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NONPROFIT VALUES IN MULTI-SECTOR EMPLOYMENT

By

Celeste Sturdevant Reed

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ABSTRACT

NONPROFIT VALUES IN MULTI-SECTOR EMPLOYMENT

By

Celeste Sturdevant Reed

It is widely recognized in both the popular and the scholarly literature that employees' values contribute to a variety of work-related attitudes, actions and outcomes. This study extends the investigation of the relationship between individuals' values and aspects of their work setting by comparing individuals' values and work practices across three sectors, nonprofit, public and for-profit. This research was guided by a descriptive study that proposed sector, industry and organizational influences in addition to employee values as explanatory variables accounting for nonprofit organizations' practices (Young, 1984).

The challenge in cross-sector research is to collect enough data in each sector to test key relationships. The solution used here was to identify a set of individuals who were then asked to provide self and work-related data, rather than identifying organizations from whose employees' self and organizational practices data could be collected. The advantages and disadvantages of such an approach are discussed.

Three streams of literature were used to develop a model that integrated work and individual context variables, individual values and work practices as predictors of individuals' organizational commitment, job involvement, intent to leave their organization and tenure. The contributions made by nonprofit literature, institutional literature and organizational behavior literature are identified.

Mixed results were found. In contrast to hypotheses, sector did not predict the work values altruism or autonomy, the availability of professional rewards or the use of professional judgments in making client service decisions. Similarly, financial rewards were most available in the public sector and least available in the for-profit sector. Generally the interactions between work values and the work practices that mirrored those values were not significant predictors of organizational commitment, job involvement or intent to leave. The availability of professional rewards and the opportunity to use professional judgments were associated with organizational commitment while reliance on legal requirements and the lack of professional rewards predicted intent to leave. The impact of the work value altruism was predicted: it was positively associated with organizational commitment and job involvement and negatively associated with intent to leave. The findings are more fully discussed and recommendations for further research and practice are offered.

DEDICATION

In loving memory of Phil

And

To my family and friends
who were continuously supportive over this long journey
("Aren't you done yet?")

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My heartfelt thanks to the continuing members of my Committee: Mike Moore, Ed Montemayor, Kevin Ford and John Hollenbeck. To say that this has been a long process is an understatement. Individually you have stepped up at critical moments to keep this dissertation alive long enough for me to complete it. Your collective willingness to provide support, encouragement, and plan for yet another meeting made success possible.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an introduction to and overview of the dissertation study. Five topics are discussed: the importance of a more complete understanding of nonprofit employees' values; the research approach; the key assumptions and limitations inherent in this research; the contributions of this study; and an outline of the subsequent chapters in the dissertation.

Importance of the Topic

Introduction

It is widely recognized in both the popular and the scholarly literature that employees' values contribute to a variety of work-related attitudes, actions and outcomes. Because values are stable dispositional traits, there has been continued interest in linking these affective evaluations to motives and performance (Dawis, 1991). Work values can influence such diverse factors as an individual's choice of employer (Judge & Bretz, 1992), organizational adaptation (Chatman, 1989) or employees' job satisfaction (Meglino, Ravlin & Adkins, 1989).

While there is evidence of the applicability of general values—such as achievement, helping and concern for others, fairness and honesty—to many organizations (Cornelius, et al., 1985), nonetheless researchers persist in their attempts to identify meaningful organization-related differences that can be attached to individuals' specific values. Knowledge of organizational values as signaled by compensation systems has been shown to influence job seekers' choices (Judge & Bretz, 1992). In one of the most

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most comprehensive studies of organization-person value congruence, Chatman (1991) found that organizational values profiles could be generated for accounting firms based on managers' descriptions and that these unique profiles could be associated with differences in firms' practices (socialization activities) as well as employees' attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction) and actions over time (i.e., turnover).

The pursuit of some level of fit between individuals' values and their work settings is hardly trivial. Where there is values congruence between employees and their organizations, studies have shown payoff for organizations in improved job performance, stronger organizational commitment, and reduced turnover (Meglino et al., 1989). Further, it has been suggested that better alignment between people and their organizations, as opposed to people and specific jobs, is necessary to create the workforce flexibility needed by employers (Bowen, 1991).

An Extension

This study extends investigation of the relationship between individuals' values and aspects of their work settings. The studies cited above focused exclusively on employment experiences in a single sector. This study compares individuals' values and organizations' practices across three sectors—the public, not-for-profit and for-profit sectors. This research is guided by a descriptive study that proposed sector, industry, and organizational influences as well as employee values as explanatory variables accounting for nonprofit organizations' practices (Young, 1984). Augmenting document reviews with interviews of nonprofit leaders, Young developed theories about the nonprofit sector that accounted for the relationships among sector, industry, organization and person attrib

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attributes described. Chief among the explanatory factors was the role that a specific value orientation had on sector, industry, organization and individual practices. No subsequent study has been found that attempts to measure the influence of the variables he described.

The influence of employees' values is discussed extensively in the nonprofit literature (Drucker, 1974; O'Connell, 1988; O'Neill & Young, 1988) but rarely tested. As will be seen in Chapter 2, even those researchers who describe sectoral value differences do so without explicitly testing those values. The dearth of information about the relationship between employee values and work practices is remarkable, given the assumptions made that nonprofit employees are best able to act on their values in nonprofit organizations (Witty, 1989). In this study I have tested nonprofit assumptions by developing a model of interaction among key variables. The model itself, shown in Figure 1, is derived from relationships among variables tested primarily in the for-profit sector.

The relationship among variables in Figure 1 is as follows. Two organization context variables, sector and industry, influence an organization's work practices. Similarly, two person context variables, sector and position, influence an individual's work values. An individual's work values interact with the work practices to influence a set of individual variables, specifically one's job involvement, organizational commitment, tenure in the organization, and intent to remain with that organizations. These relationships are described in more detail in Chapter 2.

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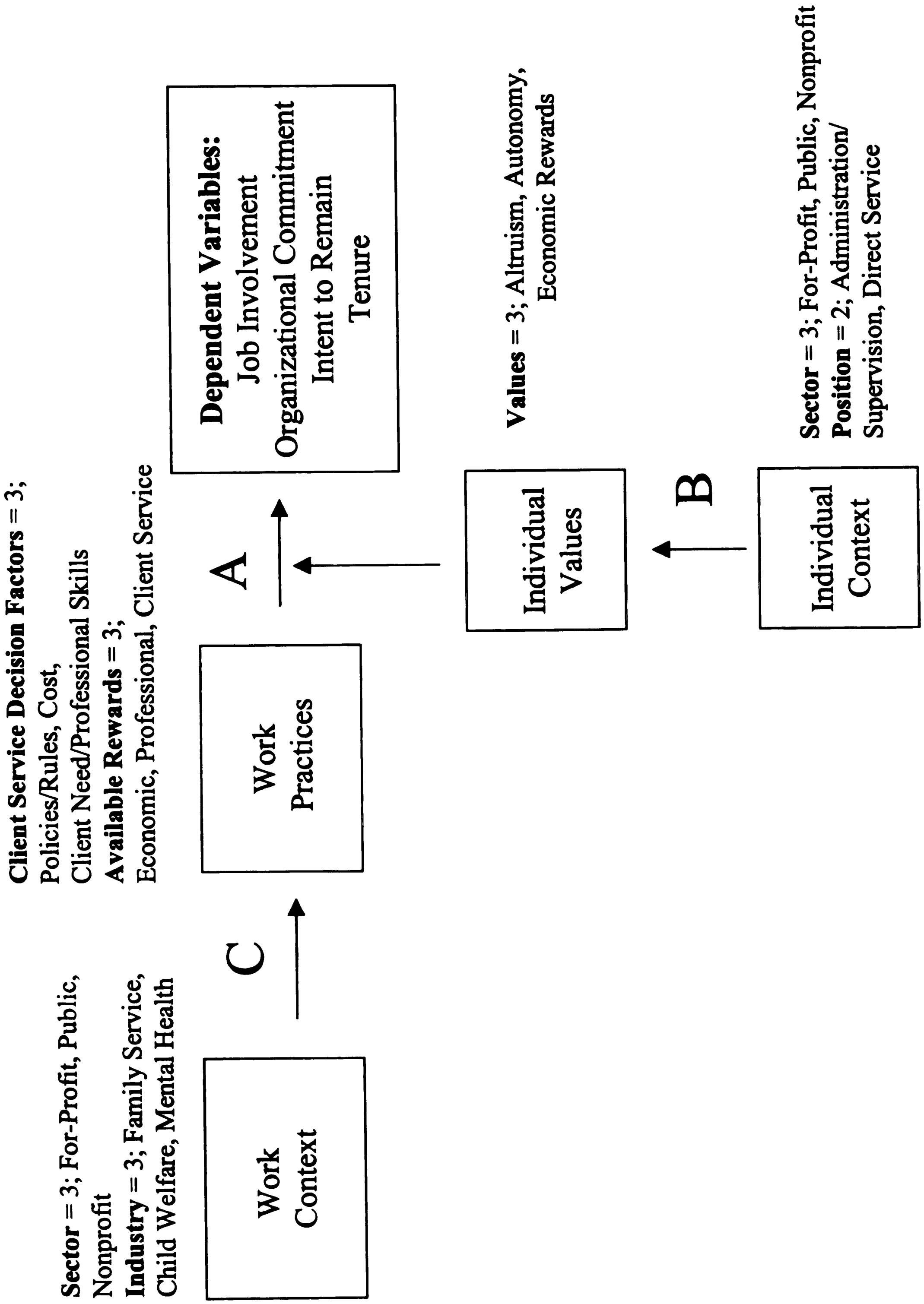

Figure 1. The Relationships Among the Dissertation Variables

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The Research Approach

The research approach used here was to collect data using a large cross-sectional exploratory study. The challenge was to collect enough data across three sectors to test key relationships in the model. In order to do so, I have used the approach of identifying individuals and following them back to their organization rather than identifying organizations and moving down to the employees. The benefits and liabilities of such an approach are described at the end of this chapter.

Based on Young's descriptive study of nonprofit organizations, a series of definitions and *a priori* decisions were made to place the following boundaries around the key variables.

Sector

As used in this study, sector conforms to the traditional three economic sectors: public, nonprofit, and for-profit. Some nonprofit theoreticians (Smith, 1991) have suggested that subdivisions could create a more homogeneous sector, for example, by separating out member benefit organizations. The three-sector model is appropriate for differences being tested here. I have excluded the member benefits nonprofit organizations from this study.

Industry

Young (1984) accounted for differences he found in reward structures and practices by looking at the important relationships nonprofit organizations had with organizations in other sectors. Three industries commonly found in the nonprofit sector have bee

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have been selected, child welfare, family services and mental health. These three industries provide a contrast among the other-sector relationships of their organizations (Thompson, 1967). Family service agencies are traditional nonprofits shaped most by the needs and preferences in their communities; clients and donors, not other-sector organizations, provide the most influence on their services (Alperin, 1993). The nonprofit organizations being shaped most by their public sector partners are child welfare agencies (Kramer, 1994) and mental health agencies are increasingly being shaped by market forces (Winegar, 1993).

Type of Organization

One of the challenges in comparing and contrasting nonprofit organizations is to select a subset of organizations that are sufficiently alike to allow for comparison. It has been suggested that "the differences among not-for-profit organizations—for example, a cancer research institute versus a Harlem street academy versus a cemetery association—are so great that their common negative characteristic of not seeking a profit becomes minor" (Newman & Wallender, 1978, p. 26). This study focuses on human service agencies, those local agencies that provide services aimed at meeting the social needs of a community (McCauley & Hughes, 1991).

Type of Person

This was a study of employee-employer relationships, so it excluded volunteers and others without a regular employment attachment. The respondents were all members of the Michigan Chapter of the National Association of Social Workers. They represent a single gr

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single group with similar training and professional socialization who have chosen to work in different sectors and/or industries.

Key Assumptions and Limitations

A number of key assumptions are being tested in this dissertation. First, the study model includes relationships that have been tested in part, but never within an entire model. For example, work values have been shown to be associated with organizational outcomes, but specific contextual variables such as sector, industry or position have not previously been combined as explanatory variables. A key assumption is that sector influences can be traced through organizational practices and individual values to specific outcomes. Second, this study represents the first-time use of a work values inventory to directly collect work values information from individuals in the nonprofit sector. Standardized approaches have been used in the for-profit sector. However, these approaches did not include the theoretically necessary items nor were they usable in a cross-sectional research. An instrument with theoretically appropriate items was selected and tested in this study. The second assumption made is that distinctions among individuals' values can be made using this measuring approach. Third, these employing organizations–human service organizations–represent an alternative form not usually studied. In order to study organizational practices within these organizations, it was necessary to develop a scale to assess their focal operational practice, that of making client service decisions. The items in the scale are based on a review of the literature, but are untested as a measurement device. A third key assumption made is that such practices can be measured and compared across organizational types. Finally, a fourth assumption made is :

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made is that focusing on employees in a single profession would not draw the sample too narrowly with respect to important individual attributes.

The limitations of the study are several, and parallel the method and model being used. First, this is a self-report study. There was no feasible way to collect independent data to verify the responses or to compare individuals' responses with desired organizational outcomes. The latter is a more onerous omission than the former since there is some evidence that the mean self-report values for variables in this study are unlikely to be inflated (Crampton & Wagner, 1994). Second, this could not be a study of organizations since the mailing list was composed of individuals, most likely to be in different organizations. Therefore it was only possible to compare work settings, not to build profiles of specific organizations. Third, while every attempt has been made to locate tested scales and measures, for some variables of interest that was not possible. The client service decision factor scale, for example, had to be developed for this study. Because of some unique aspects of human service organizations, setting-specific scales have not been subjected to the same level of extensive use that scales appropriate for all settings (organizational commitment, for example) have experienced. Finally, the world of human service organizations in Michigan is particularly volatile. Especially the mental health system, but also the child welfare system is undergoing constant and progressive change. Some of the findings here may be temporal, or at least evolutionary, in nature.

Contributions

This study contributes to current research on organizational behavior and also to the knowledge about nonprofit employees and their work experiences. There are several specific

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specific areas of contribution to the organizational behavior literature. First, this research collects a number of variables about the employment relationship within an interactionist perspective, linking attributes of employees with attributes of their work settings (Taylor & Giannantonio, 1993). Second, the use of a work values variable adds to the growing literature that acknowledges this as the preferred method of measuring individual and organizational attributes (Chatman, 1989). Finally, the collection and analysis of contextual, organizational and individual variables provides additional support for the notion of congruence among these factors.

Specific contributions are also made to the nonprofit literature. For the first time, nonprofit employees' values have been measured with a specific work values scale, and, as will be seen in Chapters 4 and 5, the empirical evidence challenges the predicted nonprofit sector-work values relationship. This study also responds to the call for more research on organizational factors and employment practices in the nonprofit sector (Brown, 1986). In addition, not since Young's (1984) ground-breaking work has there been a description of the interplay among sector, industry, work setting and individual characteristics. Much of the descriptive literature that focuses on individuals' values does not adequately reflect the current challenges facing industries in the nonprofit sector. Finally, practitioners may benefit from the "view from the field" of how client service decisions are viewed. The balancing of context, organization, staff and client issues should be informative.

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Outline of this Dissertation

This dissertation contains five chapters. Chapter 1 has described the rationale underlying the research, provided an overview of the model being tested, outlined the study's limitations, and suggested the potential contributions.

Chapter 2 presents the model in detail, providing the literature that supports each of the model components. The twenty-one variables are organized into three relationships, those organizational practices and individual values that predict individual outcomes, the person context variables that predict individual values, and the organization context variables that predict organization practices. The hypotheses related to each relationship are presented at the conclusion of each section of the literature review.

Chapter 3 discusses the method of investigation. This includes a description of the sample, the data collection procedure, the operationalization of variables, the measures and the method of data analysis for each hypothesis.

Chapter 4 provides the results of the data analysis by component for each of the hypotheses. Descriptive statistics have also been included.

Chapter 5 contains a summary of the findings. Alternative explanations are presented as are implications for practice. Finally, suggestions for future research conclude this chapter.

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CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter 1 introduced a model that has been used to examine the relationships between employed individuals and their organizations. Figure 1 illustrated that variables representing peoples' values and contexts, when combined with specific work practices in certain contexts, are expected to have an impact on individuals' work attitudes and tenure. Several streams of literature have been used to build this model:

- The organization behavior literature on individual-organization relationships;
- The nonprofit literature on individual values and organizational practices;
- The professional-organization relationship literature;
- Organizational theory for the impact of context and environment on organizations and their practices; and
- The institutional literature related to the three sectors and three industries that are highlighted in this study.

In this chapter, the literature with accompanying hypotheses is presented for each component of the theoretical model. The review begins with the final component of the model, the relationship between individual values and work practices that predict target individual attitudes and behaviors. That interaction is supplemented with the two additional components, those contextual variables that are predicted to influence individuals' values and those contextual variables that are predicted to influence work practices. The chapter concludes with a summary of the three key authors whose work contributed to the model's development and a review of the hypotheses tested.

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Relationship A:
Individual Values and Work Practices Predict Dependent Variables

Figure 2 suggests that individual values interact with work practices to create the individual outcomes of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intent to remain with one's organization and tenure in one's organization.

In this section literature is presented to support this component of the model, the variables selected and the method used to operationalize the model. In so doing, literature will first be presented on the nature of the interaction and the potential positive outcomes of that interaction. Then a discussion of each of the sets of independent variables, individual values and work practices, will be presented. Additional literature will be presented in each of the following two sections where work practices and individual values are operationalized as dependent variables in those segments of the model.

The Relationship between People and Work Settings

Person-Organization Fit

The focus of this study is to better understand the relationship between specific people and their perceived work settings. The model proposes a series of antecedents that result in desired individual outcomes. The interaction modeled in Figure 2 can be conceptualized as the construct person-organization fit. Person-organization fit is most often defined as the compatibility between individuals and organizations (Kristoff, 1996). Kristoff refines this definition by suggesting that "person-organization fit is defined by the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both" (pp 4-5). The attributes that have been investigated include

Figure

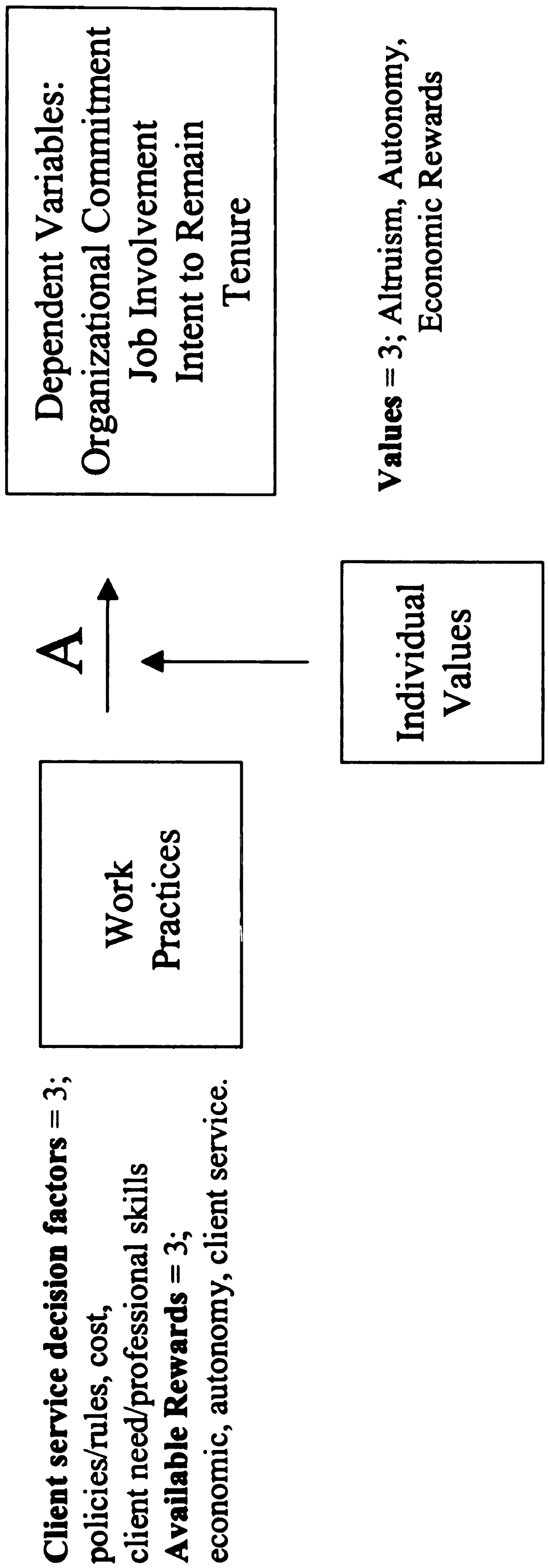

Figure 2. Relationship A: Predicting the Dependent Variables from Work Practices and Individual Values

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organization/person characteristics, including values, goals, culture (organization) or personality (person); organization/person supplies or demands including resources, opportunities and sets of knowledge, skills and abilities. Fit has been operationalized as a match between individuals and organizations in four general ways:

1. Identifying the congruence between individual and organization values (a supplementary perspective);
2. Matching the goal congruence between individuals and organization leaders (a supplementary perspective);
3. Defining fit as the match between individual preferences and organizational systems or structures (a needs-supplies perspective); and
4. The match between the characteristics of individual personality and organizational climate (interpretable as either a supplementary or complementary perspective).

