

THE IMPACT OF MOTIVATION AND LEADER BEHAVIOR ON SATISFACTION IN NONPROFITS

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ABSTRACT

How employees of nonprofit organizations are motivated and satisfied may still be unclear. If the nonprofit environment attracts different employees than for-profits, is it safe to view motivation the same? The impact of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and supervisor style is examined in several nonprofit social service organizations. Surprising results indicate that intrinsically motivated employees were the least satisfied but were more likely to be able to clearly describe their supervisor's style, while extrinsically motivated employees were more satisfied with their supervisor regardless of style.

INTRODUCTION

Increasingly, leaders of nonprofit organizations are adopting mainstream motivation approaches for performance and satisfaction improvements. This practice is not surprising as nonprofits strive to improve managerial accountability combined with efficient operations much like other organizations. But considerably less research has been done regarding the effects of motivation, leadership and satisfaction as they apply to nonprofit organizations. A growing number of studies have suggested that nonprofits differ in several respects. For example, the availability of certain motivational rewards may be limited (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007); they may be characterized as having a disproportionate number of employees that are intrinsically motivated (Leete, 2000); and nonprofit employees may respond more favorably to specific types of leader behaviors (Zeffane, 1994). Even aspects of job satisfaction have been shown to be unique (Gagne & Deci, 2005). So, if nonprofits are different, how might the interaction of motivation, leadership and satisfaction differ in this environment?

Considerable research already exists as applied to traditional organizations. Where our current understanding might not be complete is the interplay of motivation, leadership and satisfaction in a different environment. For example, there have been increasingly numerous studies on the effect that some psychological variables have on both extrinsic motivation (motivation caused by rewards external to the job) and intrinsic motivation (motivation caused by internal feelings and rewards offered by the job). This is particularly noteworthy given that part of the attraction to nonprofits is that the nature of the work is often intrinsically satisfying and research suggests that nonprofits attract employees that are intrinsically motivated (Leete, 2000; Zeffane, 1994). This raises questions concerning the application of standard management techniques to motivate and retain valued employees in this environment. For example, using approaches such as merit pay systems has been shown to have a detrimental effect on intrinsic motivation (Reiss, 2004; Ruhm & Borkoski, 2003; Leete, 2001; Werner & Gemeinhardt, 1995; Rocco, 1992). Other common motivational approaches such as behavior modification programs that emphasize positive

reinforcement may have the same effect on intrinsic motivation as merit pay systems (Deci, Ryan & Koestner, 2001; Leeper, Henderlong & Gringras, 1999; Leeper & Henderlong, 2000).

Research on leadership has identified moderator variables that serve as neutralizers or enhancers to leader behaviors such as elements of the employee (experience, ability, training) and elements of the task (clear directions, routine, feedback) etc. (see Howell, Dorfman & Kerr, 1986 for initial work). The possibility that other elements influence the relationship between rewards (especially intrinsic) and the leaders influence has received some attention (Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Farh, Podsakoff & Cheng, 1987; Madlock, 2008; Zhang & Bartol, 2010) but only as a minor variable and not with respect to nonprofit organizations in particular. It is possible that intrinsic rewards may complicate the relationship between employees and their leader to the point that leader influence may be compromised if an inverse relationship appears between the intrinsic aspects of the reward and the control effectiveness of the leader. If this is found to be the case, the management of nonprofits, especially with respect to leader control and influence, may be more complicated than earlier thought. Ultimately, the possible relationship between leadership and performance suggests further studies focus on the performance – motivation link (Howell & Avolio, 1993).

This article attempts to further our understanding by examining the moderators of leader effectiveness in nonprofit organizations.

BACKGROUND

Leader Approach

Interest in identifying factors that influence leader effectiveness has existed for decades. Much of the current research began in the early 1900's when Trait Theory sought to identify characteristics that separated those individuals with leadership potential from those without (for review, see Stogdill, 1974). Initial research on moderators of leader behaviors began in the 60's following dissatisfaction with trait theories. Early moderators included task structure, quality of interaction between the leader and organization members, and the position power of the leader (Fiedler, 1967, 1978). Since then, other research proposed a variety of variables that may moderate the relationship between leader and subordinates. These factors include elements of the subordinate, supervisor, task, role, and the organization. Each has prompted considerable attention in the literature, primarily as they apply to traditional for-profit organizations.

More recently, contingent factors such as behaviors, situations, and others have been examined with a considerable amount of research devoted to identifying moderator variables as research has shown the relationship of leadership styles to worker motivation (Fiedler, 1967; Stogdill, 1963; 1974; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). This focus became more important with the development of contingency theories in the 1960's (Fiedler, 1967, 1978; House, 1971; House & Mitchell, 1974, 1979; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Kerr, 1977; Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). Research on variables that moderate leader effectiveness is well grounded in early theories such as Path-Goal theory (House, 1971) where initiating structure and consideration behaviors were moderating variables. Later research (Kerr & Jermier, 1978) followed with an expanded model that included several variables of the task, subordinates, and the organization. Included in the list is a person's need for independence and indifference toward organizational rewards (subordinate characteristics) and intrinsically satisfying tasks (task characteristic). Intrinsically motivating

work was also identified as a potential moderator of leader effectiveness by Yukl (1981) in his Multiple Linkage Model. Childers, Dubinsky and Skinner (1990) and Holdnak, Harsh and Bushardt (1993) examined leader behavior style and job satisfaction; while Anderson, Madlock and Hoffman (2006) linked leaders behavior to group satisfaction. Pool (1997) examined leader style with motivation and Zhang (2010) examined the relationship of empowering leadership and the impact on intrinsic motivation and performance.

