JOB ROLES IN THE SOCIAL SECTOR

A Systematic Literature Review

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ABSTRACT

The last three decades have witnessed a significant professionalisation of the social sector across the world. This has been coupled with an increased appreciation of for-profit values of efficiency and effectiveness; adoption of human resource management (HRM) practices for talent management; and rapid development and increased complexity of social purpose organisations (SPOs).

Despite the size of employment generated by the social sector, there has been no systematic and focussed inquiry into the job roles and compensation of the sector employees. Academic literature, in particular, has paid limited attention to the study of social sector careers. A number of studies touch upon different aspects of different job roles but much of this literature is segmented and in silos.

This article addresses this gap by presenting a systematic literature review of 37 publications selected for review after screening of 236 records of publications. It examines the various trends in publication on social sector roles, including the period of publications; geographies covered in the sample; methodology adopted; publication type; and types of organisations covered. The review provides a comprehensive and analytical summary of existing literature on four key aspects of job roles in the social sector: *'roles in the social sector'* (job titles, functions and competencies); *'career paths of the roles'* (career paths and trajectories); *'complexity of roles'* (risks, motivations, experience and gender differential); and *'compensation practices in the social sector'*. By highlighting the limitations of the existing research on the subject, the review also proposes key areas to be explored for a better understanding and documentation of the reality of social sector careers.

INTRODUCTION

The diversity in the types of organisations and roles[1] in the social sector has led to varying talent management and compensation practices across the sector in India. There continues to be a lack of common understanding and synthesised knowledge around roles and compensation trends in the sector, leading to isolated efforts by social purpose organisations[2] (SPOs) to identify common and standardised practices in certain niche categories like NGOs, funding organisations, etc.

The sector has seen a gradual movement towards expansion, professionalisation and bureaucratisation of nonprofits, necessitating development of systems for recruitment and retention of quality staff (Haley-Lock, 2007). Development of robust systems to manage talent began in the late 1990s when nonprofit managers started being tasked with re-evaluation of their people management approaches due to various factors relating to funding and competition (Cunningham, 1999).

In India as well, rapid increase in NGOs in the mid 1980s required a change in approach from volunteerism to a more professional one. NGOs started planning of funds, use of innovative ideas and management within the organisations. Overall, there was a shift in objective from mainly addressing beneficiary needs to also employment and empowerment of people (Singh, 2020).

With increased appreciation of for-profit values of efficiency and effectiveness, nonprofits have also increasingly started adopting human resource management (HRM) practices for people management and compensation (Liao & Huang, 2016). Further, rapid development of SPOs and the evolving complex social impact ecosystem have pushed organisations to construct and improve their HRM structures to adequately and efficiently respond to various changes in their internal and external environments (von Eckardstein & Brandl, 2004; Parsehyan, 2017). Understanding and investing in human resource and financial management also allows them to provide better and effective services to their clients (Li & Xie, 2021).

Academic literature on the nonprofit sector only emerged in the 1970s and the idea of a non-profit sector career is even more recent (Norris-Tirrell et al., 2017). The literature on HRM also devotes limited attention to nonprofits, especially NGOs (Akingbola, 2012; Charleston et al. 2019).

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1 For the purpose of this review, roles are defined as job titles (like Human Resource Manager) as well as roles performed by a certain job title (like hiring, securing funding, etc.).

2 For the purpose of this review, SPOs are defined as organisations which are formally constituted, are non-governmental in basic structure, self-governing entities, non-profit distributing, have development work at the core of their purpose for existence and embody the spirit of volunteerism in their organisational nature (to a meaningful extent at least).

Additionally, despite the size of the nonprofit sector, very little research exists on compensation of employees and the existing knowledge is also scattered across fields like Organisational Behaviour, Human Resource Management, Finance, etc. (Hallock, 2000).

To address the knowledge and data gaps that exist with regard to how roles are defined, managed and compensated in the Indian social sector, the Centre for Social Impact and Philanthropy (CSIP), together with Indian School of Development Management (ISDM), launched India's first comprehensive study of talent management practices and compensation benchmarking. The study maps the roles across different types of nonprofits (NGOs and Social Enterprises, Funding Organisations and Ecosystem Support Organisations); reports their compensation levels; and elicits common and good practices on talent management.

As the first-ever empirical study to identify and co-create benchmarks of talent practices in India, the study has produced many seminal pieces, including a classification of SPOs in the sector for further research and knowledge co-creation, a literature review on compensation and motivation in the sector as well as an understanding of roles in SPOs.

The present paper is one of these outputs and presents a literature review on the job roles in the social sector. Besides showcasing the existing literature and potential gaps therein on roles in the social sector (especially in India), the literature review also provides a context within which data on compensation and management practices vis-à-vis different roles and talent segments can be defined and understood.

To explore the existing literature on the social sector roles, the following research questions guided this systematic literature review:

1. How are roles defined across and within different social purpose organisations in terms of functions, competencies, complexity of decision making and operations, risks, experience, career paths of the role, career paths and trajectories?

2. How is talent in the social sector compensated across different types of organisations and job roles? Does compensation in the social sector vary by geography; gender, educational status and experience of employee; size of the organisation; and thematic focus area of organisational operations?

This systematic literature review begins with delineating the methodology adopted to identify the relevant papers in Section 2. Section 3 moves on to analyse the trends in terms of period, types of publication and methodology adopted in the reviewed papers. Section 4 discusses the elements explored and themes that emerged in the review. Section 5 presents a thematic analysis of the summary of existing literature. Lastly, Section 6 concludes with the key takeaways and highlights the gaps in the literature before presenting implications for future research.

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SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW
Methodology

This review began with a focus on assessing and documenting what we know and what needs to be further investigated about the typology of roles in the social sector. No systematic literature review on this topic was found after a thorough search on multiple databases. Therefore, a rigorous systematic methodology was adopted to explore the extent and nature of research done on typology of job roles in the social sector; to synthesise existing knowledge and to foster future research.

The SCOPUS database was searched for relevant literature. The steps taken to identify, screen and include the articles are presented in the PRISMA flowchart below. A more detailed note on methodology adopted to conduct this systematic literature review is presented in *Annexure 1*.
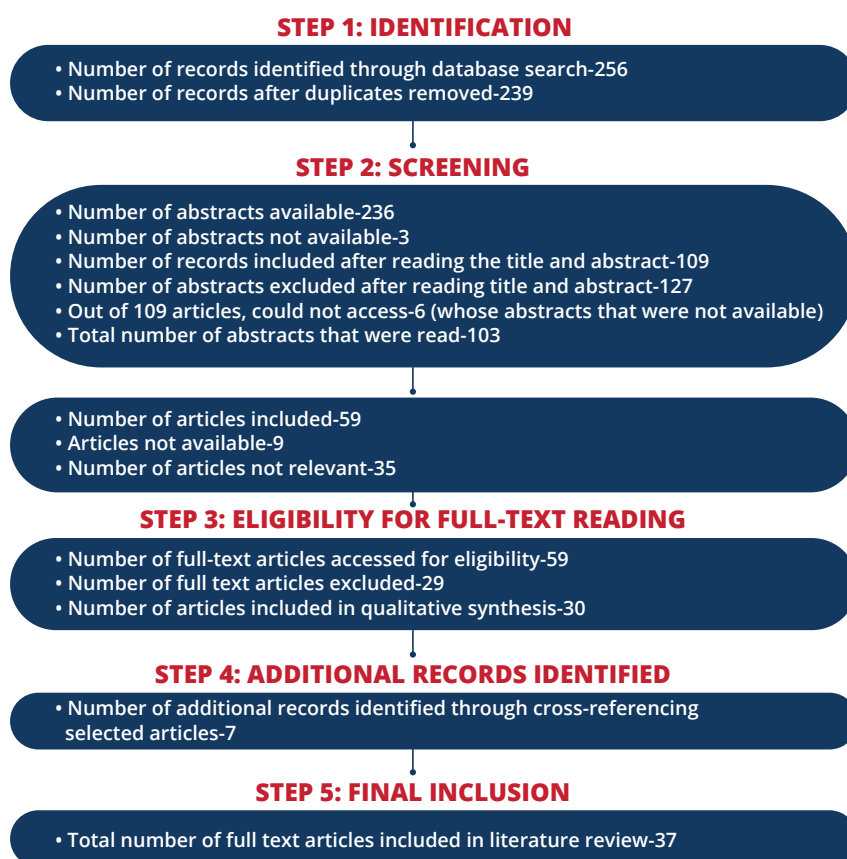
STEP 1: IDENTIFICATION

- Number of records identified through database search-256
- Number of records after duplicates removed-239

STEP 2: SCREENING

- Number of abstracts available-236
- Number of abstracts not available-3
- Number of records included after reading the title and abstract-109
- Number of abstracts excluded after reading title and abstract-127
- Out of 109 articles, could not access-6 (whose abstracts that were not available)
- Total number of abstracts that were read-103

- Number of articles included-59
- Articles not available-9
- Number of articles not relevant-35

STEP 3: ELIGIBILITY FOR FULL-TEXT READING

- Number of full-text articles accessed for eligibility-59
- Number of full text articles excluded-29
- Number of articles included in qualitative synthesis-30

STEP 4: ADDITIONAL RECORDS IDENTIFIED

- Number of additional records identified through cross-referencing selected articles-7

STEP 5: FINAL INCLUSION

- Total number of full text articles included in literature review-37

Figure 1. PRISMA framework depicting the systematic identification and selection of papers under review.

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SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW
An Analysis of Trends

3.1. TYPES OF ORGANISATIONS

Exploring social sector roles led to identification of articles covering roles in different types of social purpose organisations. These types of organisations covered in the literature include NGOs; charitable organisations; nonprofit organisations; human service organisations; voluntary organisations; cooperative organisations; community development organisations; social change organisations; and social enterprises. Some papers did not mention the type of organisations, but instead discussed general nonprofit and/ or social sector roles. Nonprofit organisations (22) were the most commonly researched type of SPOs, followed by NGOs (seven) and human service organisations (four). Based on the reading of the papers, it can be said that this classification is not mutually exclusive and might have similar characteristics but follow different nomenclature.

TYPE OF ORGANISATION-NUMBER OF ARTICLES
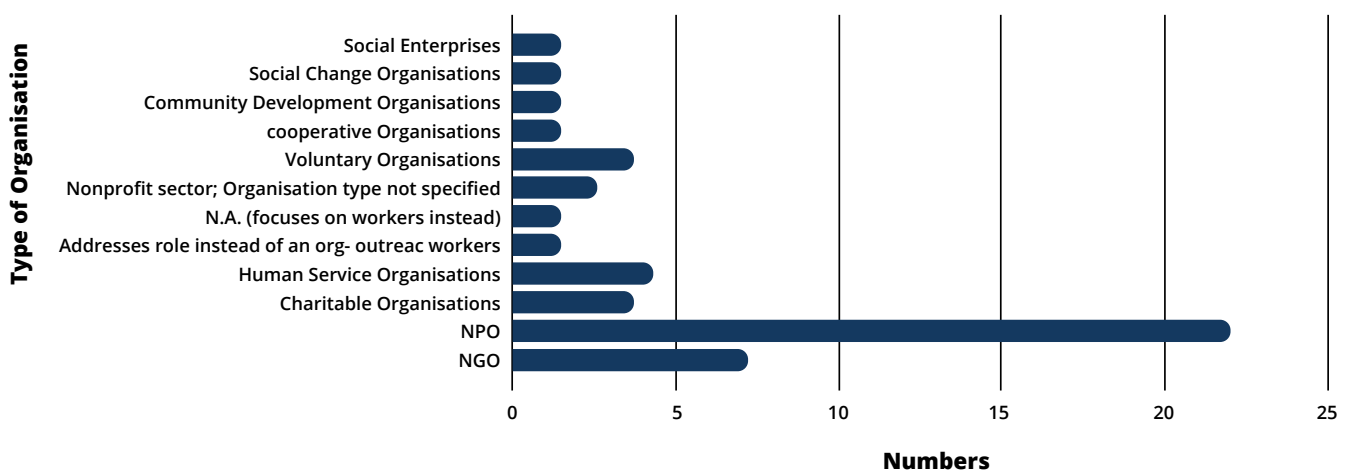
3.2. PERIOD COVERED UNDER REVIEW

To assess, compare and exhibit the gradual growth in literature on the different aspects relating to the job roles in the social sector, all relevant articles are divided under five-year periods. The first five year period (1990-1995) saw publication of one paper. Three papers were published in the next five