There have been differences in the results observed based on the operationalization of person-organization fit. Researchers who have focused on the measurement of individual personality or preferences and organizational structures have found mixed results. Bretz and his colleagues (1989) did not find a discernable relationship between individuals' internal needs states and a set of individually and organizationally oriented system characteristics. However, when fit has been conceptualized as individual and organizational goal congruence (Schneider, 1987), greater goal congruence, both within work group and across supervisory level, has been associated with desirable work attitudes (Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991).

The most frequently used and strongly endorsed operationalization of fit is one of individual and organizational work value congruence (Boxx, Odom & Dunn, 1991;

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Chatman, 1989, 1991; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Posner, 1992). Proponents suggest that this is the preferred method for assessing congruence because values represent fundamental and enduring characteristics of both people and organizations (Chatman, 1989). The importance of individual-organizational values congruence has been demonstrated in all aspects of the employment relationship (Taylor & Giannontonio, 1993). Researchers have documented the strength of individuals' value-based decision making. Where individuals are provided enough information about an organization's values, they will choose jobs based on those values (Cable & Judge, 1994). There is also evidence that individuals will change jobs in order to achieve a better fit with their values (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein & Garner, 1994). In the most comprehensive of the employment relationship studies, Chatman (1991) demonstrated that similarity of employee-organization work values could explain selection choices, the ease of employees' socialization into an organization, and retention. Moreover, she was able to rule out possible alternative explanations for the employee-organization compatibility found, i.e., that individuals with specific value profiles fit better in any organization, or conversely, that organizations with particular work value profiles accommodated all types of individuals' values better. It was the alignment of both sets of values that predicted individual satisfaction, intent to leave, and actual departure.

It is possible to measure the extent of fit without collecting comparable individual and organizational data. Direct measures of fit, taken by asking people whether they believe a good fit exists, have been shown to produce results similar to those found with comparable comparison data. Higher organizational commitment was reported by individ.

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individuals who rated their values to be compatible with their organizations than by those who reported less congruence (Chao, et al., 1994; Posner & Schmidt, 1996).

Consequences of Fit

Prior research has confirmed both affective and behavioral consequences of fit. Studies done with such diverse populations as school personnel (Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991), three levels of staff in a production organization (Meglino et al., 1989) and professional accountants (Chatman, 1991) found that the level of goal or value congruence predicted job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job involvement has not been studied as a product of organizational fit. However, it has frequently been viewed as the product of work values (Kunungo, 1982; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) and recent research found that job involvement is stable job attitude (Steel & Rentsch, 1997).

Both intent to leave and actual departure have also been predicted by alignment of individuals' and organizations' values (Chatman, 1991). In a study of professional engineers, Chao and her colleagues (Chao, et al., 1994) found that people who never changed jobs in the five years of the study had a significantly better fit between their own and their organization's values than those people who changed jobs within their organizations as well as those who changed organizations. Among job changers, better fit (higher scores) was found after individuals made job changes.

The challenge is this study was to operationalize theoretically supportable characteristics of fit given the limitations of this study. Finding commensurate ways to measure target organization and person attributes was not possible because no independent organization data were collected. Similarly, verifying individuals' agreement in order

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in order to ascribe an attribute to the organization (James, 1982) was not possible because these respondents were anonymous individuals across many organizations. In the discussions that follow, I outline the approach used here to identify necessary parallel and/or related individual work values and work setting characteristics.

Individual Values

I followed the strong recommendation of prior researchers and chose work values as the key individual variable for assessing fit. Work values have been defined as the end state people desire and feel they ought to be able to realize through working (Nord, Brief, Atieh, & Doherty, 1988). The adoption of a work values approach is particularly appropriate for this study, where I am trying to capture the unique aspects of nonprofit sector employees' values. The nonprofit literature suggests that the attributes upon which nonprofit employees are most like each other—and most different from employees attracted to the other sectors—is in their work values (Witty, 1989).

A variety of approaches have been used to assess individual and organizational work values. Some researchers investigating fit have used the organization's own set of values (Posner, 1992). Others have used sets of values drawn from universal values such as the Comparative Emphasis Scale used by Ravlin & Meglino (1987) or the Organizational Culture Profile used by O'Reilly and colleagues (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). Neither of these approaches were deemed appropriate for this study. First, given the diversity and anonymity of organizations, no single set of organizational values could be offered. More importantly, although their assumptions have not been empirically tested, nonprofit authors persist in asserting that values are different in this sector :

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sector than in the other sectors, so other formulations of universal values did not seem appropriate.

Nonprofit authors agree that the nonprofit sector is unique because the organizational raison d'etre—its mission, which incorporates it accountability to the public trust and lack of profit motive—is the key factor that sets these organizations apart (Hodgkin, 1991; Jeavons, 1992; Ott, 1991). The mission or values across the three sectors differ. In the for-profit sector the objective is to make a profit (Jeavons, 1992). Organizations in the public sector are mandated to carry out programs defined by elected officials on behalf of their constituents. In the nonprofit sector, no such targeted objective exists; their work revolves around the philosophical, moral or religious values of their founders and supporters. The general values ascribed to the nonprofit sector include a commitment beyond one's self (O'Connell, 1988), independence and autonomy (O'Neill & Young, 1988).

Commitment beyond oneself, alternatively named as altruism or service to others, is thought to be a unique nonprofit value. In contrast, autonomy is recognized as a cross-sector value. Professionals, who are the target respondents in this study, are known for the positive value they place on autonomy (Bartol, 1979; Hall, 1985; Kerr, Von Glinow & Schriesheim, 1972).[1] Autonomy has been defined "a perceived right to make decisions about both the means and goals associated with one's work" (Bartol, 1979, p.817). The salience of autonomy for professionals is supported by international research cited above

[1]The list of multidimensional professional values includes: professional autonomy, commitment to the profession, identification with the profession, professional ethics, and belief in collegial maintenance of standards (Bartol, 1979; Kerr, et al., 1977).

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(MOW International Research Team, 1989). Across countries and occupations, managers and professionals reported preferences for autonomy.

Work Structures

In Kristoff's (1996) review of the person-organization fit literature, work values was a supplementary fit variable, used to assess fit from both individuals and their organizations. Work structures were defined as one of the resource/opportunity variables organizations supplied in response to the resource/opportunities needed or demanded by individuals (a complementary perspective). I have mixed these two approaches, matching individual values with the work structures (resource/opportunities) available in organizations to assess fit.

This approach, linking individual values and organizational structures, has been recommended or used by other researchers. Schneider (1987, 1995) theorized that people in organizations develop the structures that fit their goals and values. Although this assertion has not been empirically tested, it is widely recognized that organizational structures, particularly organizational reward systems, can signal organizational values (Rynes, 1987). Researchers investigating person-organization fit have described an array of organizational structures in order to assess congruence. These structures include: reward system characteristics (Bretz, Ash, & Dreher, 1989), pay, promotional opportunities, type of work (Judge & Bretz, 1992), and total compensation systems (Cable & Judge, 1994). While personality traits were not associated with the appropriate attributes of organizational structures (Bretz, et al., 1989), individuals' work values were associated with structures that reflected those values when sufficient information was ovide

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provided to make a value comparison (Cable & Judge, 1994). Sufficient agreement existed in the literature for reward practices to be used as one set of work practices that were investigated in this study.

A second set of organizational structures was developed to fit these specific organizations. Human service organizations (HSOs) as a class are distinguished by two key characteristics: these organizations work directly with and on people and they are mandated to protect and to promote the welfare of the people they serve (Hasenfeld, 1983). Organizations differ in the methods use to work with their clients but all are similar in that judgments and evaluation are made that influence clients' fates. These judgments are codified into organizational polices and professional practices. In HSOs, the primary work practice concern is the management of competing pressures, either for professional service to clients or for the administrative requirements of the organization (Blau & Scott, 1962). For this study, a client services practice scale was developed to describe the agency, professional, client and community factors that represented the array of professional judgments and industry pressures that should operate in human service organizations. The items in the scale were drawn from the institutional literature presented later in this chapter. Individuals' work values, in particular their preferences for service to others and autonomy, were expected to interact with work practices that reinforced or constrained those values.

Summary

This discussion of the terminal relationship in the model can be summarized by the following hypothesis.

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H1: The fit between an individual's work values and work practices that reflect those values positively predicts one's organizational commitment, job involvement, intent to remain with the organization and tenure.

In the next two sections, the two sets of antecedent factors promoting fit are presented: the person context variables predicting individual values and the work context variables predicting work practices.

Relationship B: Person Context Predicting Individual Values

Figure 3 identifies the key variables for the prediction that context produces specific individual values.

If values are enduring personal attributes, one might question how contextual variables could influence an individual's values. Recall that the investigation here is on values that one believes can be realized on the job. There is some evidence that values can be shaped by work experiences. In her study of accountants, Chatman (1991) found that new recruits' value preferences did become more closely aligned with their organization's values through the socialization process, and this improved alignment, in turn, increased their satisfaction. In this section, literature is presented to support the hypothesized influences that sector and position are expected to exert on the target values of service to others, economic rewards and autonomy. First, a brief description of sectoral differences is presented.

Sector Influences on Work Values

Studies of nonprofit managers have shown that they were committed to making things better for the people they served, and they didn't believe they would be able to

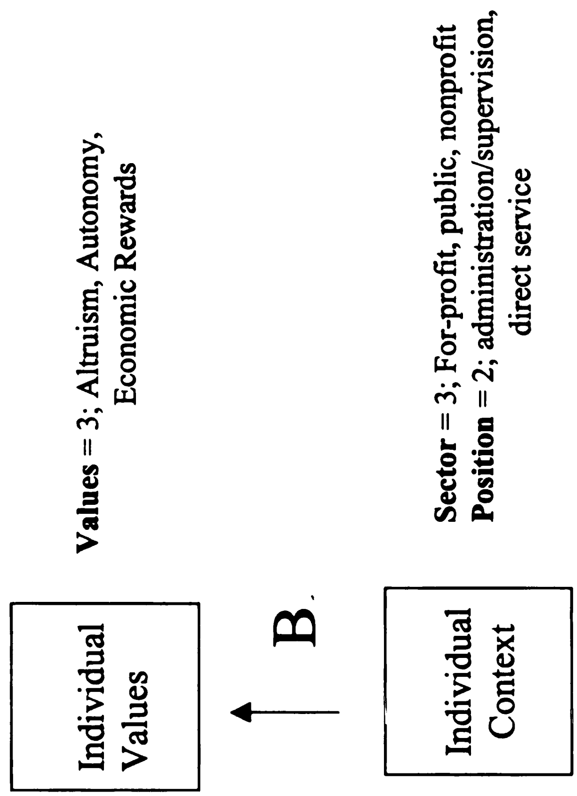

Figure 3. Relationship B: Person Context Predicting Individual Values

pursue these values in the corporate world (Witty, 1989). Young (1984) argued that financial rewards are less necessary in organizations whose employees value the contribution they make to society more than they value pay. The following section summarizes the research on the differential sector influences—for profit, nonprofit and public—on the three selected work values: altruism, economic rewards and autonomy. A substantial amount of research has compared preferences for service to others with economic rewards. Those studies are presented below.

Altruism and Economic Rewards

The literature comparing these two values is presented in Table 1. This table provides highlights of each author's findings related to altruism and economic rewards by sector.

Khojasteh (1993) surveyed the management hierarchy of twenty-five organizations (seven public and 18 private industries) to explore the differences in motivating public and private sector managers. The 362 managers who responded were both male and female and ranged in education from high school diploma to some work beyond masters. Respondents completed a questionnaire based on Herzberg's Motivation Hygiene Theory that asked them to rate twelve intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. He found a significant difference (p = .03) in the mean scores and rankings for pay, with private sector managers ranking it most important and public sector managers ranking pay 7th in importance. Public managers ranked achievement most important; for private sector managers achievement 3rd most important (p = .05). He concluded that pay had a high motivating

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Table 1
Cross-Sector Comparisons of Employee Values

Authors by Values	Sector		
	For Profit	Nonprofit	Public
Altruism			
Rawls, et al., 1975	Lower in willingness to work for others	Higher in willingness to work for others	
Weisbrod, 1983	Comparison group	Had a strong preference for public interest work over usual corporate work. This preference is significantly different from for-profit counterparts (Godderis, 1988)	
Wittmer, 1991	Lower ranking (4) on "being helpful to others" but no difference on "community service"		Highest ranking (1) placed on "being helpful to others" [Hybrid organizations (health and schools) no different than public]
Economic rewards			
Khojasteh, 1993	Pay is most important (ranked #1)		Pay is less important (ranked #7)
Preston, 1989	Wages were higher for white collar worker but not for clerical workers	Wages were lower for white collar workers but not for clerical workers	
Rawls et al., 1975	Higher economic values	Lower economic values	
Weaver & Franz, 1992	No difference in preference for high income. Employees had highest preference for promotion. Entrepreneurs low and no difference from public		No difference in preference for high income. Low preference for promotion and no difference from entrepreneurs

Table 1 (cont'd).

Weisbrod, 1983	Served as the comparison group	Aware that pay is presently and permanently lower. This choice is significantly different than their for-profit counterparts (Godderis, 1988)	
Wittmer, 1991	Highest ranking (1) for "higher pay"		Lower (3rd) ranking for "higher pay" [No difference between hybrid and public organizations]

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potential for private sector managers, but had a low motivating potential for public managers.

In the earliest study that compared the values of nonprofit with for-profit employees, Rawls, Ullrich, & Nelson (1975) used a battery of tests that measured personality traits and life values.[2] In their study population of graduate students planning to enter either the nonprofit or the for-profit fields, both personality differences and values differences were associated with job choice and attitudinal differences They found no differences between the two groups based on their demographic profiles, problem solving ability, intelligence, or creativity. The two groups did differ in personality traits and values. People planning to enter the nonprofit field were significantly higher in their scores for comfortable life, ambition, willingness to pardon others, working for the welfare of others and significantly lower in their economic values and need for security.

Cross sector economic value differences were inferred in two wage comparison studies. Weisbrod (1983) compared the wage structures of attorneys in for-profit and nonprofit public interest law firms. He found that public interest lawyers were aware of the pay differences, knew that these differences were permanent (i.e., would not recover the income later in their career), and made the choices because of their strong preference for public interest work. He estimated approximately a $4,000 annual salary difference between lawyers in the two sectors. Godderis (1988) reanalyzed these data and confirmed that public interest lawyers were systematically different from their for-profit counterparts in their employment choices. Using a similar approach, Preston (1989) compared white

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[2]Dawis (1991) defines two categories of values measures; those that are broad in scope and apply to the totality of human life and those that are work-related or vocational. In the Rawls, et al. (1975) study, values were measured with a broad, totality of life inventory, the *Rokeach Value Survey* (Rokeach, 1973).

collar and clerical nonprofit with for-profit employees in her economic study of pay differentials across sectors. She found that managers and professionals with similar characteristics were foregoing about 30% of their wages in the nonprofit sector; this was not similarly true for clerical workers. She interpreted this difference as a "wage donation" made in exchange for contributing to worthy causes since the wage differential persisted when human capital, industry, occupation and job flexibility factors were controlled.

Weaver and Franz (1992) reanalyzed data from the 1972-1990 cumulative files of the General Social Surveys administered by the by National Opinion Research Center at the University of Chicago in order to compare work-related attitudes among entrepreneurs, public, and for-profit employees. In the survey, respondents had been asked to select the "one thing on this list you would most prefer in a job." They were offered a list of items including high income, no danger of being fired, and gives a feeling of accomplishment. All types of employees expressed a preference for jobs with high income. Private sector employees had the strongest preferences for promotion, and public sector employees were most likely to prefer job security.

Wittmer (1991) defined his work as a study of reward preferences or work-related values among private, public and hybrid employees. The term "hybrid" referred to organizations whose functions were not strictly performed in either the public or the private sectors, and were composed of individuals working in health and education. Public and private sector organizations in his study were selected to represent those that only occurred in one or the other sector. Respondents in this study ranked eight rewards, including "higher pay than you have now" and "doing work that is helpful to other

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people" according to "how important they are to you." The most disparity occurred in the rankings for higher pay and being helpful to others. Employees in the private sector ranked higher pay first and the employees in the public and hybrid sectors ranked being helpful to others first. They also reversed their rankings of the opposite reward; i.e., private sector employees ranked being helpful as fourth and public employees ranked higher pay as third most important.

Two additional studies of occupation/profession differences offer supporting evidence for this discussion of cross-sector differences. A contrasting pay/service to others work values pattern was found in a study of students anticipating careers in helping professions when compared with students anticipating careers in other professions (Ben-Shem & Avi-Itzhak, 1991). Students preparing for careers in the helping professions such as nursing, library science and special education valued altruism (service to others) higher than economic rewards. The pattern was reversed for students entering other professions such as economics/accounting, engineering, industrial graphics. Second, in an international, multi-occupational study, researchers found that managers and professionals reported work preferences patterns that de-emphasized pay and emphasized the organization's products, services and tasks more than lower level employees (MOW International Research Team, 1987). Respondents came from one of eight counties and ten occupations. While neither of these are sector-related studies *per se*, each has sector parallels. That is, the helping professions tend to be more commonly practiced in the nonprofit and public sectors and the other professions practiced in the for-profit sector. In the international study, managers and professionals came from occupations that crossed the public and for-profit sectors.

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The results from these studies are quite consistent although none of the authors compared employees in all three sectors. I made the following linkages in order to extend my hypotheses to the missing groups. The first relates to the emphasis that individuals give to their value of service to others. To develop a rank order for all three groups, the following logic is offered. The study of attorneys working in the nonprofit sector (Godderis, 1988; Weisbrod, 1984) echoes sentiments ascribed generally to public sector employees: that a "normative foundation for public employment is a desire to serve the public interest" (Perry & Wise, 1990, p. 368). Further, in a study of professional values, social workers and public administrators were no different in the value they placed on "public interest" while business administrators were significantly lower on this value dimension (Nalbandian & Edwards, 1983).[3] Therefore I have proposed that both nonprofit and public employees will place a higher value on serving others than for-profit employees.

Again, when comparing preferences for pay, no author compared all three sectors. Although the results across public and for-profit sectors are mixed (Weaver & Franz, 1992), the preponderance of evidence suggests that for-profit employees have a stronger preference for pay than public employees (Khojasteh, 1993; Wittmer, 1991). In the single study that compared the for-profit and nonprofit sectors (Rawls, et al., 1975), the nonprofit employees had a lower preference for pay. To extend these findings to differences between the public and nonprofit sectors, I suggest that serving a general public good (in the public sector) is less compelling than meeting specific need (nonprofit

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[3]The Galloway Edwards Professional Values Scale is an 18-item rank order scale patterned after Rokeach's (1973) Instrumental Values Scale. It includes factors such as compromise, effectiveness,

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sector), so that employees in the former are less likely to trade wages for service than the latter are. Therefore, I have predicted a lower value for economic rewards among nonprofit employees than the other two sectors.

When the cross-sector evidence cited above is accumulated, the cross sector hypotheses for the values service to others and economic rewards are as follows.

H2: Sector predicts the level of individuals' work values:

H2a: Employees in the nonprofit sector rate altruism more positively (higher) than those in the public sector, and both higher than those in the for-profit sector.

H2b: Employees in the for-profit sector rate economic rewards more positively (higher) than those in the public and both higher than those in the nonprofit sector.

Autonomy

Among these few studies on work values, there is nonetheless a great deal of variability in the characteristics of the respondents—jobs, education, occupation and profession—that could contribute to their value differences. In this study, one of the ways that I limited the range of unmeasured contributing factors was by targeting a group of individuals in a single profession who have nonetheless chosen to work in different sectors. Across all sectors, one of the attitudinal dimensions that has been routinely associated with professionals is a positive value for autonomy.

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management, professionalism, and public interest. Other than "public service," none of the items are comparable to values being tested in this study.

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Given that all professionals are likely to desire autonomous practice, guidance for sectoral differences comes from discussions about the nonprofit sector. It has been suggested that for those professionals employed in heteronomous organizations, the nonprofit sector is seen as more hospitable for professionals because it is assumed that in this setting professionals are more likely to be able to exercise their autonomy, pursue quality service, and operate with the least amount of organizational bureaucracy (Majone, 1984).[4] Professionals are thought to gravitate to nonprofit organizations because it is in those settings that the presumed conflict between the goals and values inherent in one's profession come into the least conflict with the bureaucratic goals and values of employing organizations.

H2c: Employees in the nonprofit sector rate autonomy more positively (higher) than those in the for-profit and public sectors.