While much research contends that a supervisor's style has an effect on employee behavior (Bass, 1981; Stogdill, 1974), the effect of employee characteristics on this relationship and subsequent performance and satisfaction is largely unknown.

Intrinsic – Extrinsic Motivation

People engage in organizational activities for a number of reasons including monetary, self satisfaction, felt obligation, and social. The degree to which participation is based on interest, the task or some other factor differs considerably from one person to another. While some people may enjoy the satisfaction of the process, others derive a sense of fulfillment from task accomplishment. Still others receive satisfaction from either the primary or secondary rewards they receive after task completion. The complexities of how these interact may further make it difficult to understand just what motivates at all.

Despite the variety of motivators, early work by White (1959, 1961) examined the issue of curiosity, which helped strengthen our understanding of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. Deci and Ryan (1985) draw on this research to more clearly distinguish motivation driven by intrinsic motives. Their research proposes that people engage in behavior that is intrinsically motivating in order to feel competent. In other words, they have a need to experience personal causation (Kelly, 1967). Other research has found a link between intrinsic motivation and paid work engagement (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004), public sector employee satisfaction (Leete, 2000), and performance related extrinsic rewards (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010).

When people engage in actions for instrumental reasons, such as gaining a reward offered, they have been motivated by extrinsic factors. Such reward has been referred to as a controlled form of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In fact, Deci and Ryan proposed that motivation differs in degree of self-determination. The range is from the most controlled form of motivation (external regulation) which represents behavior directed by external demands to the least controlled form of motivation (intrinsic motivation) where motivation is simply a result of personal enjoyment of the activity. In between these extremes are two categories that represent combinations of both. Introjected regulation, closest to extrinsic, still results from external demands but the individual internalizes some elements of self satisfaction. Identified regulation, closest to intrinsic, is based more on internalized motives such as a personally satisfying task than external demands. This model of intrinsic – extrinsic motivation provides a framework to examine employee motivation, especially in nonprofit organizations that some say attract those seeking intrinsically satisfying activities (Smith 1995; Light 2000a; Salamon 2002). Subsequent work by Gagne and Deci (2005) has identified the specific intrinsic motivators (autonomy, competence and relatedness) that positively affect work attitudes and motivation and the support for a positive link between specific leader behaviors and intrinsic motivation (Stone, Deci & Ryan, 2009).

With respect to nonprofit organizations, the limited motivation research that does exist has mostly focused on the impact pay systems have on intrinsic motivation (Cameron & Pierce, 1994; Calder

& Staw, 1975; Tang & Hall, 1995; Deckop & Cirka, 2000; Wright, 2007; and Perry, Hondeghem & Wise, 2010). This research has particularly emphasized the possible moderating effect extrinsic rewards have on the psychological variables critical to intrinsic motivation. This impact on intrinsic motivation has been the subject of numerous articles including: Frey and Oberholzer-Gee's (1997) and Frey and Jegen's (2001) work on crowding effect; Deci and Ryan's (1985) and Gagne and Deci's (2005) cognitive evaluation theory and self-determination theory; Lepper and Green's (1978) overjustification effect; and Amabile (1993) and Deci, Koestner & Ryan's (1999) work examining how tangible rewards undermine intrinsic interest in the task. These authors each recognized a reduction of intrinsic satisfaction when the extrinsic reward (pay) is involved.¹ At minimum, this effect has important implications for the performance and satisfaction of employees and is especially important with regard to nonprofit organizations.

METHOD

Questionnaires were solicited to 914 employees of nonprofit social service organizations located across the country. Employees were told that their participation would help provide a better understanding of the unique needs of agencies and their employees. They were also told that their responses would be completely anonymous. They completed the 28 question instrument online and submitted their responses electronically. Of the 914 employees, 389 completed the questionnaire with 15 failing to answer at least one question. The final number of questionnaires used in the analysis was 374 which represent a 41% response rate.

MEASURES

The questionnaire was created from two well known instruments extensively used in leadership and motivation research. Motivation was measured using an abbreviated version of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). The JDS is a time tested measure of the relationship of job characteristics and the conditions under which employees elicit motivation, satisfaction, and productive behavior. The JDS is based on the framework of the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) showing the interaction of job characteristics, individual employee elements, and work and personal outcomes. It has been extensively studied and shown to confirm (among others) the existence of strong personal relationships between job characteristics and internal work motivation (Boonzaier, Ficker & Rust, 2001). The JDS being the primary instrument for the JCM is an appropriate measure for the variables under study here.

Eleven items from the JDS were measured on a 1 (very inaccurate) to 7 (very accurate) point scales. Only items directly measuring intrinsic and extrinsic motivation from section three and five on the JDS were included in the final version. Six items were selected to measure intrinsic motivation with reverse scored items (negatively worded) corrected as suggested by Idaszak and Dragow (1987). Of these six, two each measure introjected regulation, identified regulation, and intrinsic regulation as suggested by Ryan and Deci (2000). This permitted a more thorough examination of intrinsic motivation and the calculation of the Relative Autonomy Index (RAI) as suggested by Ryan and Connell (1989) to measure autonomous motivation.