years between 1996 and 2000. While five articles were published in the period between 2001 and 2005, the next five years produced nine articles. Though just seven articles were published between 2011 and 2015, 12 articles were published in the last five years, including three in the post-COVID years of 2020 and 2021.
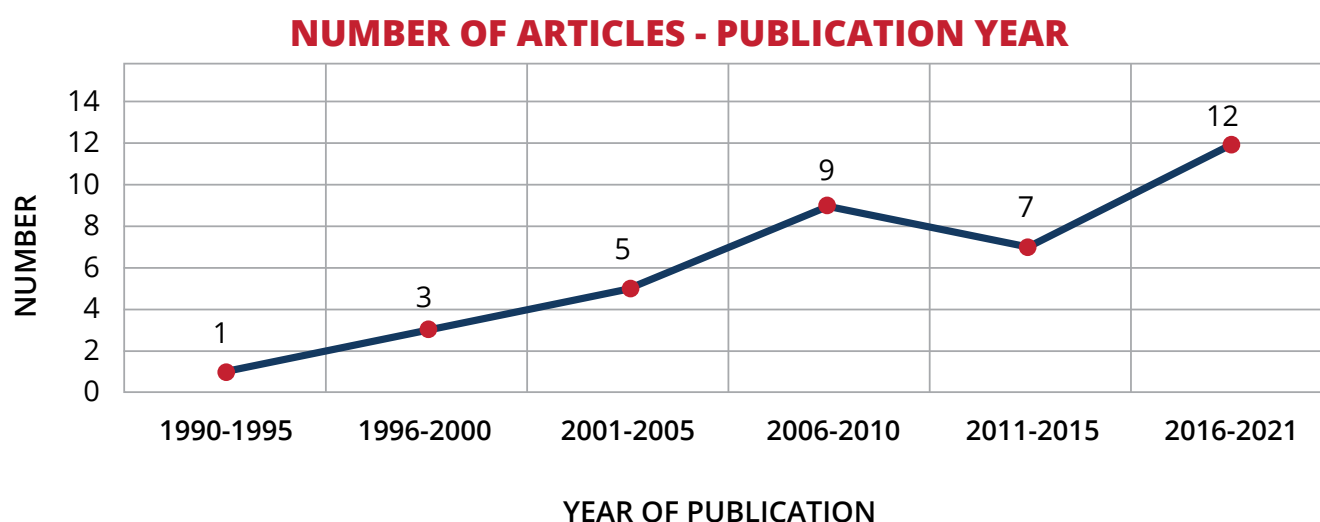
NUMBER OF ARTICLES - PUBLICATION YEAR

Figure 2: Period of Publications

The growth in publication of literature over years reflects the increasing interest in research on human resources in the nonprofits. The development of HRM as a discipline and adoption of human resource (HR) practices in nonprofits in the last couple of decades may also be the possible reasons for the rise in publications, as is reflected in the number of publications in the domain of HR.[3]

3.3. TYPE OF PUBLICATION

 A majority of research articles were published in journals.[4] It is interesting to note that scholarship around talent in the social sector is not concentrated in a few specialised journals. Except seven articles published in the Nonprofit Management and Leadership journal, and three each in Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly and Review of Public Personnel Administration, the remaining

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3 *Discipline/ Domain of Publication:* The publication and keywords indicated the larger discipline/ domain of papers. The majority of papers (14) were published in the larger domain of nonprofit management, followed by publications (13) in the specialised domain of Human Resources Management (HRM). Three papers each were published in the related discipline of Organisational Behaviour and the field of health. Other papers were included in different domains like market research (one), nonprofit sector (two), social work (two), and public administration (two). The total number of publications exceeds 37 because some publications can be included in more than one domain.

4 Two papers are book chapters and the remaining two include one monograph series and a dissertation.

twenty journal articles featured in twenty different journals. The Jossey-Bass Handbook of Nonprofit Leadership and Management by Renz and Robert (2016) emerged as a seminal book and included one article reviewed in this literature review.
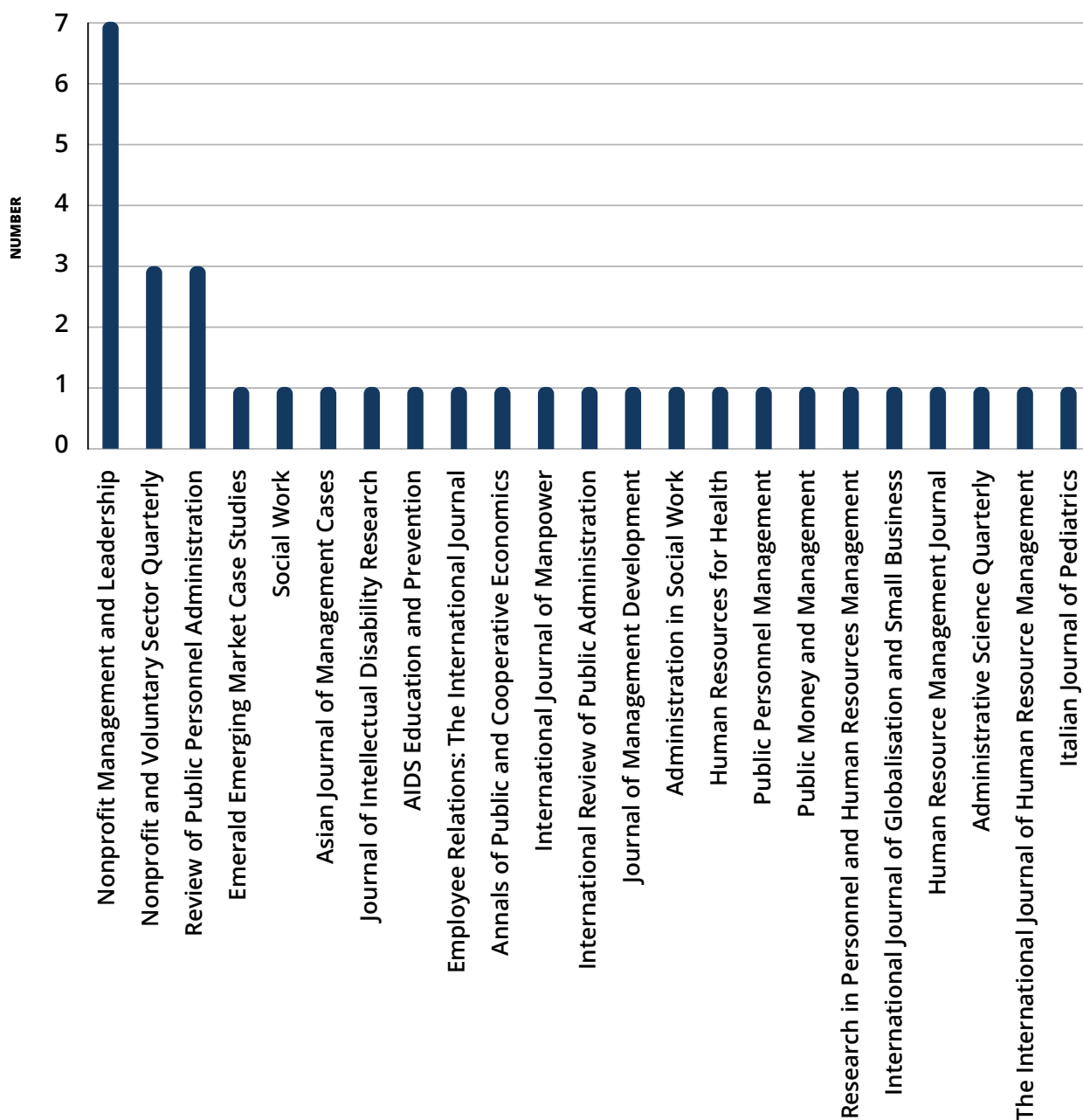
JOURNALS-NUMBER OF ARTICLES

Figure 3. Journal articles covered in the review

3.4. GEOGRAPHIES COVERED

Findings from the review cannot be generalised due to the geographical skew in the origin of the sample in the papers. More than half of the papers (22) focussed on North America, with all of these being USA based studies.[5] After the USA, maximum papers (nine) originated in the European countries of the UK, Italy, Germany, Netherlands, Ukraine and Spain. Seven papers from Asia discussed seven different studies done in India, Pakistan, China, Korea, Israel, Palestine and Malaysia. Though only four papers drew from the sample taken from Africa, the representation of African countries is more varied and includes two papers with participants from Kenya and one each from Benin, Ethiopia, South Sudan, Mozambique, Tanzania, Angola and Sierra Leone.[6]

The concentration of the majority of literature in the Global North, especially in the USA, may be a reflection of their much longer history of development of the social sector as a profession than in the countries of the Global South. Various other factors like economic development; availability of relevant human resources; welfare policies; significance of research and publication in general; and issue of publication bias may be the reasons for the geographical skew in publication.

Despite the size and variety of the social sector in India, just one paper originated in the country, indicating the gap that continues to exist in the scholarship on talent in the Indian social sector. Similarly, research from Central Asia, South America, Australia, the Middle East, and Russia remained unexplored.
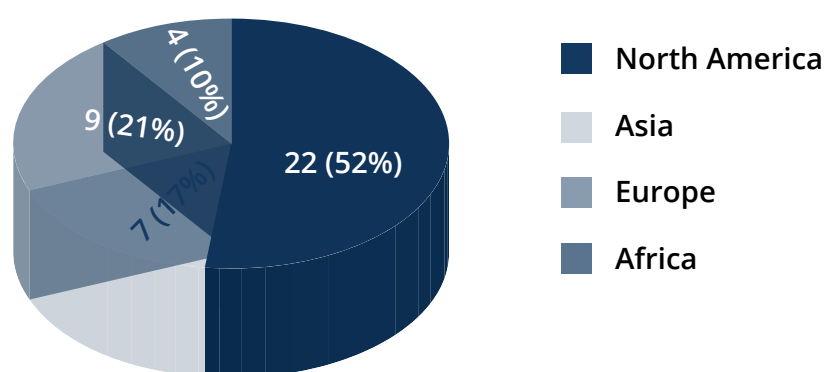
CONTINMENT-FREQUENCY OF ARTICLES

Figure 3. Geographies Covered: Frequency of Articles

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5 One of these also drew a sample from Canada (besides USA).