Position

Position is predicted to affect one's value for autonomy; it is not predicted to have an impact on service to others or economic rewards. In a study of accounting professionals, level in the organization was been found to be positively associated with bureaucratic orientation and negatively associated with professional orientation (Sorenson & Sorenson, 1974). In a cross-sector study of social workers in public and private nonprofit health and social welfare organizations, neither geographic location (Illinois

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[4]Hall (1975) presents the setting for professional work as one of the sources of intra- and interprofessional variation. His three settings are: independent practice (the professional alone), the autonomous professional organization (i.e., the law firm), and the heteronomous professional organization. In the latter, the professional employee is subordinated to an administrative framework in which rules and routine supervision control many aspects of the profession's tasks. Social welfare organizations of the type being studied here are offered as one such example.

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and Hawaii) nor public or private nonprofit auspice was predictive of respondents' bureaucratic orientation, but level of job responsibility was (Wilson, Voth & Hudson, 1980).

H2d: Employees in direct service (subordinate) positions rate autonomy more positively (higher) than those in supervisory positions.

Relationship C:
Organization Context Influences on Work Practices

Figure 4 provides a graphic illustration for the first component of the model—the relationships between organization context and work practices.

Three summaries are presented to elaborate these relationships: an overview of the influence that sector is expected to play on the practices of organizatons, an overview of the characteristics of the industries, and a discussion of the work practices that were studied.

No separate discussion of sector is presented here; it is integrated into both the industry and work practices discussions below. Young (1983) has suggested that the influences of these nonprofit values can be detected in at the sector, industry, and organization levels.

Industry

The pressure arising from external expectations of altruism has been seen as an important factor, not only shaping the mission of nonprofit organizations but also their practices (Hodgkin, 1991; Young 1983). In this study, respondents employed within the nonprofit sector work in industries that experience substantively different pressures from customers or clients, suppliers of required resources, competitors and regulatory groups

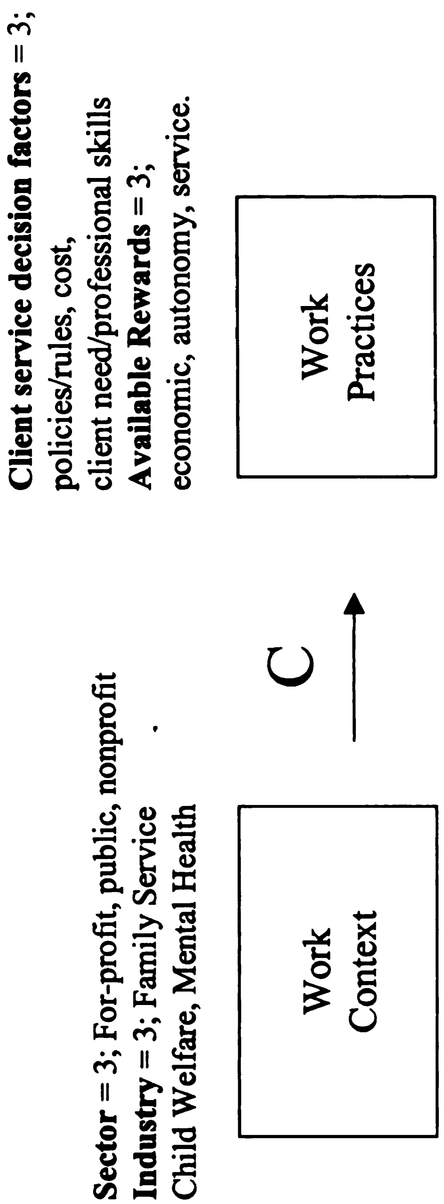

Figure 4. Relationship C: Work Context Predicting Work Practices

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(Thompson, 1967; Scott, 1987). The relationships among those organizations constituting an industry were predicted to produce a set of organizational structures that were similar among organizations within that industry and different from organizations in other industries. Because of the differences in environmental pressures across industries, variations were predicted in the ways in which employees *within* the nonprofit sector perceive that they are able to act.

In this study, three industries were selected for study: family services, child welfare services, and mental health services. These industries have been selected for two reasons. First, these industries reflect the predominant practice specialties for social workers, the target respondents in this study. Approximately 60% of the National Association of Social Work's members practice in these three areas.[5] Second, these industries have been selected as archetypes of nonprofit agency interactions with key environmental actors. The industries differ as follows:

- To date, family service agencies have maintained a diversified funding and regulatory base so that such unitary demands administrative pressures are not seen as the deciding factor in their client service decisions. However, family service agencies represent a traditional nonprofit form that has experienced the most substantial change in the type of services rendered and clients served.
- Nonprofit child welfare services have increasingly entered into agreements with state public welfare agencies as governmental services have been privatized and downsized, resulting in extensive governmental oversight; and

[5]Medical and health care is the third largest practice speciality at 12.2%; all other practice specialities reported are 5% or less (Ginsberg, 1992, Table 9-22, p. 201).

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- Mental health services are being subjected to increasing for-profit-like market pressures as employers view cost containment for these services in the same manner that they have viewed physical health care costs.

The industries are briefly described below.

Family Services

Family service agencies represent an historic means through which voluntary commitment to "influence society and its institutions to encourage, protect, and promote health family life" has been enacted.[6] Family service agencies are descended from the Charity Organization Societies of the 1800s (Erickson, 1987) and many agencies have a similarly long history of service in their communities. The programs of voluntary family service agencies have always been shaped by the needs of communities and by the resources that were available to meet those needs (Erickson, 1987). Over the years, family agencies have provided remedial services, been advocates for the poor, and moved from focusing on individuals' problems to an emphasis on preventing those problems.

The type and number of programs provided by family service agencies changed substantially during the 1980s (Alperin, 1992, 1993). A recent study found that family service agencies may provide any of fifteen types of programs and that between 1980 and 1990, on average agencies expanded from providing services in three sites to five sites and from providing services in five different areas to eight different areas (Alperin, 1993).[7] The clients of family service agencies became more diverse and also presented

[6]Family Service of America, 1990; quoted in Alperin, 1992, p. 33.

[7]The fifteen areas of service are: adoption, adult day care, alcoholism, child care resource/referral, child day care, credit counseling, domestic violence, drug abuse, eldercare/supportive services to aging, family

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more serious problems for assistance. Overall demand for services has also increased with the most growth occurring in the area of services for business and industry.[8]

Family services agencies appear to have experienced the greatest environmental press based on changes in their clients' needs. However, client needs are the traditional purpose for nonprofit organizations. Therefore, when asked to describe agency practices, staff in family service agencies will report that:

H4a: Staff knowledge and skills and client-related factors play the greatest role in service delivery decisions.

Family service agencies can be perceived as being true to their mission even though their employees struggle to manage the challenges presented by a new array of clients and client problems. Using client-related factors to make service decisions should reinforce, not alter the previously predicted high level of autonomy that they employees experience in carrying out work with their clients.

Child Welfare

A system of public and nonprofit child welfare services has been developed to carry out community preferences for protecting children and supporting their families (Liederman, 1995). The phrase "child welfare" is used to describe a cluster of public agency services that may include child protective services, out-of-home care (foster care, kinship care, and residential services), and adoption services. With changing public perceptions about the need not only to protect children from harm but also to support

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life education, family/individual counseling, homemaker service, home health care, services to business and industry, teenage pregnancy/parenting (Alperin, 1993).

families as the best source of child care, additional services have been developed. A transition to child-centered and family-focused practice has given rise to an array of family preservation and family support services designed to strengthen parents' abilities to care for their children and reduce the likelihood of out-of-home placement. While public agencies retain the responsibility to determine risk to children and make decisions about the best locus for their care, private non-profit agencies have increasingly been the partners in the delivery of many of the child- and family-supportive services.

Among the social services, it is in the area of child welfare that the greatest impact of privatization of public services has occurred. While states vary in the extent to which they use purchase of service (POS) arrangements to deliver social services, national studies have shown that virtually all states use contracts to deliver child welfare and adoption services (Kettner & Martin, 1994). The largest volume of POS contracts are with individuals—supporting the provision of foster care, for example—although organizations receive the greatest amount of financial support and provide the largest volume of service (Grønbjerg, Chen, & Stagner, 1995).

The public sector's extensive reliance on nonprofit providers has altered the traditional role of nonprofit organizations from one of an alternative, supplement or complement to government services, to a role of substitute for government services (Kramer, 1994). Concerns abound for the negative impacts of contracting on the character, goals, and roles of nonprofit organizations in the delivery of personal social services. For some, government funds are seen as inherently controlling, contaminating

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[8]That specific change can be linked directly to contracts between FSA and the Xerox Corporation and also between FSA the General Motors Corporation, with FSA providing employees' services through members agencies across the country (Erickson, 1987).

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the mission of the nonprofit organization and undermining the essential contribution of voluntarism to a pluralist society. The limited research suggests that decisions to engage in contractual relationships are much more likely to arise from practical concerns such as "one agency has something that the other needs or wants, and can provide it at a price that is acceptable" (Kramer, 1994, p. 40). However, it is clear that POS contracts do bring a set of funder expectations, ranging from a minimum expectation of staying within budget to an expected level of performance for achieving specific results with clients (Kettner & Martin, 1994), as well as the expected set of regulator concerns. Therefore, employees in nonprofit child welfare agencies will report that:

H4b: contractual requirements play the greatest role in client service delivery decisions.

The rationale for this predictions is as follows. POS contracts change the traditional relationship between the agency and the client. Nonprofit agencies are committed to being responsive to clients who best fit the agencies mission; they are not committed to serving all clients. POS contracts emphasize contractual (rather than client) priorities or equity in service delivery in ways that substantially alter the nonprofit agency's triage patterns and even their right to refuse clients service (Smith, 1989).

<u>Mental Health Services</u>

"Mental Health services are activities that promote mental well-being and alleviate mental disorders" (Lin, 1995, p. 1705). Treatment care for chronically mentally ill people was originally hospital-based but today many individuals live and are served in communities through a network of community mental health agencies. Mental health servic

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services are financed through a combination of private insurance, state general funds, Medicaid, and Medicare.

The mental health movement was originally shaped by core values that emphasized access to treatment and continuity of care (Clark, Dorwart, & Epstein, 1994). Concern has arisen over the extent to which the incentives of the health care markets affect nonprofit agencies' fulfillment of their public expectations. In a national survey of community mental health agencies, Clark, et al. (1994) found that increased competition from private practitioners prompted both public and private-nonprofit agencies to use the management practice of more aggressive fee collection services. Increased competition from health maintenance organizations and private psychiatrists also appeared to reduce access to treatment for financially disadvantaged consumers (Clark & Dorwart, 1992).

Some of the most recent and dramatic changes have occurred because of increased interest in insurance-related cost containment. This is as true for publicly funded insurances, i.e. Medicaid, as it is for private employer-paid insurance. While less than 10% of the community mental health centers in the Clark & Dorwart (1992) study reported above were private for-profit organizations, the managed mental health care field is "a new and rapidly growing industry employing thousands of clinicians and network providers across the country" (Winegar, 1993, p. 171). Large employers, in particular, have initiated managed mental health care programs as part of their interest in controlling overall health care costs. For-profit managed care organizations have developed level-of-care and preferred-practices standards and sought affiliations with any type of providers who share their philosophies and are willing to deliver services within their guidelines. Although not all aspects of the managed care approach are antithetical to professional nonpr

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nonprofit providers, the beneficial aspects such as the use of quality indicators (a client complaint/satisfaction system, written treatment plans, and staff training and development programs) are always combined with guidelines for providing care, thus impinging on professionals' decision-making autonomy. Therefore it is predicted that the general sense of market pressure will result in nonprofit mental health employees reporting that:

H4c: Funder or insurer requirements play the greatest role in client service delivery decisions.

Work Practices

It is in the area of organization work practices that the greatest influence of sectoral values are expected to be exerted. Not only are industry forces at play, but additional organization influences are brought to bear. For some nonprofit organizations, their board members' expectations that the agency will operate in a charitable manner is only one of several distinct and sometimes contradictory constituency expectations (Kanter & Summers, 1987). Many types of work practices could be examined. Because the study focused on three work values that characterize professions in nonprofit organizations—service to others, economic rewards, and autonomy—the exploration of work practices was also limited to those that provided corroborating organizational evidence for these individual differences. Two work practices, those involving client service decisions and those involving organizational rewards, were examined.

Client Service Decisions

I am suggesting that there will be consistency between the broad sectoral values and the opportunities for acting on those values in human service organizations (HSOs) with

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within each of the sectors. One way in which those sectoral values can be observed is to examine how human service organizations (HSOs) balance professional judgments with administrative needs in delivering services to clients (Blau & Scott, 1962). I predicted that:

H: In for-profit HSOs, administrative requirements are emphasized more than professional service to clients, and these administrative requirements are determined primarily by the associated financial implications.

A: In public HSOs, administrative requirement are emphasized more than professional service to clients, and the administrative requirements emphasize uniform service for publicly sanctioned problems.

B: In nonprofit HSOs, professional service to clients will be emphasized more than administrative requirements.

In HSOs, professionals may find themselves with much, or little, latitude to act as an autonomous practitioner. Although both Young (1984) and Majone (1984) assert that nonprofit employees enjoy more work autonomy than individuals in the public and for-profit sectors, no studies were found that tested these assertions. Thus, this prediction derives from the assumption that making a decision based on one's own professional judgment (the nonprofit model; Majone, 1984) affords one more autonomy than making decisions based on policies designed to affect all clients of a group similarly (the public model; Kramer, 1994), and both of these approaches provide more individual autonomy than making decisions based on the cost of the service to be delivered or the cost of the problem to be solved (the for-profit model; Winegar, 1993). Therefore, I predicted consistency between the sector and work practices with respect to autonomy.

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A: People working in nonprofit HSOs will report more work autonomy than those in the public sector, and both will report more than those working in the private sector.

Organizational Rewards

Young (1983, 1984) has provided the most comprehensive evidence linking broad societal values with organizational rewards in nonprofit organizations. He interviewed approximately 40 directors of nonprofit associations to identify reward types and patterns. In general, he found that performance-based and incentive rewards were unlikely to be used in nonprofit organizations. He attributed these patterns to the general purpose of the sector and, in particular, external expectations of altruism (Atkinson, 1989). Nonprofit organizations are assumed to signal unique values of altruism, philanthropy, social responsibility, equity, and fairness (McCauley & Hughes, 1991). Young suggested that not only would a nonprofit organization's image as a charity be incompatible with offering financial incentives to staff, but the presence of donors and other community volunteers would reinforce the expectation that any excess funds be channeled toward services for clients and away from staff salaries or incentives. These predictions will be tested using a list of varied rewards (Kerr, 1988) that have been previously pilot tested with the staff of a large nonprofit human service organization (Reed, 1992).

While rewards are expected to be differentially distributed across sectors, the consistency between an individual's work values and the organizational rewards available to them is not expected to be sector-related. There are several alternative explanations for the consistency between an individual's reward preferences and an organization's com

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complement of rewards. Whether employees are attracted to values signaled by the sector, as Young (1984) suggests, or participate in the design of reward systems they value (Schneider, 1987), or come to value the rewards that are available to them (Loscocco, 1989), a high degree of consistency is expected.

The following hypotheses predict the relationships between organization context and both sets of work practices:

H3: Sector predicts the factors emphasized in organizations' practices:

H3a: In the for-profit sector, the most extensive package of financial rewards are available to employees and the cost factors are rated as being the most influential (highest) in client service decisions.

H3b: In the public sector, policies and rules are rated as the most influential factor (highest) in client service decisions.

H3c. In the nonprofit sector, the most extensive package of client/professional rewards is available and client/professional factors are rated as most influential (highest) in client service decisions.

Summary

This chapter summarized the literature used to build the model and predict the relationship among the variables in that model. The model itself was developed using the work of three authors: Jennifer Chatman, Benjamin Schneider and Dennis Young. The focus of their contributions is identified in Figure 5.

Young's (1984) work not only provided the initial impetus for this study, but also supplied the documentation on the influence that sector has on organizations' work

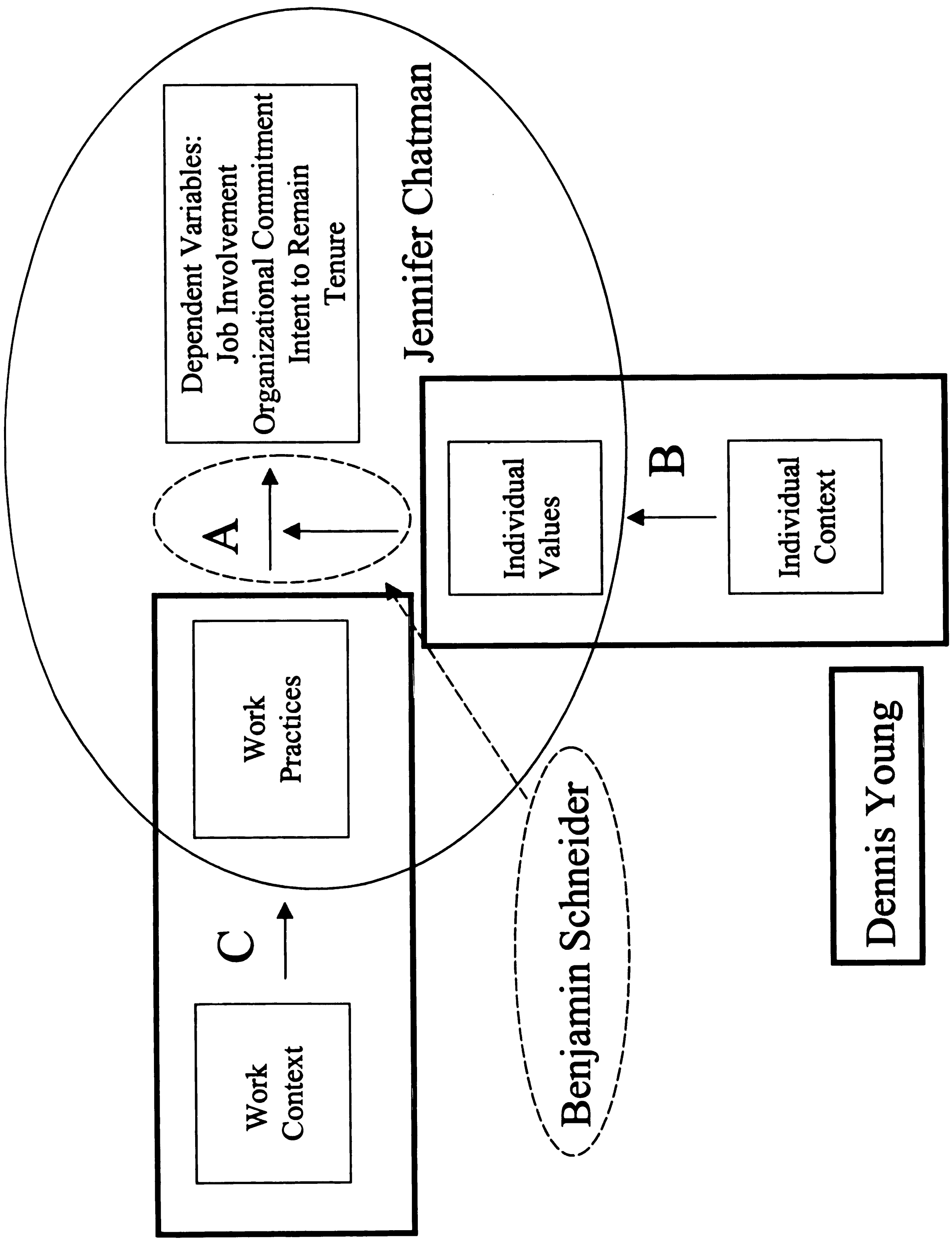

Figure 5. Sources for Model Development

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practices and individuals' values. His assertions form the basis for the predictions tested in the hypotheses about sector and work values. The relationship between individuals' values and organizations' structures is drawn from Schneider's (1983a & b, 1987) theories about how people are drawn to organizations and, in turn, how they affect the work practices that are developed in organizations. His predictions, in part, suggested that this study's respondents would be able to provide a reasonable representation of client services decision making structures in their organizations. Finally, Chatman's (1991) extensive research on accountants and accounting firms provided guidance not only for the model's development but also lent support to the approach of investigation these patterns within a single occupational group. She verified the extent to which individuals' work values could interact with work practices to promote the individual outcomes of organizational commitment and intent to remain with the organization. In addition, although accountants have similar education and training and professional accounting organizations have similar objectives, nonetheless differences were found in the work values patterns of both individuals and organizations and similarities were found between employing organizations with their employed individuals. I have used these three, and other literature as cited, to build the model that was tested with the following hypotheses.

H1: The fit between an individual's work values and work practices that reflect those values positively predicts one's organizational commitment, job involvement, intent to remain with the organization and tenure.

H2: Sector predicts the level of individuals' work values:

H2a: Employees in the nonprofit sector rate altruism more positively (higher) than those in the public sector, and both higher than those in the for-profit sector.

H2b: Employees in the for-profit sector rate economic rewards more positively (higher) than those in the public and both higher than those in the nonprofit sector.

