encourage the retention of employees using methods such as reward and recognition, training and development, and employee–management relationships (Dobrai & Farkas, 2016; Shatti et al., 2018). According to Pandey and Asthana (2017), compensation, benefits, and awards can motivate employees, yet recognition of contributions can have a positive impact on employee retention. Employees who receive recognition and encouragement from management often increase daily work performance (Yalabik et al., 2017). Other retention strategies with the potential to improve employee motivation and retention include: (a) great leadership, (b) organizational policy and strategies, (c) internal programs, and (d) reward systems celebrating achievement (Bullock et al., 2015; Holston-Okae & Mushi, 2018; Pandey & Asthana, 2017). Organizational leaders who recognize employees' work may create a sense of appreciation and value in the workplace (Consiglio et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2016).

Employee Retention Strategies

Retention of valuable employees is an issue for leaders regardless of industry (Imam et al., 2018; Khalid et al., 2016; Kossivi et al., 2016). Pittino et al. (2016) defined retention as everything an employer does to encourage employees to keep working for the organization. The overall goal for retention is to foster an environment that encourages current employees to remain employed (Hom et al., 2019). As a result, retention programs have become a high priority for organizations seeking to increase the

retention of talent and alleviate the high cost associated with turnover (Aguenza & Som, 2018).

Nonprofit agencies are not exempt from experiencing retention challenges. As with any other business, nonprofit organizations must address employee turnover challenges. Many come face-to-face with the problem of finding and retaining employees (Wicker & Frick, 2016). Various direct human service organizations report an annual turnover rate of 33% (Ejaz et al., 2015). Nonprofit employees with specialized training are often harder to replace (Mitchell & Calabrese, 2018). A survey released by the National Council of Nonprofits (2016) reported that 84% of nonprofit leaders do not have an active retention strategy for top staff. Nonprofit employee retention is more important than recruiting new nonprofit talent (Cho & Song, 2017). Retention of qualified and talented employees is imperative because the nonprofit organization's niche may lean on specialized services. Retention for employees providing specialized services is more difficult with highly qualified staff who are easily recruited by competing for service providers (Rasskazova et al., 2016).

Employee retention strategies may have an impact on employee turnover in nonprofit organizations. Nonprofit leaders are difficult to replace and necessary to retain (Witmer & Mellinger, 2016). For a nonprofit agency to thrive and continue offering services, leaders must pay attention to employee retention issues as turnover negatively influences business and reputation (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017). Successful employee retention includes detailed planning, which in turn influences an employee's retention with the organization (Dobrai & Farkas, 2016). Many organizations, nonprofit and for-

profit, face the challenge of developing retention strategies regardless of staff size (Hamilton & Haozous, 2017; Phillips & Hernandez, 2018; Yam et al., 2018).

Developing strategies to retain employees, by discovering the engagement level, can help organizations understand why employees choose to remain long term (Yalabik et al., 2017). A positive work-related attitude may bring forth satisfaction within the work environment, whereas negative work-related attitudes usually cause the employee to become less motivated (Durairatnam et al., 2019). Self and Self (2014) argued that it can be counterproductive to use retention strategies to retain less productive employees. Empowering employees and stakeholders with a voice in organizational change is a powerful strategy to increase long-term employment (Ajayi et al., 2017). An in-depth understanding of organizational policies and procedures can assist in this process (Witmer & Mellinger, 2016).

Staff productivity and motivation may be increased if nonprofit leaders introduce themselves to employees, encourage the staff, serve as mentors, and share relevant information with others within the organization (Gilliard et al., 2013). Staff motivation can also increase by activating an employee's need for power, affiliation, or achievement (Rybnicek et al., 2019). Receiving encouragement motivates employees to perform at a higher level (Pandey & Asthana, 2017).

Successful human resource practices may also influence retention. Regular communication about a worker's value to the organization boosts motivation (Mitchell & Calabrese, 2018). Other ways of increasing motivation are continuously implementing techniques, providing suggestions on how employees can make a more significant impact

on the agency, and talking to staff about the expectations and the future of the

organization (Pandey & Asthana, 2017). The overall objective is to help employees

understand the value brought to the agency (Henderson & Sowa, 2019). Ma et al. (2018),

found that when implementing staff motivation techniques, the methods should be

engaging. In large agencies with multiple locations, leadership teams may experience

challenges in effectively communicating with everyone (Downey & Bedard, 2019).

Leaders experiencing this problem tend to exhaust communication methods and

mechanisms by using unconventional methods (Mitchell & Calabrese, 2018).

Lack of mentoring and poor work–life balance are two reasons why employees

resign from the organizations (Cooper et al., 2020). According to Ma et al. (2018)

organizations can have a positive effect on reducing employee turnover by focusing

human resource management systems on strategies that build employees' trust,

communications, engagement, and mutual respect. Employees may need to know that

organizational leaders appreciate their daily efforts. A study conducted on factors of

employee satisfaction and retention strategies revealed that factors such as reward,

recognition, and compensation are less motivating as compared to developing training

strategies that are highly motivating (Pandey & Asthana, 2017).

Implementation of universal strategies can be ineffective because individual

employees respond to different motivational factors (Rybnicek et al., 2019). A common

theory is that motivational strategies are essential to employee retention (Khurana &

Joshi, 2017). Organizations may benefit from formulating human resource policies that

attract and retain employees, encouraging employees to stay for a longer period. Overall,

effective employee retention strategies are essential in helping the organization achieve its strategic goals (Ajayi et al., 2017; Kumar & Mathimaran, 2017).

Transition

Section 1 of the current study included information about strategies that nonprofit executives apply to increase employee retention. The section included the background of the problem, followed by the problem and purpose statements, the nature of the study, the research and interview questions, conceptual framework, operational definitions, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, and significance of the study. The section also included a review of the literature beginning with the conceptual framework, McClelland's (1961) motivational needs theory, a comparison of alternative theories, and a review of voluntary turnover and cost, nonprofit organizations and turnover, and strategies to reduce turnover.

In Section 2, I will provide information about the current study, to include a restatement of the purpose, the role of the researcher, the participants, the research method and design, population sampling, ethical research, data collection instruments and technique, data analysis, and detail of the processes for assuring the reliability and validity. In Section 3, I will present the findings, applications to professional practice, implications for social change, recommendations for action, recommendations for further research, reflections, and a conclusion.

Section 2: The Project

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore strategies nonprofit leaders use to reduce employee turnover. The target population for the current study included three leaders of three human service nonprofit agencies in the North St. Louis County region of the Greater St. Louis area who have successfully lowered employee turnover. By equipping nonprofit organizations with the tools to sustain appropriately trained staff, the implication for positive social change includes providing families receiving services from these agencies with continuity of care, which is essential in the well-being of clients.

Role of the Researcher

The purpose of the researcher is to recruit participants, collect data, explore new findings, impartially report the outcomes, and protect the data and participants pre- and post-study (Nelson et al., 2015). In a qualitative study, the researcher's primary goal is to collect data and safeguard participants (Carnochan et al., 2018). I served as the primary data collection tool for this research study. As the data collector, the researcher's additional roles include interviewing the participants, transcribing responses, analyzing the results for themes, verifying the findings, and reporting the findings as a part of the research study (Moustakas, 1994).

Potential qualifying agency participants came from a list of nonprofit agencies from the United Way of Greater St. Louis public website. Using the list, I contacted human resource departments to request assistance with identifying possible participants

with the agency (Appendix A). As an employee in the St. Louis nonprofit arena, I might have had a previous working relationship with several participants. To protect the researcher–interviewee relationship, I minimized personal disclosure, was direct about the research project, and debriefed. The process of establishing rapport with participants includes stating the boundaries of the researcher–interviewee relationship (Raheim et al., 2016).

It is also the researcher's responsibility to protect human participants, as many case studies connect to human affairs (Yin, 2018). Researchers are also responsible for conducting the study according to ethical research practices (Ghauri et al., 2020). The *Belmont Report* is the framework used to regulate research on human subjects and ensure adherence to ethical principles (Marrone, 2016). According to the *Belmont Report*, research participants shall know the purpose of the study and receive respect, time, the opportunity to decide whether to participate, and instructions on how to withdraw from a study (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2016). I complied with the *Belmont Report* protocols. Data collection included the basic tenets of respect for persons, beneficence or no maleficence, and justice (Nebeker et al., 2016). Data collection occurred in a trustworthy manner while ensuring the ethical treatment of study participants (Nebeker et al., 2016). I will protect the data on a password-protected thumb drive for 5 years.

Any research project is subject to bias (Yin, 2018). It is essential to acknowledge that researcher bias and worldview is always present when conducting forms of social research (Kohno et al., 2016). The use of specific strategies can help mitigate bias (Birt et

al., 2016). I mitigated bias by inquiring about the implications of any unclear statements given by the interviewees in the current study. I also used member checking upon completion of the interview transcripts to verify the correct meaning of the participants' statements, giving participants the opportunity to correct any misinterpretations (Birt et al., 2016; Morse et al., 2015). Additionally, social research, in its systemic approach, supports a design to minimize bias (Patten & Newhart, 2017). I designed questions that were thoughtful and delivered them in a manner that allowed the participant to give real answers without alteration. Further, reflexivity is the researcher's ability to acknowledge that personal feelings and experiences may bias outcomes; journaling thoughts and decisions regarding the study may provide evidence against claims of bias (Noble & Heale, 2019). The researcher's personal feelings, opinions, and worldviews should not be present during the collection and interpretation of data (Moustakas, 1994). Another way of mitigating bias is to include all research findings that differ from the researcher's findings or beliefs (Yin, 2018). By acknowledging the potential cultural and world bias, I was more equipped to hear and interpret the participants' words and behavior.

Finally, it is the researcher's responsibility to be an emphatic, respectful, active listener who paraphrases, probes, and takes diligent notes from each participant (Phillippi & Lauderdale, 2018). To achieve the proper interviewing atmosphere, researchers develop and utilize an interview protocol to protect the interviewee from harm while encouraging sensitive disclosures (Galdas, 2017). Using an interview protocol when conducting semistructured interviews will ensure a consistent approach and mitigate bias (Castillo-Montoya, 2016). The semistructured interview followed the recommendations

set forth in interview protocols by Castillo-Montoya. The interview protocol for the current study ensured equal treatment of each participant (Appendix B). Within each topic area of the interview, open-ended questions preceded closed-ended questions so as not to guide the respondent's answer (Percy et al., 2015).

Participants

It is important to select participants precisely, ensuring that the research can collect meaningful data for analytical purposes (Yin, 2018). The target population for the current study included three leaders of three human service nonprofit agencies in the North St. Louis County region of the Greater St. Louis area. The primary eligibility criteria for participants in the current study included being a leader in the organization for at least 2 years and successful experience in executing strategies to reduce voluntary turnover.

Potential study participants came from agency lists with the United Way of Greater St. Louis or by leveraging networks within professional societies. The process began by sending emails and making telephone calls to human resource managers at United Way agencies. If that did not yield participants, the process of emailing and calling members of local chapters of professional organizations repeated until potential study candidates met the criteria. Once potential participants expressed willingness to participate, a working relationship began by following communication and interviewing protocols to ensure ethical and objective research. Researchers have a better opportunity to collect quality data and protect the research participants when adhering to a plan and interview protocol (Castillo-Montoya, 2016; Majid et al.; 2017; Yin, 2018).

Research Method and Design

Researchers can choose from three traditional research methods: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. The current study followed a qualitative research method. The following sections include the rationale for selecting the research method and design.

Research Method

I used a qualitative research method to study nonprofit leaders in the north county area of St. Louis, Missouri. Qualitative researchers seek to explore the lived experiences of individuals (Myers, 2019). The qualitative method can be used to understand human conduct by identifying appropriate behaviors (Rosenthal, 2016). The qualitative method is also appropriate when the goal is to describe what, why, and assign meaning to how phenomena occur (Myers, 2019). A qualitative researcher concentrates on how individuals understand a specific topic, interpret the world, and their perception of events (Rosenthal, 2016). I explored the retention strategies of nonprofit leaders using the qualitative method.

In contrast, quantitative and mixed methods research requires analyzing statistical outcomes, measuring variables, and studying the variance by incorporating hypotheses and statistical equations to confirm relationships (Zyphur & Pierides, 2017). Quantitative researchers derive meaning from data, applying diagrams and statistical tools to analyze findings (Saunders et al., 2018). The quantitative method was not appropriate for the current study because I did not intend to measure values or statistical outcomes. Mixed methods research compares detailed empirical and theoretical data from both qualitative

and quantitative research designs (Palinkas, 2014). As I did not use statistical equations to investigate relationships, quantitative and mixed methods research did not support the research question for this study and were rejected. I examined the behaviors of nonprofit leaders and selected a qualitative research method for the current study.

Research Design

I followed a multiple case study design. Researchers conduct case study research when studying a phenomenon within a target population based on various sources of evidence (Yin, 2018). A multiple case study yields large amounts of research, evidence, and data due to the ability to create more complexity than a single case study (Alpi, 2019). When considering the exploration of events from individual and group perspectives, case studies are often appropriate for explanatory and descriptive intentions (Yin, 2018). The case study research design for the current study allowed me to explore in-depth strategies in use by nonprofit leaders to decrease employee turnover.