6 The total exceeds 37 because some articles have covered more than one continent and country.
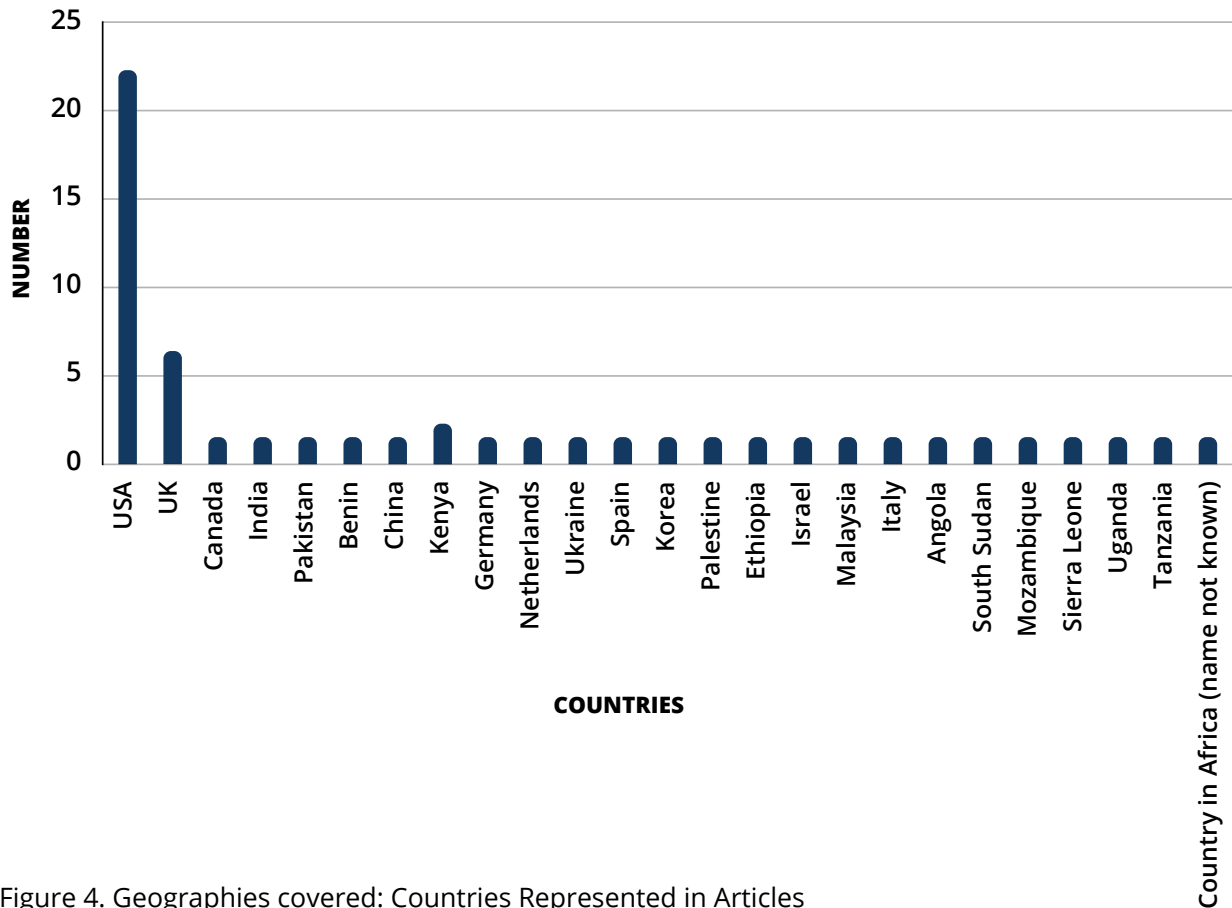
COUNTRIES-NUMBER OF ARTICLES

Figure 4. Geographies covered: Countries Represented in Articles

3.5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY USED

The methodology used across papers quite comprehensively covers a number of different approaches, designs, methods and samples. Majority of the papers (14) used quantitative methodology to collect and analyse data. Ten papers chose to describe the meaning and experience of the nature of different roles and other related aspects qualitatively. While eight papers adopted a mixed methods approach, literature review was the chosen methodology for two others. Remaining three papers did not mention the methodology used as either they were not research articles and/ or they were discursive viewpoints.

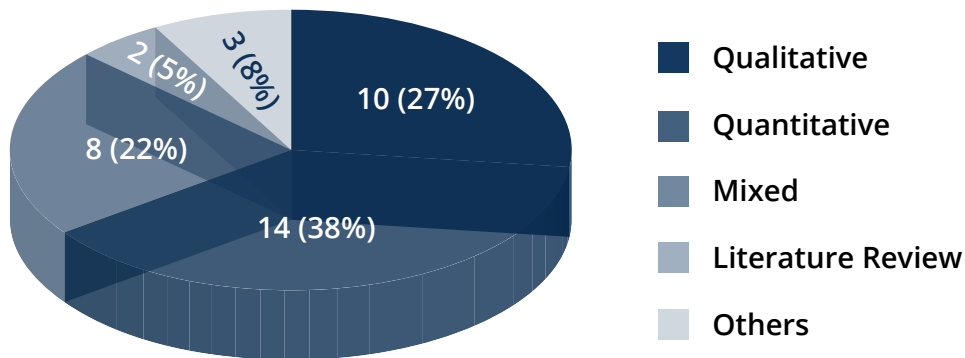## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY-NUMBER OF ARTICLES

Figure 5. Methodology Used in the Articles

An analysis reveals use of a wide range of designs and methods within the scope of different methodologies. The qualitative papers employed case studies, grounded theory (for cross-case analysis), exploratory research, phenomenology, longitudinal and interpretive designs. Personal interviews, career histories and FGDs were used to collect data for these papers.

The methods used in the quantitative papers are numerous and varied. These include descriptive statistics, k-modes cluster analysis, multiple regression modelling, bivariate analysis, survey, comparison of means, between groups and within groups correlational designs, and others. Mixed methods studies used surveys, FGDs and interviews to triangulate different modes of data collection.

Further details on the types of samples, theories, frameworks, measurement scales and models used in the papers can be found in *Annexure 2.*

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LINES OF INQUIRY
Development of thematic analytical framework

Guided by the research questions, three researchers reviewed the included articles. Upon review, it was found that none of the papers focused exclusively or directly on typology of roles in the social sector. Therefore, a thematic analytical framework was developed with four related themes emerging from the research questions to be explored in the review. These include '**roles in the social sector'** (job titles, functions and competencies); '**career paths of the roles'** (career paths and trajectories); '**complexity of roles'** (risks, motivations, experience and gender differential); and '**compensation practices in the social sector'**.
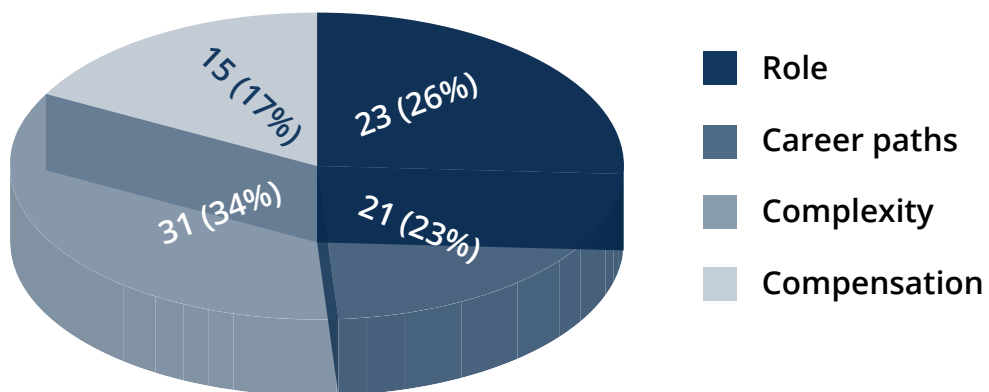
A summary of literature emerging on these themes is given in the 'summary of findings' section.

Very few papers focussed on one specific theme or subtheme and the majority of them had cross-thematic inquiries. Therefore, the thematic inquiry has been presented for the sake of flow of argument and actual discussion in papers may or may not have explicitly articulated these exact themes.

The review identified and explored 23 papers that discussed titles, functions and/or competencies relating to one or more 'roles' in one or more types of social sector organisations. 'Career paths' of roles, including career trajectories, were addressed in 21 articles. 'Motivation' emerged as the most studied aspect of job roles in the social sector, making the theme of 'complexity' (motivations, risks, experience and gender differential in roles) the most dominant theme in the review (31). While personal motivation and the desire to do social good continue to be primary aspects being covered in the literature, 'compensation' for these jobs is still an understudied subject, with just about 15 papers touching upon it.

Theme	Number of Papers
Role	23
Career paths	21
Complexity	31
Compensation	15

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THEMES COVERED - FREQUENCY

Legend:
- Role
- Career paths
- Complexity
- Compensation

Pie chart values:
- 23 (26%) — Role
- 21 (23%) — Career paths
- 31 (34%) — Complexity
- 15 (17%) — Compensation

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The empirical findings emerging from the papers are summarised below. Though the attempt is to categorically discuss the findings under specific thematic headings, some findings relate to multiple themes and may be interpreted as interconnecting and intersecting discussions on the larger topic of roles in the social sector.

5.1. ROLES IN THE SOCIAL SECTOR (JOB TITLES, FUNCTIONS AND COMPETENCIES)

Reflecting the unique nature of nonprofits and resultant lack of a highly structured and formalised system of job roles in the social sector, research on roles is not indicative of a clear typology of roles, but instead provides incremental insights from scattered observations into specific roles' functions, competencies, complexities and motivations. This section reviews the papers addressing the roles (including titles), functions and competencies of social sector jobs.

It has been observed that there is development of discourse on requirement and standardisation of specific job roles in the SPOs. Social purpose organisations, including charities, NGOs, social service organisations and nonprofit organisations, have substantially moved from the primarily voluntary work model to paid work, full-time, credentialised employment model. Even though the social sector job roles and employment conditions continue to be more diverse and possibly less structured than those in the for-profit and government sector, the movement towards professionalisation of social sector staffing has been significant.

The importance and impact of professionalisation of the social sector for how nonprofits are staffed and managed was studied by Hwang and Powell (2009). According to them, expanded professionalisation of the nonprofit sector meant employment of full-time, paid and credentialised experts, along with incorporation of professional ideals like financial audits, strategic planning and evaluation in everyday work. Employment of full-time management and paid staff with professional degrees were suggested to enhance rationalisation in charity organisations and therefore such organisations more often used planning and analytical assessment than volunteer based charities (Hwang & Powell, 2009).

5.1.1. Job roles/ titles and functions in social sector

One of the key findings of this review is the large skew in the type of job roles that have been at the focus of inquiry in studies. Much of the literature focussed on the roles at the top of the hierarchy of talent in the social sector. While 11 addressed the titles, functions or competencies of organisational leaders (CEOs, Executive Directors, Board members, etc.), another 12 focussed on understanding managerial (HR managers, NPO managers, etc.) roles. Seven different papers addressed different roles like project team lead, social workers, fundraisers, support workers (nurses and nursing assistant), outreach workers, etc. Further, three focussed on the role of volunteers and eight papers discussed more than one role.

Leadership roles: There are very few discussions on individual job roles in detail. One such focussed inquiry was done by Iecovich (2004) who conducted a study of the role of board members and executive directors in Israeli nonprofit organisations. She compared their roles across categories of policymaking, senior human resource management, relationship management, and fiscal management/fundraising. A number of roles were analysed, which include: annual budget allocations; fundraising; changes in top management; hiring of senior staff; general administrative procedures; job descriptions for senior staff; changes in specific programs or services; connections with local and national agencies; and advocacy and lobbying. Findings showed that most organisations' boards fulfilled expected responsibilities and were actively involved in them. In particular, boards were more involved in internal issues relating to budget allocation, changes in top management, and changes in programs or services and with external roles of maintaining connections with local and national organisations. They were found to be least involved in fundraising, lobbying and hiring roles. In an important finding, she concluded that roles of nonprofit board members were similar across different countries, cultural contexts and societies, with the importance of roles and responsibility varying according to different contexts (Iecovich, 2004).

Focussed on career trajectories of nonprofit executive leaders, Norris-Tirrel et al. (2017) looked at three functions of CEOs. Prior functional experience was categorised into Program, Fund-raising, Communications, and Finance, with Program emerging as the most important function for the sample (Norris-Tirrel et al., 2017).

Full-time social workers: Claiborne (2004) investigated the roles occupied by full-time social workers in 20 international NGOs. Ninety five per cent of the program director and coordinator positions were held by workers holding BSW and higher degrees. Despite overwhelming participation in coordination roles, social workers were underrepresented in leadership, direct services, administration and development roles. Claiborne (2004) importantly developed an overall typology of occupational roles of social workers. The different roles included the categories of "administration, consisting of chief executive officers, financial officers, and operations officers; human resources directors; country directors; program directors or coordinators; direct services providers; development, that is, fundraising and grant writing; researchers; policy analysts; political activists; accounting and business office personnel; support services personnel consisting of receptionists, secretaries, etc.; and consultants. (Claiborne, 2004)"

Resident junior project officer: A unique social sector role was explored by Da Dalt et al. (2014) who studied a residency elective as a job role in NGOs. It reported on cooperation between the NGO- "Doctors for Africa CUAMM" and the Paediatric Residency Program (PRP) of the University of Padua (Italy) that offered residents a international child's health (ICH) elective in Africa, called "Junior Project Officer". Residents performed a role in social sector organisatons through this elective which included personalised learning objectives and job description for a six-month learning experience in Africa. Through partnership with the NGO, the residents performed functions in different aspects (in-patient, outpatient, emergency rooms, community health centres, research and teaching) of paediatric care units. The study strongly suggested that the personalised framework of the ICH elective may be replicated in other programs offering ICH electives to maximise resident's social impact (Da Delt et al., 2004).

