ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS, DEPENDENCY,
AND JOINT PROGRAMS: MUTUAL EFFECTS AND
CORRELATES IN INTERORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONS

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ABSTRACT

ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS, DEPENDENCY, AND JOINT PROGRAMS: MUTUAL EFFECTS AND CORRELATES IN INTERORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONS

By

Bernard Joseph Offerman

Local human service agencies that are both relatively autonomous and specialized find it either difficult or disadvantageous to initiate or participate in joint activity with other agencies. They tend to perceive other local delivery systems in their environment as competitors or bargainers for scarce resources, whether those resources are clients, staff professionals, facilities, good will, legal recognition, or access to funding sources. Yet, increased demands for the effective delivery of health, welfare, counseling, recreational and other human services, coupled with the inefficiencies that accompany dispersed and fragmented decisions and control, make inter-agency cooperation a community imperative.

How, then, do individual agencies react to a changing environment that appears to require negotiation, coordination, and possibly coalitions with other agencies? What agency characteristics and inter-agency conditions are associated with the involvement of public and private

human service agencies in joint activity? And, finally, is organizational pursuit of effectiveness compatible with a cooperative mode such as inter-agency joint program involvement? These questions are posed in this research, and interorganizational theory and concepts are applied to survey findings in order to analyze the results and to determine their implications.

The hypothesis predicts an association between Organizational Dependency and agency involvement in Joint Programs. The component measures of this involvement are the agency's relative frequency of Joint Programs, whether or not the agency has initiated Joint Programs, and the relative intensity of the agency's Joint Program activity.

Organizational Dependency assumes the form of either Domain or Resource Dependency. Domain Dependency is based on the organization's need for "consensus" support from its task and contextual environments regarding its functions and goals; Resource Dependency is based on the organization's need for external resources in order to maintain its programs, implement innovations or enlarge its scope of services. These concepts are measured on the basis of agency director perceptions of whether the source of influence for key organizational decisions are external or internal to agency boundaries.

Joint Programs are formalized integrations of resources between two or more organizations for the joint delivery of

programs or services. The utility of the Joint Program lies in the fact that it represents a cooperative activity in which resources are combined for program or service accomplishment beyond the capacities of individual organizations; yet, agency identity and integrity are maintained.

Data were obtained from thirty-five public and private human service agencies in a midwestern city of approximately 200,000 population. The information was gathered from agency directors through a two-part questionnaire, partly self-administered and partly by personal interview. The Yule's Q statistical test was utilized in measuring correlations among the variables.

It was hypothesized that:

> Joint Program involvement by human service
> agencies in the community is associated
> with agency director perceptions of Organ-
> izational Dependency.

The Hypothesis was sustained. The strength of the association varied depending on whether frequency, initiation or intensity were involved. Joint program frequency (Q = 0.54) was more closely associated with Organizational Dependency than were agency initiation (Q = 0.21) or intensity of involvement (Q = 0.38). The most salient agency characteristics associated with the hypothesized direction are older status and a relatively high diversity of agency services. The overall agency profile offering the strongest support to the hypothesis is the older and larger private agency with relatively high levels of service diversity

and staff professionalism and a treatment mode of work.

The Resource Dependency perceived principally by the private agencies tended to be more closely associated with Joint Program involvement than did the Domain Dependency perceived by the public agencies. Thus, in this particular community, private agency need for money and other material resources appears to be more strongly related to interorganizational coalescing than is public agency need for consensus and acceptance of its role by other agencies and the community.

Therefore, this case study appears to support the Aldrich (1972) conclusion that a resource dependence rationale accounts for inter-agency cooperation, and that the Joint Programs may be associated with economic competition for agency growth and overall effectiveness.

On the other hand, public agencies tend to refrain from joint activity, and the domain consensus that they generate along with Organizational Dependency may serve as a substitute _for_ rather than a facilitator _of_ Joint Programs. This pattern resembles the formal cooptation that Selznick conceptualized in his Tennessee Valley Authority study (1949).

In the community studied, inter-agency cooperation and coalitions appear to be compatible with agency pursuit of organizational effectiveness.

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By

Bernard Joseph Offerman

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To my Mother, Mary Offerman, who
has always lived a life of love
and service to her family; and
to my sister, Mary Frances Shea,
who has always followed that
example.