I considered and subsequently rejected other research designs for the study. Ethnography involves submerging oneself into a culture and then providing a succinct description of that culture's characteristics and social construction (Morgan-Trimmer & Wood, 2016). Studies focusing on groups of individuals to better understand their culture within their daily lives are not appropriate for ethnography (Trnka, 2017). Ethnography was not appropriate for this study because the goal of this study did not include studying social interactions. Researchers instead use ethnography to concentrate on a group's cultural characteristics, with little interest in the sociocultural aspect of the issue over time (Percy et al., 2015). Additionally, when attempting to gain knowledge of a problem

through lived experiences that cannot be solved with general answers but require further probing, the best method is phenomenology (Sohn et al., 2017). Phenomenology researchers center on the internal process of actual lived experiences as opposed to their external context (Percy et al., 2015). I rejected phenomenology for this study because the goal was to explore strategies to reduce turnover at nonprofit agencies, not to study a lived experience.

With a large data pool, the researcher gains a robust level of information, known as data saturation (Saunders et al., 2018). In a qualitative study, a researcher reaches data saturation when after several interviews, no new patterns or themes emerge and any additional data would provide minimal insight (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Yin, 2018). Data saturation is achievable through interviews but is dependent on additional available resources as the number of participants varies between study method and design. I reached data saturation when no new themes or patterns emerged.

Population and Sampling

The current study's population included three leaders of three human service nonprofit agencies in the North St. Louis County region of the Greater St. Louis area who have been with the organization at least 2 years and successfully implemented strategies to reduce employee turnover. Within a qualitative study, the proper sample size is the number that satisfies both the researcher and the research question (Malterud et al., 2016). Identifying the precise number of participants needed to attain saturation is difficult even if applying sampling parameters to determine sample size (Hennink et al., 2016). The sample size is determined by the research purpose, research design,

characteristics of the study population, and the various available resources (Malterud et al., 2016). I selected the sample size that would optimize the achievement of data saturation for the research study. Sampling a small number of participants allows for an in-depth collection of data (Gentles et al., 2015; van Rijnsoever, 2017). I reached data saturation when, after conducting so many interviews, no new information or themes were uncovered (Fusch & Ness, 2015).

I utilized the convenience sampling method. Convenience sampling occurs when the researcher samples from readily available sources of participants that meet the study criteria (Gentles et al., 2015). The process began with a convenience sample of organizations within the United Way of Greater St. Louis and sourced from the United Way's website. From the convenience sample, executives from three final organizations were selected as the interview participants. According to Yin (2018), smaller sample sizes can be satisfactory for qualitative studies.

The interview setting is an element to consider when scheduling and confirming interviews. Interviews were conducted via Zoom at the convenience and availability of participants (Appendix C). Communication technologies such as Skype, Zoom, and Webex help interviewers recruit and conveniently engage hard-to-reach participants (Braun et al., 2017). Adesoro et al. (2016) suggested that interviews should take place in a quiet environment free from distraction. I asked open-ended, probing questions and followed up using proper member-checking protocol.

Achieving data saturation in qualitative research occurs at the point at which no new information or themes appear, helping to ensure transferability (Fusch & Ness,

2015). Incorporating member checking and follow-up email correspondence helped reach data saturation where no new information emerges about the topic (Appendix A). Methodological triangulation is an essential component of achieving data saturation. Triangulation is a method for researchers to ensure objectivity and the validity of the findings by drawing upon multiple sources to augment and confirm understanding (Joslin & Muller, 2016). Requesting organizational information such as employee manuals and reports is a way to triangulate data (Lodhi, 2016). Using multiple independent sources to understand research findings encourages validity by looking at the same issues from different views (Saunders et al., 2018). Data saturation can be achieved through interviews alone but is dependent on available resources because based upon methodology and design, the number of study participants might vary (Fusch & Ness, 2015).

After administering semistructured interviews with three leaders, I began triangulating various independent sources to increase the validity of the data analysis and study results. Triangulation reduces the risk of personal bias throughout and increases the credibility of the results (Noble & Heale, 2019). To reach data saturation, I administered the same questions to each interview to identify patterns and support saturation (Appendix D). Interviews continued until the participants no longer introduced additional information and no new themes emerged.

Ethical Research

High ethical standards are a prerequisite for most scholarly studies involving human affairs (Yin, 2018). Gaining approval from an institutional review board (IRB)

ensures that researchers protect the rights of study participants and adhere to ethical standards for conducting research (Gordon et al., 2017). Walden University IRB needed to approve the study before proceeding with conducting research. Following IRB approval is the selection process for qualifying organizations and participants. Ensuring the quality of the study included following the Walden University criteria for ethical standards and utilizing the *Belmont Report* protocols for ethical guidelines and code of conduct.

Researchers must comply with ethical research requirements by obtaining consent from the interview participants and describing procedures to protect participants' privacy (Sparks et al., 2016). Each participant received a consent form (Appendix E) detailing the purpose of the study, information on participation, and resignation from the study. This study was voluntary, and participants were free to withdraw from the study at any time, even after the interview was complete. No participant received monetary or in-kind incentives in exchange for participation in the study. To protect the right of participants and safeguard identities, each interviewee's name was replaced with a pseudonym. At study completion, all data were stored securely on an encrypted password-protected thumb drive. I will destroy all data that I have collected after 5 years following the study by shredding all documents and artifacts and erasing all data and physically destroying the thumb drive containing electronic data.

Data Collection Instruments

In a qualitative study, the researcher serves as the primary collection instrument (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Noble & Heale, 2019). I was the primary data collection

instrument for this study. Researchers must follow the protocols outlined in the *Belmont Report* to protect participants. Compliance with the *Belmont Report* requires participants to be autonomous and protected from harm while ensuring the rights of human participants (Nebeker et al., 2016).

Researchers strengthen studies by supplementing primary data collection methods with secondary methods (Yin, 2018). Conducting semistructured interviews and reviewing organizational documentation and reports will provide credibility to the researcher (Kallio et al., 2016). Semistructured interviews during face-to-face video meetings were the primary data collection technique while using an interview protocol (see Appendix B). Data collection using semistructured interviews containing open-ended questions (Appendix D) allows interview participants to share experiences that remain within the boundaries of the research topic (Morse et al., 2015). I began the process by gathering consent from participants (Appendix E), informing each participant of the option to withdraw from the study at any time, and using an audio recorder and handwritten notes to capture the interviews. I used NVivo 12 software to identify themes in the interviews.

Methodological triangulation is a method for researchers to ensure objectivity in and the validity of the findings (Joslin & Muller, 2016). Requesting organizational data such as employee manuals and reports is a way to triangulate data (Lodhi, 2016). Follow-up occurred via email through member checking to ensure the reliability and validity of the data collection instruments (Appendix A). Member checking is the process by which the researcher sends a summary of the interview transcript to the participant soliciting

feedback for accuracy (Birt et al., 2016). The challenge in member checking is that the interview participants may attempt to change the original statements or may not recognize their perspectives reflected in the themes of the research (Morse et al., 2015). Mitigation of changed statements occurs by offering an honest reporting of participants' responses and limiting member checking to the clarification of specific answers (Rose & Johnson, 2020).

Data Collection Technique

Data collection did not begin until IRB approval was received. Following IRB approval, contact with participants occurred via email to request participation (Appendix A). The request email included a brief description and purpose of the study. I conducted the interview on a date and time convenient for the participant (Appendix C). Before conducting an interview, each participant received a verbal description of the process to secure personal information and data (Appendix B). Interviews assist the researcher in properly structuring study results (Ranabahu, 2017). Interested participants reviewed and signed a consent form. The appropriate person at each organization signed a letter of cooperation from a research partner.

Study participants completed the interview process to answer the research question, "What strategies can nonprofit leaders use to reduce employee turnover?" (Appendix D). The primary data collection technique was an interview via a Zoom video conference at a time convenient to the participant (Appendix C). Conducting virtual interviews is an effective way to gather study information; it is less time-consuming in terms of scheduling (Braun et al., 2017). There are many advantages to the

semistructured interview, including the ability to dialogue and elaborate, aiding the researcher in coding themes and lending itself to more academic rigor (Morse et al., 2015). Disadvantages to the semistructured interview include: not all interviewees make good participants, the researcher being distracted by the participant's appearance, the participant being unwilling to discuss sensitive issues in person, losing control of the focus of the interview by not asking open-ended questions, and underestimating the resources required to recruit, transcribe, and analyze the data (DeJonckheere & Vaughn, 2019). A digital audio recorder and the record function in Zoom recorded each interview. Data were also collected by requesting and reviewing company archival documents. After the interview, member checking commenced by providing each participant with a summary of my understanding of their answers to the interview questions (Appendix B). Each participant was able to respond via email on the accuracy of the provided synthesis and report if any information was missing or required modification. I was also available by telephone for discussion and to review participant information.

Data Organization Technique

I utilized NVivo 12 software to manage, organize, and categorize the data. Data organization is key to demonstrating a strong research process and providing ample support for analysis (Yin, 2018). I secured physical and electronic interview data. By utilizing the Zoom recording feature to take notes during the interviews, electronic data were password-protected on an encrypted flash drive. I will destroy all saved and protected physical and electronic data by shredding, erasing the drive after 5 years.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is critical in establishing a reliable study (Leung, 2015). Data

analysis includes preparing and organizing the collected data, condensing the data into

themes, and representing the data in discussion or tables (Cypress, 2017). I used

organizational documents such as annual reports, IRS form 990, and archived

information published by Guide Star, United Way of Greater St. Louis, and St. Louis

County Government, as well as observations and semistructured interview transcripts to

support the validity of this research. The combination of using secondary organizational

documents and semistructured interview transcripts to reinforce the validity through the

merging of data from various sources that support the researcher's findings is

methodological triangulation (Turner et al., 2017). Triangulation refers to the researchers

using additional sources and types of data to support research findings. In qualitative

research, there are four types of triangulation: (a) methodological triangulation, (b)

investigator triangulation, (c) data triangulation, and (d) theory triangulation (Joslin &

Muller, 2016; Yin, 2018). Using methodological triangulation, the researcher uses

multiple types of data collected from sources such as interviews, surveys, and researcher

observations (Lodhi, 2016). I processed each method, cross-checked for validity, and

then presented the findings to add credibility to the collected data.

Before beginning the data collection process, researchers should have a plan for

achieving data saturation (Lodhi, 2016). Data saturation occurs when, after conducting so

many interviews, no new information or themes are uncovered (Fusch & Ness, 2015).

There are three steps in the data analysis process: (a) compiling data, (b) disassembling

data or identifying emerging themes, and (c) reassembling the data using identified themes to make observations (Yin, 2018).

I used NVivo 12, a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software, in the current study. NVivo software allows researchers to analyze open-ended responses, images, videos, reflective writing, and other text data (Feng & Behar-Horenstein, 2019). I reviewed the themes that emerged from the information gathered from semistructured interview transcripts for consistency, reported theme information, and compared findings with previously published studies. Organizing the data, concepts, and ideas into themes reveals patterns and helps the researcher understand the gathered information (Patten & Newhart, 2017). The data analysis process includes a six-step thematic data analysis process: (a) familiarization with the data, (b) generating initial codes, (c) searching for themes, (d) reviewing the themes, (e) defining the themes, and (f) providing a conclusion (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). I used triangulation with the six-step thematic data analysis to help focus on key themes to correlate with the literature review topics. The combination of comparing the coding with the literature review and the six-step data analysis process helped streamline the coding process. This complete analysis established links from the results from the current study to the literature on my study topic or conceptual framework published since achieving approval of the proposal.

Reliability and Validity

Qualitative researchers must provide evidence of reliability and validity in their studies to prove methodological rigor in research findings (Morse et al., 2015).

Reliability refers to the dependability of the research, while validity refers to the credibility, transferability, confirmability, and data saturation (Fusch & Ness, 2015).

Reliability

Reliability in qualitative research is in producing data within a consistent degree of dependability (Leung, 2015). The five approaches that enhance the reliability of the process and findings are: (a) refutational analysis, (b) constant data comparison, (c) the use of comprehensive data, (d) use of tables, and (e) inclusion of the deviant case (Silverman, 2009). Using a predetermined interview protocol for the current study ensured that others will be able to repeat the same process in the future in similar studies. Acceptable methods of establishing dependability are through triangulation, peer review, transcript reviews, and member checking (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Morse et al., 2015). I utilized member checking in the current study alongside the organization's archival documents and reports in order to triangulate the data, ensuring the dependability of the study.

Validity

In qualitative research, validity refers to using the correct tools, processes, and data for the study (Morse et al., 2015). Establishing validity within the study is inclusive of (a) ensuring the research question will produce the desired outcomes, (b) the chosen methodology is appropriate for the research question, (c) the design is compatible with the methodology, (d) data analysis methods is appropriate, and (e) confirming findings are valid (Leung, 2015). Credibility, transferability, and confirmability are indicators of properly qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The credibility of the study refers to how well the research findings are translated from the perspective of the participant. Credibility of a study can be enhanced by member checking. Member checking can help mitigate bias within the study and ensures the credibility of the research (Birt et al., 2016; Morse et al., 2015). To ensure credibility, participants in the current study received all developed materials to authenticate their experience without bias, allowing for feedback and clarity of responses.

The ability of other researchers to evaluate the quality of research and validate the process is confirmability (Kallio et al., 2016). The researcher can enhance confirmability by ensuring that research findings can be supported by others. Probing during the interview and adhering to a strict interview protocol (Appendix B) in the current study assisted in demonstrating the confirmability of the findings. Adhering to the interview protocol and regularly auditing participant information creates an audit trail that another researcher can follow (Nowell et al., 2017). Using NVivo helped create audit trails.