Importance of title for the role: An interesting study by James III (2016) explored the effectiveness of fundraiser job titles and how they impacted perception and experiences of job applicants, workers, colleagues, and public. After reviewing 63 job titles for fundraisers, it was found that "traditional institution-focussed job titles including 'advancement' and 'development' are both the most commonly used and the worst performing when measured by likelihood of donor contact" (James III, 2016, p.175). It was suggested that titles are connected and responsive to the donor-centred external environment of fundraisers (James III, 2016).

Role Clarity: Blumenthal et al. (1998) constructed a measure of role clarity and indicated that most of the support workers in residential homes for people with intellectual disability regarded their roles to be clear. No subject of difference was found between the services, confirming the role clarity in the sample.

Part-time and full-time positions: Haley-Lock (2007) explored the use of part-time and full-time positions in NPOs. It was found that a few organisations hired only full-time workers and one agency had employed mostly part-time workers. In her later paper, Haley-Lock (2009) said that high-quality part-time jobs may be needed by organisations to provide for skills that can only be developed with extensive training elsewhere.

Human Resource Management: Much of the literature on social sector roles focuses on HRM and discusses its significance, benefits and, in some cases, drawbacks. Bastida et al. (2017) studied the functions of HRM practices in enabling job satisfaction in nonprofits. According to them, as NPOs face transformation, HRM is expected to assist them in improving efficiency and attracting talented employees using their scarce resources. Stressing on the significance of the human resources, Bastida et al. (2017) shared that an increasing number of organisations implemented active HRM practices to improve job satisfactions, organisational performance, etc. They highlighted that HRM practices such as forms of conflict resolution, and support from colleagues are specific to NPOs and HRM managers should carefully consider these. Further, HRM practice like pay to performance linkage was found to be missing in the management style of NPOs (Bastida et al., 2017).

Reflecting on the functions of HRM, Mann (2006) added that in order to improve motivation of workers, human resource managers in nonprofits faced the challenging task of recognizing and

influencing the public service ethic.

5.1.2. Competencies required for social sector roles

Competency of staff is crucial to any organisation's success, including nonprofits (Park & Word, 2012). Competencies, especially educational competencies, required for specific nonprofit roles have been studied in a number of papers and it is indicated that nonprofit workers are not only competent in terms of educational qualifications but also bring a number of soft skills important to work with people and communities facing a diverse range of problems.

Educational Qualifications: Hallock (2000) noted that "nonprofit workers are much more highly educated than workers in any of the other sectors" (p. 38). In comparison to for-profit and government sectors, nonprofit workers were more likely to be college graduates and more and much less likely to be in the least education categories of high school education and less (Hallock, 2000).

Claiborne (2004) extensively studied NGO employee education levels and confirmed that a considerable number of NGO support staff had some college education, with many holding bachelor's and master's degrees. Higher education was common among program coordinators or program directors and direct services staff had relatively lower education. Employees holding administrative positions more commonly held masters degrees with few also having a doctoral degree. Most country directors had masters degrees and policy analysts also had either a masters or bachelors degree. As she focussed on social workers, it was surprising to note that very few social workers occupied top administrative positions. Despite being trained and experienced in these positions, "social workers held only 14 of 153 country director positions, two of 1,059 development positions, and two of 23 consultant positions" (p. 213). It was further found that social workers did not hold researcher, policy analyst or human resource director positions. They were employed mainly for direct services and were not seen as experts for other important positions. Claiborne (2004) concluded that NGO needs were best met by social workers because of their collaboration skills and understanding of policy context of services but a number of factors limited their competencies and chances of attaining international practice and leadership positions in NGOs . These included limited exposure to international social work practice, "disproportionately fewer numbers of social work students preparing for management positions, and expansion of nontraditional disciplines entering into the management of not-for-profit organisations" (Claiborne, 2004, p. 217).

Iecovich (2004) confirmed educational competence of nonprofit leaders and found that the majority of executive directors (91.5 per cent) and chairpersons (90.4 per cent) had degrees in higher education. Increased preference for hiring candidates with advanced educational qualifications for mid to senior level positions was also highlighted by Haley-Lock (2007) who reported that 71 percent of employee survey respondents held college degrees, while one-quarter had graduate degrees. Hwang and Powell (2009) added that leaders with degrees in management were more likely to be rational and formal in their approach to management.

Norris-Tirrel (2017) also studied executive leaders and found that 98 per cent of the CEOs had a baccalaureate degree in areas ranging from social work/psychology, social sciences, and business

or management. Additionally, more than half of the CEOs had graduate degrees. "The subject area of graduate degree also was broad with business administration (34%), social work (20%), other (20%), and public administration/JD (13%) as the largest categories (p. 13)." Some CEOs acquired their graduate degree after earning a CEO position. Despite being in nonprofit management roles, more CEOs did not have nonprofit management degrees despite an increasing number of academic programs in these areas (Norris-Tirrel, 2017).

Personal Characteristics: Reinhardt and Enke (2020) studied personal characteristics of NPO managers and employees that were relevant to their performance and innovativeness in the sector. They derived 14 personal factors encompassing four categories: experience; virtues and vices (creativity, humbleness, passion, risk aversion); interpersonal skills; and management skills. These factors were found to affect managers' individual performance and/or individual innovativeness. Importantly, innovativeness was regarded as a tricky skill in NPOs as failed innovation could mean use of limited resources without any results. In terms of interpersonal skills, managers were required to build trust among employees. Communication skills were also essential for managers to convince staff of their decisions, especially considering the centrality of motivation in NPOs. The consensus oriented structure of NPOs also required managers to be diplomatic and the need to work with bureaucracy made it essential for managers to have strong networking skills within and outside the organisation. Core management skills needed by managers included the ability to build a fact base in the organisation; ability to prioritise and focus; and ability to make tough decisions. According to the authors, core management skills were rare in NPOs. Further, it was suggested that the NPOs required participative leadership which enhances knowledge-sharing, support and acceptance (Reinhardt & Enke, 2020).

Managerial Skills: Analoui and Samour (2012) studied demographic characteristics of managers in Palestinian NGOs and found that more than demographic characteristics of age, experience, education and gender, the environmental awareness of managers was critical in formulation and implementation of NGO strategies. They made a number of observations about the needed skills and competencies based on managers' characteristics. General and strategic management skills were found to be commonly considered as important skills for managers and a high percentage of managers (81.1 per cent) were found to be trained in strategic planning. The authors suggested that for the success of businesses and to improve managerial competencies, management training programs should be offered (Analoui & Samour, 2012). One of the findings linked age with competencies and indicated that younger managers were more risk taking and older ones brought reason, wisdom and experience. Study also found a "negative relationship between managerial age and the ability to integrate information in making decisions and with confidence in decisions" (Analoui & Samour, 2012, p. 693).

5.1.3. Volunteering

Volunteerism is often cited as a unique aspect of nonprofit organisations (Park & Word, 2012). Nonprofits have a "long history, deep traditions, and cultures, steeped in voluntaristic values" (Ott,

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2001, p. 289, as cited in Park & Word, 2012). Therefore, despite the increased professionalisation of nonprofit talent management with jobs becoming more full time and paid, the role of volunteers continues to be crucial in nonprofits. Hence, volunteerism finds a significant place in literature related to roles in the social sector.

Role of volunteers in the sector: Considering the diverse and constant need of people in the non-profit sector, reliance on volunteers is imperative. Volunteering opens prospects of working beyond boundaries of job roles as well as adapting as per the programmatic/community needs. Another advantage of volunteering is that it fosters collective ownership which reduces reliance on some individuals and can be continued by others. This was demonstrated at Balgran, a family home for children in need of care and protection where volunteers took on different roles like mother-wardens, cooks, helpers and vocational trainers. Although attrition amongst volunteers was a challenge (once volunteers found a more rewarding alternative), the home continued to be dependent on volunteers for its functioning (Mahajan & Narayanmurthy, 2021).

Volunteering also provides an opportunity for people to explore the social sector, wherein some of them go on to build careers and take up leadership positions in the sector. Such examples were found in the literature as well. Whitaker (2012) found that some nonprofit leaders reached their current position through volunteering opportunities. Volunteer experience made them feel that they were called to this profession. Similarly, Hwang and Powell (2009) captured an instance of transformation from volunteer to a nonprofit Executive director wherein the professional who volunteered with an informal community group became its full-time paid director.

Volunteer role and competencies: Volunteer role and competencies were studied by Charleston et al. (2019) who observed volunteer project managers leading local and international youth volunteers during the Raleigh International programme in Malaysia. The authors proposed the CPACE (Curiosity, Passion, Adaptability, Communication and Empathy) framework to describe competencies needed in cross-cultural projects in a NGO context. These competencies include empathy with the 'other'; curiosity; desire to learn continually; adaptability (emotional, cognitive and physical); passion about the experience for sustaining themselves; and communication skills to effectively express their curiosity, empathy and passion.

Competencies, in terms of personal attributes, required in volunteers do not differ from those required in paid workers in the sector, thus making it easier for them to continue and build a career in the social sector.

Challenges to volunteering: While the fluidity and diversity in volunteering are advantageous, it could also be challenging with changing context. Professionalisation of the voluntary sector could lead to a feeling of disconnect/discontent amongst the volunteers due to inadequate support and lack of opportunities. Furthermore, professionalisation may also alienate volunteers who work out of their altruistic self interests (Cunningham, 1999). These factors pose a challenge to the HR personnel in implementing HRM models with volunteers. At the same time,. introduction of HR tools like performance appraisal may also be seen as oppressive and unnecessary by volunteers (Lewis, 1996, as cited in Cunningham, 1999). One of the suggestions to mitigate some of these

challenges was that volunteer management initiatives should account for the volunteers' agenda and motivations. (Cunningham, 1999)

5.2. CAREER PATHS OF ROLES

Studying career trajectories of specific job roles allows capturing diverse aspects of nonprofit talent management; including what brings people to nonprofits, what makes them stay, what their working style is and what makes them leave. The review finds papers on diverse aspects of the career life cycle of nonprofit employees, with most of these focusing on the leaders' career trajectories. Developing a typology of career paths emerges as a common theme among papers studying the life cycle of nonprofit roles.

5.2.1. Typology of career paths

In one of the first studies to examine and develop a typology of nonprofit executive leaders, Harrow and Mole (2005) reported observations from their career accounts. Drawing on career theory and biographical narrative techniques, they developed a typology of career stances of voluntary sector chief executives: the Paid Philanthropists, the Careerists, and the Nonaligned. Paid Philanthropists ascribed their career paths as secondary to their altruistic motivation for their work and considered their work being more important and beyond just salary. Commitment to the sector was primary for them and their career future was related primarily to their current organisation. Careerists joined the sector with a future career in mind and aligned their personal development with that future. They gave more thought to which organisations they will join and prepared themselves with that focus. The Nonaligned executives either planned or did not plan their entry in the sector and may have transitioned from other sectors. An interesting analysis from the study found that women outnumbered male chief executives as careerists by two to one, suggesting the predominance of women as chief executives as organisations became larger (Harrow & Mole, 2005).

 Suarez (2010) added to the scholarship on the typology of nonprofit leaders and on the basis of nonprofit experience and management background found that leaders belonged to these types: the professional administrator, the social entrepreneur, the substantive expert, and the nonprofit lifer. Leaders joining nonprofits as a calling or a vocation were called the nonprofit lifers. The substantive expert meant a person with specialised training (with academic credentials) and extensive experience. This type of leader was dedicated to their subject area and did not prioritise management in their approach of work. Leaders focusing on innovation and management in the sector were called the social entrepreneurs and had interest in sustainability, scale and replication of ideas on finances and business plans. The professional administrator was an individual leader with business acumen, with desire to work in multiple sectors. The author also indicated that some organisational boards may prioritise nonprofit lifers and substantive professionals to managerial professionals because they were more aligned with organisational mission.