H3: Sector predicts the factors emphasized in organizations' practices:

H3a: In the for-profit sector, the most extensive package of financial rewards is available to employees and the cost factors are rated as being the most influential (highest) in client service decisions.

H3b: In the public sector, policies and rules are rated as the most influential factor (highest) in client service decisions.

H3c. In the nonprofit sector, the most extensive package of client/professional rewards is available and client/professional factors are rated as most influential (highest) in client service decisions.

In the next chapter the methods and instruments used to test the model components are presented.

CHAPTER 3
METHOD

In this chapter, the details for this exploratory survey are provided. Information on the subjects of the study, the measures to be used and the analytic techniques will be presented. Each of the scales described can be found in the Appendices as noted below.

Study Sample

Participants in the study were drawn from the membership of the Michigan Chapter of the National Association of Social Workers (MI-NASW or the Association). As members of MI-NASW, all respondents had (or were working toward) a social work degree at one of three levels: the baccalaureate, master's or doctoral level. Members' employment status varied widely; they could be students, retired, unemployed or employed in a wide variety of settings. For this study, the sample as drawn was a subset of MI-NASW members who worked in the following industries: child/family welfare, health, mental health, and occupational social work/EAP programs. The selected work settings were business/industry, health, managed care, mental health, residential facility, and social service agencies. The sample represented all Association members in these industries/settings from six counties: Genessee, Ingham, Kalamazoo, Kent, Ottawa and Washtenaw counties. The mailing list purchased from the Association had addresses for 2,237 members who fit the industry and setting specifications in these counties.

The counties were selected to minimize differences in the rate of nonprofit social service employment. Research on nonprofit organizations in Michigan indexed counties to a state average for distribution of employment in nonprofit social services (Wilson, 1991). The counties selected for this study were either at (near) the state average (Kent, Ottawa and Washtenaw Counties) or in the next higher tier (Genessee, Ingham, Kalamazoo counties; Wilson, 1991, Map 22, p. 41).[9] Counties with the highest level of nonprofit employment in the state were excluded. These were primarily rural counties (Alpena, Dickinson, Ionia, Iron, Lapeer, Menominee) whose inclusion would add few additional respondents while greatly increasing the amount of service system difference that could have created unmeasured variation in respondents' working conditions.

The questionnaire plus a stamped self-addressed return envelope was mailed to all eligible MI-NASW members in the six selected counties.[10] In the cover letter, respondents were offered the opportunity to submit their name for a lottery; the prize was a one-year basic membership in NASW. Approximately ten days after the instrument was mailed, a generic follow-up postcard was sent, thanking individuals for their response if they had already completed the questionnaire or urging them to complete and return the instrument. The cover letter, instrument and follow-up postcard text are located in Appendix A.

Although the Chapter office provided a means to target the mailing list, nonetheless individuals appeared on the mailing labels who were not eligible to participate. For this study, individuals could be ineligible because of their employment status (retired, in private practice, student) or because they worked in an industry not being studied (higher education, school social work, aging services, etc.). In order to

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[9]Wayne County also has nonprofit social service employment at the state-wide rate. However, the inclusion of this county would have added up to 1,514 additional NASW members to the study. That level of increase was not feasible.

[10]The mailing list included faculty at schools of social work. Based on my personal knowledge of their employment, I removed individuals who were not in agency-based practice.

discover the actual size of the survey population, individuals were asked to return only the cover letter identifying the primary reason for not responding. The reasons given were: engaged solely in private practice, retired too long, out of the work force, and enrolled as a student. These responses were collected from comments written on the cover letter, sent via email or offered over the telephone. This study is based on 694 responses from a reduced total population of 1,942; the response rate was 35.7%.

Table 2 shows the demographic characteristics of all respondents and the characteristics of the respondents who were analyzed in this study.

As can be seen in Table 2, respondents were employed in industries other than child welfare, family services or mental health. Because I had specific industry-related hypotheses, it was necessary to select only those employed in the targeted industries. The results reported in this study are for the 438 respondents employed in child welfare, family services or mental health. Mental health is a composite of those who originally identified their work in mental health, occupational social work/employee assistance programs and substance abuse, since those three industries routinely address mental health concerns. The modal respondent is a woman with an MSW who has worked in her agency almost 8 years and is currently in a direct service position.

The means, standard deviations, and correlations for the independent and dependent variables are shown in Table 3. Where applicable, the reliabilies for the scales are shown on the diagonal.

Table 2
Respondents' Characteristics

Variable	All Respondents n = 694	Selected Industry Respondents (n = 438)
Gender		
Female	75.4%	71.2%
Male	21.0%	24.4%
No Response	3.6%	4.3%
Race		
Caucasian	89.0%	90.2%
African American	14.1%	2.7%
Latina/Latino, Asian American, Native American, Arab American	> 1.0%	> 1.0%
No Response	3.6%	4.3%
Education[11]		
BA/BSW	16%	15.5%
Other BA or BS	38.5%	40.0%
Some Graduate Work	4.0%	4.3%
MSW	91.9%	91.8%
Other MA, Other Degree, Other Professional Degree	≥ 6.1%	≥ 6.2%
PhD in Social Work, Other PhD	≥ 0.7%	≥ 0.5%
Licenses or Certification		
Certified Social Worker in MI	75.5%	76.3%
ACSW[12]	54.3%	55.0%
Advanced Diplomate	9.1%	8.7%
Certified Substance Abuse Counselor	10.5%	13.2%
Certified Marriage Counselor	5.5%	7.5%
Other Licenses or Certification	22.7%	21.9%
Pattern of Employment		
Full-Time Employment in One Agency	56.9%	56.8%
Less than Full-Time Employment in One Agency	14.7%	12.6%
Full-Time Plus Part-Time Private Practice or Consultation	10.0%	11.2%
Full-Time Plus Part-Time in Another Agency, Less than Full-Time Employment in Each of Two Agencies, Recently Retired From This Agency, and Other	≥ 6.6%	≥ 6.6%
Sector of Agency		
Nonprofit	51.4%	50.7%
Public	39.0%	38.6%
Private For-Profit	8.6%	9.8%
Industry (Field of Practice)		
Child Welfare	10.8%	17.1%
Family Services	10.4%	16.4%
Mental Health	34.9%	55.3% (+ 3.9 + 7.3 = 66.5%)

[11]Respondents could check as many as were true for them for Education and also Licenses or Certification.

[12]The Academy of Certified Social Work (ACSW) and the Advanced Diplomate are awarded by the National Association of Social Workers to masters prepared social workers with additional credentials.

Table 2 (cont'd)

Occupational Social Work/EAP	2.4%	(3.9%)
Substance Abuse	4.6%	(7.3%)
Health	17.0%	--
Other	17.3%	--
No Response	2.6%	--
Position		
Direct Service	63.3%	65.1%
Direct Service & Supervision	14.1%	14.1%
Management, Administration or Supervision	15.8%	15.6%
Other	5.2%	3.7%
No Response	1.3%	0.2%
Years in This Agency (All Jobs)	Mean = 7.6 yrs; Range: .08 yrs - 36 yrs; SD = 7.3 yrs	Mean = 7.8; Range: .08 - 34 yrs; SD = 7.5

Table 3a

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Scale Reliabilities for the Study Variables

Variable	N	x	S.D.	1	2	3
1. Position – Direct Service+	438	.6507	.4773			
2. Position – Administration /Mgt+	437	.1625	.3693	-.600**		
3. Private Nonprofit Sector+	438	.0098	.2979	.097*	-.123*	
4. Pubic Sector+	437	.1259	.3321	.134**	-.111*	-.007
5. Private For-Profit Sector+	437	.0043	.2042	.015	-.033	-.081
6. Family Services Industry	438	.1644	.3710	.002	.038	.036
7. Child Welfare Industry+	437	.1716	.3775	-.086	.211**	-.008
8. Mental Health Industry+	438	.6644	.4727	.067	-.198**	-.022
9. Work Values (WV) – Altruism	435	14.0736	1.3334	.040	-.020	.052
10. WV – Economic Rewards	425	12.1106	2.1212	.034	-.063	-.179**
11. WV – Autonomy	432	12.4190	2.4358	.085	.075	-.094
12. Client Services - Professional	430	21.9023	5.4614	-.072	.138**	.018
13. CS – Financial Practices	420	45.1000	7.8849	.040	-.080	-.021
14. CS – Legal Mandates	437	7.7803	2.0436	-.025	.031	-.068
15. Rewards – Professional	438	7.8627	4.3388	-.042	.029	.103*
16. Rewards – Financial	438	9.9338	3.8529	-.090	.100*	-.106*
17. Organizational Commitment	426	51.9977	11.2278	-.157**	.180**	-.097*
18. Job Involvement	428	26.4813	6.1448	-.128	.149**	-.093
19. Intent to Leave	402	7.7914	7.4660	.092	-.104*	-.024
20. Tenure	437	6.0050	2.5178	-.296**	.248**	-.091

+ = Partial r's for dummy variables

* = Significant at .05

** = Significant at .01

Table 3b
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Scale Reliabilities for the Study Variables

Var	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.								
2.								
3.								
4.								
5.	-.081							
6.	.036	-.004						
7.	-.008	-.008	-.202**					
8.	.022	.009	-.624**	-.639**				
9.	.052	-.046	.059	.058	-.092	.81		
10.	-.179**	-.033	-.089	-.003	.073	-.072	.76	
11.	-.094	.051	-.044	.041	.001	.132**	.233**	.67
12.	.018	-.023	.038	.069	-.085	.069	.047	.064
13.	-.021	.002	-.019	-.015	.027	.135**	.184*	.103*
14.	-.068	-.038	.002	.009	-.010	.022	.215*	.093
15.	.103*	-.061	.030	-.018	-.010	-.044	-.148*	-.026
16.	-.106*	.015	-.115*	.097*	.012	-.075	-.100*	-.015
17.	-.097*	-.181**	.038	.036	-.060	.107*	-.018	-.024
18.	-.093	-.066	.109*	.052	-.127**	.193**	.038	.076
19.	-.024	.022	-.079	-.004	.064	-.077	.248*	.091
20.	-.091	.143*	-.098*	.063	.026	-.077	-.121*	-.003

* = Significant at .05
** = Significant at .01

Table 3c
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Scale Reliabilities for the Study Variables

Var	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1.								
2.								
3.								
4.								
5.								
6.								
7.								
8.								
9.								
10.								
11.								
12.	.87							
13.	.228**	.76						
14.	.140**	.366**	.52					
15.	.098*	-.058	-.139**	.76				
16.	-.021	-.104	-.025	.578**	.76			
17.	.233**	-.068	.083	.137**	.072	.84		
18.	.076	-.075	-.038	.050	.054	.460**	.84	
19.	-.240**	.126*	.168**	-.204**	-.138**	-.383**	-.195*	.81
20.	.015	-.012	.007	.003	.202**	.149**	.102*	-.060

* = Significant at .05
** = Significant at .01

Measures

In Chapter 2 variables were introduced that were used to test the proposed study hypotheses. One or more measures is associated with each of these variables. The measures are presented below in the order of their previous discussion:

1. Variables associated with Relationship A, Individual Values and Work Practices Predicting Dependent Variables;
2. Variables associated with Relationship B, Person Context Predicting Individual Values; and
3. Variables associated with Relationship C, Organization Context Predicting Organization Practices.

Each of the scales discussed can be found in Appendix B as noted in the Table of Contents.

Relationship A

Four dependent variables and three sets of independent variables were associated in this component of the model. The dependent variables are presented first.

Dependent Variables

The four dependent variables were: organizational commitment, job involvement, intent to leave and tenure.

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is defined as a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Two approaches to measuring organizational commitment have been used, a single factor version developed by Porter & Smith (1970; Porter et al. 1974) and a multiple factor approach. In this study it seemed prudent to use a scale that differentially measured affective, continuance and normative commitment, since popular wisdom suggests that many people stay with public organizations because their tenure benefits outweigh any undesirable work experiences they might have. I used Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of commitment. This sixteen item instrument is scored on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). In their study (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) of registered nurses, they report reliabilities as follows: Affective commitment (α = .82); continuance commitment (α = .74); normative commitment (α = .83). I used a five-item Likert scale to conform with the other scales in my instrument and found the following: Affective commitment (α = .82); continuance commitment (α = .76); normative commitment (α = .82); and a total scale reliability of .84. The scale as a whole was used for these analyses. See Appendix B for the scale.

Job involvement. Job involvement is defined as a descriptive positive belief about a specific job (Kunungo, 1982). Kunungo's ten-item Job Involvement scale was used in this study. In his construct validity study the internal consistency coefficient was .87 and the test-retest coefficient was .85. In this research the internal consistency coefficient was .84; see Appendix B for the scale.

Intent to leave. This was measured using two of Chatman's (1991) items. She reported only that the response was a Likert-type scale and did not report the scale reliability. The two items used as a scale for Intent to Leave ($\alpha = .81$) asked if people had "thought seriously about another job" and "prefer(ed) another, more ideal job."

Tenure in the agency. This was measured with a single item that question that asked how long people had worked for the agency in any job. The mean was 7.6 years, the range from .08 to 36 years, and the standard deviation was 7.4 years.

Independent Variables

Subscales from three scales were used as independent variables. Each measured a set of individual work values, client service decision factors, or available rewards. Each of these sets is described below.

Individual work values. In this study, selected subscales from Super's (1977) Work Values Inventory (WVI) were used to measure Altruism (service to others), Economic Rewards, and Independence (autonomy). The items forming these scales can be found in Appendix B.

Super (1970) reported test-retest reliability coefficients for this form ranging from .74 to .88 with a median of .83. In the Ben-Shem & Avi-Itzhak (1991) study the following coefficient alpha reliabilities were reported: Altruism .84; Independence .67; and Economic Return .76. In this study, the following were found: Altruism .81; Independence (autonomy) .54; and Economic Return .83. The total scale coefficient alpha was .83. The levels for the Altruism and Economic Return subscales approach or exceed the standard suggested by Nunally (1978) that instruments used in basic research have modest reliabilities of .70 or higher. The difficulty that arises from using an unreliable scale, such as that for Autonomy, is that it introduces measurement error into the analyses. A finding of non-support for a hypothesis could be the result of true lack of relationship between the variables or it could be the result of lack of stability in the measure itself.

Work practices. The work setting practices investigated were selected to mirror the individual values presumed to be related to sectoral differences. The instrument measured perceptions of general client service practices and available rewards. Each of these scales is discussed in turn, beginning with the Client Services Decision Making Practices scale.

- Client services decision making practices. Influences from the agency, the staff, the funders, the volunteers, and the clients themselves all may make a contribution to an agency's client service decisions. A list was developed that drew broadly on the general factors mentioned by Young (1983) as well as the specific industry-related factors that are thought to be particularly relevant to mission- or client-oriented service in nonprofit organizations. The list was organized as a rating scale that asked respondents to identify the type of influence the item has on client service decisions, i.e., from "a major influence" to "little or no influence" and included the option that "this is not applicable to our clients or services." The scale can be found in Appendix B.

    Recall that the hypotheses predicted influences of financial practices, professional attributes, and legal/mandate practices on client service decision-making. Principal components analysis with varimax rotation was used in an exploratory fashion on the twenty-three client services decision-making practices listed. The factor analysis resulted in these three expected factors and two others that could be interpreted but were not relevant to these hypotheses. The summary five-factor solution explained approximately 57% of the variance. The results of the factors analyses and coefficient alphas for the three hypothesized scales are given below in Table 4. The other two scales, while of practical importance for client service delivery, are not of theoretical interest here. The factor analysis results for the unused agency attributes and client characteristics scales can be found in Appendix C.

As was true for the Work Values subscales, these three are not similarly reliable. The two-item legal requirements subscale has a reliability of .52, less than that desirable for this exploration. However, it was theoretically viable and has been used in the analyses.

- Work rewards. I queried the presence (or absence) of highly valued rewards. Organizations can offer a wide variety of rewards. The list used here was based on Kerr's (1988) delineation of forty-three rewards that he organized into five groupings: financial rewards, prestige rewards, job content rewards, combination financial-prestige-job content rewards, and interpersonal rewards (see Appendix B for the scale items). This reward list was presented to the administrative team of a large urban multi-purpose child welfare agency. They confirmed the relevance of the list for their organization and also added a group of agency specific rewards to the list (Reed, 1992). The rewards were matched as closely as possible to the items in the selected Work Values Inventory scales. Respondents were asked if these rewards are available in their agency, and if present, asked if the rewards are available to them. Table 5 shows that most rewards were available.

Table 4
Results of Factor Analysis of Client Service Decision Making Practice Items

Items	Factor Loadings 1	2	5	Communality Estimates
Factor 1: Professional Attributes (α = .87)				
S13.Staff motivation and participation	.905	.008	-.000	.840
S14.Staff cooperation inside the agency	.873	.005	.000	.803
S12.Staff knowledge and skills	.833	.006	.000	.743
S16.Staff professional judgment	.728	-.007	.005	.622
S11.Staff commitment to the agency mission	.710	.119	-.000	.603
S15.Staff collaboration with others outside the agency	.415	.137	.361	.373
Factor 2: Financial Practices (α = .76)				
S4. Funder rules regarding costs of services	.115	.746	.208	.613
S8. The predictability of external funds	.010	.673	.266	.542
S3. Funder rules regarding uniformity of services to clients	.151	.666	.346	.599
S10.Board member and/or donor preferences	-.002	.641	-.118	.522
S9. The cost of alternative methods of service	-.000	.617	.217	.487
S18.The client's ability to pay (or insurance coverage)	-.002	.504	-.221	.459
S22.The availability of volunteers	-.007	.434	-.293	.439
Factor 5: Legal Requirements (α = .52)				
S2. Legal or accreditation requirements	-.002	.216	.700	.558
S1. Government policies or mandates	.000	.174	.646	.496
Percent of Common Variance	17.5%	13.1%	7.1%	

Table 5
Reported Frequency of Agency Rewards

% Reporting Available	Reward
96.1	Doing work you believe in
93.6	Important duties and responsibilities
93.4	Positive responses from clients
91.7	Compatible group of co-workers
91.5	Freedom concerning working hours
88.3	Increases in salary
86.9	Pay levels like people with similar jobs in other agencies
86.5	Agency paid life insurance
86.1	Agency paid health insurance
85.3	Agency paid retirement
85.3	Influence in setting goals and making decisions
84.9	Job security
83.2	Freedom concerning job duties
81.5	Formal commendations and rewards
73.8	Longevity pay
73.0	Reassigning staff instead of layoffs
66.7	Bonuses for performing quality work
56.7	Bonuses for meeting budgets and schedules

An exploratory factor analysis was done with these items as well (see Table 6). Four interpretable scales were identified, two of which were used to test hypotheses. The summary four-factor solution that explained approximately 54.5% of the variance.

The reward item "freedom concerning job duties" was not a professional reward, as expected, but loaded onto an Other Rewards subscale that included such diverse items as paid expenses to present conference papers and job security. The factor solutions for the other two scales can be found in Appendix C.

Table 6
Results of Factor Analysis for Work Reward Items

Items	Factor Loadings 1	Factor Loadings 2	Communality Estimates
Factor 1: Pay and Other Financial Rewards; α= .76			
R10.Agency paid retirement benefits	.759	.112	.637
R8. Agency paid life insurance	.749	.151	.602
R9. Agency paid health insurance	.746	.213	.633
R4. Longevity pay	.621	-.005	.458
R1. Increases in salary	.465	.308	.388
R5. Pay levels like people with similar jobs in other agencies	.451	.288	.415
Factor 2: Professional Rewards; α = .76			
R11.Doing work you believe in	.273	.719	.648
R17.Positive responses from clients	.128	.714	.544
R12.Important duties and responsibilities	.270	.681	.612
R16.A compatible group of co-workers	.168	.673	.546
R13.Influence in setting goals and making decisions	.140	.624	.583
R14.Freedom concerning working hours	-.197	.469	.491
Percent of common variance	16.4	16.0	

Relationship B

The two individual context variables were sector and position in the organization. Sector was measured with a single item that asked people to check whether they worked in the public, nonprofit or for-profit sector.

Position in the agency was measured with a single item that asked respondents to select the "one description that was most like your position" from five descriptions plus an option to write in an alternative. The distribution of these responses was presented in Table 2.

Relationship C

Sector and industry were assessed with single items that asked respondents to check the one best answer. Sector was measured with a single item that asked people to check one of three choices.

Among the options that were offered for industry were: child welfare, family services, health, mental health, occupational social work/EAP, substance abuse and other. The industry list was an expanded version of that provided by the Michigan Chapter-NASW to sort their membership. The distribution of the three primary industries—child welfare, family services and mental health—by sector is shown in Table 7.