Aspects of the supervisor were measured using a modified version of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Stogdill, 1963). A review of the literature specific to leader behavior and styles reveals a number of possible measures as appropriate (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Fiedler, 1967, Northouse, 2001). The LBDQ was selected for a number of reasons. The instrument is based on the work of Fleishman (1957) and Stogdill (1963) which formed part of

the basis for Path-Goal Theory (House, 1971) one of the most respected theories of leader behavior. The primary elements measured by the LBDQ are leader styles of consideration and initiating structure. Initiating structure is a leader style characterized by attention to detail, defining employee activities, communication of performance standards, and otherwise directing work behavior. Consideration is characterized by creating a supportive, interactive work environment as well as showing concern for employees, engaging in two-way communication, and otherwise sharing the work environment more like equals.

Studies have shown that initiating structure influences felt responsibility levels in employees (Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell & Black, 1990; Luthans, 1987) and research on consideration has linked it to goal accomplishment (Kanter, 1968; Randall & Cote, 1991) and increased job satisfaction (Holdnak, Harsh & Bushardt, 1993; Childers, Dubinsky & Skinner, 1990). Both leader styles have also been shown to improve attitudes and change behavior of employees (Teas & Horrell, 1981. Yukl, 1981). Overall, the LBDQ has also been presented as a reliable and valid measure of leader styles and behaviors by a number of studies (Teas, 1981; Kohli, 1989), and it continues to be considered an effective measure of leader styles (Dale & Fox, 2008).

In addition to the JDS and LBDQ items, three items were used to measure respondent satisfaction with supervisor effectiveness, and four items were added to collect background information on position in the organization, length of time employed, type of pay received (hourly, salaried, bonus/merit), and sex of respondent.

It is proposed that intrinsic motivation and leader style alters the relationship between employee and supervisor (see Figure 1). Specifically, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1a: Intrinsic motivation will be negatively associated with satisfaction with the supervisor.

Hypothesis 1b: Extrinsic motivation will be positively associated with satisfaction with the supervisor.

Hypothesis 2a: An inverse relationship exists between IS leader style and intrinsic motivation.

Hypothesis 2b: An inverse relationship exists between Consideration supervisor style and extrinsic motivation.

The relationship between motivation and supervisor style on satisfaction (Figure 2) represents hypothesis 3:

Hypothesis 3a: Intrinsically motivated people with a Consideration style supervisor will rate supervisor satisfaction high.

Hypothesis 3b: Intrinsically motivated people with an Initiating Structure style supervisor will rate supervisor satisfaction low.

Hypothesis 3c: Extrinsically motivated people with a Consideration style supervisor will rate supervisor satisfaction low.

Hypothesis 3d: Extrinsically motivated people with an Initiating Structure supervisor style will rate supervisor satisfaction high.

Figure 1 – Inverse Relationship between Leader Behavior and Motivation with Satisfaction

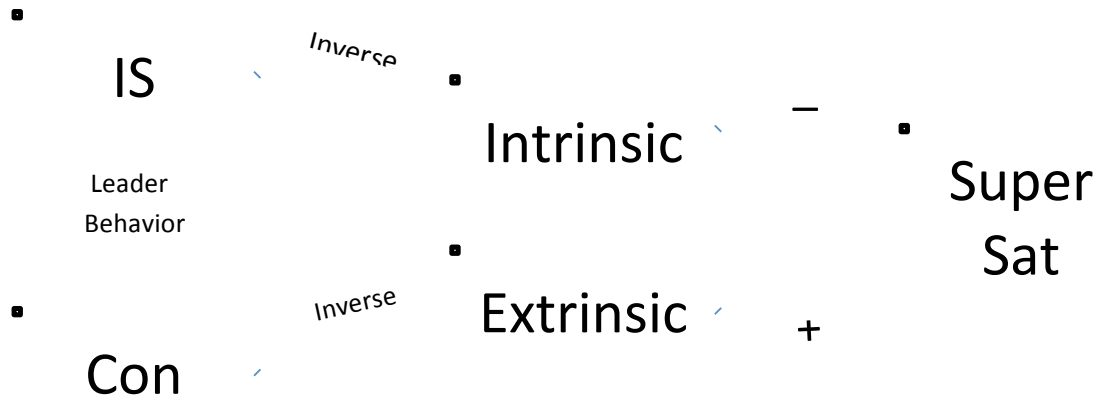


Figure 2 – Leader Behavior, Motivation, and Satisfaction Relationship

Leader Behavior		Motivation Source		Result		
Con	+	Intrinsic	-	>	High	3a
	+	Extrinsic	-	>	Low	3c
IS	+	Intrinsic	-	>	Low	3b
	+	Extrinsic	-	>	High	3d

Analysis

Of the 374 surveys completed, 62% of the respondents were in staff positions, 12% supervisory, 16% middle management, and 10% in upper management. Most have been with their organization for over ten years (36%), while 20% for 6 – 10 years, 31% 1 – 5 years, and 13% for less than 1 year. The majority are paid hourly (62%), with 31% on salary and the remainder on some combination of hourly or salary with merit possibilities. The vast majority of the sample was female (86%) with males at 14%.