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Dissertations in process tend to ebb and flow depending on the interest and plain stubbornness of student and committee. I was blessed with a committee that continually offered support and assistance, so there was usually more flow than ebb.

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CHAPTER I

RESEARCH BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE

Introduction

This chapter introduces the dissertation with back-
ground information on the nature and dimensions of the
research problem. After the basic empirical questions
are posed, the conceptual and operational purposes of the
dissertation are defined and described. The chapter con-
cludes with brief references to key theorists and an out-
line of the research scope and objectives, its value and
limitations.

Background

The effective local delivery of human services, whether
under private or public auspices, is assuming more signifi-
cance as community needs are increasingly documented and
agencies search for appropriate alternatives for reaching
and adequately servicing clients. At the same time, com-
munity and client awareness and expectations are more
visibly apparent and heightened. Recreational, health,
welfare, rehabilitation, employment, counseling, and re-
lated human services are becoming essential supports to
urban living. Increased needs and expectations alike put
pressure on the delivery systems of these agencies to
become more efficient and effective in the generation and
distribution of services. This pressure is often accom-
panied by a community concern for better coordinating and

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coalescing of programs and services, and for the equality
and balancing of service delivery in accordance with the
extent and gravity of client needs.

Federal programs of the 1960's demonstrated anew the
need for integrated planning and delivery of services on
a community-wide scale. Documented needs invariably out-
ran the resources committed. Therefore, priorities had to
be determined in terms of needs, clients and geographical
areas to be served. The inter-agency cooperation required
for setting and observing servicing priorities generated
an entirely new set of problems. Moreover, the nature of
the client's need often involved multiple services by more
than one specialist or agency. For example: The economi-
cally depressed person often needs job-seeking counseling
and assistance in addition to food stamps or unemployment
insurance; the person suffering from alcoholism often needs
family or personal counseling in addition to de-toxication
and group therapy; the physically handicapped need rehabil-
itation counseling and a sheltered work experience in addi-
tion to physical therapy.

With the recent advent of revenue sharing and the Fed-
eral decategorization of program appropriations, local pub-
lic agencies have been granted more authority and discretion
over program and service decisions. Private agencies share
in the benefits of this new Federal-state-local partnership
because public and private monies are often merged at the
local level. For example, the Federal government often

subsidizes and evaluates programs and services but subcontracts their administration and operation to local private or public agencies. Thus, there is increasing overlap in private and public involvement in human service delivery; and public program mandates often include a requirement to enlist the cooperation and operating expertise of the private sector. The integration of public and private funds, administration, and evaluation, then, have emphasized the need for more interorganizational coordination among community-level agencies. Mutual initiatives toward joint activity between public and private agencies assume greater importance both for agency survival and growth as well as effective pursuit of organizational objectives.

Statement of the Problem

In this context, the dual problem of organizational dispersion and fragmentation among human service agencies and their diverse decision processes creates a considerable barrier to effective service delivery. Because of their autonomy and increasingly specialized nature, these agencies are often inadequate and inappropriate in meeting the needs of clients requiring prior, concurrent, follow-up or multiple programs or services. Clients are often unaware of the full range of services that may be available to them, and there is little pressure on the agencies to exchange information for the client's benefit. Moreover, isolated decision-making by individual agencies with regard to similar and related human needs often creates

program and service gaps or duplications in the community. As a result, scarce human and material resources are often inefficiently distributed and utilized.

How, then, do individual agencies that have grown in specialization, professional competencies, and autonomy, react to a changing environment that appears to require negotiation, coordination, and possibly coalitions with other agencies? Are these agencies inclined toward competition and conflict or cooperation and joint activity in their inter-agency relations? What specific agency characteristics and conditions are associated with Joint Program activity? And finally, are interagency cooperation and coalitions compatible with agency pursuit of organizational effectiveness?

Conceptual and Operational Purpose

The dissertation, therefore, is directed toward increased understanding of "why?" and "under what conditions?" interorganizational cooperation and joint activity take place.