Table 7
Distribution of the Respondents by Sector and Industry

	Sector			
Industry	Nonprofit	Public	For-Profit	Total
Child Welfare (N)	45	29	1	75
% within industry	60.0%	38.7%	1.3%	100%
% within sector	20.3%	17.2%	2.3%	17.3%
% of total	10.4%	6.7%	.2%	17.3%
Family Services (N)	52	19	1	72
% within industry	72.2%	26.4%	1.4%	100%
% within sector	23.4%	11.2%	2.3%	16.6%
% of total	12.0%	4.4%	.2%	16.6%
Mental Health and Related Services (N)	125	121	41	287
% within industry	43.6%	42.2%	14.3%	100%
% within sector	56.3%	71.6%	95.3%	66.1%
% of total	28.6%	27.9%	9.4%	66.1%
Total (N)	222	169	43	434
% within industry	51.2%	38.9%	9.9%	100%
% within sector	100%	100%	100%	100%
% of total	51.2%	38.9%	9.9%	100%

As can be seen in Table 7, among these respondents child welfare and family service organizations are almost exclusively found in the nonprofit and public sectors; only mental health agencies are reported to occur in all three sectors.

Data Analysis Procedures

The model was tested in four steps: one for each component and then the model as a whole. Multiple regression analysis was used. This has been the analytic approach of choice among most researchers doing multivariate analysis of organizational fit (Chao, et. al, 1994; Chatman, 1991; Cable & Judge, 1994; Meglino et al., 1989). Hierarchical regression analysis has been the method of choice when performing exploratory analysis of models as is the case here (James & Brett, 1984).

When multiple regression analysis is used, the existence of substantial correlation among the independent variables creates a situation referred to as multicollinearity. For this exploratory study, where the goal is to investigate and interpret the individual contributions of these highly related factors, the aspect of multicollinearity that was potentially the most troubling is the fact that it is difficult for these independent variables to make unique contributions to the dependent variables (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Judicious use of hierarchical regression has been suggested in these instances. In these data there is substantial correlation ($r = .578$) between professional rewards and pay and other financial rewards and also among the client service decision factors (correlations of .448 - .484). The treatment of these relationships is discussed in Chapter 4 Results.

In all regression equations where sector, industry and position were predictors, dummy effects coding was used. Nonprofit was the omitted sector value, family service was the omitted industry value, and direct service was the omitted position value. Where dummy effects coding is used for predictor variables, the constant has specific meaning (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). It represents the reference group and is the sample mean for that group.

The specific analytic approaches for each component of the model are as follows. All predicted relationships for A – Work Context Predicts Work Practices and B – Person Context Predicts Individual Values were tested using regression analysis. In several instances, the results were elaborated using t-tests.

To explore Relationship C – Individual Values and Work Practices as Predictors of Dependent Variables, four regression analyses were done, one each predicting organizational commitment, job involvement, intent to leave and tenure. Fit was operationalized as the interaction term between the individual work value subscale and the corresponding work practice.

The entire model was tested with two sets of hierarchical regression equations. A series of hierarchical regression analyses were carried out with either work practices or work values entered as the first step predicting the dependent variables. Work or person context variables were entered as the second step in the appropriate equation. This resulted in eight hierarchical regression analyses. In Chapter 4, the results of these analyses are presented.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the data analyses are presented. Again, the model is used to organize the discussion. The hypothesis testing presented here begins with those pertaining to Relationship C and ends with those pertaining to Relationship A. This is done to build the multiple regression equations that test the entire model. First those results related to the effect of context on work structures are presented; next the results related to the effects of context on work values are presented; and finally, the results related to the relationship between work values and work structures and their impact on work outcomes. The chapter concludes with a summary of results.

Relationship C:
Work Context Predicts Work Practices

The general hypothesis was that sector would predict the factors emphasized in organizations' practices, and two practices were specified: organizational reward systems and client service decision systems. The three hypotheses are presented and discussed together.

H1a: In the for-profit sector, the most extensive package of financial rewards are available to employees and cost factors are rated as being the most influential (used most often) in client service decisions.

H1b: In the public sector, policies and rules are rated as the most influential factor in client service decisions.

H1c: In the nonprofit sector, the most extensive package of client/professional rewards are available and client/professional factors are rated as the most influential in client service decisions.

Recall from Chapter 3 that the factor analyses of both the agency reward items and the client service decision factors yielded interpretable factors. The reward components of the hypothese are presented first, followed by the client service decision factor components of the hypotheses.

Sector Influences on Reward Practices

Financial Rewards

Hypothesis H1a states that the most extensive package of financial rewards are available to employees in the for-profit sector. In the last chapter, the frequency table for available rewards suggested that the rated rewards were generally available. The multiple regression equation tested the extent to which there were differences in the availability of rewards based on the sector of employment. Table 8 shows the results for the regression equation predicting availability of financial rewards by sector.

Table 8
Regression Results Predicting the Availability of Financial Rewards from Sector

Predictor	B	Beta	Sig.
Constant	8.028		.000
Public sector	-1.373	-.105	.029
Private for-profit sector	.130	.006	.n.s.
R	.106		
R^2	.011		
~R^2	.007		

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The regression equation was not significant (F = 2.449, sig. = .088). No difference was found in financial reward practices across the three sectors; therefore, Hypothesis 1a was not supported. In the balance of this chapter, when regression equations are not significant, only the F value and significance level will be reported in the text; the equations can be found in Appendix D as noted.

Professional Rewards

Six items that represented professional ("doing work you believe in") or affiliation ("a compatible group of co-workers") rewards formed the professional rewards scale. Hypothesis 1c predicts that professional rewards will be more available in the nonprofit sector. Because this is the omitted sector, predictions relating to the sector can only be tested by entering the other sectors in the regression equation. Table 9 shows the regression equation predicting professional rewards from sector.

Table 9
Regression Results Predicting the Availability of Professional Rewards from Sector

Predictor	B	Beta	Sig.
Constant	9.840		.000
Private for-profit sector	1.142	.098	.040
Public sector	- .998	-.053	n.s.
R	.115		
R^2	.013		
~R^2	.009		

This equation approaches significance (F = 2.927, sig. = .055). Employees in the nonprofit sector, represented by the constant, reported that these professional rewards were available to them. This was true at a greater extent for employees in the public sector, but the lesser availability (represented by the negative value) in the for-profit se

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sector was not significant. While most people agreed that these professional rewards were available to them, a review of the data revealed that employees in the for-profit sector were twice as likely as employees in the nonprofit sector to report that three of these rewards were not available in their organizations. Those less available rewards were doing work you believe in, important duties and responsibilities, and a compatible group of co-workers (for-profit > nonprofit = 12% > 5%, 16% > 7%, and 25% > 12%, respectively).

These regression results suggest that client/professional rewards are available in the nonprofit sector, but this set of rewards was reported to be most available to employees in the public sector. Therefore H1c was not supported.

Sector Influences on Client Service Decision Practices

The factor analysis of the client service decision factors scale resulted in five interpretable factors, three of which were used for these analyses: professional attributes, financial practices and legal requirements. These three scales relate well to the predictions made for client service decision-making factors. Hypothesis 1a predicted that financial factors are incorporated into client services decisions by employees in the for-profit sector. That hypothesis was not supported (F = .001, sig. = .974). Hypothesis 1b predicted that employees in the public sector would use legal requirements to make their client services decisions. That hypothesis was not supported (F = 2.025, sig. = .155). Finally, based on the nonprofit literature, it was predicted that employees in that sector would be most likely to use professional factors to make their client service decisions. That by

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hypothesis was not supported (F = .172, sig. = .842). See Appendix D for complete regression results.

In summary, sector was not an influential factor predicting organizational structures, either in the form of organizational reward practices or client service decision-making practices. Among the predictions made, only the hypothesis that professional rewards would be available in the non-profit sector was supported, and in this instance these rewards were reported to be more available by employees in the public sector.

Industry Influences on Work Practices

Within the nonprofit sector only, industry influences are predicted on work practices. Recall that the rationale for these predictions is that nonprofit organizations that interact extensively with organizations in the other two sectors will of necessity take on attributes of these sectors. The hypotheses are as follows:

H2a: In family services, client/professional factors are given the most emphasis in making client services decisions.

H2b: In child welfare agencies, policies and rules factors are given the most emphasis in making client services decisions.

H2c: In mental health agencies, cost factors are given the most emphasis in making client services decisions.

Since none of the similar sector hypotheses were supported, it was unlikely that the within-nonprofit sector predictions would be supported. And that was the case. None of these hypotheses were supported.

- Nonprofit family services employees did not report the greatest use of professional factors in making client services decisions (F = .172, sig. = .842; Appendix D).
- Nonprofit child welfare employees did not report more emphasis on legal requirements for making client service decisions (F = 1.369, sig. = .243; Appendix D).
- Nonprofit mental health employees did not report more emphasis on financial factors in their client services decisions (F = 1.460, sig. = .228; Appendix D).

Overall, neither sector nor industry within the nonprofit sector were predictors of these organizational structures.

Relationship B: Person Context Predicts Individual Values

The general hypothesis was that sector predicts individuals' work values. Three related hypotheses were developed. The three hypotheses are presented and discussed together.

H3a: Employees in the nonprofit sector rate altruism more positively (higher) than those in the public sector, and both higher than those in the for-profit sector.

H3b: Employees in the for-profit sector rate economic rewards more positively (higher) than those in the public, and both higher than those in the nonprofit sector.

H3c: Employees in the nonprofit sector rate autonomy higher than those in either the public or the for-profit sectors.

Table 10 gives the means for the altruism, economic rewards and autonomy subscales by sector.

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Table 10
Mean Values for Altruism, Autonomy and Economic
Rewards by Sector

	Nonprofit Sector	Public Sector	For-Profit Sector
Altruism Subscale			
Mean	13.95	14.14	14.33
N	220	169	42
Standard Deviation	1.38	1.33	1.05
(F = 1.89, n.s.)			
Economic Rewards Subscale			
Mean	11.88	12.31	12.54
N	217	163	41
Standard Deviation	2.17	2.10	1.85
(F = 2.87, n.s. [.058])			
Autonomy Subscale			
Mean	12.32	12.36	13.10
N	219	169	40
Standard Deviation	1.98	3.03	1.78
(F = 1.79, n.s.)			

Although the values are higher for public and for-profit sector employees than for those employed in the nonprofit sector, the differences in values were not significant. None of the hypotheses as specified were supported.

The model indicates that sector will predict work values. Although the analysis above suggests that no relationship will be found, a series of multiple regression analyses were done on this component of the model. Each value set was entered as the dependent variable in a regression equation predicted by sector. Working in the private for-profit sector did not predict one's value for altruism (F = .923, n.s.), autonomy (F = 1.125, n.s.) or economic rewards (F = .469, n.s.). See Appendix D for these equations. Further, altruistic values were not predicted by sector for any of these employees (F = 1.156, n.s.; Appendix D). However, employment in both the nonprofit and public sectors were

predictors of these respondents' values for autonomy and economic rewards. Those results are shown below in Tables 11 and 12.

Table 11
Regression Results Predicting the Work Value Autonomy from Sector

Predictor	B		Beta	Sig.
Constant	12.507			.000
Public sector	-.692		-.094	.051
R		.094		
R^2		.009		
$\sim R^2$		.007		

$F = 3.827, p \leq .05$

Table 12
Regression Results Predicting the Work Value Economic Rewards from Sector

Predictor	B		Beta	Sig.
Constant	12.255			.000
Public sector	-1.159		-.179	.000
R		.179		
R^2		.032		
$\sim R^2$		.030		

$F = 14.021, p \leq .000$

In both of these instances, while sector does predict these respondents' values, only a small amount of the variance is explained in either equation.

Alternatively, the model may be inappropriately specified. While it is reasonable to believe that the context of organizations will predict the practices of those organizations, such a rationale may not equally apply to the direction of the relationship between an individual's work values and their context. Work values are thought to be stable, enduring characteristics of individuals. If that is the case, then the values of

individuals should predict their choice of sector. This alternate model was tested with regression analysis. The results are shown in Table 13.

Table 13
Regression Results Predicting Sector from Work Values

Predictor	B		Beta	Sig.
Constant	.438			n.s.
Altruism	.0045		.092	n.s.
Autonomy	.0010		.030	n.s.
Economic Rewards	.0032		.102	.043
R		.143		
R^2		.020		
$\sim R^2$		.013		

$F = 2.883$, $p \leq .05$

The value placed on economic rewards did predict sector choice. However, only about 1% of the variance was explained by work values. In this instance, neither of these empirical tests strongly suggest the preferred direction for the model variables. Therefore the hypotheses were tested as originally specified.

An additional hypothesis regarding the influence of position on values was presented:

H3d: Employees in direct service positions rate autonomy more highly than those in supervisory positions.

The regression equation testing this hypothesis was not significant ($F = 2.423$, n.s.; Appendix D). In this instance, the low reliability of the autonomy subscale may have contributed to a lack of support.

Relationship A:
Individual Values and Work Practices as Predictors of the Dependent Variables

The hypothesis for this set of relationships is as follows:

H4: The fit between an individual's work values and the work practices that reflect those values positively predicts one's organizational commitment, job involvement, intent to remain with the organization and tenure.

This hypothesis was tested with a series of regression equations. Fit between individual work values and work practices was operationalized as the interaction term between matching pairs of independent variables.

The same set of interactions between the work values and work practices variables were used to predict each of the dependent variables. The set of interactions between work values and reward practices were:

- The interaction between the work value altruism and professional rewards;
- The interaction between the work value autonomy and professional rewards; and
- The interaction between the work value economic rewards and the financial rewards.

Both altruism and autonomy were associated with professional rewards, since that scale included aspects of service to others as well as components of independent practice. The set of interactions between work values and client service decision factors were:

- The interaction between the work value altruism and the financial client service decision factors;
- The interaction between the work value altruism and the legal client service decision practices;

- The interaction between the work value autonomy and professional client service decision practices; and
- The interaction between autonomy and the financial client service decision practices.

Recall that the professional client service decision practices are based on staff-related attributes, as is the work value for autonomy. The work value altruism is paired with both financial and legal practices, because these practices would be restrict employees' desire to provide service to others. Similarly, one's preference for making an autonomous decision on behalf of their clients would be restricted by their organization's emphasis on considering financial matters in making those decisions.

<u>Values and Work Practices as Predictors of Organizational Commitment</u>

The results of the regression analysis for the interaction between work values and work practices predicting organizational commitment are shown in Table 14.

The data indicate that organizational commitment can be predicted from the interaction between the work value Autonomy and professional client service decision practices as well as from the interaction between the work value Altruism and legal client service decision practices.

An examination of the correlation table for this equation was done because three sets of interactions share a common component. Table 15 shows the correlations among these variables.

Table 14
Regression Results for Organizational Commitment Predicted from the Interactions between Work Values and Work Practices

Predictor	B	Beta	Sig.
Constant	39.532		.000
WV Altruism X Professional Rewards	.0029	.138	n.s.
WV Autonomy X Professional Rewards	-.00049	-.023	n.s.
WV Economic Rewards X Financial Rewards	.00107	.049	n.s.
WV Altruism X CS Financial Practices	.00089	.107	n.s.
WV Altruism X CS Legal Practices	.0049	.137	.013
WV Autonomy X CS Professional Practices	.0040	.304	.000
WV Autonomy X CS Financial Practices	-.0025	-.320	n.s.
R	.346		
R^2	.120		
$\sim R^2$	.104		

F = 7.506, sig. = .000

Two sets of the variables are highly related. These are the interaction between:

- Altruism and professional rewards with autonomy and professional rewards (r = .904), and
- Altruism and financial practices with autonomy and financial practices (r = .760).

This high degree of shared variance prompted a reconsideration of the interactions used to predict the dependent variables. Based on the item content of the professional reward scales, the interaction between autonomy and professional rewards was retained since these two included more comparable items than the altruism and professional rewards scale did. No such clear rationale was appropriate to choose between the two

Table 15
Correlation Among Regression Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Organizational Commitment								
2. Altruism x Professional Rewards	.177***							
3. Autonomy x Professional Rewards	.129**	.904***						
4. Economic Rewards x Financial Rewards	.091*	.380***	.415***					
5. Altruism x Financial Practices	.020	.059	.009	-.093*				
6. Altruism x Legal Practices	.140**	-.040	-.084*	-.003	.454***			
7. Autonomy x Professional Practices	.198***	.113*	.280***	-.022	.298***	.204***		
8. Autonomy x Financial Practices	-.039	-.017	.210***	-.049	.760***	.325***	.542***	

* = .05
** = .01
*** = .000

work values for an interaction with financial practices, so both interactions were retained. Table 16 shows the resulting equation.

Table 16
Regression Results for Organizational Commitment Predicted from the Interactions between Work Values and Work Practices (Excluding Altruism x Profession Rewards)

Predictor	B	Beta	Sig.
Constant	39.704		.000
WV Autonomy x Professional Rewards	.0026	.122	.05
WV Economic Rewards x Financial Rewards	.00095	.044	n.s.
WV Altruism x CS Legal Practices	.00498	.140	.01
WV Altruism x CS Financial Practices	.00152	.181	.05
WV Autonomy x CS Professional Practices	.00406	.306	.000
WV Autonomy x CS Financial Practices	-.00322	-.411	.000
R	.346		
R^2	.119		
~R^2	.106		

$F = 8.764$, sig. = .000

In this second analysis, all interactions except one are significant. The number of independent variables has been reduced by one, however there is no difference in the amount of variance explained by the two equations.

The hypothesis that the fit between these three work values and the five work practices that reflect those values predict organizational commitment was supported.

Job Involvement

The same set of six interactions were regressed on job involvement. The results are shown in Table 17 below.

Table 17
Regression Results for Job Involvement Predicted from the Interactions between Work Values and Work Practices

Predictor	B		Beta	Sig.
Constant	22.144			.000
WV Autonomy x Professional Rewards	.000644		.055	n.s.
WV Economic Rewards x Financial Rewards	.000514		.043	n.s.
WV Altruism x CS Legal Practices	.000372		.019	n.s.
WV Altruism x CS Financial Practices	.000868		.189	.05
WV Autonomy x CS Professional Practices	.00110		.154	.01
WV Autonomy x CS Financial Practices	-.00105		-.247	.01
R		.181		
R^2		.033		
$\sim R^2$		.018		

$F = 2.212; p \leq .05$

The hypothesis that job involvement is predicted from the fit between three of these work value – work practice interactions is supported. Note that again the autonomy x financial practices interaction is negative.

Intent to Leave

The six interactions were regressed on intent to leave. The results are shown in Table 18 below.

Table 18
Regression Results for Intent to Leave Predicted from the Interactions between Work Values and Work Practices

Predictor	B		Beta	Sig.
Constant	6.763			.000
WV Autonomy x Professional Rewards	-.000875		-.184	.01
WV Economic Rewards x Financial Rewards	.000079		.016	n.s.
WV Altruism x CS Legal Practices	.00124		.153	.005
WV Altruism x CS Financial Practices	-.00059		-.317	.000
WV Autonomy x CS Professional Practices	-.00103		-.352	.000
WV Autonomy x CS Financial Practices	.00097		.554	.000
R		.409		
R^2		.167		
$\sim R^2$		.153		

$F = 12.172; p \leq .000$

The hypothesis that intent to leave is predicted from fit is supported. Not surprisingly, the fit between autonomy and professional rewards and also autonomy and professional client service decision-making practices are negatively related to intent to leave.

Tenure

When the six interactions were regressed on the variable years on the job, the equation was not significant (F = 1.327, n.s.; Appendix D). The hypothesis that work value – work practice fit predicts years on the job was not supported.

Testing the Model

The concluding steps in the analyses were to test the two paths of the full model by including context variables as the second level in hierarchical regression equations. In each instance, if this was a completely mediated model, when context was entered as the second level, the R^2 values should fall to zero (James & Brett, 1984). If, however, context is a moderator, as suggested by several nonprofit authors (c.f., Young, 1984), then different levels of the dependent variables should be found. The context variable applied to both paths is sector, operationalized as public or for-profit. A second work context variable, industry, was not entered in the equations; the industry hypotheses were related solely to the nonprofit sector and were found to have no effects. Position was the second context variable added to the work values path. The work practices (Relationship A) and individual work values (Relationship B) segments are presented separately.

Work Context and Work Practices

Organizational Commitment

The regression results for organizational commitment predicted from work context, through work practices, are shown in Table 19. In each model, the work practices—reward practices and client service decision-making practices—were entered first, followed by sector. Separate equations were run for public and nonprofit sectors although the results are reported together in the table.

The results in Table 19 indicate that the availability of desired professional rewards, as well as all the client services decision-making practices predict organizational commitment for these respondents. Further, all three sectors of employment are significantly related to organizational commitment. Recall that when using dummy coded variables, the negative sign refers to a lesser amount than the omitted variable, not a negative relationship. Therefore, working in the public sector contributes less to one's level of organizational commitment than working in the nonprofit sector, and working in the for-profit sector contributes the least to one's organizational commitment. Sector is clearly a moderating variable, since it contributes different levels of commitment but is not completely contained in work practices, as would be the case if work practices were mediating variables.