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Suarez (2010) also investigated how potential leadership deficit and increased pressures to be more businesslike affected pathways to become a leader. Investigation of backgrounds and experience in the sector found that some leaders had credentials and experience of management but many leaders advanced to their role through only substantive experience. Some leaders had spent most of their career in either the public sector or business. Overall, the study found that a nonprofit ethic, commitment to the sector and substantive experience constructed the main pathway to nonprofit leadership and questioned the importance of management skills in the evolving sector. Making observations about the future of leadership, he noted that new and younger leaders might be required to have management background to respond to the current market situation and simultaneously, a higher number of management graduates might also seek nonprofit jobs. In terms of career path to current position, the findings added that almost 40 percent of leaders were promoted to their current positions within the organisation and promotion within the sector led to their current position for 60 per cent of the sample (Suarez, 2010).

Maher (2015) added to the scholarship on career paths by exploring the career path preferences of social enterprise managers in the UK. It was found that "operational manager's career path preferences were influenced by the individual's values and career needs and the organisation's ability to provide career path options" (p. 69). The findings suggested that for retaining managers, social enterprises needed to go beyond offering high salaries, to provide developing career paths matching the manager's career needs. The boundaryless career model has also been used to explore career preferences. This model conceptualises three career paths: vertical, horizontal and cross-functional. Vertical refers to upward mobility within an organisation; horizontal involves sideways progression towards a specialist role in one or more organisations; and cross-functional means taking the opportunity to work on inter-related, short term projects in one or more organisations. It was found that most managers preferred horizontal career paths, followed by cross-functional and vertical career paths. Managers preferring horizontal paths underwent training for improving their skills. Crossfunctional path allowed managers job security and they also underwent training to improve their skills and knowledge to remain employed. Vertical path was found to be achieved by managers' own efforts and initiatives, along with taking up career development options provided by the organisations. Overall, the findings suggested that managers did not direct their paths independently and worked within the options provided by their organisations (Maher, 2015).

Norris-Tirrel et al. (2017) followed the typologies developed by Harrow and Mole (2005), Maher (2015), Suarez (2010) and others, by presenting three career paths for executive leaders and identifying factors that influenced the time taken by an individual to attain the CEO position. The Nonprofit Career Trajectory Typology developed by them include Nonprofit Mission Enthusiasts, Nonprofit Career Climbers, and Sector Switchers. The typology was based on graduate education, sector experience, relocation and mission focussed career goals and aligned with typologies developed earlier. The Nonprofit Mission Enthusiast was a leader passionate for a certain issue or population and aligned with the Paid Philanthropist (Harrow & Mole, 2005) and Nonprofit Lifer (Suarez, 2010). The Nonprofit Career Climber focussed on developing leadership and management experience in nonprofits, and aligned with the Social Entrepreneur (Suarez, 2010). The Sector Switcher had

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multi sector experience and was similar to Suarez' s (2010) Substantive Expert and Professional Administrator, the nonaligned (Harrow & Mole, 2005), and the Cross-functional path (Maher, 2015).

5.2.2. Hiring/ recruitment, retention and turnover

Ban et al. (2003) explored career paths of a mixed group of nonprofit professionals by assessing the perceptions of executive directors and hiring senior managers. The study found that a typical nonprofit professional's career path was spiral, with a number of varied roles requiring changes in skills, values and continuous self development. Nonprofit managers reported that hiring and retaining top-quality professional staff members was difficult but not so severe that it would affect overall staff quality. Importantly, direct service and support staff roles saw higher turnover than professional roles. Common functional strategies for hiring and recruiting included newspaper advertising and word of mouth and internet and emailing was surprisingly used very less often. Need for growth within the organisation was considered important to stay in an organisation. To address this, many managers reported that to retain staff, they offered more responsibility, diverse training, greater salaries and greater freedom to change and define the job (Ban et al., 2003).

Lynn (2003), included Jamison's[7] analysis in their synthesis of articles presented in a symposium on human resource management in nonprofits. Jamieson contributed to an understanding of turnover and retention in nonprofits and explored how amelioration of organisational conditions could help reduce volunteer turnover. It was suggested that besides pre-service and in-service training, volunteers could be engaged by providing them challenging and meaningful work conditions so that they don't leave transiently. Task expectations and related satisfaction were shown to be related with improved retention levels among volunteers (Jamison, n.d., as cited in Lynn, 2003).

A particular job lifecycle issue was studied by Saqib et al. (2016) in their case study where they captured the challenges of high turnover in a Pakistani NGO. The organisation lacked a formal HR department and thus lacked clear HR policies which resulted in high turnover for the position of team leader for the projects in the pipeline. The organisation could address the problem by forming a new HR department and setting clear policies and drafting a formal job description and job specification for the role of team leader. Appropriate job selection method was adopted that included a job analysis done by senior management with company goals and project requirements in mind. Project directors, programme officers and other team leaders were interviewed to learn about the job responsibilities for the position. This comprehensive analysis helped them prepare the right expected qualifications and compensation plans for the position (Saqib et al. 2016).

5.2.3. Mobility and transition

Haley-Lock (2007) studied organisational variation in the provision of upward mobility and found

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7 The findings from Jamison's paper were deemed important for the review. However, the primary source paper did not include the full reference for Jamison's paper.

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that within the sample of domestic violence service organisations, chances for promotion varied with employer. In some organisations, not even one current worker had held another position before and some organisations had seen a third to more than a half of their employees move up the hierarchical levels (Haley-Lock, 2007).

Given the importance of executive leadership and organisational reliance on long serving top executives, Froelich et al. (2011) studied the significance of executive transitions and its planning by organisations. Almost half of the charitable nonprofits shared that their current CEO had qualities that could not be replaced. Long tenure for chief executive was reported by the majority of organisations. It was seven years or more for more than 60 per cent organisations and about half reported a tenure of more than 10 years. They argued that a proactive stance was required to plan for succession, especially now that a period of leadership transition is expected with baby boomers reaching retirement age and nonprofits growing in number and size. It was also found that planning and preparedness for executive succession was not matched by concern and interest for it. Overall the authors noted that despite replacing long tenured leaders being considered a challenge, it was not proactively addressed (Froelich et al., 2011).

Norris-Tirrel (2017) also explored the impact of various factors like age, gender, experience, career focus, and relocation on how much time is taken to reach CEO role for an individual. Importantly, it was found that geographic location of posting was important in an executive's path to leadership. Forty four per cent of the CEOs were found to have relocated to a new place during their career (Norris-Tirrel, 2017).

Cooper and Maktoufi (2019) addressed the life cycle of nonprofit personnel in the specific context of merging of nonprofits and explored factors that affect integration and postmerger identity. It was found that besides factors like organisational similarity and prior relationships, post-merger personnel retention informed post-merger identity. In terms of board retention, the acquired organisation brought almost an equal number of board members and sometimes even new board members were included in the new board. Acquired organisations also made sure that their board members held influential positions in the post merger organisation. Pathway of executive staff was found to be more difficult in the study and in most cases were expected to take on other roles than their premerger roles like executive director. In several cases, such transitions succeeded as they got other leadership positions. The future of role retention varied and the authors found cases of long term post merger retention of personnel as well as cases where all acquired personnel were lost soon after merger (Cooper & Maktoufi, 2019).

5.3. COMPLEXITY OF ROLES

Combining skills and knowledge with a passion to serve the society, nonprofit workers deal with a number of external and internal factors that make their work and decision making complex. Factors like risks at work, motivation, experience, and gender influence the different complexity levels and workers' ability to address those.

5.3.1. Risks and challenges

Challenges to employee wellbeing: Most nonprofit agencies, serving as service delivery organisations, operate in constrained environments (Lynn, 2003). They are "typically understaffed but are frequently organized around operating hours designed to meet the needs of their clientele" (Lynn, 2003, p. 92).

Lynn (2003) synthesised works presented in the symposium on human resource management and examined both the problems and opportunities nonprofit workers work with. Light (n.d.) concluded that nonprofit employees and volunteers worked on thin margins of training, staff and resources (as cited in Lynn, 2003).

Haley-Lock (2009) observed the implication of nonprofit work for the wellbeing of employees and their families and commented that heavy workload, emotionally draining work and modest compensation posed challenges to employees' tenure, performance and morale.

Another paper addressing the challenges to wellbeing of service agency staff was authored by Deren et al. (1992) who explored the role of AIDS outreach workers on the frontlines. With their primary job being providing information and education to high-risk people, stress was found to be the biggest source of dissatisfaction and subsequent attrition. Suggestions for job improvement included improvement of salary and benefits, better education and training and more support groups and other help for recovery (Deren et al., 1992).

In a study of health workers' challenges, Mathauer and Imhoff (2006) revealed that health workers in Africa often worked with insufficient means and materials to carry out their work and felt frustration due to inability to be able to do their work professionally. Inadequate work environment and HRM deficits were other issues that made health workers desire better salaries, living conditions and communication facilities. Despite and also because of high professional commitment, there was a possibility that the constraints hamper the workers' professional ethos. Further, the existence of HIV/AIDS endangered these workers' commitment to work as most workers did not feel sufficiently protected against the disease at the workplace and feared infection (Mathauer & Imhoff , 2006).

The issue of stress and burnout was highlighted by Ban et al. (2003) in their paper on the challenges of recruitment and retention in human service and community development organisations. They argued that the risk of burnout is not only for direct service staff but also for the professional staff members. Participants were found to be experiencing stress relating to varied types of pressures like fundraising, clients' intense needs, internal conflict and related interaction with coworkers and excessive workload. The lack of long-term funding commitment caused additional stress as there was no guarantee of projects being completed. One "participant stated that people can work in his organisation for only a few years and then get burnt out and have to go to a less demanding job" (Ban et al., 2003, p. 149).

External risk factors: Dicke and Ott (n.d.) stressed on the need to understand and address the implications of environmental factors like national tragedies such as September 11 for human resource management in nonprofits (as cited in Lynn, 2003). They suggested that the tragedy

caused shifting government priorities, decline in resources and reduced professional workforce which caused lingering uncertainty about organisational security, development and continuity for nonprofits. Uncertainty in the organisational environment was linked to difficulties in hiring and retaining nonprofit staff. Gosset and Pynes (n.d.) explored the particular risks involved with operating faith-based organisations and found that such organisations, including organisations with religious sponsorships, experienced enhanced scrutiny of their personnel and may not be able to withstand it in the new environment (as cited in Lynn, 2003).

Another paper that explored implications of broader external environmental factors for nonprofit workers was authored earlier by Blumenthal et al. (1998). They found that the reorganisation of the UK National Health Service (NHS) and changed roles and responsibilities resulted in increased stress and insecurity for residential nursing staff working with people with intellectual disability (Blumenthal et al., 1998).

In their India based case study, Mahajan and Narayanamurthy (2021) found that the organisation faced issues of legitimacy and distrust among potential donors who saw the organisation as a hawala[8] front for militants. Resultantly, running primarily through volunteers, the organisation struggled to retain them and saw a very high volunteer turnover who left as soon as they found a more rewarding alternative (Mahajan & Narayanamurthy, 2021).

5.3.2. Experience as a criterion for social sector roles

The type and length of experience affects social sector workers' decision making, motivations, expectations and actions. While experience has not been dedicatedly studied as a key theme, it emerges as one of the themes in many papers under review. Some papers gauge the number of years of employees' experience while others relate them to their motivation and actions.

Norris-Tirrel et al. (2017) examined the significance of experience for executive leaders. They found that experience in the sector was important to reach CEO positions in nonprofit organisations. The nonprofit CEOs had been in their current executive position for a range from one month and almost 33 years, and remained in this position for an average of 6 years. More than a one-third had held a CEO position prior to their current role. The average age at the first CEO position was calculated to be 43 years. More than one-third had also worked at the same organisation for an average of 11 years before being promoted to their current role. Nonprofit experience was found to be critical to reach the position of CEOs in nonprofits as "82% of nonprofit executive profiles indicated employment at a nonprofit organisation; for an average of 11.5 years, with 50% indicating only nonprofit experience" (Norris-Tirrel et al., 2017, p. 14).