The unique nature of this research is its positing of an organizational perception of <u>Domain or Resource Dependency in its environment</u> as a motivation and/or correlate for inter-agency cooperation. Cooperation is measured in this design by the presence and relative intensity of <u>Joint Programs</u>. Previous studies have analyzed principally the effects of environmental influences on organizational structures and processes. This research

design goes a step further and predicts an environmental response. This response -- the Joint Program -- tends to coalesce inter-agency resources, facilitates program or service delivery, helps control environmental uncertainty and conflict, asserts a claim to current and future functions and goals, utilizes organizational slack, and ultimately, assists the organization in its overall pursuit of "effectiveness." At the same time, there is a minimal loss in the identity and autonomy of the individual organizations involved.

Organizational Dependency, the proposed correlate of Joint Programs, represents an agency perception that the locus of control for organizational decisions is outside organizational boundaries. This dependency may be due to the agency's conscious sharing of influence with environmental elements in order to overcome or deal effectively with perceived domain or resource deficiencies. On the other hand, this external control may be an unplanned phenomenon that intrudes on or accompanies agency efforts to establish and extend domain or resource control. In either event, efficacy or power in key decision areas is perceived to be somewhere in the external environment.

This state of dependency on its task and contextual environments evolves further as the organization pursues domain consensus. That is, the domain consensus that is essential for staking out its task and contextual power creates a new dependency for the organization. Thus,

there is a well-defined domain of agency functions to maintain and protect and the agency must continually bargain for continued support from agents and organizations in its transactional and contextual environments. Organizational Dependency is operationalized as <u>external decision control</u>, and it is measured by agency director perceptions of whether the sources of influence for twenty-four key organizational decisions are external to the organization. The prediction is made that organizational awareness of this dependency and the domain consensus that accompanies it both induces and makes possible resource exchange and formalized exchange agreements -- namely, Joint Programs.

One might ask, "Decision control for what . . .?", i.e., what are the desired organizational outcomes? <u>Organizational Effectiveness</u>, defined in the Glossary (Appendix A) and discussed in Chapter II, is a criterion that is both universal and appropriate for organizational decisions and interorganizational comparisons. This concept includes the principally internal dimension of <u>goal achievement</u> and the principally external dimension of <u>environmental adaptation</u>. The former is represented by internal decision rationality surrounding the task structure and the processes of differentiation and integration of functions. The latter refers to organizational decision strategies and tactics in bargaining for more certain and predictable external environments, and the processes of guaranteeing access to scarce and valued resources in the environments.

Joint Programs represent a formalized commitment and integration of resources by two or more agencies for the joint delivery of programs or services. In operational terms, they involve the interorganizational sharing, exchanging and/or pooling of resources. The agreement may involve money, prestige, staff, supervision, information, volunteers, legal support, space, supplies, goodwill or some combination of these elements. Joint Programs enable the organization to exploit symbiotic relationships in its environment for more effective program and service delivery. Program and servicing needs that lie beyond the capacity of individual agencies to fulfill can be carried out through joint activity with other agencies. Conflict can be kept in check as Joint Program experience leads to more extensive reliance on negotiated environments. Internally, organizational slack is utilized and surplus resources are advantageously utilized or combined with other agency resources for net increases in programs and services delivered. At the same time, human service agencies in general become better informed about each others' competencies, and individually and collectively, they gear program planning to more cooperative and synergistic solutions to service delivery.

In the survey instrument, Joint Programs are designated as planned and formal commitments of resources by two or more autonomous human service agencies within the five-year period previous to the survey, and having been

in existence for a minimum of six months.

Research Objectives

Heydebrand (1973) points out that there are few quantiatively-compared or empirically-based research studies in the field of interorganizational relations. For local human service agencies in particular, the vacuum is clearly evident. This research is an effort to gather empirical data and to analyze potentially comparable organizational variables both internal and external to the organization. Though essentially a case study, this research also represents an attempt to relate organizational properties and profiles to interorganizational activity in a form that can be replicated and extended by other researchers.