Descriptive statistics are listed in Table 1. The survey instrument measured the variables under study which included motivation (extrinsic and intrinsic), supervisor style (Consideration and Initiating Structure), and satisfaction with the supervisor. Extrinsic motivation was measured using five items adapted from the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Internal consistency was measured using Cronbach’s Alpha ($\alpha = .65$). Intrinsic motivation was measured using six items modified from the JDS to measure Introjected, Identified, and Intrinsic regulation as suggested by Ryan and Deci (2000). Two items each were used for Introjected ($\alpha = .76$), Identified ($\alpha = .87$), and Intrinsic ($\alpha = .82$).

Table 1 - Means, standard deviations, and correlations of all variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>
1 Ext	16.62	5.40										
2 Intro	12.04	2.73	0.08									
3 Id	12.78	2.62	0.04	0.85								
4 Int	12.73	2.36	0.04	0.80	0.90							
5 Con	11.38	4.61	-0.14	-0.12	-0.12	-0.15						
6 IS	11.70	3.66	-0.20	-0.09	-0.07	-0.03	0.56					
7 Sup	7.67	4.93	0.55	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.04	-0.05				
8 Ten	2.78	0.06	-0.05	-0.03	-0.04	0.00	0.00	0.06	-0.07			
9 Pay	1.78	1.03	0.03	-0.01	0.00	0.00	-0.10	0.10	-0.01	0.30		
10 Pos	1.73	1.05	0.03	0.08	0.09	0.10	-0.09	0.12	-0.10	0.36	0.61	
11 Sex	1.86	0.02	0.11	0.04	0.02	-0.01	-0.04	-0.10	0.04	0.03	-0.01	-0.09
N = 374												
Note: Ext = Extrinsic; Intro = Introjected; Id = Identified; Int = Intrinsic; Con = Consideration; IS = Initiating Structure; Sup = Satisfaction with supervisor; Ten = tenure; Pay = pay approach; Pos = position level; sex = sex of respondent												

Leader style was measured using ten items modified from the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Stogdill, 1963). Five items measured Consideration ($\alpha = .91$) and five items measured Initiating Structure ($\alpha = .75$). Use of the JDS permitted the calculation of an overall Motivating Potential Score (MPS). The MPS has been proposed as a measure of the internal motivation as they relate to the core job dimensions (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). This measure, originally formulated as a multiplication model has also been used as an unweighted additive model with similar results (Evans & Ondrack, 1991). Using an approach similar to Evans & Ondrack, an MPS value was calculated for this sample ($M = 25.5$, range 1 – 28), see Table 2. For comparison, a Relative Autonomy Index (RAI) was calculated which weights each type of motivation for autonomy using the Ryan and Deci (2000) intrinsic continuum. $RAI = 2(\text{intrinsic}) + 1(\text{identified}) - 1(\text{introjected}) - 2(\text{external})$, (Ryan & Connell, 1989). The RAI was calculated for this study ($M = 5.39$, range -18 - +18). The RAI and MPS indexes were positively correlated ($r = .58, p < .05$) as were the measures of intrinsic motivation with RAI ($r = .59$) and MPS ($r = .97$). As a check on Ryan and Deci’s extrinsic – intrinsic continuum, correlations were calculated on RAI and extrinsic ($r = -.61$), introjected ($r = .28$), identified ($r = .54$), and intrinsic ($r = .59$). Interestingly, higher correlations were found when these items were compared to the additive version of the MPS ($r = .04, r = .85, r = .98, r = .97$). Overall, support

for the measures of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation as well as the index measures of MPS and RAI was found.

Table 2 - RAI and MPS Correlations

	RAI	MPS
Extrinsic	-0.61	0.04
Introjected	0.28	0.85
Identified	0.58	0.98
Intrinsic	0.59	0.97
Average	5.39	25.50
Range	-18 - +18	1 – 28

Note: RAI = 2(Intrinsic) + 1(Identified) - 1(Introjected) - 2(Extrinsic)
 MPS = Unweighted additive version

Three items measured satisfaction with the supervisor on a seven point scale ($\alpha = .98$), along with four additional items collecting information on position, pay, tenure, and sex.

Hypothesis 1a proposing that a negative relationship exists between intrinsic motivation and satisfaction with supervisor was not supported. However, identified regulation, the closest item to intrinsic motivation on the extrinsic – intrinsic continuum according to Ryan and Deci (2000), was positively correlated with the intrinsic motivation measures used in this study ($r = .903$). As was Introjected regulation and Identified regulation ($r = .847$), and introjected and intrinsic ($r = .805$, all at $p < .001$ level).

Hypothesis 1b proposing a positive relationship between extrinsic motivation and satisfaction with supervisor was supported ($r = .55$, $p < .001$).