Iecovich (2004) added to the scholarship on top executives' experience and found that half of the chairpersons and about 43 per cent executive directors had been active in the same organisation for

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8 Hawala is an informal system through which money is transferred without following the normal banking channels. It is often exploited to finance illegal activities .

two to five years, with a mean of 4.95 years and 6.13 years respectively. Analoui and Samour (2012) also found nonprofit sector experience significant and revealed that NGO managers considered long experience in the field important for developing core competencies in the field.

Reinhardt and Enke (2020) presented diverse findings about the individual experience of managers and connected it positively to their performance. Also, it was found that for-profit experience was considered ambiguous with both positive and negative implications for work in the nonprofit sector. The participants shared that for-profit experience could help managers to effectively and efficiently push their goals, but at the same time it was observed that the nonprofit sector could not adapt to for-profit leadership style, networking and communication. Because of the particular context and culture of nonprofits, leaders with for-profit experience could be considered arrogant and cause frustration among nonprofit staff (Reinhardt & Enke, 2020).

Saqib et al. (2016) addressed the experience requirements for team leaders running large projects and found that seven-year experience of project management was mandatory for the position as large projects required experienced employees. Experience in practical implementation, financial management, personnel and consultant management were deemed necessary for the position of team lead (Saqib et al., 2016).

5.3.3. Motivation

Most of the literature on social sector roles has attempted to explore and document what motivates people to join and continue in nonprofit roles. Concepts from HRM have been commonly used to understand employee motivation in the sector. Altruism, "intrinsic motivation", personal and public service motivations that drive people to take up challenging jobs with relatively less lucrative salaries and benefits form part of much of the papers under present review.

Altruistic and humanitarian factors: Deren et al. (1992) were the first (among papers in the review) to explore social sector employee motivation and identified altruism, interpersonal opportunities and self-improvement as motivating factors for AIDS outreach workers. Altruistic factors were found to be the most common and primary factor that brought people to work and be satisfied as outreach workers (Deren et al., 1992).

Whitaker (2012) conducted a study on what motivates nonprofit leaders to join this sector and attempted to answer questions related to their 'calling'. The findings revealed that a majority of leaders experienced career calling and had a desire to serve others. All of the participants felt that nonprofit jobs were the "God's will" and "right thing to do" (Whitaker, 2012).

Mahajan and Narayanmurthy (2021) also presented a volunteer motivation framework on the basis of Clary et al. (1998). The case study found altruism; humanitarian concern; career development opportunity; peer pressure; and avenue for new learnings and experiences to be the primary factors that motivated people to volunteer (Mahajan & Narayanmurthy, 2021).

Mathauer and Imhoff (2006) tried to understand what motivation meant for the health workers in Benin and Kenya. Respondents in Benin equated motivation with prospective "encouragement" or

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retrospective "re-compensation" that enabled them to work better; "financial encouragement"; and having means and material to work with. Very few workers mentioned motivation as an intrinsic willingness to work. Together, motivation was understood as an "incentive motivator" rather than a "state of mind" or an "intrinsic process". In Kenya, a greater number of health workers related motivation to intrinsic state of pleasure and willingness to do work. The "motivation allowances" introduced in Benin were possibly linked to the change of definition of motivation from intrinsic pleasure to an incentive. The answer to 'what motivates you' also led to diverse responses. For Benin workers, vocation, professional values, and the wish to help patients were common motivating factors. Vocation, professional satisfaction, healing patients and recognition were important for Kenyan respondents (Mathauer & Imhoff, 2006).

Public Service Motivation: Mann (2006) examined how human resource managers might use the desire to make a difference as a motivational force. He explored whether Public Service Motivation (PSM) could be harnessed 'as a motivational force' (p. 35), and if it could be used as a parameter for screening high performing employees. More than 60 per cent were found to have joined their organisation to make a difference and not for salary and benefits. "Further evidence in support of high PSM levels for non-profit employees is noted by the 61 percent who get a measure of satisfaction from accomplishing something worthwhile…(Mann, 2006, p. 41). Nonprofit employees were also found to be more dedicated to their organisation's mission and shared that they contributed to realising the org's goals. The author also made a cautionary note and added that considering the resource scarcity and burnout and resultant challenge of employee retention, it becomes an important and challenging task for managers to motivate employees (Mann, 2006).

Nonprofit Service Motivation: Sung and Kim (2016) contributed to the understanding of nonprofit employee motivation by investigating the role of "non-profit service motivation" (NPSM) in enhancing managerial accountability of Korean NGO employees. The authors defined "NPSM" as "intrinsically and voluntarily driven attitudes and dispositions that lead to more service delivery, fundraising, and volunteering activities in the non-profit agencies." The research found that human resource development (formative and learning processes) "practices were directly, positively, and significantly associated with Person Organisational fit, and indirectly, positively, and significantly related with both normative and affective "NPSM". Ultimately, this reveals that training and development is the key to leading employees' value congruence and motivation" (Sung & Kim, 2016, p. 22). The authors also suggested that Korean NPOs should develop transparent goals and clear performance evaluation standards. Clear goals and missions for newcomers that are aimed at increasing person-organisational fit may enhance public service motivation and productivity of employees. "NPSM" was also found to be positively related to accountability (Sung & Kim, 2016).

Intrinsic motivation: Word and Park (2009) compared the level of "job involvement" between public and nonprofit managers. The results indicated that the nonprofit managers' "job involvement" was significantly higher than public managers. Interestingly, it was found that "intrinsic motivation" did not have a significant relationship with job involvement and it was implied that marketisation of nonprofit management had weakened this relationship. Managerial ("intrinsic motivation", "extrinsic motivation", and "managerial power") and organisational/ institutional antecedents (red

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tape, hierarchical culture, organisation size, and state HR systems) were found to be most powerful predictors of "job involvement". Organisational red tape and organisation size were proved to be negatively related to manager's "job involvement" (Word & Park, 2009).

Reinhardt and Enke (2020) also linked "intrinsic motivation" to nonprofit employees. NPO managers were expected to have "intrinsic motivation" and the desire to contribute to the organisation's mission. It was concluded that NPOs required managers with personal skills and characteristics that differed from for-profit organisations, "those who work in NPOs are motivated by their belief in a good cause" (Reinhardt & Enke, 2020, p. 1153).

Impact of intrinsic motivation on compensation and other benefits: Ben-ner et al. (2010) tried to understand motivation from the perspective of sectoral wage inequality and concluded that arguments regarding "intrinsic motivation" caused a compressed wage structure in nonprofit organisations. They suggested that some intrinsically motivated nonprofit employees may not desire extrinsic rewards which could reduce their "intrinsic motivation" related values (Ben-ner et al., 2010).

In another important work on nonprofit employee motivation by them, Park and Word (2012) explored the motivational constructs of managers in the nonprofit and public sector. The results indicated that while "intrinsic motivation" was the most significant among nonprofit managers and factors like non-monetary recognition and responsibility to serve motivated them, extrinsic factors like "advancement motivation" and "work-life balance motivation" were also positively and significantly related to "intrinsic motivation" of nonprofit (and public) managers. Exploring the role of gender on job choice motivation, they found that nonprofit female managers had a higher motivation level. Age was found to be negatively associated with "extrinsic motivation" and as nonprofit managers aged, they valued security and advancement issues less than their "intrinsic motivation" to serve. The type of nonprofit also affected motivation type and it was found that "intrinsic motivation" was more positively related to public charities than with relatively more commercial organisations (Park & Word, 2012).

HRM tools for motivating employees: In their study on health workers, Mathauer and Imhoff (2006) explored health worker motivation in Africa and examined the underlying causes for their low motivation. It was concluded that lack of recognition and limited career development opportunities cause demotivation among nonprofit health workers. Additionally, it was suggested that HR tools and nonfinancial incentives could help strengthen motivation among demotivated workers by appreciating and addressing their professional goals like career development, recognition and acquiring further qualifications. The authors added that the work environment should be amenable to their personal and professional goals which could be done by offering essential physical means, supervision and training. It was also added that tools like performance review could also *adversely* affect their performance (Mathauer & Imhoff , 2006).

Work Culture and Motivation

Watson and Abzug (2016) identified the *relationship* between leaders and staff members as a key factor in motivating employees to stay with the organisation. The authors found it important that

positive communication channels were kept open through informal dialogue and more formal constructive feedback through performance appraisal systems. Caring about staff families, offering cafeteria benefits, range of human resource benefits to suit family needs, flexible work hours, respect for individual choice, motivational compensation were suggested as best practices to keep employees motivated (Watson & Abzug, 2016).

Ban et al. (2003) captured the perceptions of managers about what motivated staff. According to the study, staff were attracted to an organisation with a positive culture, with a supportive environment and open intra-office communication. Staff were better motivated to work when they understood their own role within larger organisational goals and processes (Ban et al., 2003).

In an article examining recruitment issues in Scottish voluntary organisations, Nickson et al. (2008) found that despite recruitment of new staff being a problem, current employees reported high job satisfaction. Existing staff were found to draw satisfaction from their values and relationship with colleagues. At the same time, low pay was a challenge in recruiting new right candidates (Nickson et al., 2008).

Generational difference and similarities in motivation to work in nonprofits: In an interesting study on leadership transition and generational difference in approach to leadership, among other factors, Kunreuther (2005) addressed people's motivations for joining the nonprofit sector. She found differences as well as similarities in ways younger and older generations approached nonprofit work. It was indicated that while the two generations approached their jobs differently, both were equally committed to their work and found pleasure in changing people's lives. Ability to transform lives was the primary motivator for both generations and both generations equally enjoyed leadership roles. In terms of differences, the older generation was found to have merged their personal and professional lives while the younger generation experienced work-life imbalance. Younger staff also shared a lack of pathways to reach leadership goals in organisations with older directors (Kunreuther, 2005).

Overall, studies on motivation draw largely from HRM constructs. While studies have highlighted that "intrinsic motivation" is the primary factor that motivates nonprofit employees, there is also emerging evidence that emphasises on the need to supplement intrinsic motivation with external motivators like good wages and other benefits like advancement opportunities and a good working environment. "Intrinsic motivation" to serve the community through nonprofits should not replace monetary and non-monetary compensation and rewards that are more commonly expected and provided in for-profit organisations. It is important to note that applying the for-profit understanding of employee motivation can also negatively impact the intrinsic motivation of employees who may find their altruistic values at odds with the concepts like performance review.

5.3.4. Gender differential in roles

Gender of employees emerges as an important but understudied theme in literature on social sector roles. Steinberg and Jacobs (1994) noted that although a large part of the nonprofit sector is

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populated by women, very little of the research focuses on them (as cited in Hallock, 2000, p. 279). They added, "...the low level of wages paid in this sector is, in no small part, a function not only of the devaluation of women's work in the sector but also the result of the devaluation of the nonprofit sector because it is heavily populated by women" (Steinberg & Jacobs, 1994, p. 90).

Findings from the current review focus on pay and job disparity.

Nonprofit sector- a significant sector for women: In one of the earlier studies, Mastracci and Herring (2010) argued that nonprofit organisations had long been an important space for women to establish public roles. They found that proportions of women in full-time and critical positions are higher in nonprofits than in for-profit organisations that have concentration of women in peripheral roles and part-time roles. Women comprised about 60 percent of core positions, and the proportion of women in nonprofit employment increased with age of an organisation or the number of level of hierarchical reporting in the organisation. The size of the organisation was however found to be inversely related to women's proportion in core positions (Mastracci & Herring, 2010).

Further, exploring the reasons for the higher proportion of women in nonprofits, they found that nonprofits use transparent HRM practices and inclusive work processes to ensure greater participation of women in significant jobs. Formalised and transparent organisational governance, HRM and implementation of innovative and inclusive team-oriented work processes were found to enhance women's better employment status in nonprofits (Mastracci & Herring, 2010).

The argument of higher number of women in nonprofits was supported by Norris-Tirrel et al. (2017) who studied the gender representation of the CEOs and found a relatively fair representation with 46% male and 54% female holding CEO positions in. Further analysis revealed that while male female representation was fairly even among baby boomers, female executive leaders are increasing in the younger generation, with 56 per cent and 75 per cent CEOs being women from generation X and millennials respectively. At the same time, the authors found that men reached CEO positions two years sooner than women (Norris-Tirrel et al., 2017).