Reid (1964), Thompson (1967), Aiken and Hage (1968) and Marrett (1971) have concluded in their writings that a "theory of coordination" or a more thorough and systematic understanding of organizational motivations or propensities to coalesce programs and services are needed urgently in the field of interorganizational relations. Aiken and Hage (1968: 929), on the basis of their empirical model of Resource Dependency resulting from innovation pressures, conclude that "It is scarcity of resources that forces organizations to enter into more cooperative activities with other organizations, thus creating greater integration of the organizations in the community structure." They regarded a realistic model as incomplete if

it failed to incorporate <u>both cooperation and conflict</u> in its concept and operation. Reid (1964: 421) saw Joint Programs arising from "shared goals and complementary resources" while Thompson (1967: 26-32) related to resource exchange as a consequence of the agency market situation for inputs and outputs, organizational domain maintenance and extension, and an organizational strategy in which environmental certainty is sought.

In this dissertation, two major research objectives are pursued in order to better understand organizational motivations to coalesce resources in an inter-agency activity. The first objective is to measure and determine the relationship between organizational Domain or Resource Dependency and the initiation, the presence and the intensity of Joint Programs. The second objective is to test possible correlations between agency demographic characteristics (auspices; age; size) and operational characteristics (diversity of services; mode of work; level of professionalism) on the one hand and the incidence of Joint Programs on the other.

As a result of this two-fold research purpose, a third objective is accomplished. That is, agency profiles are developed that reflect the mix of demographic and operational characteristics peculiar to the particular community studied. These profiles and their relationships to JointProgram involvement may serve as useful categories and departure points for future case

studies and empirical research generally.

Uniquely, this research design utilizes the perception of environmental dependency as an organizationally-conscious or -unconscious correlate of Joint Programs. Also uniquely, in its analysis and conclusions, it describes ideal and less than ideal organizational conditions that are associated with inter-agency programs and services.

Since the case study format dictates the research methodology, research objectives and conclusions are limited to descriptive statements and analyses. Therefore, <u>inferences and generalizations to other communities or larger populations of agencies are not warranted or appropriate</u>. Rather, the use of an individual community of agencies for the scope of the case study may help future researchers concentrate on the total empirical reality of inter-agency relations in a city. Moreover, the use of characteristics and organization-level profiles common to many types of organizations makes future case studies feasible and valuable for both comparative research and for the development of interorganizational research principles and processes. With the cumulative experience of a number of case studies in the inter-organizational field, theory and research methodology in this comparatively new area should be strengthened.

CHAPTER II

THEORY AND HYPOTHESIS

Introduction

This chapter contains four major sections. These sections along with their principal sub-sections are as follows:

General Literature Review --

Part I   - Organizational Research
Part II   - Interorganizational and Environ-
            mental Research
Part III - Overall Critique of Literature

Specific Literature Review --

Part I   - Organizational Effectiveness
Part II   - Domain, Domain Consensus, and
            Domain Dependency
Part III - Organizational Dependency and
            Joint Programs

Theoretical Linkages --

Part I   - The Domain Dependency (Consensus)
            Model
Part II   - The Resource Dependency (Innova-
            tion) Model

The Hypothesis

The General Literature Review section begins with a brief review of notable organizational-level research -- principally, case studies -- and then notes the beginnings of systematic studies in interorganizational relations and processes.

Part II of this section is composed of a more intensive analysis and critique of the background literature that is relevant to the dissertation purpose. This section,

titled, "Interorganizational and Environmental Research,"
covers the following areas:

1. Environmental influence on the organi-
zation;
2. Organizational strategies for environ-
mental adaptation;
3. Resource exchange, coordination and
integration; and
4. The environmental context.

This first section concludes with an overall critique of
the literature.

The second major section of the chapter covers the
key concepts utilized in the hypothesis. Titled "Specific
Literature Review," this section integrates the conceptual
and empirical background of each concept with its opera-
tional use in the dissertation. In the process, the con-
cepts are analyzed and critiqued.

The third section, "Theoretical Linkages," contains
the two models proposed -- the Domain Dependency or "Con-
sensus" model and the Resource Dependency or "Innovation"
model -- are traced from the two-fold division of Organi-
zational Effectiveness, and by separate theoretical and
operational routes, culminate with organizational inter-
action in the form of Joint Programs.

The fourth and concluding section is comprised of the
hypothesis. The survey questions that measure the hypoth-
esis are found in Appendix B.

General Literature Review
Part I - Organizational Research

A review of studies using the organization itself as the unit of analysis, and employing various combinations of internal and external characteristics as either dependent or independent variables in relation to each other, is helpful for an understanding of this research design.