Transferability in a study is when the research findings are transferable in different concepts or groups (Noble & Heale, 2019). The purpose in researchers ensuring the credibility of a study is to assist in the transferability of the findings. Demonstrating how research findings apply within another context is the responsibility of the researcher conducting a new study (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). The transferability of a study can be enabled by adhering to the data collection and analysis techniques of the research design, following the interview protocol, utilizing triangulation, and reaching data saturation. Methodological triangulation is a method for researchers to ensure objectivity

in and the validity of the findings (Joslin & Muller, 2016). I used triangulation to establish transferability of the current study.

Achieving data saturation in qualitative research is the point at which no new information or themes appear, helping to ensure transferability (Fusch & Ness, 2015). Adhering to the data collection and analysis techniques and incorporating member checking and follow-up email correspondence assisted in reaching data saturation where no new information emerges about the topic.

Transition and Summary

Section 2 included a description of the role of the researcher, identified participants for the current study, and described the research method and design. This section included details of the data collection and data analysis processes, along with strategies I used to ensure reliability and validity in the current study findings. Section 3 continues with findings from the data collection for the current study.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore strategies nonprofit leaders use to reduce employee turnover. The target population for this study included three leaders of three human service nonprofit agencies in the North St. Louis County region of the Greater St. Louis area who have successfully lowered employee turnover. All three participants have been leaders within their organization for at least 2 years and have had experience in implementing strategies to reduce employee turnover. The analysis of qualitative data entailed semistructured interviews that were recorded, transcribed, and coded. Also reviewed were secondary sources of information, including number of employees employed over several years, retention rates, and strategic plans or an equivalent internal document. NVivo software was used to categorize, code, and identify key themes. Categorizing data at a basic level provides the researcher with an organization grasp of the study (Saldana, 2015). Data saturation was reached when after the second interview, the information collected did not produce new revelations. Through the application of methodological triangulation, I identified four themes: (a) building a team through effective hiring, (b) supportive leadership, (c) communication, and (d) staff recognition. In this section, I present the findings of the study as well as its application to professional practice and impact on social change. I will also discuss recommendations for action and further research, reflect on the doctoral study process, and provide a conclusion to support the research findings.

Presentation of the Findings

The overarching research question for this multiple case study was "Which strategies have effectively reduced employee turnover in nonprofit organizations?" To answer the research question, I conducted three interviews with three leaders at three different nonprofit organizations. Participants were eligible to participate in the study if they met the following criteria: They have been leaders within their organization for at least 2 years and have had experience in implementing strategies to reduce employee turnover. I utilized Microsoft Word and Otter to assist in transcription and NVivo to assist in data analysis. I applied the member-checking process with participants to ensure accuracy. To protect the identities of the participants, I assigned each an alphanumerical code from P1 to P3. To protect the identities of the organizations, I assigned each an alphanumerical code from O1 to O3. Table 1 provides information on the participants' eligibility to participate in this study.

Table 1

Eligibility for Participants

Requirement	P1	P2	P3
In leadership position for at least 2 years	>2	>2	>2
Experience in implementing strategies to reduce employee turnover	Yes	Yes	Yes

Applying methodological triangulation and data analysis, I identified four themes: (a) building a team through effective hiring, (b) supportive leadership, (c) communication and (d) staff recognition.

Theme 1: Building a Team through Effective Hiring

All participants in the study mentioned the importance of creating an environment where staff feel like they are members of a team and are empowered to share feedback. Culture drives the way that work is done, communications are shared, and power is disseminated (Page et al., 2019). One subtheme emerged from analysis of the semistructured interviews and methodological triangulation: matching employee strengths to job duties.

Building Teams

Each participant referenced the importance of creating strong teams. Team commitment and organizational commitment both contribute to reducing employee turnover (Yalabik et al., 2017). Using NVivo, I performed a simple word search for frequency, eliminating irrelevant or superfluous words. Table 2 provides key terms related to team building for all interviews. The words and variants related to the people it takes to build a team are included. Combined, the frequency of terms referring to team building equals 5.60% of all participant responses.

Table 2

Reference to Team Building

Reference	Frequency	Weighted Percentage	Similar words
People	130	2.07	people

Person	47	0.75	person, personal
Managers	56	0.6	management, manager, managers
Staff	40	0.64	processes
Team	35	0.56	team, teams
Employees	32	0.51	employee, employees
Teacher	16	0.26	teacher, teachers
cohort	2	.03	Cohort

One of the areas for leaders to increase retention was to focus on building a team. P1 stated that they consistently search for people to compliment the team in open positions, specifically mentioning creating environments where team members care about one another. O1 has a part-time employee who has been with the organization over 15 years and is focused on team building. The person in this position travels between sites completing team-building activities throughout the week and also in an abbreviated activity at the monthly all-staff meeting. While working with the teams, their role is to help the staff get to know each other, care about one another, and ultimately know that they can lean on the team for assistance when needed and help each other out. O1 operates on the idea that people tend to stay longer if they have a best friend at work. Fostering friendships at work to improve engagement is not a new concept. Staff who have friends at work report that their job is more fun, enjoyable, satisfying, and worthwhile (Riordan, 2013). People with a best friend at work are more likely to fully engage in their work, and close work friendships have shown to boost employee

satisfaction by more than 50% (Harter et al., 2003). P1 also eluded to their position on culture by stating that they trust management to get their jobs done and choose not to micromanage.

In a similar fashion, P2 attempts to convey to employees from Day 1 that they are a part of a team even when they are in a position that is isolated from the larger population. In O2, employees are allowed to switch schedules with coworkers, but they are responsible for coordinating the exchange and relaying the change to management. In order to successfully switch shifts and make sure the sites have proper coverage, team members have to be in sync with their team. P3 stated that leadership tries to make sure that everyone is working on a team, helping each other to succeed in a way that is good for the organization. Shaping the organization begins with ensuring a culture of belonging, making sure everyone understands that their voice and contribution is important to the overall health of the team and the organization.

Matching Employee Strengths to Job Duties

It is important to have clarity in understanding each other's roles on the team (Zafar et al., 2020). O1 is intentional about matching potential employee or current staff personalities and behaviors to open positions. Using the good to great model, P1 wants to ensure that "the right people are on the bus, in the right seat." P1 also stated that different jobs require different skill sets and it can be easier for employees if they are in a position that matches their personality. For example, direct care staff are preferably kind, calm, and diligent. Defined as the balance between exploring new opportunities while exploiting current capabilities, organizational ambidexterity is critical to the sustainability

of organizations (Hughes et al., 2020; Park et al., 2020). In contrast, P3 looks at jobs in regard to what the organization needs as opposed to matching personality to a job description. P3 stated, "We look at people first, even though we don't make jobs for people." P3 recognized that every new hire or new promotion may not have every skill that the organization needs, but they are willing to train up the employee to meet the needs of the role.

P2 expressed that they take an employee's personalities and skill set and uses them as a guide on job placement. This pertains to both direct care and management level positions. When hiring, there are many aspects to consider, including, but not limited to, diversity, personalities, and characteristics. P2 diligently looks at applications for patterns, which helps in the decision to move an applicant forward, investing time and money. The cost to recruit, hire, and train a new employee has been estimated to be between 90%–200% of the position's annual salary, depending on the individual's role, specialization, and performance level (Hom et al., 2017). Recently O2 began asking character questions during the interview to better assist in determining how well the applicant will fit on the existing team and if it is worth the cost to move them forward in the hiring process. In terms of hiring, P1 looks at personality, characteristics, and skill set when it refers to filling a team position. In certain cases, P1 looks for a particular type of person to fill the gap and that person should be similar in characteristics to the other people on the team.

Links to the Literature

A study on nonprofit culture-effectiveness among executive directors showed a positive and significant relationship between culture and how effective the organization is performing (Langer & LeRoux, 2017). P3 mentioned that the culture of the organization is the foundation shaping all future decisions. Social connectedness, when effectively applied, flattens the hierarchy and improves each team member's sense of importance on the team (Southwick & Southwick, 2020). P1, P2, and P3 each stated the importance of ensuring a sense of teamwork within the organization. The determination to move forward with a new hire is heavily determined by the needs of the team. Within each organization, the culture of fostering teamwork is upheld throughout. O1 has a dedicated staff member who works on team building. P1, P2, and P3 consider talent gaps on the team when hiring. P1 and P2 specifically mentioned pairing personalities to open positions. P1, P2, and P3 are all looking to build teams that contribute to the organization's success.

Links to the Conceptual Framework

The need for affiliation involves desiring and needing interpersonal relationships and friendships with others (Verma, 2017). Characteristics of the need for affiliation include the desire to establish, maintain, and restore relationships among specific groups (Steinmann et al., 2016). Managers who employ individuals with a need for affiliation may benefit from promoting teamwork (Brunstein, 2018). P1, P2, and P3 each mentioned that they promote teamwork and push to ensure an environment that fosters collaboration. Encouraging teamwork allows for better performance, stronger relationships among

coworkers, and employee satisfaction. By fulfilling the need for affiliation, motivation on behalf of the employee should increase (McClelland, 2010).

Theme 2: Supportive Leadership

A commonality among study participants was supporting staff by being present, available, and supportive of their professional and personal goals. O1, O2, and O3 operate multiple locations across the region and employees are not all in the same building. Distant leadership can be challenging, and many leaders recognize the importance of being present for employees at remote locations (Petterson & Solstad, 2021). P1 mentioned never missing an all-staff meeting in nearly 30 years. Those meetings are an opportunity for staff to ask any questions, receive clear updates from organization leadership, and take required or optional trainings. P1 uses those meetings as an opportunity to show employees that they are not expendable and that they matter. Similarly, P3 hosts a weekly meeting to celebrate staff successes as well as communicate any agency updates. P3 stated that it is important to ensure a culture of belonging, letting employees know that everyone's voice and contribution is important. In O2, there is an agency-wide meeting facilitated by P2 and additional leadership team members. These meetings are used as an opportunity to celebrate staff, listen to their needs, and communicate macrolevel plans. P2 also emphasized the importance of visiting off-site locations so that leadership's presence is felt across the organization. P1, P2, and P3 each have an open-door policy inviting employees to reach out when in need.

Each participant also mentioned investing in staff by providing training to employees at all stages of matriculation, from new hires to seasoned employees.

Nonprofit leaders seeking to improve the credibility of their performance measurement should invest in staff development, education, and training (Lee, 2021). One subtheme emerged from analysis: training and development. Table 3 reveals specific terms in reference to supportive leadership through training and development. The frequency of the term applied by participants to investing in staff through training and development is 3.66%.

Table 3

Reference to Training and Development

Reference	Frequency	Weighted Percentage	Similar words
People	130	2.07	people
Working	59	.94	work, worked, working, works
Training	13	0.21	train, training
Skill	12	0.19	skill, skills
Development	9	.14	develop, development, developed, developments
Communicate	7	.11	communication

Training and Development

P1, P2, and P3 each mentioned providing training from the hiring stage. P2 stated that the first evaluation of an applicant involves determining if they are worth the investment of time and training in moving forward. The cost to recruit, hire, and train a

new employee has been estimated to be between 90%–200% of the position's annual salary depending on the individual's role, specialization, and performance level (Hom et al., 2017). P2 encourages career moves by creating paid opportunities to employees to grow. Those opportunities which are also used as recruitment tools include tuition reimbursement and the teacher assistant advancement program, which will give those employees who are in school working towards a certification or degree a bump in salary as motivation to continue on and then another bump in salary upon completion.

O1 and O2 offer a career pathway and ladder, building capacity internally by staggering salaries and creating ranges of pay. Both organizations create opportunities to advance by adding on levels to positions as needed. For example, Social Worker I, Social Worker II, Social Worker III, and so forth. Each organization mentioned preferring to recruit internally. P2 specifically stated that they tend to keep employees longer who move up internally as opposed to those who come into the organization from the outside. O3 has had no movement in full-time permanent staff in 3 years. O3 has seasonal staff, 80% of whom return every year. P3 prefers to recruit seasonal staff when needed from former clients who have graduated from the program.

P3 mentioned operating from an asset model. O3 stated that if an applicant has some of the qualifications but not all, they are willing to train them up to meet the requirements of the position. One of P3's goals is to instill in the organization's employees values which are in alignment with the mission—ensuring that people are bold, smart, and strong. In looking at retention strategies, P3 ramps up training by thinking about growth. Recognizing that training opportunities are frequently offered to

executives, P3 intentionally focuses on helping staff grow to meet their personal career goals. The thought behind this intentional move by P3 is that if an organization is committed to its people, then management should want to see them grow. P1 and P2 agreed, both encouraging employees to grow and make career moves, realizing that growth may take an employee beyond the walls of the organization. Growth has a social impact. Helping employees advance their career assists the community, which benefits from the knowledge and resources the employee brings to their new position. O1, O2, and O3 have had no turnover in management level employees in 4 years. O3 recently had a manager retire due to medical reasons.

Links to the Literature

The overall goal for retention is to foster an environment that encourages current employees to remain employed (Hom et al., 2019). Staff productivity and motivation may be increased if nonprofit leaders introduce themselves to employees, encourage the staff, serve as mentors, and share relevant information with others within the organization (Gilliard et al., 2013). Study participants each gave examples of interacting with staff on a consistent basis, making their presence felt across the organization. P1 emphasized that it is important for leadership to pause and take moments to interact with staff in a clear and genuine way that allows them to feel heard. The presence of key stakeholders at meetings gives credibility to leadership and promotes a healthy work environment (Persson et al., 2021).