Hypothesis 2a proposing an inverse relationship between the IS leader style and intrinsic motivation, and hypothesis 2b proposing an inverse relationship between extrinsic motivation and Consideration leader style both failed to be supported.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that motivation and leader style will combine to influence satisfaction with supervisor. Factorial analysis of variance was used to examine the relationship between motivation, leader style and satisfaction with supervisor. Extrinsic motivation was measured using results from the regression analysis. Specifically, an estimate of extrinsic motivation was calculated as 1 standard deviation above the mean. For intrinsic motivation, 1 standard deviation above the mean was outside the range, so the highest possible score on the intrinsic scale was used. For supervisor style, a similar calculation was performed with Consideration and Initiating Structure each calculated as 1 standard deviation below the mean (on the LBDQ lower scores describe supervisor style).

Hypothesis 3a proposing that intrinsically motivated people with a consideration style supervisor would rate their satisfaction with supervisor high was not supported.

Hypothesis 3b proposing that intrinsically motivated people with an initiating structure supervisor would rate satisfaction with supervisor low was not supported.

Hypothesis 3c proposing that extrinsically motivated people with a consideration style supervisor would rate satisfaction with supervisor low was not supported. In fact, significant results supported just the opposite.

Hypothesis 3d proposing that extrinsically motivated people with an initiating structure supervisor would rate satisfaction with supervisor high was supported.

Finally, controlling for length of time with the organization, level of position held, or the type of pay system used showed no significant relationships.

Discussion

The increase of nonprofit organizations, both in number and in size, has brought with it a need to understand their differences, if any, from for-profit organizations. This study examined the role that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation may play with regard to both supervisor style and satisfaction with supervisor.

Extrinsically motivated employees were more likely to rate their satisfaction with their supervisor higher than intrinsically motivated employees, by a significant margin. Combining the separate continuum measures of intrinsic motivation (introjected, identified, and intrinsic regulation) still results in extrinsically motivated employees rating their satisfaction with supervisor higher. All other measures of motivation showed no particular relationship with satisfaction. In fact, the correlation of Intrinsic motivation to satisfaction with supervisor was almost zero indicating that intrinsic motivation had almost no influence. Lack of support for the impact of intrinsic motivation suggests that other factors may influence the relationship, or the number of employees measured clearly as intrinsic in this study ($n = 24$) is insufficient to show any trend. Although, the data tends to show that intrinsically motivated respondents were more likely to clearly report their leaders as both IS and Consideration more than extrinsically motivated respondents. An additional analysis examining supervisor style (consideration and initiating structure) with satisfaction did not show any relationship or add any clarity to the motivation – satisfaction relationship.

It was expected that intrinsic motivation would substitute, or at minimum influence the relationship between the supervisor and the employee (Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Yukl 1981; Millette & Gagne, 2008; and others). Specifically, it was expected that intrinsically motivated employees more than extrinsically motivated employees would be more likely to work for consideration style supervisors and extrinsically motivated employees would more likely work for initiating structure supervisors. That was not the case with this sample. If, in fact, there is a mismatch with employee motivation and supervisor style, it should be apparent in the analysis of hypothesis 3 which examines motivation, supervisor style and satisfaction with supervisor.

Factor analysis examining hypothesis 3 did show significant results. Extrinsically motivated employees with an initiating structure supervisor did, in fact, rate supervisors significantly higher ($M = 16$) than intrinsically motivated employees with the same style supervisor ($M = 6.8$). Even

with a consideration style supervisor they rated their satisfaction higher ($M = 11.2$) than intrinsically motivated employees ($M = 5.6$). The fact that extrinsically motivated employees seem to be more satisfied with their supervisors may be a function of a number of factors including their expectation of external rewards or their comfort level with respect to control (Kerr & Slocum, 1981). This may be one explanation for the higher rating given to the IS style.

Two possible consequences of this involve the impact on intrinsic motivation, often considered a motivator for employees of nonprofit organizations. In one case, the danger is if the external reward structure is altered. Research has shown that the potential for productivity decline may increase if the reward structure is altered because employees may possess even less intrinsic motivation (Leeper & Greene, 1978; Fisher, 1978; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Wiersma, 1992; and others). Should that happen, the dependency on extrinsic rewards certainly suggests organizations should be cautious regarding their use of external rewards and recognize the potential trap they may pose.

On the other hand, some research has suggested that if the external rewards are structured in such a way that provide positive feedback about job performance, the impact on intrinsic motivation might be just the opposite (Cameron & Pierce, 1994; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan and Deci, 1996). Perhaps then, it is the form of the external rewards that organizations should be cautious of, not necessarily whether they are intrinsic or extrinsic. In any case, the employees clearly describing their supervisor as either consideration or initiating structure, and also rating themselves as extrinsically motivated was relatively small compared to those rating themselves as intrinsically motivated. If this is the case in other nonprofit organizations, the issue of impact may not be of major consequence.

Finally, the least satisfied group was intrinsically motivated employees with a consideration style supervisor. Interesting, this was also the largest group ($n = 32$) as intrinsically motivated employees able to clearly describe their supervisor as one style or the other outnumbered extrinsics by a 6 to 1 margin.

Although the sample size for this study was not small ($n = 374$), future research should attempt to obtain a larger sample of employees that clearly describe their supervisors as one style of the other. Initial indications here suggest that although intrinsic motivation may indeed be one of the underlying factors that attract people to nonprofits, those same employees might become disenchanted given the impact supervisors have on their satisfaction. In contrast, those motivated by extrinsic factors are more satisfied overall but are especially so with an initiating structure supervisor.