Historically, the dominant perspectives of organizational research were Weber's structural and process conception of bureaucracy and Simon's social and rational approach to human behavior and decision-making in organizations. Increasingly, empirical studies began to focus on the "goodness of fit" between individual and organization, on the consequences of organizational coordination and control for productivity and performance, and on the human and social cost of the cult of efficiency (Heydebrand, 1973). The nature of research strategy and methods paralleled this human relations emphasis, utilizing participant observation, small group experiments and sample surveys of attitudes and perceptions. Examples of this approach include Roethlisberger and Dickson's (1939), Whyte's (1935) and Blau's (1955) empirical studies.

Recent studies have tended to regard structural or process characteristics of organizations as dependent variables and either environmental or goal attainment factors as causal influences. This approach has emphasized interorganizational relations, and examples of it include Udy's

(1965) and Stinchcombe's (1965) comparative studies, Thompson
and McEvens' (1958) goal achievement research, and the organ-
izational typology and change studies of Etzioni (1965) and
Bennis (1966), respectively. The trend toward using common
organizational characteristics for comparison and generali-
zation purposes paralleled increased emphasis on the whole
organization as the unit of analysis. However, Heydebrand
points out a troubling paradox in this evolution. As organ-
izational research moved toward the entire organization as
a research unit, researchers came to rely almost exclusively
on the case study approach. Unfortunately, though these
case studies do portray a total empirical reality, findings
are not easily generalized to other organizations. Noted
organizational case studies include Selznick's study of
the TVA (1948), Gouldner's research on managerial succes-
sion in an industrial firm (1954), Blau's analyses of in-
formal groups in two government agencies and their modify-
ing effects on overall organizational direction (1955 and
1963), the Lipset et al. study of democracy in the Typog-
raphers Union (1956), and the Janowitz study of military
officers (1960). Heydebrand does mention two case studies
that stand out in particular for their theoretical strength,
richness in detail, and precise conceptual differentiation
(Heydebrand, 1973).

The first study, Burns and Stalker's The Management
of Innovation (1961), examines the nature of innovation and
change in twenty British production organizations. As a

result of this study, the authors developed a typological
distinction between mechanistic and organic systems of
management. In turn, the particular system that evolved
was partially explained as a differential response to
external instability and change. Thus, both a classifica-
tion scheme and organizational response sets to environ-
mental stimuli were developed. The second study, Crozier's
The Bureaucratic Phenomenon (1964) was a comparative analy-
sis, also yielding certain measurable traits across a number
of organizations. His study covered a clerical agency and
a government-owned industrial organization.

Both of these studies drew from their interview and
case study material certain analytical variables which con-
tributed to theoretical generalizations. They also focused
on the influence of the external environment on organiza-
tional processes in a systematic way. Thus, the strategic
use of empirical data in these studies enabled the research-
ers to develop hypotheses of more general theoretical inter-
est and to formulate generalizations toward greater under-
standing of organizations. Yet, this particular type of
study is the exception and a systematic and comparative
analysis of organizations has been largely absent from
organizational research.

A few other organizational researchers have emphasized
interorganizational comparisons and processes -- for exam-
ple: Litwak (1961), Chandler (1962), Hall (1962), Woodward
(1965), Kimberly (1967), Lawrence and Lorsch (1967), Perrow

(1967), Blau and Schoenherr (1971), and Meyer (1972). Yet, the researchers who have attempted to generate comparative or systematic results have found it difficult to retain the power to encompass differences between concrete instances, and simultaneously, to have the power to explain these differences rather than accounting for them after the fact. This dilemma poses the problem confronting scientific endeavor in general. That is, mediating between theoretical scope or the problem of generality and conceptual-operational precision or the problem of testability (Heydebrand, 1973).

The relatively new field of "interorganizational relations" represents a positive step toward understanding and resolving this scientific and empirical difficulty. Specifically, this area of inquiry and study has taken organizational research out of an unrealistic environmental vacuum, and it has shed light on variables and processes external to organization boundaries. More importantly for the long run, it has formed the basis for an appropriately separate and distinct conceptual and empirical research area -- interorganizational and environmental relations. In turn, research in this new field involving the nature of interorganizational interactions and environmental exchange and influences is creating a clearer, more systematic understanding of the organization itself.