Links to the Conceptual Framework

Management behavior correlates with McClelland's (1961) motivational needs

theory. As P1, P2, and P3 nurture relationships and provide support and motivation to new employees, it creates an environment that coincides with the needs for power and achievement. Power is fostered in P1 allowing middle management to make decisions for their team and P2 allowing staff to manage their own schedules and rely upon great communication. Individuals seeking social power may apply inspiration to help others achieve greatness, learn, and be happy. P1 and P2 foster achievement by recruiting internally and promoting from within, while P3 does so by preferring to hire seasonal employees from former program participants who have graduated from the program. The need for achievement supports the need to strive for success or perform well (Khurana & Joshi, 2017).

Theme 3: Communication

All study participants mentioned the importance of communicating with employees to convey the vision of the organization and maintain a level of transparency about the organization's state of affairs. If the vision from managers is neither communicated nor clear, issues surrounding leadership emerge, resulting in a lack of employee communication and support (Fournier & Jobin, 2018). Table 4 reveals specific terms in reference to transparency and communication. The frequency of the term applied by participants to transparency and communication is 2.56%.

Table 4

Transparency and Communication

Reference	Frequency	Weighted Percentage	Similar words
Communication	33	.53	communicate, communications

Meet	31	.49	meet, meetings, meeting
Questions	28	.45	question, questions
Tell	21	.34	tell, telling, tells
Training	13	.21	train, training
Transparent	11	.18	transparent, transparency
Talk	11	.18	talks, talking, talked
Hear	11	.18	heard, hearing

Transparency and Communication

P2 emphasized transparency between management and direct care staff as a positive factor in positive employee morale. Transparency is the extent to which an organization and its leaders provide insight and learning opportunities about the organization (Parris et al., 2016). In providing transparent communications across the organization, P2 finds that employees are more likely to share concerns and positive news, and that employees feel like a valued part of the team. P2 commented that it is important to be as transparent as possible; however, timing is involved. Discussions may start on an executive level, but the message is fine-tuned before it is distributed to the masses. Fine-tuning the message allows for the input of stakeholders before the final message is communicated. P2 has found that even when mistakes are made, employees are more sympathetic when one owns the error. Transparency contributes to mutual trust and cooperation (Klein, 2012). Because it is important for staff to understand why something is happening, P2 emphasizes the importance of explaining the rationale behind

decisions so that staff do not have to assume and speculate on organizational change. O2 experienced a period in time when they were having an issue with staff time off. Because of the operating hours of the sites and state regulations, they are required to have a certain number of people on duty throughout the day. To tackle this issue, P2 hosted a focus group composed of staff at different levels. The result of the focus group was to take 40 hr of paid time off from each person's allotment and in turn offer each employee their choice of a paid 40-hr winter break or a 40-hr summer break. Working together across levels helped O2 develop a staffing plan that has cut down on the problem of having too many employees off at one time.

P1, P2, and P3 agreed that even when enforcing executive decisions, one must still allow staff the opportunity to ask questions and give their input. P3 offers a comment box for staff to discreetly submit any concerns to management. They noted that staff do not use the comment box as often as in the past, instead favoring digital communication. O3 also conducts an employee engagement survey which allows staff to give their opinion on the direction of the organization. Similarly, O1 annually surveys staff on many areas, including their service to clients as well as overall health of the organization. At O2, communication begins shortly after a new hire begins. O2 offers staff a 30/60/90 day stay survey. This survey was implemented to catch issues with employees so that management can step in to solve the problem before an employee chooses to leave. As a result, O2 has less turnover in the first 90 days. Aside from compensation, private feedback to teams boosts performance more so than intrinsic motivation (Delavallade, 2021).

Links to the Literature

According to Padney and Asthana (2017), communication is key to retention as well as successful human resource practices. Regular communication about a worker's value to the organization boosts motivation (Mitchell & Calabrese, 2018). Other ways of increasing motivation are continuously implementing techniques, providing suggestions on how employees can make a more significant impact on the agency, and talking to staff about the expectations and the future of the organization (Pandey & Asthana, 2017). The overall objective is to help employees understand the value brought to the agency (Henderson & Sowa, 2019). Ma et al. (2018) found that when implementing staff motivation techniques, the methods should be engaging. In large agencies with multiple locations, leadership teams may experience challenges in effectively communicating with everyone (Downey & Bedard, 2019). P1, P2, and P3 leaders experiencing this problem tend to exhaust communication methods and mechanisms by using unconventional methods (Mitchell & Calabrese, 2018).

Links to the Conceptual Framework

McClelland states in the motivational needs theory that organizational leaders can influence motives by creating environments that are favorable to certain drives (McClelland, 1987). For example, employees at nonprofit organizations who have developed a reputation for delivering excellent care and service tend to be motivated to contribute to the organization's reputation. Employees who can effectively communicate with clients to accomplish goals that positively impact the employee–client relationship and push the organization forward tend to have higher job satisfaction (Nyambegera &

Gicheru, 2016). Leading by example, effective communication from leadership can also stimulate staff motivation, which is what P1, P2, and P3 attempt to do with their open door policies and frequent communication. Staff motivation can also increase by activating an employee's need for power, affiliation, or achievement (Rybnicek et al., 2019). Receiving encouragement motivates employees to perform at a higher level (Pandey & Asthana, 2017). Similarly, organizations that have high-performing, well-liked managers tend to have an existing workplace culture that expects high-quality management. Adequately motivated employees are more invested in their work, feel more engaged, and are more productive (Osemeke & Adegboyega, 2017).

Theme 4: Staff Recognition

P1, P2, and P3 deemed it important to recognize staff for a job well done. Each organization celebrates in a different fashion. Staff recognition is important foster because it is directly linked to retention (Whitfill et al., 2020). Table 4 reveals specific terms in reference to recognition. The frequency of the term applied by participants to recognition is 1.43%.

Table 5

Reference to Recognition

Reference	Frequency	Weighted Percentage	Similar words
Staff	40	.64	staff
Team	35	.56	team, teams
Money	11	.18	money
Paying	6	.10	paying

Promoted	6	.10	promoted, promoting, promotion
Dollars	5	.08	dollar, dollars
Incentives	5	.08	incentive, incentives
Benefits	3	.05	benefits

P1 has a system within the organization that encourages employees to recognize one another for a job well done. These recognitions are turned into "happy bucks" and are redeemable at the monthly staff meeting for prizes. Recipients of happy bucks are also recognized by name at the same meeting. At the end of the year, employees who have submitted the recognition of a coworker are publicly acknowledged and entered to win small prizes at the final all-staff meeting of the year. O1's system recognizes not only those doing a great job but also those who take the time to praise a job well done. In a similar fashion, P3 takes the time to celebrate small and big wins at a weekly meeting. Like O1, employees are recognized by name at the meeting and by receiving some type of reward ranging from small gifts to annual bonuses. P3 wants to ensure that every employee's value is addressed.

To retain employees, O2 has tried offering various incentives. As a result of hosted focus groups, P2 offered each site the opportunity to participate in a pilot program where employees work four 10-hr shifts each week, allowing each person one day off every week. Only one site signed up to pilot the program. That site started in 2017 and there has been no turnover since inception. The 4-day work week allows employees: the opportunity to handle personal business during normal operating hours, the ability to

trade off days, and the ability to earn overtime all while encouraging great communication. P2 also listened to staff and gave employees a monthly newsletter that is all about them. The newsletter features employee recognitions, any incentives or benefits that are being offered, tips on self-care, and any other relevant topics.

A review of organization websites and annual reports shows that each organization reports on positive employee news to stakeholders. There is direct correlation to meaningful recognition and a decrease in turnover rates (Salvant et al., 2020). A win for the employee is also a win for the organization.

Links to the Literature

Providing employee compensation, incentives, and recognition may be an effective strategy to support employee retention in nonprofit organizations. Compensation consists of any form of monetary remuneration paid to an employee (Campbell et al., 2019). Salary, benefits, healthcare, and retirement are some of the components that can be in a compensation package (Knighton et al., 2018). O1, O2, and O3 also offer incentives in the form of monetary compensation, PTO or vacation and sick time, benefits, and opportunity for promotion. O2 goes a step further by also offering tuition reimbursement for certificate or degree programs in areas that benefit the organization.

Links to the Conceptual Framework

Employee recognition ties into McClelland's (1961) theory as expressed in one's intrinsic needs. Recognition in some form is at the root of each need. Those who seek power want to be recognized by the team as being in a position of authority. O1 and O3

recognize staff accomplishments publicly at scheduled meetings. O2 recognizes staff accomplishments in a published newsletter. Those who seek affiliation want to be connected to a group and associated with group wins. And finally, those who seek achievement want to be recognized for their accomplishments. O1, O2, and O3 place significant importance on highlighting employee accomplishments internally among staff and externally among community stakeholders.

Applications to Professional Practice

Previous studies have indicated that a high rate of employee turnover negatively impacts organizational performance and increases costs (Chen & Wu, 2017; Sun & Wang, 2017). The results of this study provide in-depth insight into the tools, skills, and strategies nonprofit leaders use to create an environment that encourages employees to stay. Strategies shared by participants could be beneficial to management and contribute an increased understanding of the elements applied to successful retention strategies of direct care nonprofit employees. By applying various strategies, managers can enable an organizational culture that embraces the needs of both the organization and the employee. Leaning into an employee's skill set helps the organization fulfill roles with passionate individuals all while reducing turnover.

Implications for Social Change

The findings of this qualitative multiple case study may contribute to positive social change by inspiring nonprofit leaders to implement successful retention strategies. The potential for positive social change from the findings of this study has benefits reaching into all areas of an organization and extending to the community at large.

Employee turnover within an organization damages morale, capacity, performance, and is costly (Jang & Kandampully, 2018). Increased employee turnover can cause community programs to deteriorate (Baines et al., 2017). Retention of nonprofit employees allows agencies to provide uninterrupted social services to clients in the community, which improves human and social conditions. Information about how to retain employees helps nonprofit agencies avoid training employees to handle turnover, which helps decrease work stress (Majeed et al., 2018). Gyensare et al. (2016) proposed that a positive work climate produces satisfied employees who emotionally attach to the mission of the organization, which is in tandem with the relationship between employee commitment and turnover. Happy, committed employees demonstrate improved organizational performance, which results in a better balance for the employee, their family, and the community (Garcia-Buades et al., 2020). Steady employment may enable employees to participate in more economic activities, resulting in the growth of the nation's revenue and gross domestic product (Vasquez, 2014). When nonprofit organizations remain viable, communities benefit because their members are receiving continuous care.

Recommendations for Action

Nonprofit leaders and senior management can use strategies related in this study to integrate successful retention strategies into their organizational goals. Also provided are specific strategies to enable and strengthen process improvements with frontline employees. Some specific recommendations that may be useful for other health care organizations include: (a) dedicate specific funds for trainings related to the organization; (b) provide value, growth opportunities, and support to employees working on their

personal career goals; (c) celebrate and recognize important milestones and successes attained by employees; (d) be transparent in communications to all stakeholders ; (e) empower frontline employees and managers to share their opinions and suggestions; (f) provide education opportunities to develop leadership skills; and (g) ensure management fosters an environment that supports the culture of the organization.

Other leaders in various roles and sectors who are seeking to reduce turnover and increase retention may also find value in these results. Communication of study findings may be through various forums, such as conferences and educational sessions focused on nonprofit management or human resources. Also, disseminating results through literature publication may support present and future researchers.

Recommendations for Further Research

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore the successful strategies nonprofit leaders use to retain employees. Applying methodological triangulation and data analysis, I identified three themes impacting nonprofit retention: (a) building a team with intention increases retention, (b) providing supportive leadership increases retention, and (c) taking time to recognize staff increases retention. This study had several limitations, the first being a small sample size of three nonprofit leaders from agencies who provide direct care to family and children in North St. Louis County. Additional limitations included finding participants who have implemented successful retention plans, not being able to identify participants who trust the researcher enough to provide honest responses, and participants being unable to recall specific incidents due to the lapse in time. The following are recommendations for further research.

1. Expand the scope of the study to include successful strategies nonprofit leaders in other industries use to increase retention.

2. Study strategies nonprofit leaders use to lead different generations—Gen X, Gen Y, and Gen Z.

3. Research successful retention strategies nonprofit leaders use to navigate disasters.

4. Research the impact of COVID-19 on staffing in nonprofit agencies.

5. Conduct a quantitative or mixed methods multiple case study on various factors that impact retention.

6. Continue to explore and study specific strategies that could reduce turnover specifically focusing on direct care workers versus management.

Reflection

The doctoral study process has been a long journey for me. It has allowed me to understand the value of the sweat equity put into research and academia. Typically a procrastinator, I have learned how to better manage my schedule to focus on a goal that I set many years ago. My knowledge and understanding of the impact of turnover and retention in nonprofit organizations has increased tremendously. I underestimated the amount of time it takes to complete the data collection process, which was further delayed due to the COVID-19 crisis. The impact of the pandemic also led to delays from the nonprofit participants as they navigated their own challenges. As a result of the crisis, I had to replace participants as leaders were laid off from the organization, no longer meeting the criteria of the study. Prior to beginning this journey, I was unaware of the

amount of perseverance, tenacity, and brainpower it takes to complete such an in-depth project. I have realized the potential in increasing the amount of available research into the nonprofit sector. Nonprofit organizations and the resources they provide to the community are vital to the overall health of people and thus the economy. Implementing discovered retention strategies can significantly impact organizations' sustainability.