Gender gap in leadership positions: While Norris-Tirrel et al. (2017) revealed a high number of women in nonprofits, including in leadership positions, some other papers differed and found a continued concentration of men in top and crucial nonprofit roles. For instance, Iecovich (2004) found that the majority of chairpersons (76.6 percent) and executive directors (55.3 per cent) in their sample were men. In the study done by Analoui and Samour (2012) as well, most of the top management positions, especially the executive ones, were found to be held by men. However, they also noted that the 31.5 per cent occupation of these positions by women was high for them when compared to other fields and sectors. Relatively higher percentage of women holding top positions was attributed to the special nature of the NGO sector. The authors also revealed that gender did not affect NGO managers' attitudes and behaviours towards developing and operationalising organisational strategies. Similarly, Hallock (2000) supported Analoui and Samour (2012) by noting that despite women outnumbering men in the sector, few of them hold leadership positions and pay gaps continue to be substantial. While there was no relationship found between pay and performance for men, a negative relationship existed for women (Hallock, 2000). Nickson et al.

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(2008) also found that women predominated front-line care work in Scottish NGOs.

Harrow and Mole (2005) studied and compared the career stances of women and men chief executives. It was found that women chief executives were predominantly Careerists and outnumbered male chief executives by two to one. Careerists join the sector with a plan for their future career and align their personal development with that future. This suggested that women may outnumber men as chief executives in future (Harrow and Mole, 2005).

5.4. COMPENSATION PRACTICES IN THE SOCIAL SECTOR

Despite the significance and size of the nonprofit sector, knowledge about compensation of nonprofit workers is insufficient (Hallock, 2000). The limited existing knowledge suggests that the sector offers uncompetitive pay and along with tightening/ competitive labour market, compensation practices are a limiting factor for organisations in recruiting and retaining staff (Hallock, 2000; Nickson et al., 2008; Deren et al., 1992). While a number of studies emphasise that personal, intrinsic motivation to 'serve' is the primary reason for people to enter the social sector, there is also evidence to suggest that compensation and other benefits often become the reason for high attrition in the sector. For instance, Deren et al. (1992), in one of the first studies to address compensation practices, concluded that low compensation and limited benefits ensure that people leave their organisations. They suggested that for job improvement, it is important to duly compensate employees and also to provide benefits like medical benefits and opportunities for education and training.

5.4.1. Compensation and benefits offered in the social sector

Compensation in terms of salary continues to be a challenge in the sector. Within and outside the sector, the salaries and benefits offered to nonprofit employees are perceived to be low. Studying the challenges faced by nonprofit managers in hiring and retaining staff, Ban et al. (2003) shared mixed results regarding perception of salaries in the nonprofit sector. In their study, more than half of the respondents found their salaries unattractive but at the same time, a similar number of respondents thought their salaries were competent with other organisations in their field. It was indicated that because the salaries were considered lower than those in for-profit organisations, employees may want to work in other organisations (Ban et al., 2003).

Besides salaries, a range of other employment benefits have been studied in the literature. According to Ban et al. (2003), *benefit packages* are important to attract employees in the sector to make up for the low salaries. While most studies point towards the common practice of offering some or other benefits to at least full time employees in the sector, benefits vary a lot among organisations (Ban et al., 2003). Some organisations provide just basic health insurance while others pay comprehensive packages. An important finding revealed that some organisations are more egalitarian and offer the same benefits to non-professional as well as professional staff. In their study, all organisations offered at least health benefits. Medium-large organisations were likely to provide life insurance and retirement benefits as well while a larger number of small organisations offered dental and

vision insurance. Flextime was a common non-financial benefit offered by organisations under study (Ban et al., 2003).

Mastracci and Herring (2010) analysed National Organisations Survey (NOS) data of the year 2002 and examined benefits offered by nonprofits. Benefits commonly offered by nonprofits, especially to full-time employees included daycare, trainings, performance bonus, health insurance, health insurance for retirees, health insurance for part-time employees, competitive benefits, life insurance, eldercare leave, flextime, disability insurance, pensions, personal leaves, parental leaves and onsite equal employment opportunity on site (Mastracci & Herring, 2010).

Haley-Lock (2007) examined a range of benefits offered by nonprofits in a single sector study on domestic violence service organisations. It was found that all organisations under study had established some sort of internal labour market structures and provided health insurance, paid vacation, extended leave, upward mobility, wages, skill development opportunities, and opportunity for full-time status. However, organisations differed in providing these benefits. Though they were not always poorly rewarded, employee benefits were not equal across organisations. Medical and family leave benefits were commonly paid by all organisations while offer of paid leave differed substantially among organisations (Haley-Lock, 2007).

Reviewed literature also throws light on various factors that influence employee compensation and benefits. Primarily, the nature of engagement (full-time and part-time) influences compensation and benefits offered by organisations. Mastracci and Herring (2010) said that full-time employment offered more formal benefits like insurance coverage, opportunities for promotion and job security than part-time employees. Haley-Lock (2009) analysed job levels to understand employment benefits and also found that as compared to full-time employees, part-time employees were offered minimal benefits. At the same time, there was variation in the benefits offered even among part time employees; some were poorly rewarded while others enjoyed generous compensation and benefits. This variation may be attributed to the worker competencies and organisations may be paying some part time workers well because their skill set is wanted elsewhere in the labour market (Haley-Lock, 2009).

 Ban et al. (2003) studied factors that influenced perceived competitiveness of the *salaries* and added that it was affected by the size of the organisation and age of the employees. Salaries were considered competent by a higher number of employees in medium to large organisations than in small organisations. Larger organisations were also more likely to benchmark their salaries against others in the field. Other benefits offered were only moderately affected by the size of the organisations. Age of the employees was another determinant of salary satisfaction. Managers recognised that young employees accepted jobs at less pay because they were only beginning and therefore they set salaries at entry level (Ban et al., 2003).

Gender and Compensation: Though gender as a factor influencing compensation is not addressed specifically, Steinberg and Jacobs (1994) argued that "... the low level of wages paid in this sector is, in no small part, a function not only of the devaluation of women's work in the sector but also the result of the devaluation of the nonprofit sector because it is heavily populated by women" (as cited

in Hallock, 2000, p. 279).

5.4.2. Intra-sector and cross-sector comparison

A considerable chunk of literature on compensation in the nonprofit sector relates to the perceived and actual inequality in compensation and benefits of for-profit and nonprofit organisations (Hallock, 2000; Ben-ner et al., 2010; Mastracci & Herring, 2010; Mann, 2006). Studies have also explored compensation and benefits inequality within the social sector.

Despite the common perception of poor compensation for nonprofit workers, studies on wage inequality across employment sectors (nonprofit, for-profit and government) show mixed results.

In a study of compensation in the United States, Hallock (2000) synthesised 'scattered information' related to compensation in the nonprofit sector that was available across subjects including Human Resources, Accounting, Economics, Finance and the Social Studies and compared wages across the for profit and nonprofit sector using the US Census data. Hallock (2000) found that nonprofit workers earn slightly less (pay gap of between 5 and 7%) than for-profit workers in any other of the sectors (including government, and self-employment).

Hallock (2000) also presented key reasons for such compensation differential in nonprofits and for-profit organisations. These included labour donations[9], compensating differentials[10], the efficiency wage hypothesis[11], and "differences in returns to characteristics or selection (different kinds of workers choose to or must work in the nonprofit sector)" (Hallock, 2000, p. 3-4). Hallock (2000) added that paying for performance was difficult in nonprofits as nonprofit performance indicators like trustworthiness could not be measured.

Ben-ner et al. (2010) also explored wage inequality among nonprofit, for-profit and local government organisations and had different findings. They found that in terms of wages paid within the sector, nonprofits, like government organisations, performed better in wage equality than for-profit organisations. In some industries, nonprofits were found to pay even higher than for-profit organisations. When organisational characteristics and labour market were controlled, wage difference across the sectors was also not significant. Wage levels were also found to be similar for occupational segments representing core employees. Interestingly, the study noted similarities in the wage paying behaviour of nonprofits and governmental organisations. These two sectors provided more fringe benefits than for-profit organisations in some industries (Ben-ner et al., 2010).

Another finding from Ben-ner et al. (2010) supplemented Hallock (2000) and indicated that for-profit sector employees were more likely to get merit based pay than nonprofit and government

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9 According to the author, workers in nonprofits are making donations to their organisations by working for lower wages.

10 The author claims that nonprofit workers accept lower wages in exchange for better working conditions like more job flexibility etc.

11 Workers who are difficult to monitor work harder and are paid more to avoid losing their jobs and having to take new ones at a lower competitive wage.

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employees. This was further supported by Mastracci and Herring (2010) who compared the benefits offered by for-profit and nonprofit organisations to suggest that nonprofits that could not pay better salaries offered generous benefits. Nonprofits commonly offered all benefits paid by for-profit organisations except performance-based pay (too costly for nonprofits) and flextime which were more often paid by for-profit organisations. This is in contrast to observation by Halllock (2000) that nonprofit employees accepted lower wages in exchange for job flexibility.

5.4.3. Relationship between intrinsic motivation and compensation expectations and payments

One of the most studied aspects of compensation is the impact of employee motivation and compensation practices on each other (Haley-Lock, 2009; Li & Xie, 2021; Ban et al., 2003). Existing literature suggests that there may be a relationship between employees' intrinsic motivation to 'serve' and compensation expectation and results. Much of the literature finds that motivated employees may be undercompensated (Haley-Lock, 2009) and that monetary compensation for their work was not the primary motivation for working with nonprofits because nonprofit workers found 'greater' rewards of satisfaction from doing 'good'.

According to Ban et al. (2003), commitment to the mission of the organisation was the major draw for 77 percent respondents, with the overwhelming perception being that nonprofit workers joined organisations to do common good. Mann (2006) also found that salary was not the reason which drew employees to nonprofits. As compared to 27 percent of federal employees and 22 percent for private sector workers, more than 60 percent of the nonprofit employees joined their organisation to make a difference and not for salary and benefits which was primary reason of work for only 16 per cent of nonprofit workers as compared to 44 percent of private sector workers and 31 percent of federal workers (Mann, 2006).

Haley-Lock (2009) highlighted the risk associated with compensating salaries with satisfaction of doing good in nonprofits. She found that by relying on employees' altruism, organisations may risk staff resentment. Undercompensated but intrinsically motivated employees may become resentful of the organisation pay policies that may be comparatively overcompensating highly trained employees who are "in it for the money" despite them also sharing commitment to organisation mission. She suggested that this 'gamble' management may be different in different organisations but it was likely to occur in most nonprofits (Haley-Lock, 2009).

Reflecting the change in approach to conditions of nonprofit employment, a recent paper by Li and Xie (2021) argued that even though NPO employees cared more about values and happy experience at work than salaries, financial justice ("financial procedures, outcomes and information, especially the process of economic income distribution, the amount of economic income obtained by employees and the transmission of relevant information," 2021, p. 275) made them more satisfied and committed at work, making them work longer with their organisations. Therefore, organisations must ensure financial justice for their employees (Li & Xie, 2021).

The understanding of compensation for employees in the non-profit sector has been an understudied

theme in this literature review. While recent studies on talent management in the social sector have touched upon the compensation practices, the findings have been more focussed on relating them to either motivation of employees or comparing non-profit sector compensation to for-profit organisations and/ or government sector (Ben-ner et al., 2010). There continues to be a dearth of research that attempts to delve deep into the various factors that influence compensation from the perspectives of the employer, employee or larger socio-economic environment.

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CONCLUSION
Key Findings; Limitations of Existing Studies and Areas for Future Research

Thus, this paper informs the social sector by summarising the existing literature on different types, functions, competencies, career paths, motivations, risks, experiences and compensation vis a vis roles in the sector. Though some questions could be answered, others remained unanswered; pointing towards an absence of documented knowledge on various aspects of social sector roles. By highlighting the gaps in the information, the review indicates new areas for exploration in future research on talent in the social sector.

6.1. KEY FINDINGS

The review finds no standard definition or typology of social sector role/s as existing research does not focus on in-depth exploration of role/s. More than titles and functions, literature on roles is found to be focussed on competencies of social sector employees; and it emerges that the social sector has well educated and competent employees across levels.