General Literature Review

Part II - Interorganizational and Environmental Research

Conceptual and empirical work in interorganizational and environmental relations can be divided into four areas. The sub-divisions are:

1) Environmental influence on the organization;
2) Organizational strategies for environmental adaptation;
3) Resource exchange, coordination and integration; and
4) The environmental context.

Each of these sub-divisions overlaps the other areas somewhat, yet contributes uniquely and individually to an overall perspective on interorganizational and environmental relations. Therefore, these individual areas will be reviewed here briefly in order to give a theoretical perspective and an empirical framework for the more specific concepts to follow in the Specific Literature Review and for the Theoretical Linkages that introduce the hypothesis.

Environmental Influence on the Organization

This research principally poses environmental attributes and factors as an influence on overall organizational effectiveness or on specific structural or process characteristics of the organization. Because of the relative abundance of research on this subject, it is helpful to sub-divide the material into four categories. These categories involve environmental influence on: 1) organizational effectiveness; 2) interorganizational linkages; 3) organizational power and control; and 4) internal structure and processes.

A considerable body of literature has taken shape since the 1950's on the varied environmental pressures and influences that tend to shape the organizational pursuit of effectiveness. These writings portray the task and contextual environments and their effects on organizational goal achievement, integration, and internal and external change and adaptation. In some instances, they trace effects on more precise internal criteria such as control of turnover and waste, cost-benefit ratios and the profit margin.[1]

Interorganizational linkages embrace various forms of transactions, exchange and coordination as well as interaction mechanisms that facilitate exchange or cooperation, both phenomena resulting from organizational perceptions of environmental dependencies. Selznick (1948) pioneered the concept of a planned organizational adaptation to gain environmental support and create favorable community and consumer consensus; Ridgeway (1957) and Elling and Halebsky (1961) both conceived of organizations as having input and output dependencies that could be handled through exchange or transaction mechanisms; Levine & White (1961) saw organizations as systems of exchange that are dependent upon the environment for resources and favorable transactions to preserve the organization. Thompson (1962) concluded that boundary-spanning roles and role-players on the periphery

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[1] A succeeding section on "Organizational Effectiveness" elaborates on the research and writings in this particular area.

of the organization are important sources of adaptation to environmental influences; Litwak and Hylton (1962) and Litwak and Meyer (1966) proposed interaction mechanisms for environmental adaptation through propositions on co-ordinating agencies, organizational prerequisites for exchange, and the Balance Theory of Coordination, a theory citing a mid-point of social distance and coordinating entities in order to make exchange feasible between bureauc-racies and community groups; and Jacobs (1974) notes five points where organizations are dependent on their environment -- namely: input acquisition; output disposal; capi-tal acquisition; acquisition of production factors; and obtaining a labor force. Jacobs sees linkages and exchanges as the means for the organization to insure a continuous supply of essential and non-substitutable resources.

Organizational power and control are problematic because of competition, conflict or pressure from the task and contextual environments. Emerson (1962), analyzing organization "A's" dependence on "B" concluded that it depended on A's motivational investment in goals mediated by B, and the availability of these goals outside of the A-B relationship. Thus, if "B" was one of the few sup-pliers of an essential resource not obtainable elsewhere, "B" has considerable interorganizational power over "A". Jacobs (1974) follows up on this concept in equating power with the capacity to obtain essential and non-substitutable resources from the environment. Jacobs also defines

control as a broader concept than power in that it need
not be deliberate or planned, and there need be no resist-
ance. Blau (1964) added to Emerson's concept by making
the existence of coercion explicit as a means to influ-
ence, and seeing power and control in terms of creating
vulnerability as well as dependence. He interpreted
power as a generalized currency used to equilibrate
exchange imbalances. Organizations enable to recipro-
cate in exchanges would use compliance to pay their debts.