Conclusion

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore the strategies nonprofit leaders use to retain employees. I conducted semistructured interviews with three nonprofit leaders, a process involving data collection, member checking, and data analysis. I continued to collect and analyze data until no new themes emerged. By applying methodological triangulation and data analysis, I identified three themes impacting nonprofit retention: (a) building a team with intention increases retention, (b) providing supportive leadership increases retention, and (c) taking time to recognize staff increases retention. Each theme aligned with current literature and the conceptual framework of the motivational needs theory in retention. The findings of the study identify several strategies that leaders use to retain staff, including focusing on team building, providing growth opportunities, recognizing staff, and providing transparent communication.

References

Adams, J. S., & Freedman S. (1976). Equity theory revisited: Comments and annotated

    bibliography. In *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 9, pp. 43–90).

    Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60058-1

Adesoro, O., Shumba, C., Kamor, J., Achan, J., Kivumbi, H., Dada, J., & Baba, E.

    (2016). Health worker perspectives on the possible use of intramuscular

    artesunate for the treatment of severe malaria at lower-level health facilities in

    settings with poor access to referral facilities in Nigeria: A qualitative study. *BMC*

    Health Services Research, *16,* 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-016-1811-x

Aguenza, B. B., & Som, A. P. M. (2018). Motivational factors of employee retention and

    engagement in organizations. *International Journal of Advances in Management*

    and Economics. https://bit.ly/3lvoHmi

Aidla, A. (2017). Perceptions of negative inequality at work and the behavior of

    individuals. *GSTF Journal on Business Review*, *2,* 234–239.

    https://doi.org/10.5176/2010-4804_2.3.242

Ajayi, O. M., Odusanya, K., & Morton, S. (2017). Stimulating employee ambidexterity

    and employee engagement in SMEs. *Management Decision*, *55*, 662–680.

    https://doi.org/10.1108/md-02-2016-0107

Al Mamun, C. A., & Hasan, N. (2017). Factors affecting employee turnover and sound

    retention strategies in the business organization: A conceptual view. *Problems &*

    Perspectives in Management, *15*(1), 63–71.

    https://doi.org/10.21511/ppm.15(1).2017.06

Alpi, K. M. (2019). Distinguishing case study as a research method from case reports as a

publication type. *Journal of the Medical Library Association, 107*(1), 1–5.

https://doi.org/10.5195/jmla.2019.615

Arbogust, M. (2020). *Why do nonprofits fail? A quantitative study of form 990

information in the year preceding closure* [Doctoral dissertation, Old Dominion

University]. https://doi.org/10.25777/n8yg-9475

Arif, A. A., & Uddin, M. R. (2016). Talent management and organizational performance:

An empirical study in retail sector in Sylhet City, Bangladesh. *Journal of Business

and Management*, *18*(10), 11–18. https://doi.org/10.9790/487X-1810041118

Babalola, M., Stouten, J., & Euwema, M. (2016). Frequent change and turnover

intention: The moderating role of ethical leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*,

134, 311–322. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-014-2433-z

Baines, D., Cunningham, I., & Shields, J. (2017). Filling the gaps: Unpaid (and 90

precarious) work in the nonprofit social services. *Critical Social Policy*, *37*(4),

625–645. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261018317693128

Baluch, A.M., & Ridder, H.G. (2021). Mapping the research landscape of strategic

human resource management in nonprofit organizations: A systemic review and

avenues for future research. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *50*(3),

598-625. https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764020939653

Baumann, M. R., & Bonner, B. L. (2016). An expectancy theory approach to group

coordination: Expertise, task features, and member behavior. *Journal of

Behavioral Decision Making*, *30*(2), 407–419. https://doi.org/10.1002/bdm.1954

Bazire, A., Proia-LeLouey, N., & Johnston, G. (2018). A method of discourse analysis applied to clinical research interviews: Discourse analysis based on the discourse elaboration processes from the TAT (Thematic Apperception Test). *Psychologie Clinique et Projective*, *1*(24), 219–241. https://doi.org/10.3917/pcp.024.0219

Birt, L., Scott, S., Cavers, D., Campbell, C., & Walter, F. (2016). Member checking: A tool to enhance trustworthiness or merely a nod to validation? *Qualitative Health Research*, *26*(13), 1802–1811. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732316654870

Boamah, S. A., & Laschinger, H. (2016). The influence of areas of work life fit and work-life interference on burnout and turnover intentions among new graduate nurses. *Journal of Nursing Management*, *24*(2), E164–E174. https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.12318

Bonds, M.D.S. (2022). *Navigating Memorialization and Commemoration on US Campuses: Approaches to Crisis Recovery.* Routledge

Bowling, N. A., & Beehr, T. A. (2016). Opponent process theory can help explain some effects of resilience. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *9*(2), 486–490. https://doi.org/10.1017/iop.2016.44

Braun, V., Clarke, V., & Gray, D. (Eds.) (2017). *Collecting qualitative data: A practical guide to textual, media and virtual techniques*. Cambridge University Press.

Brunstein, J. C. (2018). Implicit and explicit motives. In *Motivation and Action* (pp. 369–405). Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-65094-4_9

Brunstein, J. C., & Heckhausen, H. (2018). Achievement motivation. In *Motivation and action* (pp. 221–304). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-65094-4_6

Bukh, P. N., & Svanholt, A. K. (2020). Empowering middle managers in social services using management control systems. *Journal of Public Budgeting, Accounting & Financial Management, 32*(2), 267–289. https://doi.org/10.1108/jpbafm-06-2019-0096

Bullock, J. B., Stritch, J. M., & Rainey, H. G. (2015). International comparison of public and private employees' work motives, attitudes, and perceived rewards. *Public Administration Review*, *75*(3), 479–489. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371x16671981

Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2016). *Nonprofits in America: New research data on employment, wages, and establishments*. https://bls.gov/opub/mlr/2016/article/nonprofits-in-america.htm

Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2019). *Workforce statistics: Religious, grantmaking, civic, professional, and similar organizations*. https://bls.gov/iag/tgs/iag813.htm

Campbell, L., Smith, P. C., & Martin, K. (2019). Defining 'Reasonable Compensation' under the tax code: A subjective concept and perennial debate. *The CPA Journal, 89*(10), 16–21. https://bit.ly/2FeefzT

Carnochan, S., McBeath, B., Chuang, E., & Austin, M. J. (2018). Perspectives of public and nonprofit managers on communications in human services contracting. *Public Performance & Management Review*, *42*(3), 1–28. https://doi.org/10.1080/15309576.2018.1495085

Castillo-Montoya, M. (2016). Preparing for interview research: The interview protocol refinement framework. *Qualitative Report*, *21*(5), 811–831. https://bit.ly/3ltWyvO

Chan, S. H. J., & Ao, C. T. D. (2019). The mediating effects of job satisfaction and

    organizational commitment on turnover intension, in the relationships between

    pay satisfaction and work-family conflict of casino employees. *Journal of Quality*

    Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism, *20*(2), 206–229.

    https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2018.1512937

Chen, T., & Wu, C. (2017). Improving the turnover intention of tourist hotel employees:

    Transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, and psychological

    contract breach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*,

    29, 1914–1936. https:/doi/org/10.1108/IJCHM-09-2015-0490

Cheng, Y. (2019a). Exploring the role of nonprofits in public service provision: Moving

    from coproduction to cogovernance. *Public Administration Review*, *79*(2), 203–

    214. https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12970

Cheng, Y. (2019b). Governing government-nonprofit partnerships: Linking governance

    mechanisms to collaboration stages. *Public Performance & Management Review*,

    *42(*1), 190–212. https://doi.org/10.1080.1530956.2018.1489294

Chin, C. L. (2018). The influence of job satisfaction on employee turnover intention in

    the manufacturing industry of Malaysia. *Journal of Arts & Social Sciences*, *1*(2),

    53–63. https://bit.ly/3lqrltm

Cho, Y. J., & Song, H. J. (2017). Determinants of turnover intention of social workers:

    Effects of emotional labor and organizational trust. *Public Personnel*

    Management, *46*(1), 41–65. https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026017696395

Chung, H., & Van der Horst, M. (2018). Women's employment patterns after childbirth

and the perceived access to and use of flextime and teleworking. *Human Relations*, *71*(1), 47–72. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726717713828.

Chung, H., & van der Lippe, T. (2018). Flexible working, work–life balance, and gender equality: Introduction. *Social Indicators Research*, 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-018-2025-x

Claiborne, N., Auerbach, C., Zeitlin, W., & Lawrence, C. K. (2015). Climate factors related to intention to leave in administrators and clinical professionals. *Children and Youth Service Review*, *51*, 18–25. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2015.01.007

Clegg, S., Kornberger, M., & Pitsis, T. (2016). *Managing and organizations: An introduction to theory and practice* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.

Coetzee, M., & Stoltz, E. (2015). Employees' satisfaction with retention factors: Exploring the role of career adaptability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *89*(1), 83–91. https://doi.org/10.1016./j.jvb.2015.04.012

Cohen, G., Blake, R. S., & Goodman, D. (2016). Does turnover intention matter? Evaluating the usefulness of turnover intention rate as a predictor of actual turnover rate. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *36*(3), 240–263. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371x15581850

Consiglio, C., Borgogni, L., Di Tecco, C., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2016). What makes employees engaged with their work? The role of self-efficacy and employee's perceptions of social context over time. *Career Development International*, *21*, 125–143. https://doi.org/10.1108/cdi-03-2015-0045

Cook, D., & Artino, A. R., Jr. (2016). Motivation to learn: An overview of contemporary

theories. *Medical Education*, *50*, 997–1014. https://doi.org/10.1111/MEDU.13074

Cooper, E., Phelps, A., & Rogers, S. (2020). Research in nonprofit human resource

management from 2015–2018: Trends, insights, and opportunities. *Employee

Relations*. https://doi.org/10.1102/ER-04-2019-0166

Cypress, B. S. (2017). Rigor or reliability and validity in qualitative research:

Perspectives, strategies, reconceptualization, and recommendations. *Dimensions

of Critical Care Nursing, 36,* 253–263.

https://doi.org/10.1097/DCC.0000000000000253

DeJonckheere, M., & Vaughn, L. (2019). Semistructured interviewing in primary care

research: A balance of relationship and rigour. *Fam Med Community Health, 7*(2),

e000057. https://doi.org/10.1136/fmch-2018-000057

Delavallade, C. (2021). Motivating teams: Private feedback and public recognition at

work. *Journal of Public Economics*, *197*, 104405.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpubeco.2021.104405

Della Torre, E., Zatzick, C. D., Sikora, D., & Solari, L. (2018). Workforce churning,

human capital disruption, and organizational performance in different

technological contexts. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *28*(1), 112–117.

https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12167

DeSousa Sabbagha, M., Ledimo, O., & Martins, N. (2018). Predicting staff retention

from employee motivation and job satisfaction. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*,

28(2), 136–140. https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2018.1454578

Dhanpat, N., Madou, F. D., Lugisani, P., Mabojane, R., & Phiri, M. (2018). Exploring

employee retention and intention to leave within a call centre. *SA Journal of*

Human Resource Management, *16*, 1–13.

https://doi.org/10.4102/SAJHRM.V16I0.905

Dhiman, S. (2017). Self-motivation: Motivating the whole person. In *Holistic leadership*

(pp. 17–42). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-55571-7_2

Dobrai, K., & Farkas, F. (2016). Nonprofit organizations from the perspective of

organizational development and their influence on professionalization. *Nase*

Gospodarstyo/Our Economy, *62*(2), 25–32. https://doi.org/10.1515/ngoe-2016-

0009

Doeze Jager-van Vliet, S. B., Born, M. P., & van der Molen, H. (2017). Self-other

agreement between employees on their need for achievement, power, and

affiliation: A social relations study. *Scandinavian Journal of Work and*

Organizational Psychology, *2*(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.6993/sjwop.29

Downey, D. H., & Bedard, J. C. (2019). Coordination and communication challenges in

global group audits. *Auditing A Journal of Practice & Theory*, *38*(1) 123–147.

https://doi.org/10.2308/ajpt-52016

Durairatnam, S., Chong, S. C., & Jusoh, M. (2019). People-related TQM practices,

organizational justice and employee work-related attitudes for quality

performance: A research agenda. *Global Journal of Management and Business*

Research, *19*(4). https://bit.ly/34HxomD

Ejaz, F. K., Bukach, A. M., Dawson, N., Gitter, R., & Judge, K. S. (2015). Examining

direct service worker turnover in three long-term care industries in Ohio. *Journal of Aging & Social Policy*, *27*(2), 139–155. https://doi.org/10.1080/08959420.2014.987034

Evans, C. A., Thomas, J., & MacDonnell, S. (2018). Interpersonal problems of the nonprofit workforce: Evaluating the wounded healer as the reason for high turnover. *Journal of Ideology*, *39*(1), 2–31. https://bit.ly/2GEu5Vg

Feeney, M. K., & Stritch, J. M. (2017). Family-friendly policies, gender, and work–life balance in the public sector. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *39*(3), 422–448. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X17733789

Feng, X., & Behar-Horenstein, L. (2019). Maximizing NVivo utilities to analyze open-ended responses. *The Qualitative Report, 24*, 563–571. https://bit.ly/30NOH48