Table 19
Regression Results Predicting Organizational Commitment from Work Context through Work Practices

Predictor	Beta	R	R^2	F	ΔR^2	F for ΔR^2
Step 1 – Work Practices						
Professional Rewards	.161**					
Financial Rewards	n.s.					
CS Professional Practices	.226***					
CS Financial Practices	.073**					
CS Legal Practices	.117*	.300	.090	7.862***		
Constant (Nonprofit Sector) [B]	[***]					
Step 2 – Public Sector	-.126**	.324	.105	7.755***	.015	6.662**
Step 2 – Private For-Profit Sector	-.164***	.342	.117	8.743***	.027	12.055***

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

Job Involvement

The same analyses were done to predict job involvement from work context transmitted through work practices. None of the equations predicting job involvement from work practices and work context were significant (public sector full equation, F = 1.846, sig. = .089; private for-profit sector, F = 1.361, sig. = .229). For these respondents, there was no relationship between their work practices, work context and job involvement (see Appendix D).

Intent to Leave

Work practices and work context were entered in two steps into equations predicting intent to leave. The results of these equations are summarized in Table 20.

Table 20
Regression Results Predicting Intent to Leave from Work Practices and Work Context

Predictor	Beta	R	R^2	F	ΔR^2	F for ΔR^2
Step 1 – Work Practices						
Professional Rewards	-1.964*					
Financial Rewards	n.s.					
CS Professional Practices	- .275***					
CS Financial Practices	.026*					
CS Legal Practices	.154**	.379	.143	12.565***		
Step 2 - Constant (Nonprofit Sector) [B]	[n.s.]					
Public Sector	n.s.	.379	.144	10.461	.000	.094
Private For-profit Sector	n.s.	.379	.144	10.474	.000	.159

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

The results in Table 20 indicate that sector does not predict one's intent to leave. However, the emphasis on using financial and legal information to make client service decisions does predict intent to leave, as does the lack of desired professional rewards.

Tenure

The final set of analyses were done to determine the relationship of work practices and work context on respondents' length of time in their organizations. The summary of these analyses are presented in Table 21.

Table 21
Regression Results Predicting Tenure from Work Practices and Work Context

Predictor	Beta	R	R^2	F	ΔR^2	F for ΔR^2
Step 1 – Work Practices						
Professional Rewards	-.178**					
Financial Rewards	.300***					
CS Professional Practices	n.s.					
CS Financial Practices	n.s.					
CS Legal Practices	n.s.	.243	.059	5.134***		
Constant (Nonprofit Sector) [B]	[**]					
Step 2 – Public Sector	n.s.	.247	.061	4.410***	.002	n.s.
Step 2 – Private For-profit Sector	.136**	.278	.077	5.709***	.018	8.136**

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

The data in Table 21 indicate that the availability of rewards, but not the way client service decisions are made, predicts longevity in organizations. The availability of financial rewards positively predicts tenure and the lack of professional rewards negatively predicts tenure. Work context impact is limited to the for-profit sector; for employees in both the public and the nonprofit sectors this context variable is not significant.

Individual Context and Work Values

Organizational Commitment

Independent variables were entered in three steps to test the predictive impact of individual context and work values on organizational commitment. In the first step, the three focal work values were entered: altruism, autonomy and economic rewards. In the second step, the dummy variable for position was entered, and in the third step the dummy variables for context were entered. Direct service was the omitted position variable and nonprofit sector was the omitted context variable. Position was treated as the more proximate context variable and sector as the more distal context variable for individuals. The results for these analyses are shown in Table 22.

The data suggest that work values in and of themselves do not predict organizational commitment. The introduction of context, in the form of position at step two changes the results: both direct service (the constant) and also administrative positions predict organizational commitment for these respondents. When the sector variable is added, again the constant, now representing both direct service and nonprofit sector and also the for-profit sector variable predict organizational commitment. In the case of the nonprofit sector, this is a positive relationship while for those in the for-profit sector, this is a negative relationship.

Table 22
Regression Results Predicting Organizational Commitment from Work Values and Work Context

Predictor	Beta	R	R^2	F	ΔR^2	F for ΔR^2
Step 1 – Work Values						
Altruism	.119*					
Autonomy	n.s.					
Economic Rewards	n.s.	.118	.014	1.927		
Constant (Direct Service Position) [B]	***					
Step 2 – Position/ Administrative	.194	.227	.052	5.531***	.038	16.130***
Step 3 – Constant (Non-profit Sector) [B]	***					
Step 3 – Public Sector	n.s.	.242	.058	5.035***	.007	2.947
Step 3 – Private For-Profit Sector	-.177***	.288	.083	7.317***	.031	13.768***

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

Job Involvement

The same set of variables, in the same three steps, were regressed on job involvement. The results are shown in Table 23.

The data show that the work value altruism is a significant predictor for job involvement. However, the equation is improved by the addition of the position context variable. Both direct service and administrative positions contribute to the variance explained in the expanded equation at Step 2. The addition of sector, while a minimal improvement, is significant only for the nonprofit sector (the constant).

Table 23
Regression Results Predicting Job Involvement from Work Values and Work Context

Predictor	Beta	R	R^2	F	ΔR^2	F for ΔR^2
Step 1 – Work Values						
Altruism	.201***					
Autonomy	n.s.					
Economic Rewards	n.s.	.207	.043	6.098***		
Constant (Direct Service Position) [B]	**					
Step 2 – Position/ Administrative	.164***	.264	.070	7.640***	.027	11.784***
Step 3 – Constant (Non-Profit Sector) [B]	**					
Step 3 – Public Sector	n.s.	.275	.075	6.662***	.006	n.s.
Step 3 – Private For-Profit Sector	n.s.	.269	.072	6.348***	.003	n.s.

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

Intent to Leave

The same set of predictors were regressed on intent to leave. The results of these equations are shown in Table 24.

Only the work value related to preference for economic rewards is a significant predictor on these respondents' intent to leave their jobs; neither the work values related to altruism or autonomy have a significant impact on intent to leave. The addition of the context variables adds nothing to the variance explained by the equations; neither the added position nor sector variables have an impact on intent to leave.

Table 24
Regression Results Predicting Intent to Leave from Work Values and Work Context

Predictor	Beta	R	R^2	F	ΔR^2	F for ΔR^2
Step 1 – Work Values						
Altruism	n.s.					
Autonomy	n.s.					
Economic Rewards	.229***	.259	.067	9.302***		
Constant (Direct Service Position)	[**]					
Step 2 – Position/ Administrative	n.s.	.275	.076	7.886***	.008	n.s.
Step 3 – Constant (Non-Profit Sector)	[**]					
Step 3 – Public Sector	n.s.	.275	.076	6.296***	.000	n.s.
Step 3 – Private For-Profit Sector	n.s.	.275	.076	6.293***	.000	n.s.

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

Tenure

Finally, the same set of variables were regressed on the number of years that respondents reported being employed in all positions by their organizations. The results of these analyses are shown in Table 25.

The data show that preferences for economic rewards, and to a lesser extent for altruism, are negatively related to tenure in one's organization. Holding an administrative position, however, is related to the number of years in one organization. Surprisingly, for-profit and nonprofit, but not public sector employment, are related to tenure.

Table 25
Regression Results Predicting Tenure from Work Values and Work Context

Predictor	Beta	R	R^2	F	ΔR^2	F for ΔR^2
Step 1 – Work Values						
Altruism	-.096*					
Autonomy	n.s.					
Economic Rewards	-.141**	.161	.026	3.682**		
Constant (Direct Service Position)	[***]					
Step 2 – Position/ Administrative	.248***	.295	.087	9.904***	.061	27.859***
Step 3 – Constant (Non-Profit Sector)	[***]					
Step 3 – Public Sector	n.s.	.306	.094	8.554***	.006	n.s.
Step 3 – Private For-Profit Sector	.152***	.332	.110	10.230***	.023	10.614***

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

Summary

Two sets of analyses were done. The first were analyses to test the study hypotheses. The second were analyses to test the model. The results are presented in that order.

Hypothesis Testing

The hypothesis testing produced mixed results. The following is a discussion organized by hypothesis, augmented by several summary tables.

Work Practice Hypotheses

H1a: In the for-profit sector, the most extensive package of financial rewards are available to employees and cost factors are rated as being most often used in client service decisions.

This hypothesis was not supported. First, there was no differential package of financial rewards among the sectors; the financial rewards scale included a standard package of pay, benefit and financial rewards. Second, the equation predicting availability of financial rewards from sector was not significant. Finally, sector was not a predictor of employees' reported use of financial factors in making client service decisions.

H1b: In the public sector, policies and rules are rated as being most often used in client service decisions.

This hypothesis was not supported. The equation predicting the use of legal requirements for client service decisions was not significant.

H1c: In the nonprofit sector, the most extensive package of professional rewards are available and professional factors are rated as the most often used in client service decisions.

This hypothesis was partially supported. Analyses indicated that professional rewards were available in the nonprofit sector, but these rewards were also reported to be more predicted by public sector employment. Finally, the multiple regression equation predicting use of professional attributes to make client services decisions was not significant.

These results are shown in Table 26.

Table 26
Predicted vs. Actual Sector – Work Practice Relationships

Work Practices	Sector		
	Nonprofit	Public	For-Profit
Client Service Decision-Making Practices			
Professional Attributes	1/n.s.	x/n.s.	x/n.s.
Financial Considerations	x/n.s.	x/n.s.	1/n.s.
Legal Mandates	x/n.s.	1/n.s.	x/n.s.
Reward Practices			
Professional Rewards	1/2	x/1	x/n.s.
Financial Rewards	x/n.s.	x/n.s.	1/n.s.

x = No predicted order
n.s. = Not significant

H2a: In family services, professional practices are used most often to make client service decisions.

H2b: In child welfare agencies, policies and rules are used most often to make client service decisions.

H2c: In mental health agencies, financial practices are used most often to make client service decisions.

None of these hypotheses were supported. The regression equations predicting professional practices, policies and rules, and financial practices from industry were not significant.

Work Value Hypotheses

H3a: Employees in the nonprofit sector rate altruism more positively (higher) than those in the public sector, and both higher than those in the private for-profit sector.

This hypothesis was not supported. There were no differences across sectors in the mean value for the altruism scale. In addition, the regression equation predicting altruism from sector was not significant.

H3b: Employees in the for-profit sector rate the work value for economic rewards more positively than those in the public sector, and both higher than those in the nonprofit sector.

This was not supported. In fact, employees in the nonprofit sector had the highest economic rewards values, followed by those in the public sector. The regression equation predicting economic work value from nonprofit sector was not significant.

H3c: Employees in the nonprofit sector rate autonomy higher than those in either the public or the for-profit sectors.

This was supported. Nonprofit sector affiliation was a stronger predictor of autonomy than public sector. The equivalent for-profit sector equation was not significant.

H3d: Employees in direct service positions rate autonomy more highly than those in supervisory or administrative positions.

This hypothesis was not supported. However, the unreliability of the autonomy scale may have contributed to the null results.

These results are summarized below in Table 27.

H4: The fit between an individual's work values and the corresponding work practices predicts one's organizational commitment, job involvement, tenure and intent to remain with the organization.

Table 27
Predicted vs. Actual Context – Work Values Relationships

Work Value	Sector: Nonprofit	Sector: Public	Sector: For-Profit	Position
Altruism	1/1	2/1	3/1	–
Autonomy	1/1	2/2	2/n.s.	direct service > adm/n.s.
Economic Rewards	3/1	2/2	1/n.s.	–

This hypothesis was tested with a series of regression equations in which the independent variables were the interactions between work values and work practices. The results are shown in Table 28.

Table 28
Direction of the Fit Interactions Predicting Organizational Commitment, Job Involvement, Intent to Leave and Tenure

Predictors	Organizational Commitment	Job Involvement	Intent to Leave	Tenure
WV Autonomy x Professional Rewards	+/+	+/0	-/-	+/0
WV Economic Rewards x Financial Rewards	+/0	x/0	-/0	+/0
WV Altruism x CS Financial Practices	-/+	-/0	+/-	-/0
WV Altruism x CS Legal Practices	-/+	-/+	+/+	-/0
WV Autonomy x CS Professional Practices	+/+	+/+	-/-	+/0
WV Autonomy x CS Financial Practices	-/-	-/-	+/+	-/0

The seven interactions that were initially tested included

- Altruism x professional rewards
- Autonomy x professional rewards
- Economic reward values x financial rewards
- Altruism x the use of financial practices to make client service decisions
- Altruism x the use of legal mandate to make client service decisions
- Autonomy x the use of professional attributes to make client service decisions
- Autonomy x the use of financial practices to make client service decisions.

The altruism x professional rewards and autonomy x professional rewards variables overlapped to such a great extent ($r = .904$) that the altruism interaction was dropped from subsequent regression equations.

Organizational commitment, job involvement and intent to leave were all predicted by a set of interactions between work values and work practices. The equation predicting tenure from the series of interactions was not significant. The following table shows the contribution of the interactions to each of the outcome variables. The judgment of "better fit" is drawn from the hypotheses presented earlier and is shown first in each cell below.

Among the interaction terms, only the variable for economic work values x financial reward practices was never a significant predictor of the dependent variables.

Model Testing

Following the hypothesis testing, the entire model was tested. Two sets of hierarchical regression equations were analyzed, one for the work practices component of the model (Relationships C to A) and one for the work values component of the model

(Relationship B to A). In these equations, the independent variables were entered and not the interactions.

Work Practices and Context Variables

Table 29 summarizes the predictive contributions of the independent variables to the four dependent variables. In sector, only those sectors found to be significant predictors are identified. Recall that industry was not tested because it had no explanatory value.

Table 29
Direction of the Work Practice and Context Variables Predicting Organizational Commitment, Job Involvement, Intent to Leave and Tenure

Predictors	Organizational Commitment	Job Involvement	Intent to Leave	Tenure
Professional Rewards	+	0	-	-
Financial Rewards	0	0	0	-
CS Professional Practices	+	0	-	0
CS Financial Practices	+	0	+	0
CS Legal Practices	+	0	+	0
Sector	+ (Nonprofit > Public > For-profit)	0	0	+ (For-profit > Nonprofit)

As the table shows, job involvement was not predicted by any structural or contextual variables. The emphasis on using financial or legal practices to make client service decisions was positively related to one's intent to leave the organization, coupled with the lack of professional rewards and inability to use professional practices in making client service decisions.

Four unexpected findings are highlighted in the table. First, the availability of financial rewards makes such limited contribution to these outcome variables. Second, job involvement is predicted by no structural or contextual variables. Third, tenure is predicted by nonprofit and for-profit employment but not public; however, the mean value for years in the organization is highest for the public sector. Finally, the use of all practices for client service decision making contributes to organizational commitment; for this group it was expected that professional practices would be positively related but that financial and legal practices would be negatively related. These results will be discussed more fully in Chapter 5.

Work Values and Context Variables

The work values component of the model testing provides an overview of the value differences predicted to be most reflective of nonprofit sector employment. Table 30 summarizes the predictive contributions of the work values and individual context variables. Again, only those values for the context variables of position and sector that were significant predictors are reported.

Both confirmatory and unexpected results are highlighted in the table. First, the organizational commitment predictors are most similar to assertions made by nonprofit authors: altruism, providing direct services and working in the nonprofit sector (also the for-profit sector) are significant predictors. Similarly, the intent to leave relationships reinforce comments that have been made by nonprofit managers who recognize that their low salaries contribute to turnover. The most surprising finding highlighted in the table is that the value placed on autonomy makes no contribution. Because of the low reliability of the scale, however, it is difficult to interpret the extent to which this is a supportable or non-supportable finding.

Table 30
Direction of the Work Values and Individual Context Variables Predicting Organizational Commitment, Job Involvement, Intent to Leave and Tenure

Predictors	Organizational Commitment	Job Involvement	Intent to Leave	Tenure
Altruism	+	+	0	-
Autonomy	0	0	0	0
Economic Rewards	0	0	+	-
Position	+/1 (Direct Service)	+ (Administrative > Direct Service)	+ (Direct Service)	+ (Administrative > Direct Service)
Sector	+ (Nonprofit > For-profit)	0	+ (Nonprofit)	+ (Nonprofit > For-Profit)

In Chapter 5, the study findings are reviewed and discussed more extensively. The implications of those findings for contributions to theory and applications to practice are presented as are implications for future research.

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the results of the dissertation research. This discussion contains an overall summary of the findings presented in Chapter 4 compared to the assertions presented in Chapters 1 and 2, implications for research and theory, implications for practice and suggestions for future research.

Summary of Findings

This was an exploratory study, designed to identify and test the linkages between context, work structures and/or work values as predictors of organizational commitment, job involvement, intent to leave and tenure using reports from a group of professional social workers. In so doing, I was attempting to verify three statements made by nonprofit authors about both sectoral work practices and work values. First, nonprofit authors assert that there are detectable value differences across the three sectors. The second statement was that these values differences are manifested as sector-specific differences in individual work values and work practices. A third key assertion was that the nonprofit sector, more than the public or for-profit sectors, provides the most hospitable employment for professionals. Organizational behavior research, particularly that describing the relationship and impact of work values, was used to develop a plausible model to test the nonprofit authors' statements.

Several previously normed instruments as well as specially developed scales were used to test these assertions. The Work Values Inventory (Super, 1977) was used to test the work values differences assertion. Because these individuals worked in organizations that have not been the subject of similar empirical research, two sets of work practice scales were developed. The study hypotheses were tested using multiple regression and the full model was explored using hierarchical regression. The specific findings of this study indicate the following:

This group of respondents were homogeneous with respect to their very high level of the work value altruism (14.7 on a 15 point scale). Sector did predict the work value of economic returns (for-profit sector > public sector > nonprofit sector, $p \leq .058$). Autonomy was not predicted by sector.

The factor analyses of the two sets of work practice items—reward practices and client service decision-making practices—resulted in interpretable scales with mixed reliabilities. Those scales were used to identify a set of reward practices and client service decision-making practices that were used in other analyses.

Sector did not predict either the availability of professional reward practices or the use of professional judgments to make client service decisions. Contrary to predictions, financial rewards were reported as more available in the nonprofit sector than in the for-profit. As predicted, the use of legal requirements to make client service decisions was most prevalent in the public sector. Finally, there were no industry-based differences in reward or client service decision-making work practices within the nonprofit sector.

Generally, the interactions between work values and the work practices that mirrored those values were not significant predictors of the dependent variables. The interaction between the value respondents placed on economic returns and the availability of financial rewards was the sole interaction to contribute to the dependent variables. It had an impact on tenure.

In testing the plausibility of the model using work structure and work context variables, sector played no part. Other independent variables did predict the dependent variables. Professional rewards and the use of professional judgments to make client service decisions were associated with organizational commitment. Reliance on legal requirements to make client service decisions and the lack of professional rewards predicted intent to leave. Rewards only—an emphasis on financial rewards and a lack of professional rewards—predicted tenure. Finally, those independent variables had no relationship to job involvement.

In the second test of the model, context, and particularly one's position, was a much better predictor of the dependant variables. In all instances, holding an administrative position was more influential than holding a direct service position. The work value altruism generally influenced the dependent variables in a predictable fashion: more emphasis on altruism was positively associated with organizational commitment and job involvement and negatively associated with intent to leave. It was also negatively associated with tenure; a rationale for that finding is offered below. A value for economic returns positively predicted intent to leave and negatively predicted tenure; autonomy had no predictive impact.

No model-testing relationship successfully approximated the nonprofit sector's predictions since nonprofit sector was never the dominant sector.

The work practices/context path predicting intent to leave was most like the professional work setting predictions. That is, the use of financial practices and legal practices to make client services decisions positively predicted intent to leave while the availability of professional rewards was negatively associated with intent to leave.

Sector could predict both work values and work practices, but did not play a significant role in the prediction of affective outcomes; it did play a role in explaining the behavioral outcome, tenure.

In the next section, these results are presented and discussed in one of three subsections based on their relevance for organizational behavior, nonprofit or institutional theory.

Implications for Research and Theory

Three streams of theory—drawn from organizational behavior, nonprofit and institutional literature—were used to develop the hypotheses and model tested in this study. The discussion addresses the findings and questions raised for each of these streams.

Organizational Behavior Theory

The organizational behavior literature was used for three main purposes. These were to establish:

- The use of work values as a legitimate individual variable in explorations of person-organization fit (c.f., Chatman, 1989).
- The rationale for fit between individual and organizational attributes (Relationship A in the model; c.f., Kristoff, 1996).
- The predicted individual attitudinal and behavioral outcomes based on the fit between an individual and their organization (Meglino, et. al, 1989).

It must be noted that this study lacked the fidelity with many of the cited organizational behavior studies because it was not an exploration of practices within specific organizations but rather a study of work practices across a class of organizations. In the past, cross-organization studies have generally been limited to a comparison of members' perceived attitudes (c.f., Posner & Schmidt, 1996), although sometimes these studies have been augmented with data on individuals' behaviors (c.f., Chao, et. al, 1994). In this study, data were not available for comparisons between individuals' and their employing organizations' work values nor specific individuals' characteristics and their employing organizations' practices. As a consequence, the model used in this study represented a mixed conceptualization of fit with indirect cross level measurements (Kristoff, 1996). This approach was not seen as a barrier to collecting and analyzing the data because the work practices studied—reward practices and client service decision making practices—were not specific to nor divisible by individuals (Roberts, Hulin & Rousseau, 1978) and therefore did not rely on achieving some level of individual agreement for verification (James, 1982). Theoretically, the reward practices and client service decision-making practices could have been verified by examining organization policies or records.