A group of researchers have related organizational
power and control to the domain established by the organi-
zation, and the consensus granted it by the relevant envi-
ronmental agents. The domain consensus sought by the
organization in order to operate effectively and obtain
resource support from the environment represents a strong
environmental dependency. A number of writers, then,
deal with power and efficacy in organization decision-
making and effectiveness in terms of organizational
dependence on initial and continued consensus, including:
Levine and White (1961); Maniha and Perrow (1965); Thompson
(1967); Warren (1969); and Braito et al. (1972).[1]

Environmental influence on internal structure and
processes has received substantially more attention from
empirical researchers in recent years. Eisenstadt (1959)
spoke of organizational dependence on external resources

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[1] A succeeding section on "Domain, Domain Consensus and
Domain Dependency" elaborates on research in this area.

and power, and their influence on structural characteristics and activities. Dill (1958) and Simpson and Gulley (1962) examined environmental influence on managerial and organizational autonomy, respectively; Evan (1966) showed empirically that environmental "set" characteristics or the nature of the competition and resource context correlate with organizational and autonomy structure; Lefton and Rosengren (1966) investigated client influence on organizational program and service activity; Pugh et al. (1968) and Inkson et al. (1970) researched the influence of seven primary variables comprising organizational context on three dimensions of internal structure, including organizational autonomy; and Aiken and Hage (1968) showed that an interorganizational activity such as Joint Programs may influence internal structure and processes.

Organizational Strategies for Environmental Adaptation

This research area is related quite closely to the initial category covered -- environmental influence on the organization -- except that this segment involves much more than organizational coping, reacting, or consciously or unconsciously altering structure or processes in response to the environment. In this instance, the organization initiates a strategy and plan to actively coopt, work with or neutralize environmental agents, groups and institutions. Selznick (1948) illustrated this environmental strategy when speaking of formal and informal cooptation as an organizational activity intended to avert external threats

to organizational success; Thompson and McEwen (1958) conceptualized the forms of interaction possible in the midst of goal pursuit, based on the organizational need to negotiate for scarce resources obtainable outside organization boundaries; Thompson (1962) showed that since output roles span organization boundaries, they may be important sources of adaptation to environmental influences; Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) found that effective organizations have established a "fit" between their internal specialized structures and external task environments; Perrow (1967) builds a case for the organizational motivation to protect and extend its own technology as a key determinant of its autonomy; and Thompson (1967) illustrates by careful formulation of a series of domain propositions that the organization can pursue a favorable environmental strategy for survival and growth given the competitive as well as cooperative realities of the interorganizational marketplace. For internal consistency and for an understanding of their practical utility, these propositions are posed with an assumption that norms of rationality are observed by the organization.

Resource Exchange, Coordination and Integration

Research in the interorganizational exchange and coordination areas has been largely composed of conceptual treatments of the subject. With the exception of the Levine and White (1961) and Levine, Paul and White (1963) studies, empirical research was largely absent from the field until

the Aiken and Hage (1968) and Britain's Aston group (Pugh et al., 1968 and 1969; Inkson et al., 1970) studies.

Homans with his "Social Behavior as Exchange" in 1958 integrated the concepts of social behavior with material and non-material resource exchange in a marketplace of scarce and valued resources. This conceptual breakthrough led to the research emphasis on social service functions within the realistic context of economic competition and conflict. Levine and White (1961) in their formulation of organizations as "systems of exchange," and Blau (1964) in his exchange and power theory, both expanded the Homan's construct from the individual and group levels to total systems or organizations. Both researchers stressed the organizational importance of favorable exchanges with other organizations both for operational success and environmental power and influence.

In a related stream of theoretical thought, a few writers concentrated on prerequisites and facilitating agents for inter-agency exchange and cooperation. Litwak and Hylton (1962) explored coordinating agencies as mechanisms for effecting exchange and encouraging inter-action among agencies. Litwak and Meyer (1966) emphasized a viable means for bureaucratic and primary organizations to coordinate programs and services of joint interest. Reid (1964), on the other hand, analyzed unmediated exchange and coordination in his approach to a theory of coordination. He set forth three preconditions of coordination: shared

goals; complementary resources; and efficient mechanisms. He also cited three levels of agency commitment to coordination with other agencies. They are ad hoc case coordination, systematic case coordination or "service integration," and program coordination or integration. This formulation goes a few steps beyond the Levine-White and Litwak-Hylton prerequisites for exchange and coordination, and predicts the type of agencies and resources that are likely to be involved.

The Reid typology's most complex and demanding interagency commitment -- program coordination or integration -- was operationalized as the Joint Program in the Aiken and Hage field research a few years later.