Ferris, D. L., Lian, H., Brown, D. J., & Morrison, R. (2015). Ostracism, self-esteem, and job performance: When do we self-verify and when do we self-enhance? *Academy of Management Journal*, *58*(1), 279–297. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0347

Fletcher, L., Alfes, K., & Robinson, D. (2018). The relationship between perceived training and development and employee retention: The mediating role of work attitudes. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *29*(18), 2701–2728. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1262888

Fournier, P., & Jobin, M. (2018). Understanding before implementing: The context of Lean in public healthcare organizations. *Public Money Management, 38*, 37-44. https://doi.org/10.1080/09540962.2018.1389505

Friedman, B. A., & Schnorr, L. M. (2016). Latent employee turnover and prevention - When job creation catches up with economic recovery: An employee retention model and case study. *The BRC Academy Journal of Business*, *6*(1), 1–30. https://doi.org/10.15239/j.brcacadjb.2016.06.01.ja01

Fuller, S., & Hirsh, C. E. (2018). "Family-friendly" jobs and motherhood pay penalties: The impact of flexible work arrangements across the educational spectrum. *Work and Occupations*, *46*(1), 3–44. https://doi.org/10.1177/0730888418771116

Fusch, P. I., & Ness, L. R. (2015). Are we there yet? Data saturation in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, *20*(9), 1408–1416. http://nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR20/9/fusch1.pdf

Galdas, P. (2017). Revisiting bias in qualitative research: Reflections on its relationship with funding and impact. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *16*(1), 1–2. https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406917748992

Garcia-Baudes, M. E., Peiro, J. M., Montanez-Juan, M.I., Kozusznik, M. W., & Ortiz-Bonnin, S. (2020). Happy productive teams and work units: A systematic review of the "happy-productive worker thesis." *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *17*(1), 69. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17010069

Gentles, S. J., Charles, C., Ploeg, J., & McKibbon, K. A. (2015). Sampling in qualitative research: Insights from an overview of the methods literature. *Qualitative Report*, *20*(11), 1772–1789. https://bit.ly/34D7Dnn

Ghauri, P., Gronhaug, K., & Strange, R. (2020). *Research methods in business studies.* Cambridge University Press.

Gilliard, S., Edwards, C., Gibson, S. L., Owen, K., & Wright, C. (2013). Introducing peer worker roles into U.K. mental health service teams: A qualitative analysis of the organizational benefits and challenges. *BMC Health Service Research*, *13*(1), 188. https://doi.org/10.1186/1472-6963-13-188

Gordon, V. M., Culp, M. A., & Wolinetz, C. D. (2017). Final NIH policy on the use of single institutional review board for multisite research. *Clinical and Translational Science*, *10*(3), 130–132. https://doi.org/10.1111/cts.12447

Gyensare, M. A., Anku-Tsede, O., Mohammed-Aminu, S., & Okpoti, C.A. (2016). Transformational leadership and employee turnover intention. *World Journal -of Entrepreneurship, Management, and Sustainable Development*, *12*(3), 243–266. https://doi.org/10.1108/WJEMSD-02-2016-0008

Hamilton, N., & Haozous, E. A. (2017). Retention of faculty of color in academic nursing. *Nursing Outlook*, *65*(2), 212–221. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.outlook.2016.11.003

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Keyes. C. L. (2003). Well-being in the workplace and its relationship to business outcomes: A review of the Gallup studies. In C. L. M. Keyes & J. Haidt (Eds.), *Flourishing: Positive psychology and the life well-lived* (pp. 205–224). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10594-009

Hatfield, E., Purvis, J., & Rapson, R. L. (2016). Equity theory of organizations. In A. Farazmand (Ed.), *Global Encyclopedia of Public Administration, Public Policy, and Governance*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-31816-5_90-1

Hee, O. C., & Rhung, L. X. (2019). Motivation and employee retention among

  millennials in Malaysia. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business*

  and Social Sciences, 9(2), 876-884. https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v9-i2/5629

Henderson, A. C., & Sowa, J. (2019). Volunteer satisfaction at the boundary of public

  and nonprofit: Organizational- and individual-level determinants. *Public*

  Performance & Management Review, *42*(1), 162–189.

  https://doi.org/10.1080/15309576.2018.1471405

Hennes, K. M., Leone, A. J., & Miller, B. P. (2014). Determinants and market

  consequences of auditor dismissals after accounting restatements. *Accounting*

  Review, *89*(3), 1051–1082. https://doi.org/10.2308/accr-50680

Hennink, M. M., Kaiser, B. N., & Marconi, V. C. (2017). Code saturation versus meaning

  saturation: How many interviews are enough? *Qualitative Health Research,*

  27(4), 591–608. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732316665344

Herzberg, F. (1974). Motivation-hygiene profiles: Pinpointing what ails the organization.

  Organizational Dynamics, *3*(2), 18–29. https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-

  2616(74)90007-2

Herzberg, F. (1987). One more time: How do you motivate employees? *Harvard*

  Business Review, *65*, 5–16. https://bit.ly/2SDY6XD

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. (1959). *The motivation to work*. Transaction

  Publishers.

Hobbs, M., Klachky, E., & Cooper, M. (2020). Job satisfaction assessments of agriculture

  workers help employers improve the work environment and reduce turnover.

California Agriculture, *74*(1), 30–39. https://doi.org/10.3733/ca.2020a0002

Holloway, I., & Galvin, K. (2017). *Qualitative research in nursing and healthcare* (4th ed.). Wiley-Blackwell.

Holston-Okae, B. L., & Mushi, R. J. (2018). Employee turnover in the hospitality industry using Herzberg's two-factor motivation-hygiene theory. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business & Social Sciences*, *8*, 218–248. https://doi.org/10.6007/ijarbss/v8-i1/3805

Hom, P.W., Allen, D.G., & Griffeth, R.W. (2019). *Employee retention and turnover: Why employees stay or leave.* Routledge.

Hom, P. W., Lee, T. W., Shaw, J. D., & Hausknecht, J. P. (2017). One hundred years of employee turnover theory and research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *102*(3), 530–545. https://doi.org/10.1037/AP10000103

Hughes, P., Hughes M, Stokes, P., Lee, H., Roders, P., & Degbey, W. Y. (2020). Micro-foundations of organizational ambidexterity in the context of cross-border mergers and acquisitions. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, *153*, 119932. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2020.119932

Iftikhar, M., & Khan, S. (2019). Organizational empowerment and turnover intentions: A mediation of job satisfaction and affective commitment. A case of hattar industries, Pakistan. *Journal of Management Info*, *6*(2), 1–6. https://doi.org/10.31580/jmi.v6i2.507

Imam, T., Ali, H., & Soon, H. S. (2018). The mediating role of psychological capital in talent retention amongst pharmaceutical employees of Pakistan: A quantitative

study. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, *8*(6), 389–405. https://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v8-i6/4230

Jacobs, R. L., & McClelland, D. C. (1994). Moving up the corporate ladder: A longitudinal study of the leadership motive pattern and managerial success in women and men. *Consulting Psychology Journals: Practice and Research*, *46*(1), 32–41. https://doi.org/10.1037/1061-4087.46.1.32

Jang, J., & Kandampully, J. (2018). Reducing employee turnover intention through servant leadership in the restaurant context: A meditation study of affective organizational commitment. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, *19*, 125–141. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2017.1305310

Jing, Q., Shuwen, C., & Zaidi, Z. H. (2017). Three-factor theory from the perspective of incentive process. *International Research Journal of Arts and Humanities, 45*(45), 77–92.

Johnson, J. M., & Ng, E. S. (2016). Money talks or millennials walk: The effect of compensation on nonprofit millennial workers sector-switching intentions. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *36*(3), 283–305. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371x15587980

Joslin, R., & Muller, R. (2016). Identifying interesting project phenomena using philosophical and methodological triangulation. *International Journal of Project Management, 34*(6), 1043–1056. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2016.05.005

Kallio, H., Pietila, A. M., Johnson, M., & Kangasniemi, M. (2016). Systemic methodological review. Developing a framework for a qualitative semi-structured

interview guide. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *72*, 2954–2965. https://doi.org/10.1111/jan.13031

Khalid, N., Pahi, M. H., & Ahmed, U. (2016). Losing your best talent: Can leadership retain employees? The dilemma of the banking sector of Hyderabad Sindh, Pakistan: A mediation investigation. *International Review of Management and Marketing*, *6*(3), 608–616. https://bit.ly/3iKTKbE

Khurana, H., & Joshi, V. (2017). Motivation and its impact on individual performance: A comparative study based on McClelland's three need model. *International Journal of Research in Commerce & Management*, *8*(7), 110–116.

Kihlstrom, J. (2019). The motivational unconscious. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 13*(5), e12466. https://doi.org/10.1111/spc3.12466

Kim, J. S., Song, H. J., & Lee, C. K. (2016). Effects of corporate social responsibility and internal marketing on organizational commitment and turnover intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *55*, 25–32. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2017

Kingoo, Z. M. (2019). Effects of training on performance in national police service in Kenya: Case of general service unit officers Nairobi. *American Journal of Public Policy and Administration*, *4*(1), 31–47.

Klein, J. (2020). The open-door policy: Transparency minimizes conflicts between school principals and staff. *International Journal of Education Management*, *26*(6), 550–564. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513541211251389

Knapp, J., Smith, B., & Sprinkle, T. (2017). Is it the job or the support? Examining

structural and relational predictors of job satisfaction and turnover intention for nonprofit employees. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *46*(3), 652–671. https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764016685859

Knighton, S. C., Gilmartin, H. M., & Reese, S. M. (2018). Factors affecting annual compensation and professional development support for infection preventionists: Implications for recruitment and retention. *American Journal of Infection Control, 46*(6), 865–869. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajic.2018.03.009

Kohno, A., Farid, N. D. N., Musa, G., Aziz, N. A., Nakayama, T., & Dahlui, M. (2016). Factors affecting Japanese retirees' healthcare service utilisation in Malaysia: A Qualitative Study. *BMJ Open*, *6*(3), e010668. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2015-010668

Kossivi, B., Xu, M., & Kalgora, B. (2016). Study on determining factors of employee retention. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, *4*, 261–268. https://doi.org/10.4236/JSS.2016.45029

Kotey, B. A. (2017). Flexible working arrangements and strategic positions in SMEs. *Personnel Review*, *46*(2), 355–370. https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-04-2015-0089

Krems, J. A., Kenrick, D. T., & Neel, R. (2017). Individual perceptions of self-actualization: What functional motives are linked to fulfilling one's full potential? *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *43*(9), 1337–1352. https://doi.org/10.11770146167217713191

Kumar, A. A., & Mathimaran, K. B. (2017). Employee retention strategies: An empirical research. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research*, *17*.

https://bit.ly/3jKPWIK

Langer, J., & LeRoux, K. (2017). Developmental culture and effectiveness in nonprofit organizations. *Public Performance & Management Review*, *40*(3), 457–479. https://doi.org/10.1080/15309576.2016.1273124

Lambert, E. G., Griffin, M. L., Hogan, N. L., & Kelley, T. (2014). The ties that bind: Organizational commitment and its effect on correctional orientation, absenteeism, and turnover intent. *The Prison Journal*, *95*(1), 135–156. https://doi.org/10.1177/0032885514563293

Landers, R. N., Bauer, K. N., & Callan, R. C. (2017). Gamification of task performance with leaderboards: A goal setting experiment. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *71*, 508–515. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2015.08.008

Lee, C. (2021). Factors influencing the credibility of performance measurement in nonprofits. *International Review of Public Administration*, 1–19. https://doi.org/10.1080/12294659.2021.1884342

Lee, S. (2017). Employee turnover and organizational performance in US federal agencies. *The American Review of Public Administration*, *48*(6), 522–535. https://doi.org/10.1177/0275074017715322

Lee, T. W., Hom, P., Eberly, M., & Li, J. (2018). Managing employee retention and turnover with 21st century ideas. *Organizational Dynamics*, *47*(2), 88–98. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ORGDYN.2017.08.004

Lee, Y. (2016). Comparison of job satisfaction between nonprofit and public employees. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *45*(2), 295-313.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764015584061

Leung, L. (2015). Validity, reliability, and generalizability in qualitative research. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, *4*(3), 324–327. https://doi.org/10.4103/2249-4863.161306

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. D. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Sage.

Lodhi, M. F. K. (2016). Quality issues in higher education: The role of methodological triangulation in enhancing the quality of a doctoral thesis. *Journal of Research in Social Sciences*, *4*(1), 62–74.