The main effects predictably influenced the dependent variables: organization commitment, job involvement, intent to leave and tenure. However, the fit between work values and work practices predicted none of individuals' attitudinal outcomes as hypothesized. Only the interaction between individuals' value for economic returns and financial reward practices predicted any outcome, and that was for the behavioral outcome tenure. Two explanations—one statistical and one conceptual—are offered for the dearth of successful fit predictions.

Two statistical artifacts may explain the failure of the interactions to make significant contributions to the outcomes. First, the work values scale for autonomy was unreliable. Therefore, this may have accounted for the fact that the variable made no significant contribution to any of the multiple regression equations. Second, it appears that multicollinearity was problem in these equations. Table 31 shows the correlations among the main effects and their interactions.

The interactions overlap substantially with the work practices they include, from a high correlation of .906 between professional rewards and the autonomy x professional rewards interaction to a low of .817 between the use of professional judgments in client service decisions and the interaction between autonomy and the use of professional judgments. Clearly there is no new information that these interactions can add.

This table suggests that not only does the inclusion of key interactions NOT improve the prediction of affective and behavioral outcomes, in all instances the interactions appear to suppress main effects. Only in the instance of tenure is there an interaction effect and it occurs at the expense of four main effects.

The lack of statistical success in using these interactions prompted a reconsideration of the appropriate way to model fit in these equations. As was noted above, in other work values research, supplementary fit is operationalized as the interaction between an individual's work values and those of the employing organization. That information was not available here. Studies of complementary fit, where personality data is used in conjunction with work practices, have modeled fit differently. With mixed

Table 31
Correlations Among the Main Effects and Their Interactions

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. Work Value (WV) Economic Returns								
2. WV Autonomy	.233***							
3. Client Service – Professional Judgments	.047	.064						
4. Professional Rewards	-.148**	-.026	.098*					
5. Financial Rewards	-.100*	-.015	-.021	.578***				
6. Economic Returns X Financial Rewards	.267***	.014	-.009	.436***	.881***			
7. Autonomy X Professional Judgments	.151**	.613***	.817***	.054	.033	-.009		
8. Autonomy X Professional Rewards	-.048	.388***	.117*	.906***	.526***	.418***	.306***	

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

results, they have used personality traits to predict work practice *preferences* in job search research (c.f., Bretz, et al., 1989 and Cable & Judge, 1994). The equivalent here would be to use individuals' work values to predict work practices. It must be noted that these are job incumbents, whose work practices are less likely to solely reflect their individual preferences than is the case when making job search decisions. The alternate specification of the relationships between work values and work practices was not the focus of this research, but it an area for future exploration.

Nonprofit Theory

The nonprofit literature was used to specify the values, work practices, and the nature of relationship between them that were used in this study. In particular, nonprofit authors suggested that sector values differences were striking, especially with regard to the relative emphasis on altruism versus economic returns (c.f., Young, 1984). Further, they suggested that these differences could be clearly seen in the values held by individuals working in that sector (Witty,1989) and that these values would be reflected in the structures developed by nonprofit organizations. As was demonstrated in the literature review, nonprofit authors may have consistently asserted these value differences, but it remained the task of others to actually test for value differences. Varied methods were used to confirm value differences; none were directly tested with a work values scale. The selection and use of a work values scale was a task undertaken, with moderate success, in this study. Based on the nonprofit literature, scales that identified levels of altruism, autonomy, and economic returns were used (Super, 1970). In this population, the items defined as altruism and economic returns formed reliable scales (α

= .81 and .83, respectively) and the autonomy items did not ($\alpha = .54$). A set of items drawn from earlier work with a large nonprofit child welfare agency was used to define the possible range of reward practices that might be used. Those items were analyzed to develop sub-scales for categories of rewards that organizations might be using, and the subscales conformed to categories discussed in the nonprofit literature: pay/other financial rewards, professional rewards, bonuses and other miscellaneous rewards.

In this study I achieved mixed results with regard to key nonprofit assertions about work values. Contrary to predictions, there were no sector-related differences in the value altruism. The sector-related predictions about the value for Economic Returns was supported. In this sample, those people working in the for-profit sectors valued economic returns more than those in the public sector; and both more than individuals working in the nonprofit sector. Finally, a preference for the work value autonomy approached significant, but was opposite the hypothesis. In this sample, people working in the for-profit sector valued altruism more than those in the nonprofit sector.

Different explanations are offered for each of these work-values-related results. First, in this population altruism was a strongly held value. As noted previously, there was almost no variance in the population; respondents averaged 14 points on a 15-point scale. As a result, there was no variance that could be used to test the assertions.

This research provided empirical support for accumulation of data that has been assembled about the differences in the value placed on economic returns across the three sectors. One aspect of the sample that was not tested (and about which there were no hypotheses), the inter-play between individuals' values for job security and economic returns. While every attempt was made to identify a population in which a three-sector study would be possible, there appear to have been substantial limitations in this population. For-profit employment was not evenly distributed in this population; most respondents working in that sector held jobs in mental health or substance abuse agencies. Given realities in Michigan, it is unlikely that most of the individuals currently working in the for-profit sector voluntarily chose that sector. Those agencies have been most affected by the privatization of formerly public or nonprofit organizations. It is reasonable to assume that these employees remained with their jobs as those jobs made the transition from one sector to another, not that they voluntarily sought employment in that sector. Nonetheless, the results are as hypothesized.

Finally, the contradictory findings with regard to values for autonomy—which merely approached significance—may be the result of scale unreliability. That could cause findings that were opposite the predictions or this could actually be a null hypothesis. However, the true outcome cannot be known.

Mixed results were also found for relationships between sector and work practices. In this sample, sector did not predict professional practices, neither the availability of professional rewards nor the use of professional judgments to make client service decisions. This is consistent with the finding above that sector did not predict the work value autonomy. However, this result could also be an artifact of this all-professional population. Sector did predict the use of legal requirements/rules as hypothesized, with those in the public sector placing a greater emphasis on the use of rules to make client service decisions than those employed in the nonprofit sector. There was support for the use of financial factors in client service decision making. As predicted, those employed in the for-profit sector placed a greater emphasis on financial factors than those in the nonprofit sector. However, those working in the public sector placed the greatest emphasis on financial factors; there was no hypothesis about the relative emphasis placed on financial factors in the public sector.

Model testing was undertaken to test relationships that might be inferred from the nonprofit literature. If sector (a context variable) has an impact on work structures and work values, then it is reasonable to expect the influences of sector to influence individuals' affective and behavioral outcomes. That supposition was not borne out. In the hierarchical regression equations, sector made no contribution over and above that made by work values or practices.

While the sector-related influences were not borne out, the profile of the committed professional worker was. A separate profile of the professional employee was related to intent to leave one's organization. Although professionalism was seen as a hallmark of nonprofit employment (Majone, 1984), in fact this study confirmed it as a universal (non-sectoral) attribute. The opportunity to act using one's professional skills and be rewarded for them contributed to these respondents' plans to stay with their organizations; the de-emphasis of these same factors contributed to intent to leave. Intent to leave one's employment was negatively predicted from the use of professional attributes to make client service decisions and also the availability of professional rewards and positively predicted by the use of financial and legal practices to make client service decisions.

Organization (Thompson, 1967) and nonprofit theory (Young, 1984) were combined to develop a rationale for finding industry differences. The predicted differences and findings are discussed in the next section.

Institutional Theory

Young (1984) suggested that differences found in nonprofit organizations' practices could be accounted for by examining the organization set within which they functioned. In this study, distinctions were made among agencies that were identified as providing family service, child welfare or mental health services. Each of these industries was predicted to have a different set of constraints which would in turn be reflected in different work practices and different employee values. None of the industry predictions were supported: no individual work value or work practice differences were found within the nonprofit sector among these three industries. While these results were consistent with the lack of sector differences, an explanation will assist in considering future research efforts.

If the descriptions of these three industries do suggest that some differences might reasonably be found, then it is useful to speculate on the factors that account for these null results. An initial explanation might lie with the measuring devices used here. It has already been suggested that the scales used to define reward practices might have obscured sector differences. The same may be true for the client service decision-making scales. Recall that the Legal Practices scale had low reliability ($\alpha = .52$). A further investigation into the two items revealed that while no differences were discernable in the use of legal/accreditation requirements (S2) there were differences in the application of government polices. Table 32 shows the responses.

Table 32
Differences in the use of Government Policies by Industry

Reported use of government policies or mandates in making client service decisions	Industry		
	Child Welfare	Family Service	Mental Health
No or limited influence	2%	12%	19%
Some influence	18%	31%	26%
Great deal or major influence	80%	57%	55%

Percents rounded to nearest whole number.
$\chi^2 = .05$

Respondents in the mental health industry were most likely to report that government policies had little influence on their practices and those in the child welfare industry, in support of the hypothesis, were most likely to report the use of government policies in making client services decisions. These results suggest that important industry differences may have been obscured by the production of scales that combined items that operated in different ways. It would have been rewarding to find that similar differences occurred in the use of cost factors; that is, that respondents in the mental health industry reported either that funder rules regarding the costs for services (S3) or the cost of alternative methods or services (S9) more frequently influenced their client service decisions. However, neither item's predictions were supported (χ^2 = .267 and .532, respectively).

In this study, a plausible model for associating context, work values and work practices with individuals' affective and behavior work outcomes was developed and tested. The findings were least consistent with those from prior organization behavior research. Work values (measured here as altruism, economic returns and autonomy) could not be associated with work practices (measured here as sets of reward practices and sets of client service decision making practices) to predict organizational commitment, job involvement, intent to leave and tenure.

Modest success was achieved using sectoral (nonprofit). While the influences of sector could not be traced through the model, sector did predict the components: work values and work practices. Institutional (industry) theory predictions were not supported. As has been discussed above, some of the null findings could be the result of scale unreliability. However, the "nonprofit" value altruism was a consistent predictor of all dependent variables. And, in the case of job involvement, was one of only two factors (position was the other) that made a contribution.

A review of the findings suggests that lack of empirical research related to "nonprofit" work values has lead to potentially erroneous conclusions. When one examines the results from this study, it becomes apparent that these respondents are not trading their value for altruism with their value for economic returns toward the same organizational outcomes. Rather, these are values that often operate in concert to predict the affective and behavioral outcomes. The results in this study suggest that these respondents are not trading preferences for pay with those for service to others, they have both values but are applying them separately to enact affective and behavioral outcomes.

Implications for Practice

This study included a single type of professional from a relatively narrow range of organizations. Therefore the implications that can be drawn from this study are necessarily limited to similar individuals in similar organizations. One of the clearest implications from these data is that altruism and economic returns are not opposite ends of a single value continuum. Rather, the clear finding is that people like these have similarly high regard for both values, and that the gains from each are different. Take, for example, the organization that experiences high staff turnover. Turnover not only has dollar costs associated, but for human service organizations has consequences for the successful delivery of interpersonal services; consumers must connect and reconnect with staff in order to achieve their goals.

Human service organizations are likely to recruit based on the opportunity to do something important—or, appeal to job seekers' altruism. Strategically this is important, because altruism is a consistent predictor of the dependent variables. However, altruism is one of several variables that influence intent to leave or tenure. Here, intent to leave is based on the availability of financial rewards and one's value for economic returns. Further, these data suggest that employees' intent to leave is potentially forestalled by the availability of professional rewards and the opportunity to make client service decisions based on professional, not legal or financial factors. No predictions can be made regarding when trade-off between professional and financial rewards might occur, but these data suggest that some balance could be achieved between providing professional rewards and financial rewards with the benefit of longer employment.

Work values do play a role in employees' affective outcomes. Employees come to organizations with values, but those values can be shaped. A realistic match between available economic returns and one's value for economic returns could again potentially forestall one's intention to leave. Since many of these respondents felt that they had pay comparable to others in similar jobs, one of the activities that these organizations might sponsor are periodic salary surveys so that their employees have an accurate sense of the going rate for their work. (This presumes that the organization will be able to maintain comparability.) Altruism is a significant contributor to both organizational commitment and job involvement. So the tactic of describing the contribution one would be able to make in a job interview would have the benefit of attracting people who want to provide that service to others, with the eventual outcome of increased organizational commitment and job involvement.

Suggestions for Future Research

This line of inquiry could be strengthened by additional research that would illuminate both organization behavior and nonprofit concerns. These include: improved definitions of context variables, better work values measurement (both the tool and matching individuals' and organizations' work values) and clarification of what role, if any, respondents' professional affiliation has for their organizational affiliation.

A key tenet of nonprofit literature is that there are discernable differences among the three sectors. One of the dilemmas of pursuing cross-sector research is generating a pool of potential respondents that are similar in important ways but different in their context. The approach used here of following individuals with similar educational characteristics and work situations was only partly successful in generating these context differences. It may be that for these human service organizations, context defined as sector is not a distinguishing characteristic, but other contextual factors are. In this study, it was not possible to pursue any of a number of organization-based characteristics that might have shown differences in work practices or individuals' work values. Among the organizational contextual characteristics that might be discernable and different are number and source of funding streams, board characteristics, strategy or purpose, the presence of absence of the founder at the head of the organization, and/or role in the community (c.f., Drucker, 1990; Hodgkin, 1991). Further organization-based research into the most important context variables could help to focus the nonprofit sector discussion on those variables that do make a difference.

The investigation of context can also be improved at the person level. In addition to position, which was an individual level contextual variable, employment status may be a fruitful variable to include in future research. In this study, respondents were advised to answer questions using their full-time employer or one of their multiple employers. Mixed employment status (more than one employer and/or less than full-time with one employer) was a characteristic of more than one third of this study's respondents. This status should be more proximal than sector for individual employees and therefore likely to have more of an effect on their work values, organizational commitment and job involvement.

There are two general approaches that improved investigation of work values could take: the development of better tools and improved collection of matching person and organization data. The first improvement has to do with the device used to investigate individuals' work values. Super's Work Values Inventory (1970, 1977) was used because it had items that specifically reflected the identified unique characteristics of nonprofit organizations (and also could be used here without matching data from others in the organization). Since the nonprofit authors are so convinced that value differences exist, it might be a worthwhile endeavor to develop a sector-specific instrument. Alternatively, the use of a general work values tool like the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP;

O'Reilly and colleagues, 1991) could provide important insight into their real or imagined unique characteristics. In this study, the three focal values were not similarly predicted by sector; with another tool that might or might not be true.

The second improvement would be the better specification of fit. One way measurement of fit could be improved is through the collection of matching organization work value information. Collection of matching organization work values data could be accomplished by direct assessment ("my values are like my organization's values"). Data collected in this manner could be paired with individual data using a tool such the Work Values Inventory to determine comparability between individuals' and organizations' values. Indirect assessment will require the development of matching organization profiles from multiple people in the same organization—a different strategy than that used in this study. Alternatively, the specification of fit could be altered to conform more closely to that used by others pursuing complementary fit approaches.

Finally, a potentially fruitful avenue of investigation, particularly for populations similar to this one, is the examination of the role that professional affiliation might play in the person-organization fit relationship and/or the prediction of desirable person and organization outcomes. Summaries of prior organizational behavior research have shown that loyalty to both union and employer can contribute to organizational commitment (Reed, Young & McHugh, 1994). It may be that professional commitment also adds to organizational commitment.

This study tested a model that proved plausible for linking contextual variables to individuals' work values and also to their settings' work practices as predictors of individual and organizational outcomes. This study described a set of work practices that were used across human service organizations in three industries. While the independent variables operated in predictable fashion, the operationalization of fit between work values and work practices did not. Suggestions have been made to improve the specification of fit. The data supported nonprofit authors' assertions that those who work in the nonprofit sector value economic returns less than their public or for-profit sector counterparts. Further, in this population, the "nonprofit" value altruism was similarly and highly valued across all sectors. However, in contrast to the assertions by nonprofit authors, one of the important discoveries was the finding that these individuals' values for altruism and economic returns do not represent trade-offs, but rather are similarly valued and can be used in concert to predict affective and behavioral outcomes.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INSTRUMENTS

APPENDIX A1
COVER LETTER

February 1999

Dear Social Work Professional,

You received this survey because you are a member of the Michigan Chapter of the National Association of Social Workers. This survey is being sent to members in five counties in order to find out more about professional social workers **who work in health and human services organizations**. The summary results from this study will be available to Michigan Chapter members.

Every attempt has been made to include only those people with agency-based employment. Two employment situations may create questions:

1. If you have **changed jobs or retired** in the last six months, PLEASE COMPLETE THE SURVEY based on the job you recently left. Your comments about your past employment are very important.

2. If you work **only in private practice**, please DO NOT complete the survey. Please do return this cover letter with the information checked here:
_____ I only do private practice. Unfortunately, only people who are eligible to complete the survey can enter the lottery described below.

There are four sections in this survey that include questions about:

- background information on your agency;
- your attitudes toward your work;
- various agency practices;
- you and your profession.

It will take approximately 30 minutes to complete this survey. Please return it in the enclosed envelope.

Your responses are anonymous. No answers can be associated with any other information about you or your agency. All answers will be reported in summary form. Examples of summary reports may include information about types of agencies such as "mental health" or sectors such as "nonprofit." The zipcode has been placed on your questionnaire in order to summarize data by geographic area, such as "Grand Rapids and the surrounding cities."

You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by completing and returning this questionnaire.

Please return the survey by:

If you have any questions, please contact me:

Celeste Sturdevant Reed, M.S.W.
Michigan State University
Institute for Children, Youth, & Families
27 Kellogg Center
E. Lansing, MI 48824
517/353-6617
csreed@pilot.msu.edu

Thank you for reviewing this information.

If you would like to be **entered in a lottery to win** a one year basic membership in the **National Association of Social Workers**, please detach this section and return it to me. You may either mail this with your survey or send it in a separate envelope to:

Celeste Sturdevant Reed
305 E. Middle Street
Williamston, MI 48895

Name ____

Address____

____

Telephone____
(Needed to confirm arrangements with you)

APPENDIX A2
FOLLOW-UP POSTCARD

Dear Michigan Chapter NASW Member,

Approximately ten days ago I mailed you a survey about professional social workers who work in human services agencies.

If the survey has been completed and returned to me, please accept my sincere thanks. If you have not returned the survey, please complete and return it in the envelope that was provided. In order to accurately reflect the views of social workers about their situations, it is extremely important that your answers be included in the results.

If by some chance you did not receive the survey, it has been misplaced, or you have additional questions, please call me at 517/353-6617 and I will be happy to respond.

Sincerely

Celeste Sturdevant Reed

Appendix A3
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

SECTION 1
BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The first three items ask for basic background information about you.

B1. Please indicate the education that you have. *Check all that apply.*

____ BA or BS in field other than social work
____ BA in social work or BSW
____ graduate course work not culminating in a degree
____ MSW
____ other MA
____ other professional degree (nursing, law, medicine, etc.)
____ PhD in social work
____ other PhD
____ other; please describe ______________________________

B2. Please indicate the licenses or certificates that you hold. *Check all that apply.*

____ certified social worker in Michigan
____ ACSW
____ Advanced Diplomate
____ Licensed social worker (state other than Michigan)
____ certified substance abuse counselor
____ Limited license psychologist
____ Certified Marriage and Family Counselor
____ Other; please name ______________________________

____

B3. Please describe your current pattern of employment.
Check the one answer that best characterizes your situation.

____ Recently retired from agency being described.
____ Less than full-time employment in one agency. How many hours/week? __________
____ Full-time employment in one agency.
____ Less than full-time employment in each of two different settings.
____ Full-time employment in one agency plus part-time employment in another agency.
____ Full-time employment in one agency plus part-time private practice or consultation.
____ Other. Please describe:______________________________

____

This group of questions asks for basic information about the agency that you work in. If you work in more than one agency, select one agency to serve as the reference point for your answers. Do not report on any private practice that you may also perform.

B4. Please check the one sector that applies to your agency

____ Private not-for-profit
____ Public
____ Private for-profit

B5. Please check the one field of practice that best represents your agency's work:

____ Child welfare
____ Family Services
____ Health
____ Mental Health
____ Occupational Social Work/EAP
____ Substance Abuse
____ Other (please identify) ________________

B6. Please check the one type of work setting in which you are employed:

____ Business/Industry
____ Health; *which type of setting?*
  ____ inpatient
  ____ outpatient
____ Managed care
____ Residential facility (group home, etc.)
____ Mental Health; *which type of setting?*
  ____ inpatient
  ____ outpatient
____ Social Service agency
____ Other; please identify ________
____

B7. Which of the following client populations are served by your agency? *Check all that apply.*

____ children
____ adolescents
____ young adults
____ adults
____ seniors
____ families
____ citizens in general
____ neighborhood groups
____ other organizations
____ Other: ____________________
____ special populations (migrants, the unemployed, women, men, people of color, etc.)