ENDNOTES

ⁱ At least one study reports that extrinsically motivated employees may be more satisfied with their job when they earn higher pay (Malka & Chatman, 2003) although this was not supported by Vansteenkiste, Neyrinck, Niemiec, Soenens, De Witte, & Van den Broeck, (2007).

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PROMOTING EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR ALL – THE PHILLIS WHEATLEY LEGACY!

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the life and contributions of Phillis Wheatley. She is a prime example of an individual who used the opportunities provided to her to seek knowledge and how she used that knowledge to improve her status in society. Her writings of poetry and recognition in the United States and Europe as an accomplished scholar show that she was able to overcome the prejudices and slave position of her era to show that African Americans were and are very capable of creative thinking, accomplished scholarship, and being contributing members of society in similar ways to all members of our global society.

This paper will specifically call attention to Phillis Wheatley's life, education, and writings of poetry. She is the first African American to become a published poet. Her journey from Senegal to her new life as a slave in the New World will be highlighted. Finally, her success as a poet and contributor to African American literature and heritage is an accomplishment that shows what a person can do when provided with the freedom to think and contribute.

INTRODUCTION

Phillis Wheatley is known as one of the most highly regarded poet dating back to colonial America. Her status as an accomplished poet is defies the fact that she was an African American slave. Because of that distinction, she shares an important place in the history of African Americans who have been discriminated against as not being capable of such high magnitude of literary accomplishment. She stands as an example of what a person can accomplish, regardless of race or status of servitude, when provided with the opportunity to learn and apply one's intelligence and creative thinking to become an educated and contributing member of any society.

HISTORY

Phillis Wheatley was born in 1753 in the West African nation of Gambia (Senegal). At the age of eight, she was kidnapped and sold into slavery. She was brought to Massachusetts and was sold to the Wheatley family of Boston in 1761. The Wheatleys, some research states, adopted her and Mrs. Wheatley wanted to educate her so that she would be beholden to her and remain loyal to the family. Phillis, as a result, learned to read and write and proved to be extremely intelligent and creative. She took up writing poetry and found the writing experiences refreshing and worthwhile. It's her poetry that allowed her to be noticed. The Wheatley's daughter, Mary, taught Phillis how "to speak English and then tutored her in reading and writing" (Robinson, n.d.). The Wheatley's son, Nathaniel was also involved in teaching Phillis Latin and by the age of twelve, Phillis was able to read and write and study "the Greek and Latin classics" (Robinson, n. d.).

The Wheatleys realized Phillis' interest in poetry when they noticed her writing with chalk on a wall and were surprised but interested in the discovery to find that she was talented. So, they

encouraged her writing and in fact, the Wheatleys daughter taught Phillis to read “English literature, Latin, and the Bible” (americaslibrary.gov). The Newport Mercury newspaper did publish her first poem in 1767.

In 1773, she was diagnosed as asthmatic and her physician recommended that she take a voyage to improve her health. As a result of this diagnosis, she joined her adopted brother for a trip to London, England. Historians say that because England had a law that stated that any slave came to England would be free, it is assumed that Phyllis won her freedom in that matter. However, others say that Mrs. Wheatley wrote for Phillis to come back to Boston because she was ill and needed her help. As a result, Phillis again became a slave servant (college.hmco.com). (Phillis Wheatley was manumitted or freed by October 18, 1773 according to some accounts).

According to some researchers, Mrs. Wheatley had written in her will that when she died Phillis should be freed. However it happened, it is true that Phillis did win her freedom and was able to wed a black freeman named John in 1778. Her husband was very poor and could not provide adequately for her. Given her success at writing poetry, Phillis was also not successful at providing for her and her husband. Her husband had to dodge creditors because he could not find enough work to pay his debts. As a result, Phillis and her children suffered in poverty. She and her family were forced to move into an African-American boardinghouse where her children died from illnesses and made her very sick. She was abandoned by her husband and she died very young on December 5, 1784, at the age of 31!

While in London, England, Phillis met an influential lady named Selina Hastings who was the Countess of Huntingdon. The Countess was very impressed with Phillis and her poetry and used her influence to get the poems printed and published in book form (Alward, 2004). The book’s title was: Poems on Various Subject, Religion and Moral. The publication of this book in Europe provided Phillis with a European exposure that made her well known in this continent.

Although Phillis’ poems reflected her orthodox piety and is best known for her Christian verses, her poems included a variety of topics. She wrote many political oriented poems which dealt with events that happened in Boston during the American revolution but were ignored. Because of the numerous political poems that she wrote, Phillis is seen as having a real interest in the political goings on of her time. Additionally, critics believe that her political poems heaped lots of praise to well known political leaders like George Washington, Ben franklin, and Thomas Paine, among others, because she felt safe to do so and avoided confrontation. As a result, her poems were recognized and accepted, even though they were written by an African American slave.

CONCLUSIONS

Phillis was a strong woman as shown by her ability to override the beliefs of that time about slavery and black Africans. Her poetry had to be examined by influential white men in order to be recognized and given their due notice.