Ma, Q. K., Mayfield, M., & Mayfield, J. (2018). Keep them on-board! How organizations can develop employee embeddedness to increase employee retention. *Development and Learning in Organizations: An International Journal*, *32(*4), 5–9. https://doi.org/10.1108/dlo-11-2017-0094

Maguire, M., & Delahunt, B. (2017). Doing a thematic analysis: A practical, step-by-step guide for learning and teaching scholars. *All Ireland Journal of Higher Education*, *9*(3), 3351–33514. https://bit.ly/2SBD5Nc

Majeed, N., Jamshed, S., & Mustamil, N. M. (2018). Striving to restrain employee turnover intention through ethical leadership and pro-social rule breaking. *International Online Journal of Educational Leadership*, *2*(1), 39–53. https://doi.org/10.22452/iojel.vol2no1.4

Majid, M. A. A., Othman, M., Mohamed, S. F., Lim, S. A. H., & Yusof, A. (2017). Piloting for interviews in qualitative research: Operationalization and lessons learnt. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social*

Sciences, 7(4), 1073–1080. https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v7-i4/2916

Malterud, K., Siersma, V. D., & Guassora, A. D. (2016). Sample size in qualitative interview studies: Guided by information power. *Qualitative Health Research, 26*(13), 1753–1760. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732315617444

Manz, C. C., Fugate, M., Hom, P. W., & Millikin, J. P. (2015). When having to leave is a "good thing": A case for positive involuntary turnover. *Organizational Dynamic*, *44*(1), 57–64. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2014.11.007

Marrone, S. R. (2016). Informed consent examined within the context of culturally congruent care: An interprofessional perspective. *Journal of Transcultural Nursing, 27*, 342–348. https://doi.org/10.1177/1043659615569537

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. (2016). *Designing qualitative research* (6th ed.). SAGE Publications.

Maslow, A. H. (1943). *A theory of human motivation*. Martino Publishing.

Maslow, A. H. (2010). The authoritarian character structure. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *18*(2), 401–411. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.1943.9918794

Mathieu, C., Fabi, B., Lacoursiere, R., & Raymond, L. (2016). The role of supervisory behavior, job satisfaction and organizational commitment on employee turnover. *Journal of Management and Organization*, *22*(1), 113–119. https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2015.25

McClelland, D. C. (1961). *The achieving society*. Cambridge University Press.

McClelland, D. C. (1987). *Human motivation*. Cambridge University Press.

McClelland, D. C. (2010). *The achieving society*. Van Nostrand Company.

McClelland, D. C., & Burnham, D. H. (2008). Power is the great motivator. *Harvard Business Review Press.*

McGinnis, J., & Ng, E. S. (2016). Money talks or millennials walk: The effect of compensation on nonprofit millennial workers sector-switching intentions. *Review of Public Personnel Administration, 36*(3), 283–305. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371x15587980

Mitchell, G. E., & Calabrese, T. D. (2018). Proverbs of nonprofit financial management. *The American Review of Public Administration*, *49*(6), 649–661. https://doi.org/10.1177/0275074018770458

Mobley, W. H., Griffeth, R. W., Hand, H. H., & Meglino, B. M. (1979). Review and conceptual analysis of the employee turnover process. *Psychological Bulletin*, *86*(3), 493–522. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.86.3.493

Moen, P., Kelly, E. L., Fan, W., Lee, S. R., Almeida, D., Kossek, E. E., & Buxton, O. M. (2016). Does a flexibility/support organizational initiative improve high-tech employees' well-being? Evidence from the work, family, and health network. *American Sociological Review*, *81*(1), 134–164. https://doi.org/10.1177/0003122415622391

Morgan-Trimmer, S., & Wood, F. (2016). Ethnographic methods for process evaluations of complex health behavior intervention. *Trails*, *17*(1), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13063-016-1340-2f

Morris, M. H., Coombes, S., Schindehutte, M., & Allen, J. (2007). Antecedents and outcomes of entrepreneurial and market orientations in a non-profit context:

Theoretical and empirical insights. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *13*(4), 12–39. https://doi.org/10.1177 /10717919070130040401

Morse, W. C., Lowery, D. R., & Steury, T. (2015). Exploring saturation of themes and spatial locations in qualitative public participation geographic information systems research. *Society and Natural Resources: An International Journal*, *27*(5), 557–571. https://doi.org/10.1080/089419203.2014.888791

Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological research methods*. SAGE Publishing.

Mowbray, P. K., Wilkinson, A., & Tse, H. H. (2015). An integrative review of employee voice: Identifying a common conceptualization and research agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *17*(3), 382–400. https://doi.org/10.111/ijmr.12045

Muehlemann, S., & Leiser, M. S. (2018). Hiring costs and labor market tightness. *Labour Economics*, *52*, 122–131. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.labeco.2018.04.010

Munyengabe, S., He, H., & Yiyi, Z. (2016). The analysis of factors and levels associated with lecturers' motivation and job satisfaction in University of Rwanda. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *7*(30), 188–200. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1118902.pdf

Myers, M. D. (2019). *Qualitative research in business and management*. SAGE Publishing.

Najjar, D., & Fares, P. (2017). Managerial motivational practices and motivational differences between blue- and white-Collar Employees: Application of Maslow's theory. *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, *8*(2),

81–84. https://doi.org/10.18178/ijimt.2017.8.2.707

National Council of Nonprofits. (2016). *Economic impact*. https://councilofnonprofits.org

Nebeker, C., Lagare, T., Takemoto, M., Lewars, B., Cist, K., Bloss, C. S., & Kerr, J. (2016). Engaging research participants to inform the ethical conduct of mobile imaging, pervasive sensing, and location tracking research. *Translational Behavior Medicine, 6*(4), 577–586. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13142-016-0426-4

Neff, W. (2017). *Work and human behavior* (3rd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315135939

Nelson, I. A., London, R. A., & Strobel, K. R. (2015). Reinventing the role of the university researcher. *Educational Researcher*, *44*(1), 17–26. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189x15570387

Nowell, L. S., Norris, J. M., White, D. E., & Moules, N. J. (2017). Thematic analysis: Striving to meet trustworthiness criteria. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 16*, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406917733847

Ng, E. S. W., Gossett, C. W., & Winter, R. (2016). Millennials and public service renewal: Introduction on Millennials and public service motivations (PSM). *Public Quarterly*, *40*(3), 412–428. https://jstor.org/stable/24772877

Noble, H., & Heale, R. (2019). Triangulation in research, with examples. *Evidence-Based Nursing*, *22*(3), 67–68. https://doi.org/10.1136/ebnurs-2019-103145

Nusem, E., Wrigley, C., & Matthews, J. (2017). Developing design capability in nonprofit organizations. *Design Issues*, *33*(1), 61–75. https://doi.org/10.1162/desi_a_00426

Nyambegera, S. M., & Gicheru, C. N. (2016). Extrinsic and intrinsic factors influencing employee motivation: Lessons from AMREF health Africa in Kenya. *International Journal of Business and Social Research*, *6*(9), 20–13. https://doi.org/10.5897/ijbsr.v6i9.985

Oludayo, O. A., Falola, H. O., Obianuju, A., & Demilade, F. (2018). Work-life balance initiative as a predictor of employees' behavioural outcomes. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, *17*. https://bit.ly/33IavQD

Osabiya, B. J. (2015). The effect of employees' motivation on organizational performance. *Journal of Public Administration and Policy Research*, *7*(4), 62–75. https://doi.org/10.5897/jpapr2014.0300

Osemeke, M., & Adegboyega, S., (2017). Critical review and comparison between Maslow, Herzberg and McClelland's theory of needs. *Funai Journal of Accounting, 1*(1), 161–173. https://bit.ly/33IarQT

Page, L., Boysen, S., & Arya, T. (2019). Creating a culture that thrives. *Organization Development Review, 5*(1), 28–35. https://bit.ly/3wT9rWh

Park, Y., Pavlou, P., & Saraf, N. (2020). Configurations for achieving organization ambidexterity with digitization. *Information Systems Research*, *31*(4), 1376–1397. https://doi.org/10.287/isre.2020.0950

Palanski, M., Avey, J. B., & Jiraporn, N. (2014). The effects of ethical leadership and abusive supervision on job search behaviors in the turnover process. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *121,* 135–146. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-013-1690-6

Palinkas, L. A. (2014). Qualitative and mixed methods in mental health services and

implementation research. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, *43*(6), 851–861. https://doi.org/10.1080/15374416.2014.910791

Pandey, P., & Asthana, P. K. (2017). An empirical study of factors influencing job satisfaction. *Indian Journal of Commerce & Management Studies*, *8*(3), 96–105. https://doi.org/10.18843/ijcms/v8i3/11

Park, T., & Pierce, B. (2020). Impacts of transformational leadership on turnover intention of child welfare workers. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *108,* 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2019.104624

Parris, D. L., Dapko, J.L., Arnold, R. W., & Arnold, D. (2016). Exploring transparency: A new framework for responsible business management. Management Decision, 54(1), 222–247. https://doi.org/10.1108/MD-07-2015-0279

Patten, M. L., & Newhart, M. (2017). *Understanding research methods: An overview of the essentials*. Taylor & Francis.

Percy, W. H., Kostere, K., & Kostere, S. (2015). Generic qualitative research in psychology. *Qualitative Report*, *20*(2), 76–85. https://nsuworks.nova.edu

Perreira, T. A., Berta, W., & Herbert, M. (2018). The employee retention triad in health care: Exploring relationships amongst organizational justice, affective commitment and turnover intention. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, *27*(7–8), e1451–e1461. https://doi.org/10.1111/JOCN.14236.

Persson, S., Blomqvist, K., Lindstrom. P. (2021). Meetings are an important prerequisite for flourishing workplace relationships. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health. 18*(15), 8092.

https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18158092

Petterson, I. J., & Solstad, E. (2021). From relationship orientation to task orientation: On the digitalization of clinical leaders. *Financial Accountability & Management*, 1-16. https://doi.org/10.1111/faam.12305

Phillippi, J., & Lauderdale, J. (2018). A guide to field notes for qualitative research: Context and conversation. *Qualitative Health Research*, *28*(3), 381–388. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732317697102

Pittino, D., Visintin, F., Lenger, T., & Sternad, D. (2016). Are high performance work practices really necessary in family SMEs? An analysis of the impact on employee retention. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, *7*(2), 75–89. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfbs.2016.04.002

Purvis, R. L., Zagenczyk, T. J., & McCray, G. E. (2015). What's in it for me? Using expectancy theory and climate to explain stakeholder participation, its direction and intensity. *International Journal of Project Management*, *33*(1), 3–14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2014.03.003

Raheim, M., Magnussen, L. H., Sekse, R. J. T., Lunde, A., Jacobsen, T., & Blystad, A. (2016). Researcher-researched relationship inn qualitative research: Shifts in positions and researcher vulnerability. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-Being*, *11*(1), 30996. https://doi.org/10.3402/qhw.v11.30996

Ranabahu, N. (2017). "Rapid" but not "raid": A reflection on the use of rapid ethnography in entrepreneurship research. *Qualitative Research Journal*, *17*(4)

254–264. https://doi.org/10.1108/QRJ-12-2015-0098

Rasskazova, E., Ivanova, T., & Sheldon, K. (2016). Comparing the effects of low-level and high-level worker need-satisfaction: A synthesis of the self-determination and Maslow need theories. *Motivation and Emotion*, *40*(4), 541–555. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11031-016-9557-7

Renz, D. O. (2016). *The Jossey-Bass handbook of nonprofit leadership and management.* John Wiley & Sons.

Riordan, C. M. (2013). We all need friends at work. *Harvard Business Review,* 3. https://doi.org/bit.ly/3dlmW9k

Rose, J., & Johnson, C. (2020). Contextualizing reliability and validity in qualitative research: toward more rigorous and trustworthy qualitative social science in leisure research. *Journal of Leisure Research, 51*(4), 432–451. https://doi.org/10.1080/00222216.2020.1722042

Rosenthal, M. (2016). Qualitative research methods: Why, when, and how to conduct interview and focus groups in pharmacy research. *Currents in Pharmacy Teaching & Learning*, *8*(4), 509–516. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cptl.2016.03.021

Rybnicek, R., Begner, S., & Gutschelhofer, A. (2019). How individual needs influence motivation effects: A neuroscientific study on McClelland's need theory. *Review of Managerial Science*, *13*(2), 443–482. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11846-017-0252-1

Sahito, Z., & Vaisanen, P. (2017). The diagonal model of job satisfaction and motivation: Extracted from the logical comparison of content and process theories.

International Journal of Higher Education, *6*(3), 209–230.

https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v6n3p209

Saldana, J. (2015). *Fundamentals of qualitative research.* OUP USA.

Salvant, M., Wycech, J., Alexander, A., Balan, N., Blas, M., Churey, M., Wood, C., Crawford, M., & Viitaniemi, S. (2020). Comparing opinions on meaningful recognition: Do views of trauma nursing leaders and staff align? *Journal of Trauma Nursing*, *27*(2), 121–127.

https://doi.org/10.1097/JTN.0000000000000495

Saunders, M., Sim, J., Kingstone, T., Baker, S., Waterfield, J., Bartlam, B., Burroughs, H., & Jinks, C. (2018). Saturation in qualitative research: Exploring its conceptualization and operationalization. *Quality & Quantity, 52*(4), 1893–1907.

https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-017-0574-8

Selden, S. C., & Sowa, J. E. (2015). Voluntary turnover in nonprofit human service organizations: The impact of high performance work practices. *Human Service Organizations: Management, Leadership & Governance*, *39*(3), 182–207.

https://doi.org/10.1080/23303131.2015.1031416

Self, D. R., & Self, T. B. (2014). Negligent retention of counterproductive employees. *International Journal of Law & Management*, *56*(3), 216–230.

https://doi.org/10.1108/ijlma07-2012-0021

Sellers, K., Leider, J. P., Harper, E., Castrucci, B. C., Bharthapudi, K., Liss-Levinson, R., & Hunter, E. L. (2015). The public health workforce interests and needs survey: The first national survey of state health agency employees. *Journal of Public*

Health Management and Practice, *21*(Suppl 6), S13–S27.

https://doi.org/10.1097/phh.0000000000000331

Shatti, L. A., Bischoff, J. E., & Willy, C. J. (2018). Investigating the effectiveness of

team communication and the balance of member contributions on knowledge

acquisition. *Knowledge Management Research & Practice*, *16*(1), 51–65,

https://doi.org/10.1080/14778238.2017.1405775

Silverman, D. (2009). *Doing qualitative research* (3rd ed.) SAGE Publishing.