B8. Please check the one description that is most like your position:

____ Direct service to clients (either intervention or advocacy)
____ Combined direct service and supervisory position
____ Supervision only
____ Management or administration
____ Supportive services such as consultation, training, fund-raising, or personnel management.
____ Other (Please describe) ________________________________

B9. Adding together all of the jobs that you have held with this agency, how long have you worked here?

____ years; or ____ months if less than one year.

B10. If you have your way, three years from now will you be working with this agency?

____ Yes

____ No

____ Not applicable (i.e., already retired or recently taken another job). If this is the case, skip questions B11 and B12 and GO TO THE NEXT SECTION BELOW.

Circle the number of the response that best describes your situation.	To a great extent			Very little	Not at all
B11. To what extent have you thought seriously about changing agencies since beginning to work here?	5	4	3	2	1
B12. To what extent would you prefer another more ideal job than you now work in?	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION 2
YOUR ATTITUDES ABOUT YOUR AGENCY, WORK AND CLIENTS

In this section there are no right or wrong answers. I am interested in understanding your specific situation.

Organization Goals and Values

For the following statements, circle the number of the response that best describes your relationship with your agency.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
G1. The goals of my agency are also my goals.	5	4	3	2	1
G2. I believe that I fit in well in my agency.	5	4	3	2	1
G3. I do not always believe in the values set by my agency.	5	4	3	2	1
G4. I would be a good example of an employee who represents my agency's values.	5	4	3	2	1
G5. I support the goals that are set by my agency.	5	4	3	2	1

Work Values

The statements below represent values which people consider important in their work. These are satisfactions which people often seek in their jobs or as a result of their jobs. They are not all considered equally important; some are very important to some people but of little importance to others. Read each statement carefully and circle one answer that indicates how important it is for you.

How important is work in which you...	Very Important	Important	Moderately Important	Of Little Importance	Unimportant
W1. ... help others	5	4	3	2	1
W2. ...can get a raise	5	4	3	2	1
W3. ...have freedom in your own area.	5	4	3	2	1
W4. ...gain prestige in your field.	5	4	3	2	1
W5. ... know your job will last.	5	4	3	2	1
W6. ...get the feeling of having done a good day's work.	5	4	3	2	1
W7. ...know by the results when you've done a good job.	5	4	3	2	1
W8. ...are sure of always having a job.	5	4	3	2	1
W9. ...make your own decisions.	5	4	3	2	1
W10. ...have pay increases that keep up with the cost of living.	5	4	3	2	1
W11. ...know that others consider your work important.	5	4	3	2	1
W12. ...feel you have helped another person.	5	4	3	2	1
W13. ...add to the well-being of other people.	5	4	3	2	1
W14. ... are looked up to by others.	5	4	3	2	1
W15. ...are paid enough to live right.	5	4	3	2	1
W16. ...are your own boss.	5	4	3	2	1
W17. ...are sure of another job in the agency if your present job ends.	5	4	3	2	1
W18. ...see the results of your efforts.	5	4	3	2	1

Agency Relationships

The following statements reflect ways that people can feel about their organizations. You may or may not have these same feelings about working in your agency. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers.

Please circle the one response that best identifies your feelings.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A1. The agency has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	5	4	3	2	1
A2. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this agency would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	5	4	3	2	1
A3. I would feel guilty if I left my agency now.	5	4	3	2	1
A4. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	5	4	3	2	1
A5. If I had not already put so much of myself into this agency, I might consider working elsewhere.	5	4	3	2	1
A6. I owe a great deal to my agency.	5	4	3	2	1
A7. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to my agency.	5	4	3	2	1
A8. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this agency.	5	4	3	2	1
A9. This agency deserves my loyalty.	5	4	3	2	1
A10. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my agency.	5	4	3	2	1
A11. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.	5	4	3	2	1
A12. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my agency now.	5	4	3	2	1
A13. I really feel as if this agency's problems are my own.	5	4	3	2	1
A14. It would be very hard for me to leave my agency now, even if I wanted to.	5	4	3	2	1
A15. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	5	4	3	2	1
A16. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this agency.	5	4	3	2	1

Please circle the one response that best identifies your feelings.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A17. Right now, staying with my agency is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	5	4	3	2	1
A18. I would not leave my agency right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	5	4	3	2	1

Job Aspects

People may work in the same type of agency but still have very different jobs that they do. Below are a number of statements each of which you may agree or disagree with depending on your own personal evaluation of your job.

Circle the one answer that best reflects your current job situation.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
J1. The most important things that happen to me involve my present job.	5	4	3	2	1
J2. To me, my job is only a small part of who I am.	5	4	3	2	1
J3. I am very much involved personally in my job.	5	4	3	2	1
J4. I live, eat and breathe my job.	5	4	3	2	1
J5. Most of my interests are centered around my job.	5	4	3	2	1
J6. I have very strong ties with my present job that would be hard to break.	5	4	3	2	1
J7. Usually I feel detached from my job.	5	4	3	2	1
J8. Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.	5	4	3	2	1
J9. I consider my job to be very central to my existence.	5	4	3	2	1
J10. I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION 3
AGENCY PRACTICES

Client Service Practices

Many factors are taken into consideration by people delivering services to clients. Please rate the extent to which each of these factors has an influence on services delivered to your agency's clients.

Source of influence on client service decisions	Has the major influence on service decisions	Has a great deal of influence on decisions	Has some influence on service decisions	Has limited influence on service decisions	Has little or no influence on service decisions	This is not applicable to our clients or services
S1. Government policies or mandates	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S2. Legal or accreditation requirements	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S3. Funder rules regarding uniformity of service to clients	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S4. Funder rules regarding costs for services.	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S5. Agency mission or purpose	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S6. Agency policies and rules	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S7. Agency public image	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S8. The predictability of external funds	5	5	3	2	1	NA
S9. The cost of alternative methods or services	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S10. Board member and/or donor preferences	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S11. Staff commitment to the agency mission.	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S12. Staff knowledge and skills	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S13. Staff motivation and participation	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S14. Staff cooperation inside the agency	5	4	3	2	1	NA

Source of influence on client service decisions	Has the major influence on service decisions	Has a great deal of influence on decisions	Has some influence on service decisions	Has limited influence on service decisions	Has little or no influence on service decisions	This is not applicable to our clients or services
S15. Staff collaboration with others outside the agency	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S16. Staff professional judgment	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S17. Severity of client's problem	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S18. Client's ability to pay (or insurance coverage)	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S19. Client's motivation and participation	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S20. Client's level of family or social support	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S21. Local community values or sentiments	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S22. Availability of volunteers	5	4	3	2	1	NA
S23. Availability of and/or access to other community services	5	4	3	2	1	NA

S21. What three factors have the most positive impact on client services?

S22. What three factors have the most negative impact on client services?

Staff Rewards

Agencies can provide a variety of rewards to staff. In the following list, please check off (√) each of the rewards that are available in your agency and also check off (√) rewards that are available to you.

Rewards	Available in your agency	Available to you
R1. Increases in salary		
R2. Bonuses for performing quality work.		
R3. Bonuses for performance related to budgets and schedules.		
R4. Longevity pay.		
R5. Pay levels that are comparable to people with similar jobs in other agencies.		
R6. Job security.		
R7. Policy or practice of reassigning staff rather than laying people off.		
R8. Agency paid life insurance.		
R9. Agency paid health insurance.		
R10. Agency paid retirement benefits.		
R11. Doing work you believe in.		
R12. Important duties and responsibilities.		
R13. Influence in setting goals and making decisions.		
R14. Freedom concerning working hours.		
R15. Freedom concerning job duties.		
R16. A compatible group of co-workers.		
R17. Positive responses from clients.		
R18. Formal commendations and rewards.		
R19. Expenses paid to present papers at conferences.		
R20. Membership in high status task forces.		

General Management Practices

In order to be a cost-effective agency, a number of different management practices may be used in agencies. This list includes some of the more common practices that agencies use.

For each of the items listed below, please indicate whether the management practice is being used now in your agency. If it is in use, please identify the general length of time that the practice has been in use. A "traditional" practice is one that has been in operation for a number of years; a "recent" practice would have been adopted in the last year or two.

	Is this technique practiced in your agency?		If you answered "yes," is this a traditional or a recent practice?	
MANAGEMENT PRACTICE	NO	YES ➔	Traditional	Recent
G1. Financial incentives to employees	N	Y	T	R
G2. Efforts are made to collect fees.	N	Y	T	R
G3. Billable services are emphasized.	N	Y	T	R
G4. Reductions have been made in administrative costs.	N	Y	T	R
G5. Fees are charged for missed appointments.	N	Y	T	R
G6. Clients are required to pay for some services in advance.	N	Y	T	R
G7. A collection agency is used for past due fees.	N	Y	T	R
G8. There are separate facilities or waiting rooms for clients with insurance.	N	Y	T	R

Monitoring Practices

You, yourself, the agency and outside funders may all be engaged in monitoring the quality and quantity of services to clients.

	Very Much	Somewhat	Very Little	Not at All	Don't know
M1. In evaluating your agency's performance, to what extent do others outside of the agency pay attention to the practices of other agencies like yours?	5	4	3	2	1
M2. In evaluating your agency's performance, to what extent do you pay attention to the practices of other agencies like yours?	5	4	3	2	1
M3. How much are your agency's operations regulated by government agencies?	5	4	3	2	1

For each of the following factors, check off all of the instances that are true in your agency. For example, both the agency and the outside funders may be monitoring whether or not the agency "stays within its budget", but only you may be concerned about "specific results with clients."

Factors that represent the quality or quantity of services to clients.	This is a concern of yours that you monitor	This is a factor that the agency routinely monitors	This is a factor that outside funder(s) routinely monitor
M4. Staying within the budget			
M5. Ensuring eligibility of the clients			
M6. Providing the quantity (number, amount, duration) of services as planned or contracted			
M7. Providing the quality of services as planned or contracted			
M8. Achieving specific results with clients.			
M9. (Something else?)			

Funding Sources

Agencies receive financial support for programs from many sources. For each of the sources of funds listed below, circle one answer representing the contribution of that source.

	A major source of funds	A modest source of funds	Not a source of funds	I don't know
F1. Consumer/client fees for service	2	1	0	DK
F2. United Way funding and/or other federated charitable giving	2	1	0	DK
F3. Tax dollars (directly allocated)	2	1	0	DK
F4. Private Insurance reimbursements	2	1	0	DK
F5. Medicaid reimbursements	2	1	0	DK
F6. Government purchase of service contracts	2	1	0	DK
F7. Employee Assistance Program contracts	2	1	0	DK
F8. Private sector contracts (excluding EAP)	2	1	0	DK
F9. County grants/contracts	2	1	0	DK
F10. Municipal grants/contracts	2	1	0	DK
F11. Private foundation grants	2	1	0	DK
F12. Corporate donations and/or contributions	2	1	0	DK
D13. Individual donations and/or contributions	2	1	0	DK
F14. Sales of unrelated products, goods or services	2	1	0	DK
F15. Something else?	2	1	0	DK
F16. Something else?	2	1	0	DK

F17. In the last five years, what source(s) of funds have increased the most?

____

F18. In the last five years, what source(s) of funds have decreased the most?

____

SECTION 4
YOU AND YOUR PROFESSION

Professional Relationships

The following statements describe how people feel about their profession. These may or may not be true for you. Please circle the one responses that best reflects your feelings.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
P1. I feel very loyal to the social work profession.	5	4	3	2	1
P2. I am proud to tell others that I am a social worker.	5	4	3	2	1
P3. I talk up social work as a great field.	5	4	3	2	1
P4. I am glad I chose social work over other professions I was considering.	5	4	3	2	1
P5. For me social work is the best profession to be in.	5	4	3	2	1
P6. I really care about the fate of the social work profession.	5	4	3	2	1
P7. Being a social worker inspires the best in my job performance.	5	4	3	2	1
P8. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help the social work profession be successful.	5	4	3	2	1
P9. I find that my values and the social work profession's values are very similar.	5	4	3	2	1
P10. Deciding to work in the social work profession was a mistake.	5	4	3	2	1

OVER * OVER * OVER

Professional Participation

Please indicate the regularity with which you participate in the following types of professional activities. Regularity is based on the frequency of the offering. Attending an annual meeting every year is "regular;" attending a monthly meeting once a year is "irregular".

Please circle one answer.	Regularly	Irregularly	Not at All
V1. Local social work professional meetings.	2	1	0
V2. Local practice-related professional meetings (child welfare, mental health, etc.)	2	1	0
V3. Local advocacy related meetings (child abuse and neglect, fair housing, etc.)	2	1	0
V4. State-wide social work professional meetings	2	1	0
V5. State-wide practice-related professional meetings	2	1	0
V6. State-wide advocacy-related meetings	2	1	0
V7. National social work professional meetings (NASW Annual Meeting)	2	1	0
V8. National practice-related professional meetings (Family Services of America, Child Welfare League)	2	1	0
V9. National advocacy meetings (Children's Defense Fund, National Alliance for the Mentally Ill)	2	1	0

V10. How many subscriptions to professional journals—other than Social Work—do you have?
____________ (number)

Thank you for your time and responses. This ends the questionnaire.

◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊

If you would be willing to give the following information, I would appreciate it.

Gender
___ Female
___ Male

Race/Ethnicity
___ Caucasian ___ Latina/Latino ___ Native American
___ African American ___ Asian American ___ Arab American

◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊◊

Please return your questionnaire in the enclosed envelope to me:

Celeste Sturdevant Reed
305 E. Middle Street
Williamston, MI 48895

Remember to send in your lottery slip to be included in the pool to win a national NASW basic membership.

APPENDIX B

SCALES AND MEASURES

APPENDIX B1
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Commitment to Occupation from Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993)
7 point scale: 1 = strongly agree to 7 = strongly disagree ["nursing" is replaced with "social work"]

Affective Commitment [alpha = .82]
1. [Social work] is important to my self image.
2. I regret having entered the [social work] profession. (R)
3. I am proud to be in the [social work] profession.
4. I dislike being a [social worker]. (R)
5. I do not identify with the [social work] profession. (R)
6. I am enthusiastic about [social work].

Continuance Commitment [alpha = .74]
1. I have put too much into the [social work] profession to consider changing now.
2. Changing professions now would be difficult for me to do.
3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to change my profession.
4. It would be costly for me to change my profession now.
5. There are no pressures to keep me from changing profession (R)
6. Changing professions now would require considerable personal sacrifice.

Normative Commitment [alpha = .83]
1. I believe people who have been trained in a profession have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable period of time.
2. I do not feel any obligation to remain in the [social work] profession. (R)
3. I feel a responsibility to the [social work] profession to continue in it.
4. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel that it would be right to leave [social work] now.
5. I would feel guilty if I left [social work].
6. I am in [social work] because of a sense of loyalty to it.

R = reverse coded

APPENDIX B2
JOB INVOLVEMENT

Kunungo (1982) Job-Involvement Scale
Questionnaire Format

1. The most important things that happen to me involve my present job.
2. To me, my job is only a small part of who I am.
3. I am very much involved personally in my job.
4. I live, eat, and breathe my job.
5. Most of my interests are centered around my job.
6. I have very strong ties with my present job which would be difficult to break.
7. Usually I feel detached from my job.
8. Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.
9. I consider my job to be very central to my existence.
10. I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.

APPENDIX B3
INTENT TO LEAVE

Chatman (1991) Intent to Leave

1. To what extent would you prefer another more ideal job than the one you now work in?
2. To what extent have you thought seriously about changing organizations since beginning to work here?
3. How long do you intend to remain with this organization?
4. If you have your own way, will you be working for this organizations three years from now?

APPENDIX B4
WORK VALUES

Super (1977) Work Values Inventory.

The statements below represent values which people consider important in their work. These are satisfactions which people often seek in their jobs or as a result of their jobs. They are mot all considered equally important; some are very important to some people but of little importance to others. Read each statement carefully and indicate how important it is or would be for you.

5 means "Very Important"
4 means "Important"
3 means "Moderately Important"
2 means "of Little Importance"
1 means "Unimportant"

Work in which you...

[Achievement]	get the feeling of having done a good day's work
	know by the results when you have done a good job
	see the results of your efforts
[Security]	know your job will last
	are sure of always having a job
	are sure of another job I the company if your present job ends
[Prestige]	gain prestige in your field
	know that others consider your work important
	are looked up to by others
[Independence]	have freedom in your own area
	make your own decisions
	are your own boss
[Economic Returns]	can get a raise
	are paid enough to live right
	have pay increases that keep up with the cost of living
[Altruism]	help others
	feel that you have helped another person
	add to the well-being of other people

APPENDIX B5
CLIENT SERVICE FACTORS

Many things have an impact on the services that are delivered to clients—including agency policies, staff experience, client problems, etc. The factors that have an impact can improve or impede services to clients, or sometimes do both.

For the list below, please identify the type of impact that each item has on the clients you serve. Please select only one answer for each item. In the case of multiple influences, select the response that is true for the most clients.

Source of influence on client service decisions	Generally has a positive or beneficial impact on client service decisions	Generally has a negative or detrimental impact on client service decisions	Generally has little or no impact on client service decisions
Agency mission or purpose	+	-	0
Agency rules and requirements	+	-	0
Agency public image	+	-	0
The predictability of external funds	+	-	0
Legal or accreditation requirements	+	-	0
Board member and/or donor preferences	+	-	0
Funder(s) requirements	+	-	0
Staff commitment to the agency mission.	+	-	0
Staff knowledge and skills	+	-	0
Staff motivation and participation	+	-	0
Staff cooperation each other	+	-	0
Staff collaboration with others	+	-	0
Staff professional judgment	+	-	0
Severity of client's problem	+	-	0
Client's ability to pay or insurance coverage	+	-	0
Client's motivation and participation	+	-	0
Client's level of family or social support	+	-	0
Local community sentiments	+	-	0
Availability of volunteers	+	-	0
Availability of and/or access to other community services	+	-	0

APPENDIX C

FACTOR ANALYSIS RESULTS FROM UNUSED SCALES

Table 33
Client Service Decision-Making Practices: Agency Attributes

Items	Factor Loadings	Communality Estimates
S6. Agency policies and rules	.774	.677
S7. Agency public image	.714	.586
S5. Agency mission or purpose	.669	.612

Coefficient alpha = .71

Table 34
Client Service Decision-Making Practices: Client Attributes

Items	Factor Loadings	Communality Estimates
S20. Client's level of family or social support	.688	.552
S23. Availability of and/or access to other community services	.688	.531
S19. Client's motivation and participation	.667	.527
S17. Severity of client's problem	.493	.477
S21. Local community values and sentiments	.464	.442

Coefficient alpha = .52

Table 35
Work Reward Practices: Bonuses

Items	Factor Loadings	Communality Estimates
R2. Bonuses for performing quality work	.784	
R3. Bonuses for performance related to budgets and schedules	.780	

Coefficient alpha = .75

Table 36
Factor Analysis Results
Work Reward Practices: Status and Security

Items	Factor Loadings	Communality Estimates
R20. Membership in high status task forces	.694	.554
R19. Expenses paid to present papers at conferences	.641	.527
R18. Formal commendations and rewards	.588	.478
R15. Freedom concerning job duties	.501	.490
R7. Policy or practice of reassigning staff rather than laying people off	.482	.410
R6. Job security	.435	.409

Coefficient alpha = .74

Appendix D

Null Results

Table 37
Null Results for Regression Equation H1b2: Use of Professional Factors for Client Service Decisions in the Nonprofit Sector

Predictor	B		Beta	Sig.
Constant	21.896			.000
Private For-profit Sector	-.580		-.022	.653
Public Sector	.268		.016	.736
R		.028		
R^2		.001		
$\sim R^2$		-.004		

F =.849; sig. = .429

Table 38
Null Results for Regression Equation H2b: Use of Legal Factors for Client Service Decisions in the Child Welfare Industry

Predictor	B		Beta	Sig.
Constant	7.412			.000
Child Welfare	.388		.079	.243
R		.079		
R^2		.006		
$\sim R^2$		.002		

F = .830; sig. = .437

Table 39
Null Results for Regression Equation H2c: Use of Financial Factors for Client Service Decisions in the Mental Health Industry

Predictor	B		Beta	Sig.
Constant	42.745			.000
Mental Health	1.065		.082	.228
R		.082		
R^2		.007		
$\sim R^2$		.002		

F = .958; sig. = .385

Table 40
Null Results for Regression Equation H3d: Position Predicting Autonomy

Predictor	B		Beta	Sig.
Constant	12.339			.000
Administrative position	.492		.075	.120
R				
R^2				
$\sim R^2$				

F = 2.423; sig. = .124

Table 41
Null Results for Regression Equation: Predicting Job Involvement from Work Practices and Work Context

Predictor	Beta	R	R^2	F	) R^2	F for) R^2
Step 1 - Work Practices						
Professional Rewards	.00273					
Financial Rewards	.00247					
CS Professional Practices	.00976					
CS Financial Practices	-.00543					
CS Legal Practices	-.00501	.084	.007			
Step 2 – Constant (Nonprofit Sector) [B]	***					
Public Sector	-.254					
Private For-profit Sector	-1.284	.140	.020	1.331	.012	1.020

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