It is the determination of researchers that Phillis was able to be successful at a period of our country’s history when the color of a person’s skin decided whether or not a person was a piece of property or not and whether a person was worthy of notice or not based on the same premise. Since color was what was used to determine how a person was looked upon, Phillis was an exception. She used her recognition to her advantage and submitted her poems to publishers based on her talent and intellect (onlineessays.com).

Phillis proved that a slave was able to use her intellect to read, write, and publish at a most difficult time in history. That alone is noteworthy in history. In fact, she was able to convince the

likes of Benjamin Franklin and Benjamin Rush to give her public support. She was not without critics, just like other writers of her time. Thomas Jefferson, for example, did not prize the quality of her poems. However, modern critics cannot dismiss the fact that she was the first African American to publish a book of poems, being recognized both in the United States and Europe as an accomplished poet, and, finally, being one of the first women writers of that early period of time in American history.

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Engaging and Motivating Students: Five research based models/approaches for engaging students to be productive!

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines five research based models for engaging students in learning in meaningful, constructive, and positive ways. Various models present ideas about actions teachers and administrators can take in helping students to adjust to their learning environments with positive attitudes, increased motivation, high academic performance, excellent attendance record, being able to successfully meet the State and Federal requirements for standardized testing, and successfully passing on to the next level of their education.

The five models discussed include: 1) School Connectedness, 2) Task Choice and Goal Setting, 3) Guided Inquiry, 4) productive and Inclusive Climate, and 5) Attribution Theory. All five of these models have relevant and important ideas to strengthening, motivating, supporting and engaging students in ways that will allow them to feel connected to their schools in more dynamic and realistic ways which may result in better learning outcomes.

INTRODUCTION

Engaging and motivating students to want to learn are major concerns for teachers, parents, and administrators. Motivation is an internal process that needs to be activated if the students are to become seriously engaged in the learning process. Teachers are always looking for good practices to help them convince their students that what they are presented is good for them to learn and apply in their lives. There are, of course, countless theories and practices to choose from but teachers do not have the time to try them all while undergoing their training or when they get in the classroom. That's why it's important that research, such as this one, can focus in on those models that are well researched and have great promise of success in helping teachers to help their students to become motivated and engaged on a daily basis.

THE FIVE MODELS

The first of the five models under scrutiny in this paper is the **School Connectedness Model**. This approach is the result of a study funded by the U. S. department of defense as a way of helping students "who have one or both parents in the armed forces" (Blum, 2004, Introduction). The philosophy espoused in this model is the "belief by students that adults in the school care about their learning and about them as individuals" (p. 1). The premise is that if students feel connected, they will be in a better position to want to succeed. Seven qualities distinguish this model (p.1):

- *having a sense of belonging and being part of a school
- *Liking school
- *Perceiving that teachers are supportive and caring
- *Having good friends within the school
- *Being engaged in their own current and future academic progress
- *believing that discipline is fair and effective
- *Participating in extracurricular activities

These seven qualities or guiding principles are supported by a variety of research findings and represent what ideally students should expect of their schools and of themselves. These qualities set forth a positive climate for personal growth and supports students' efforts to get the best education possible.

A further undercurrent to this model are "three dynamic concepts and relationships" (p. 2) which help to strengthen and support a positive learning experience by all involved:

- *Good relationships between students and school staff
- *A supportive learning environment that allows for bonding
- *A school culture that provides for students' social needs and good school learning

Priorities

Combining the seven qualities of the schools with the three dynamic concepts and relationships, the end result is an education where teachers and students respect one another, there exist evidence based strategies that enhance connectedness, and a learning environment that provides the nurturing needed for students to be successful (p. 7).

The **Task Choice and Goal Setting Theory** has as its premise the creation of a learning community in each classroom based on individual and collaborative learning goals. This model is inclusive of proper classroom management, appropriate level curricula, carefully crafted instruction and positive teacher and student interactions and relationships. In order to build a successful learning community, the teacher will need to make sure that the learning environment is conducive to learning and personal growth. The learning environment should revolve around the needs of the students and take into consideration the feelings and perceptions that students have of themselves and of others. The learning community must suit the need of the diverse population of students so that collaboration and cooperation in the use of space and resources provide equity and equal opportunity for all.

Well known researchers and theorists like Maslow, Piaget, Glasser, Comer, Goodlad, and many others have shared many “ideas about establishing caring and collaborative relationships with students and their families” (Brophy, p. 22). In creating a learning community, the teacher needs to be cognizant of the fact that continuous learning and growing is part of his or her experience and be willing to “model this role frequently” (Matsumura, Slater, & Crosson, 2008).

According to Brophy (2010), three agendas need to be kept in mind when trying to create a learning community and provide your students with the impetus needed for good collaborative learning to take place. The following three agendas stipulate (p. 23):

*The teacher make himself/herself and the classroom attractive to students – The teacher’s individual behavior and attitude towards the profession, learning and students is of great importance in getting students to be motivated to learn. The classroom environment should also be set up in ways that allow students to thrive in literacy through collaborative and individual activities and experiences.

*The teacher should focus attention on individual and collaborative learning goals and help them to achieve those goals – Major goals should be formulated in order to choose ideas and skills that are worth knowing and learning. Students should be encouraged to set their own goals and objectives that are in tune to the curricula being studied at different grade levels. Skills and ideas should be developed in depth and not be glossed over. Teachers need to provide students with the time and the opportunities to cover learning materials more in depth rather than quantity. In other words, provide and emphasize quality learning that causes students to be reflective and creative thinkers.