Research on social sector roles reflects the development and evolution of SPOs. The need to manage a diverse workforce of paid employees and unpaid volunteers led to the adoption of for-profit strategies including the HRM strategy and model in studies.

The growth of literature has followed and responded to the professionalisation and related incorporation of HRM practices in the sector, with geographies with wider and longer professionalisation and marketisation of sector dominating the research on social sector talent management and compensation.

Comparison with for-profit and public sector emerges as a much explored area. Overall, research is dominated by samples from the USA and UK, and provides insight into social sector roles from perspectives that are considered relevant in the Global North.

Despite a number of roles being addressed in some capacity to study specific aspects of these roles, much of this literature is segmented and in silos. Managerial and senior level roles dominate studies and thus, the review suffers from a lack of insight on 'junior to mid level' roles in the sector. Volunteerism continues to be an essence of nonprofit roles but professionalisation may require this role to be managed carefully.

Social sector roles continue to be value driven and all the complexities of occupational risks, gender differential and experiences are found to influence or be influenced by personal and professional

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motivation of employees. Studies highlighted challenges of under-staffing, under-resourcing and emotionally and physically risky work. The particular socio-cultural and economic context of SPOs has also meant that nonprofit experience is important to lead nonprofit organisations, though, the changing broader environment is increasingly making it not essential.

The evidence suggested that the social sector provides better and more employment opportunities for women. The sector is found to do better than for-profit in intra-sectoral wage equality as well. The sector is also found to have more women in leadership and managerial positions, with the evidence indicating their dominance in such roles in future.

Compensation literature does not provide an indication of the compensation range in the sector. However, this component of the literature is more focussed in terms of the themes explored. More than one paper focussed on variances in benefits and salaries; relation to motivations and comparisons with public Sector and for-profit employees. However, there is no conclusive study on compensation variation across organisational profiles and roles.

6.2. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDIES

A number of factors limited research conducted on roles in the social sector. The common limitations emerging from the review of methodology used in the papers include the non-generalizability of the findings, limited variables used, poor response rate to surveys and interviews (Haley-lock, 2007; Hwang & Powell, 2009; Ben-ner et al., 2010; Suarez, 2010), skew in geographical focus (Ban et al., 2003; Mathaeur & Imhoff, 2006; Batisda et al., 2017; Cooper & Maktoufi, 2019), and differences in definitions of 'nonprofits' and 'social services' (some included health care professionals). Dated data and limited outreach to NGOs in the global South were other common limitations of the studies.

Limited scope: Each paper focussed on one or few variables as per the scope of the study. Despite establishing the significance of studying a certain variable in their papers, authors have highlighted the limitation of research in addressing wider aspects due to limited variables that have been studied (Blumenthal et al., 1998; Cunningham, 1999; Iecovich, 2004;).

Geographical skew: Research has also been limited in its scope due to narrow geographic focus, sampling type and small sample size (Ban et al., 2003; Mathaeur & Imhoff, 2006; Batisda et al., 2017; Cooper & Maktoufi, 2019). For instance, Mathauer and Imhoff (2006) observed that due to the small sample size and sampling procedure used, their findings could not be generalised as representative for all health workers of a country.

Methodological limitations: Choice of method of data collection also leads to limitation in the interpretation of results. In Harrow and Mole (2005) paper, the limitations of career histories were acknowledged as they suggested that retrospective recall of information by respondents may not be entirely accurate. Methodological challenge was also noticed by Word and Park (2009) as they raised concern about mono-method bias, positive response bias, and subjective measures of the variables due to reliance on an employee attitude survey. Similarly, Park and Word (2012) observed that the method of cross sectional design does not offer a clear cause-and-effect relationship between the

variables studied in their study and would require a closer look at the causal mechanism to make better sense of the relationship between the variables.

Limitations of data also create challenges for comprehensive analysis. Mastracci and Herring (2010) found that their data could not indicate whether the nonprofit organisations employed their female employees in core jobs. Also, self-reported data cannot avoid common method bias while doing individual level analysis (Park & Word, 2012).

6.3. GAPS AND SUGGESTED AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Overall, there is a glaring need to explore social sector roles in geographies beyond the USA and Europe. Considering the size and significance of the social sector in the Global South and especially in India, there is a huge skew against knowledge construction on the topic here. There is only one paper on India in the review which focuses largely on the role of volunteers. This points towards the need for research on paid roles and compensation practices in the Indian social sector. The ongoing countrywide research on Talent Management and Compensation Practices in India attempts to fill this gap.

The term NPOs needs more rigorous engagement by the academics. NPOs have been discussed as homogenous entities. In reality, NPOs are hugely diverse and varied across sectors that they engage in, the regions they operate in and the communities they engage with. The skills and competencies required in the NPOs are equally diverse and need to be studied in those specific contexts.

With most research representing a rather homogenous sample, there is a need to carefully examine the role of gender, ethnicity, race and caste in the expertise and experiences of social sector employees. Differentials in motivation, pay and level of employees can be further explored with intersectional lenses.

Despite HRM practices dominating discussion in much of the literature, there is a need for increased attention on the impact of incorporation of HRM practices on social sector employees' roles, motivations and outcomes. More research is needed to assess the extent to which HR practices can also hamper worker experiences whose requirements from HR may be better compensation, clarity of role and fair work conditions. It is also important to examine how HR practises may increase bureaucratisation and greater reporting burdens which can increase workload and negatively impact worker motivation and wellbeing.

Cross-cultural comparisons can lend greater insights into understanding of the social sector. Future research can explore how social sector roles are defined, compensated and managed across countries.

In terms of methodology, qualitative approaches to study the social sector are evolving, with the majority of work still being done in the quantitative domain. With existing qualitative inquiries being limited in scope and scale, more qualitative research is needed to study social sector roles on a larger scale.

It is necessary to document types and boundaries of different types of roles in the sector across the globe. This will help researchers create a classification of job roles in the sector that can be universal, and yet adaptable to the local context. It will also help organisations identify gaps in their talent pool and provide clarity to potential talent for the sector.

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ANNEXURE 1: DETAILS OF METHODOLOGY ADOPTED

The search strategy for the systematic literature review was developed through testing two strategies. Three frameworks namely, PEO, SPICE and ECLIPSE were tested for relevance to the study. Based on relevance to the research topic, ECLIPSE framework was used to develop search strings for the systematic literature review.

The testing of the search strings was also done through identification of unique words from the abstracts and texts of the papers. 104 search terms were identified through this exercise.

After testing multiple combinations 4 keyword search strings were finalised. The search strings were tested through two approaches on the SCOPUS database.

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- Finding the search results using Title, Abstract, keywords
- Finding the search results using full text search combinations with all fields

Below are the number of results when both approaches were applied.

Search Term	Number of Results	
***All searches limited to language English (Search date- 15th December, 2020)	All fields	Abstract, Title, Keywords
Search combination 1: ("jobs" OR "roles") AND ("nonprofit" OR "NGO" OR "voluntary organization" OR "charitable organization") AND ("typology" OR "classification")	32683	119
Search combination 2: ("nonprofit" OR "NGO" OR "voluntary organization" OR "charitable organization") AND ("job famil" OR "job description" OR "job title")	267	41
Search combination 3: ("nonprofit" OR "NGO" OR "voluntary organization" OR "charitable organization") AND ("human resource management" OR "people management" OR "talent management") AND ("jobs" OR "roles")	9360	63
Search combination 4: ("nonprofit" OR "NGO" OR "voluntary organization" OR "charitable organization") AND ("recruitment" OR "compensation" OR "pay" OR "career") AND ("job description" OR "human resource management")	5230	33

Looking at the relevance of the search results, the above-mentioned 4 search strings were used while applying the filters for 'Abstract, Title, Keywords' on Scopus. A final list of 256 relevant papers were included in this systematic literature review.

Screening of Literature using paper titles and abstracts

The shortlisted published materials were reviewed based on the title and abstract of the papers. The papers were then marked relevant or irrelevant based on how well they answered the research questions. The abstracts that were ambiguous to whether the paper answered the research question or not, were marked as relevant for further review.

Screening of papers based on full paper scans

The shortlisted published materials were reviewed based on a full scan of the paper. The papers

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were marked for relevance based on how well they answered the research questions. The full paper screening and reviews were done through the use of a citation manager application, Mendeley, by two researchers.. In case of conflict between the two researchers/ authors, a third researcher/ author resolved any disagreements around inclusion/ exclusion after a discussion based on pre-identified criteria.

The final number of articles selected for inclusion after these steps was 30.

Expansion of final list of shortlisted papers through Cross referencing

To make the literature review more comprehensive a further step of cross referencing the bibliographies of shortlisted papers was taken. This process added another seven relevant articles, making the total number of articles 37.

Final inclusion of papers in the literature review

All 37 articles selected in the previous step were analysed for writing this literature review.

ANNEXURE 2: SAMPLES, THEORIES, MODELS, FRAMEWORKS AND MEASUREMENT SCALES USED IN THE PAPERS

Types of Sample used: Samples included in the papers drew from different kinds of social purpose organisations and personnel working in them. Some studies drew on purposefully selected cases and organisations. A number of papers used existing lists, surveys and studies to draw samples for studies. For example, Claiborne (2004) randomly selected 60 NGOs from an UN registered list of NGOs. Other existing surveys and registered lists that were used as source of sample include the Minnesota Department of Employment and Economic Development (DEED) unemployment insurance files; Korean Nonprofit Acceptance of Performance Appraisal System Survey; General Social Survey (which is conducted bi-ennially by the National Opinion Research Center of the University of Chicago); the NASP-III survey (Feeney, 2005), which included managers in public and nonprofit agencies in Illinois and Georgia (used to draw sample by two papers); Copeland County Fund list covering human service and community development nonprofits; Voluntary Agencies' Directory 1997-98 of the National Council for Voluntary Organisations; 501(c)(3) listed charitable organisations in the US (two papers draw their sample from this list); and the Community Foundation of Middle Tennessee' website, GivingMatters.com.

Overall, the papers analysed data collected from different sets of sample of employees working in nursing homes, child care centres, domestic violence service agencies, charity organisations, NHS trust run homes for the intellectually disabled; Narcotics and Drug Research, Inc.; cooperative organisations; social enterprises; case-study voluntary organisations and healthcare agencies.

Theories, models, frameworks and scales used in the papers

Some papers located data analysis within specific theories, models and frameworks and may suggest which of these were established tools to understand the talent in the social sector. There were a few that also developed some frameworks, typologies and theories. Different frameworks and theories used by authors included the motivation framework for volunteerism based on Clary et al (1998); paths of scaling up framework by Uvin and Miller (1996); institutional theory; Weick's (1993) concept of sensemaking (particularly retrospective sensemaking); typologies of career paths in the sector (Harrow & Mole, 2005; Maher, 2015; Parsons et al., 1997 Suarez, 2010); Job Analysis; intrinsic-motivation perspective and agency theory; theory of planned behaviour; Self-Determination Theory; theory of firm-level labour Markets; conceptual framework drawn from motivation, non-financial incentives and HRM/QM; drawn from Franco et al. (2000); Kanfer's model of motivation (1999); PSM Framework (Perry and Wise, 1990); HRM theory; Allen and Katz's (1986) and Erdogmus' (2004) approach in assessing the career path of managers and professionals in the private and public sectors; the social process model of recruitment and selection.

Of those papers that developed frameworks, one (Charleston et al., 2019) developed the CPACE (Curiosity, Passion, Adaptability, Communication and Empathy) framework to describe competencies needed to succeed in cross-cultural projects. Another paper developed a framework for typology of leaders in the nonprofit sector (Suarez, 2010).

A number of measurement scales were also used in the studies. Likert scale was commonly used in quantitative papers. Other specialised scales used include Perry's (1996) original PSM scale; a six-item job involvement scale; six item Extrinsic Motivation Scale; five item Hierarchical Culture Scale; ten point Red Tape Scale; four point Managerial Power Scale; a three-dimensional 12-item scale (including pay, chance of promotion and job satisfaction); Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) scale (24 item scale that measures the five dimensions of OCB, namely altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue); Organisational commitment scale; Job Satisfaction Scale; and Financial Justice Scale. Batisda et al. (2017) also developed a human resource management scale called Management style scale as part of their paper.