Simsa, R., Rameder, P., Aghmanoukjan, A., & Totter, M. (2019). Spontaneous

volunteering in social crises: Self-organization and coordination. *Nonprofit and

Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *48*(2_suppl), 103S–122S.

Singh, T., & Behera, M. P. (2016). Application of the Maslow's hierarchy of need theory:

Impacts and implications on employee's career stages. *Training & Development

Journal*, *7*(3), 43–52. https://doi.org/10.5958/2231-069x.2016.00007.x

Slaten, C. D., Ferguson, J. K., Allen, K., Brodrick, D., & Waters, L. (2016). School

belonging: A review of the history, current trends, and future directions. *The

Educational and Developmental Psychologist*, *33*(1), 1–15.

https://doi.org/10.1017/edp.2016.6

Snyder, H. (2019). Literature review as a research methodology: An overview and

guidelines. *Journal of Business Research*, *104,* 333-339.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.07.039

Society for Human Resource Management. (2015). *2015 Employee job satisfaction and

engagement: Optimizing organizational culture for success.*

https://bit.ly/3nwrgpU

Sohn, B. K., Greenberg, K. H., Thomas, S. P., & Pollo, H. (2017). Hearing the voices of students and teachers: A phenomenological approach to educational research. *Qualitative Research in Education*, *6*(2), 121–148. https://doi.org/10.17583/qre.2017.2374

Solaja, O. M., & Ogunola, A. A. (2016). Leadership style and multigenerational workforce: A call for workplace agility in Nigerian public organizations. *Leadership*, *21*, 46–56. https://bit.ly/3fxDeuu

Southwick, S.M., & Southwick, F. S. (2020). The loss of social connectedness as a major contribution to physical burnout: Applying organizational and teamwork principles for prevention and recovery. *JAMA Psychiatry, 77*(5), 449–450. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2019.4800

Sun, R., & Wang, W. (2017). Transformational leadership, employee turnover intention, and actual involuntary turnover in public organizations. *Public Management Review*, *19*, 1124–1141. https//doi/org/10.1080/14719037.2016.1257063

Sparks, H., Collins, F. L., & Kearns, R. (2016). Reflecting on the risks and ethical dilemmas of digital research. *Geoforum, 77*, 40–46. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoforum.2016.09.019

Steinmann, B., Ötting, S. K., & Maier, G. W. (2016). Need for affiliation as a motivational add-on for leadership behaviors and managerial success. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *7*, 1–18. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01972

Townsend, K., McDonald, P., & Cathcart, A. (2017). Managing flexible work

arrangements in small not-for-profit firms: The influence of organizational size, financial constraints and workforce characteristics. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *28*(14), 2085–2107. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2015.1136671

Trnka, S. (2017). The fifty minute ethnography: Teaching theory through fieldwork. *Journal of Effective Teaching, 17*(1), 28–34. https://bit.ly/3iK443C

Turner, S. F., Cardinal, L. B., & Burton, R. M. (2017). Research design for mixed methods: A triangulation-based framework and roadmap. *Organizational Research Methods, 20*, 243–267. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428115610808

Umamaeswari, S., & Krishnan, J. (2016). Retention of employees in ceramic sanitary ware factories in India: Role of work life balance, career development, and supervisor support. *TEM Journal*, *5*(2), 217–225. https://doi.org/10.18421/tem52-15

Unemployment Services Trust. (2015). *Nonprofit employee engagement report*. https://www.nonprofitquarterly.org

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (2016). *The Belmont Report*. http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/humansubjects/guidance/belmont.html

U.S. Department of Labor. (1993). The Family Medical Leave Act of 1993. http://www.bls.gov

U.S. Department of Labor. (2016). *Job openings and labor turnover – July 2016*. http://www.bls.gov

van Rijnsoever, R. J., (2017). (I can't get no) saturation: A simulation and guidelines for

sample sized in qualitative research. *PLoS One, 12*(7), e0181689.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0181689

Vasquez, D. (2014). Employee retention for economic stabilization: A qualitative

phenomenological study in the hospitality sector. *International Journal of*

Management, Economics and Social Sciences, *3*(1), 1–17.

https://ssrn.com/abstract=2409917

Verma, N. (2017). A profile based study on McClelland's needs. *Journal of Management*

Research, 17(2). https://jmgtr.com

Vidal-Salazar, M. D., Cordón-Pozo, E., & de la Torre-Ruiz, J. M. (2016). Flexibility of

benefit systems and firms' attraction and retention capacities. *Employee*

Relations, *38*, 487–504. https://doi.org/10.1108/er-07-2015-0152

Vismara, S. (2016). Equity retention and social network theory in equity crowdfunding.

Small Business Economics, *46*(4), 579–590. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11187-016-

9710-4

Volmer, J., Schulte, E. M., Handke, L. Rodenbucer, L., & Troger, L. (2019). Do all

employees benefit from daily networking: The moderating effect of the affiliation

motive. *Journal of Career Development.*

https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845319873727

Vroom, V. (1964). *Work and motivation*. John Wiley & Sons.

Waldman, D. A., Carter, M. Z., & Hom, P. W. (2015). A multilevel investigation of

leadership and turnover behavior. *Journal of Management*, *41*(6), 1724–1744.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206312460679

Whitfill, T.M., Remick, K.E., Olson, L. M., Richards, r., Brown, K. M., Auerbach, M.A. & Gausche0Hill, M. (2020) Statewide pediatric facility recognition programs and their association with pediatric readiness in emergency departments in the United States. *The Journal of Pediatrics, 218*, 210-216. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpeds.2019.10.017

Wicker, P., & Frick, B. (2016). Recruitment and retention of referees in nonprofit sport organizations: The trickle-down effect of role models. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, *27*, 1304–1322. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11266-016-9705-4

Witmer, H., & Mellinger, M. S. (2016). Organizational resilience: Nonprofit organizations' response to change. *Work*, *54*(2), 255–265. https://doi.org/10.3233/wor-162303

Wood, A., Logar, C. M., & Riley, W. B. (2015). Initiating exporting: The role of managerial motivation in small to medium enterprises. *Journal of Business Research*, *68*, 2358–2365. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2015.03.043

Xie, C., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2014). The role of moral emotions and consumer values and traits in the decision to support nonprofits. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, *26*(4), 290–311. https://doi.org/10.1080/10495142.2014.965064

Yalabik, Z. Y., Swart, J., Kinnie, N., & van Rossenberg, Y. (2017). Multiple foci of commitment and intention to quit in knowledge-intensive organizations (KIOs): What makes professionals leave? *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *28*(2), 417–447. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1244918

Yam, L., Raybould, M., & Gordon, R. (2018). Employment stability and retention in the

    hospitality industry: Exploring the role of job embeddedness. *Journal of Human*

    Resource in Hospitality & Tourism, *17*(4), 445–464.

    https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2018.1449560

Yin, R. K. (2018). *Case study research: Design and methods* (6th ed.). SAGE Publishing.

Zafar, N., Naem, M. N, Zehra, A. (2020). Professional team response to violence against

    children: From experts to teamwork. *Child Abuse & Neglect,* 10477.

    https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2020.104777

Zyphur, M. J., & Pierides, D. C. (2017). Is quantitative research ethical? Tools for

    ethically practicing, evaluating, and using quantitative research. *Journal of*

    Business Ethics, *143*, 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-017-3549-8

Appendix A: Participation Email

Dear [Name],

My name is Ebonee Shaw and I am a student at Walden University seeking a Doctor of Business Administration degree with a focus on Social Impact Management. As a requirement for completion of my doctoral degree, I am collecting research for a dissertation entitled "Retention Strategies for Human Service Nonprofit Employees". I am seeking three nonprofit leaders of human service agencies in north county of St. Louis, MO to complete the study and I would be grateful if you would consider taking the time to do an interview via Zoom.

Retention of nonprofit employees allows agencies to provide uninterrupted social services to clients in the community, which improves human and social conditions. Participation in this study will help highlight successful strategies to increase retention in the nonprofit industry. The findings of this research may be used in future publications.

This study is voluntary. Each interview will take about an hour. The interview will consist of questions related to retention strategies within your nonprofit agency. All responses are confidential and will be used only for this study. Details that identify the participant will be protected in the reporting of results. By participating it is not anticipated that you will assume any risk. You will be free to withdraw at any time, even after the interview is complete.

Participant identity, organization identity and location will be not be in the reporting of results. Identities of participants and agencies will be suppressed by replacing names with codes or pseudonyms.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact Ebonee Shaw ███████████████████ I will also contact you within the next 5 days to answer any questions that you may have to ask and to ask for your participation.

If you are willing to participate, please respond to this email with, "I agree to participate in the interview process."

Name   _____

Role/Title   _____

Name & Location of Nonprofit Agency   _____

Participated in retention strategies   YES [ ]   NO [ ]

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Respectfully,

Ebonee F. Shaw
Doctoral Candidate
Doctor of Business Administration Program
Walden University

Appendix B: Interview Protocol

The purpose of the interview is to obtain analytical data regarding the phenomenon of voluntary employee turnover in direct service nonprofit agencies. The participants in this research will be three leaders at nonprofit agencies in the North St. Louis County region of the Greater St. Louis area. I will adhere to the following protocol to ensure consistency and quality:

1. I will begin by introducing myself. My name is Ebonee Shaw, and I am a Walden University doctoral student. I will begin by describing the purpose of the study with an estimated interview time of about an hour.

2. I will provide two copies of the consent form for review and offer the opportunity to ask questions they may have prior to typing their name and replying to the email, "I Consent." The participant will be advised to keep a copy of the agreed upon consent form and email.

3. I will inform the participant that the interview will be recorded via Zoom record feature, with a reminder that the participant may terminate the interview at any time for any reason.

4. Noting the date and time, I will request verbal permission from the participant to begin recording.

5. I will use the interview questions in Appendix D, using the exact wording and order for each participant to ensure consistency.

    a. I will watch for nonverbal cues and body language

     b.   I will ask follow-up probing questions to get more in-depth responses.

6. After asking and receiving an answer to each interview question, I will conclude the interview by stopping the Zoom recording, and thanking the participant. The participant will be reminded that it is my responsibility to protect the identity of both them and their nonprofit organization. Also, I will be keeping all data for 5 years on a password encrypted external drive for which only I will have access. After 5 years, the data will be destroyed.

7. I will inform the participant that I will playback the recording of the interview and within a week provide a summary of your responses for each question. I will ask for confirmation, by responding to my e-mail, that the information is accurate. The participant will be able to confirm if I have missed any information or to add any additional information.

Follow-Up Member Checking

I will send an email to each participant individually with a summary of their responses.

(Email content): I have reviewed the recording of your interview; a summary of your answers from the recorded interview is included in this message. Please confirm by email if this information is correct for the following questions. Please let me know if I have missed anything and if there is anything you would like me to add.

1. Question, summarized response and synthesis of the interview interpretation as needed.

2. Question, summarized response and synthesis of the interview interpretation as needed.

3. Question, summarized response and synthesis of the interview interpretation as needed.

4. Question, summarized response and synthesis of the interview interpretation as needed.

5. Question, summarized response and synthesis of the interview interpretation as needed.

6. Question, summarized response and synthesis of the interview interpretation as needed.

7. Question, summarized response and synthesis of the interview interpretation as needed.

8. Question, summarized response and synthesis of the interview interpretation as needed.

Appendix C: Interview Selection Time

Dear Leader,

Several interview date options are listed below for Zoom interviews. Please select three different dates that will be feasible for your schedule. Return the options to Ebonee Shaw via email at ███████████████████ at your earliest convenience to confirm the first mutually agreeable date and time. Each phone interview will be conducted in February 2021. Please select from the following dates and include available times.

1. Monday, February 1, 2021   [ ]   Times: _____

2. Tuesday, February 2, 2021   [ ]   Times: _____

3. Wednesday, February 3, 2021   [ ]   Times: _____

4. Thursday, February 4, 2021   [ ]   Times: _____

5. Friday, February 5, 2021   [ ]   Times: _____

6. Monday, February 8, 2021   [ ]   Times: _____

7. Tuesday, February 9, 2021   [ ]   Times: _____

8. Wednesday, February 10, 2021   [ ]   Times: _____

9. Thursday, February 11, 2021   [ ]   Times: _____

10. Friday, February 12, 2021   [ ]   Times: _____

Respectfully,
Ebonee F. Shaw

Appendix D: Interview Questions

Research Question

Which strategies have effectively reduced employee turnover in nonprofit organizations?

Interview Questions

1. Describe the strategies you use to retain employees in your nonprofit organization?

2. Please describe how these strategies have been successful in increasing employee retention.

3. How did your organization assess the effectiveness of the strategies for increasing retention?

4. Have you considered using employee behaviors and patterns in assigning job positions or duties?

5. What challenges has your agency faced regarding turnover with front line employees? How did you address these challenges?

6. What challenges has your agency faced regarding turnover within the management team? How did you address these challenges?

7. What were the key barriers to implementing your organization's strategies for employee retention?

8. What additional information can you share that is related to successful employee retention strategies?

Follow-up questions will be used as necessary to probe for additional details.