*The teacher should teach knowledge and skills that are worth learning, in ways that help students to appreciate their value. Learning should be “a synthesis of principles for designing and implementing learning activities that include four primary criteria” (Brophy & Alleman, 1991, p. 31):

*Goal relevance – Make sure that each activity is essential and useful for enabling students to achieve the learning goals of the unit being studied.

*Difficulty level – The activities should be at an optimal level that allow for a level of difficulty that is challenging but doable.

*Feasibility – The activities should be accomplished within the confines of the resources that are available to students.

Cost effectiveness – The learning benefits derived from each activity in terms of time and trouble should fall within justifiable parameters.

The **Guided Inquiry Theory** deals with the use of questioning in order to motivate students to think creatively and reflectively. According to Kuhlthau, Maniotes, and Caspari (2007), “inquiry is an

approach to learning whereby students find and use a variety of sources of information and ideas to increase their understanding of a problem, topic, or issue” (Chapter One). This approach has been around for decades. It emphasizes the need for students to be involved in all stages of planning and being involved in the learning. Through viable and relevant questioning strategies and the availability of technological resources, students can be guided towards independence through innovative activities which motivate students to question, hypothesize, research, share and internalize information and skills while taking responsibility for their own behavior and personal growth.

The **Productive and Inclusive Climate theory** deals with creating a classroom environment which is all inclusive providing all students with the opportunity to be recognized, prized, respected, and valued. Both male and female students feel that they are part of this all inclusive learning environment and, as a result, they feel motivated to be involved and contributing members. Students in this environment learn social skills that allow them to interact with each other at a meaningful and productive level for all.

Since this inclusive classroom environment values all students and provides them with equal opportunities, students from diverse backgrounds will feel welcomed and appreciated. This will make it easier for teacher-student interactions and student-student collaboration. Productivity in terms of having an environment that is conducive to learning and personal growth will show significant growth. According to Kohl (1994), “the ultimate form of resistance for people who feel powerless in a hostile environment is the refusal to learn.” However, these same students who normally find themselves excited, empowered and dignified and will be willing to put forth their best effort in order to satisfy their needs in this inclusive climate classroom.

Attribution Theory is the final approach which embodies “the most influential contemporary theory” (Bempechat, 1999) with a significant degree of success for helping students to become academically excited and highly motivated to want to learn. This theory explores the idea that when students are able to accomplish something well in school, they tend to give themselves the credit for their success. However, when these same students are not successful, they blame others or other factors that are beyond their control. The conclusion then “is that a person’s own perceptions or attributions for success or failure determine the amount of effort the person will expend on that activity in the future” (Bempechet, 1999).

There are four factors, according to Bempechet (1999) involved in attribution theory that, once understood, will be able to be applied to students’ behaviors and attitudes which will motivate them to be successful. These factors include:

- *ability – which is an internal factor but which the learner does not have much control
- *Task difficulty - which is an external factor which is beyond the learner’s control
- *Effort – which is an internal factor over which a learner has lots of control
- *Luck – which is an external factor over which the learner has little control

Taking the above four factors into account, teachers can use them to empower students to become more active in their learning experiences in the classroom. How can that be done/ According to this theory, teachers can do some of the following:

*It's important that teachers positively recognize each student's ability to succeed. Students should be encouraged to look at themselves from a positive perspective as having the ability to be successful. When students think in that way about themselves, they are empowered to focus on what they are capable on accomplishing and feeling good about whatever their level of accomplishment is.

*Much has been said about teaching to students' needs and to their level of understanding. It is then fair to say that students should be provided with experiences that are at the right level of task difficulty so that students will feel their successes and be motivated to continue to more complex tasks.

*Many students have been viewed as not putting forth the effort needed to be successful in their learning endeavors. It is, therefore, important that students be shown the most effective ways to accomplish their learning tasks without wasting too much time but using appropriate effort to learn the skills being taught. The central point here is that students need to be trained on how to use effort correctly so that they do not give up on themselves.

*Finally, students need to be guided into feeling that their successes are not based purely on luck but on good thinking and effort. In other words, get students to think more positively about themselves and accentuate the effort factor as the main contributing factor to their successful learning.

Teachers should use their students' strengths rather than weaknesses in designing learning experiences for all students. The key is to personalize each student's learning so that success is part of the package. Each student should stand on his or her merits and not on a competitive basis as practiced today in education. Teachers should be trained to value each student's individual strengths and learn how to tailor the curriculum for success for all.

CONCLUSIONS

The premise of all five theories is that all students are capable of being successful in their classroom learning provided that the learning environment is well organized, instruction well planned, students are empowered to think critically, students are provided with opportunities to collaborate, resources are available for all to use, and all students are respected and recognized in their journey to learn and grow.

All five of these theories have something to highlight as part of their distinction to contribute to a better learning approach. They also overlap in what they are offering showing that they must work in harmony with other factors supported by researchers, theorists, teachers, and parents. It's this feature that can make the combination of the different components of each theory a powerful force in helping the educational environment and teachers to design a special place where all students will be treated with respect.