The Environmental Context

The Tavistock Institute researchers, Emery and Trist (1965), pioneered in treating the environment of organizations itself as a "causal texture." That is, they examined the processes through which parts of the environment become related to each other, the interdependencies and relationships that evolve, and the effects on organizations. This causal texture is classified as a quasi-independent domain. They further postulated four ideal types of environment ordered according to their "system connectedness" from placid, randomized to turbulent. Turbulence is increasingly becoming descriptive of the dominant environmental field surrounding organizations according to Emery and Trist. It is characterized by

complexity as well as rapidity of change in the causal
interactions within the environment. Dynamic processes
arise from the _field itself_ to make organizational deci-
sions and adaptability more hazardous and more perish-
able, and not infrequently, beyond organizational antic-
ipation or control.

An industrial example of a turbulent environment is
the situation of the relatively small domestic oil pro-
ducer during the 1973 to 1975 period. The Arab oil em-
bargo cut off a regular subsidy divided among all domes-
tic producers, large and small, and created a "shortfall"
psychology in the eyes of consumers. Consumers exerted
pressures on oil companies to guarantee current and
future oil regardless of specific price. The price rose,
and with the embargo giving way to inflated prices for
imported oil, consumer and therefore political pressure
was generated to curb usage of and dependence on oil,
restrict further price increases, and to find or develop
substitutes. All of these interacting agents controlling
the small oil company's environment -- Arab oil exporting
countries; large domestic oil companies; Congress; the
Administration; the consumers; and the mass media --
create a turbulent "causal texture" in which the small
company neither has control nor can it relate organiza-
tion efficiency to its future survival and success. The
matter is largely in the hands of powerful, interacting
environmental elements.

An example of this phenomenon among human service agencies is the Legal Aid Bureau. A traditional service of the local Bar Association and supported by the community United Way, this agency in rapid succession confronts new Supreme Court decisions tending to multiply its work, yet encounters competition from the OEO's legal service arm. However, the uncertain and changing status of the latter agency and the control controversy between President and Congress concerning its role vis-a-vis cases and clients creates an environmental complexity and uncertainty for the Legal Aid Bureau that defies rational understanding or planning.

The Emery-Trist construct applies to a majority of human service agencies and it is expressed in both task and contextual factors -- in particular: radically different funding sources and greater needs due to inflation and local demand; the changing roles of governmental regulatory agencies; increased local pressure for services; and the rise of consumerism and organized community interest groups. These environmental agents interact in a wider domain that the organization can neither control nor predict. In sum, this pattern illustrates the fact that the contextual environment can be as influential as the more immediate task environment in creating Organizational Dependency or external decision control in the agency's domain. A few years later, Terreberry (1968) did a non-empirical study and utilized the Emery

and Trist concept of the environment. She concluded that organizations are increasingly defined by their environmental interaction and that organizational change is largely induced by forces in the environment.

In a conceptual work with negligible and non-quantitative survey evidence from three cities, Warren (1967) focuses on the interorganizational field of community-level decision agencies. He sees the field as "crowded and turbulent" also, with "Community Decision Organizations interacting in loose coalitional or social choice contexts in ways which often affect one another adversely or favorably, but with little or no concert, and with few clearly defined norms governing the interaction." (Warren, 1967: 417).

Clearly, the environmental context has an interactive and influential life of its own apart from specific interorganizational transactions and relationships. Therefore, the more diffuse community and institutional atmosphere and values have favorable or adverse effects on inter-agency initiatives and coordination programs.

General Literature Review

Part III - Overall Critique of Literature

Background

In the relatively new field of organizational-level and interorganizational research, a substantial empirical vacuum exists. Few case studies and fewer quantitative,

comparative studies with inferential power have been con-
ducted. Those empirical studies that have been completed
represent tentative efforts in the foundation stages of a
new area of research. Thus, in the research designs and
methodologies of these studies considerable time and
analytical energy are devoted to the development of valid
measuring instruments for organization-level phenomena,
the formulation of common -- and thus, comparable --
organizational terminology and variables, the measurement
and evaluation of confounding or intervening influences
from the task and contextual environments, and generally,
the effective planning, conduct and standardization of
research for more general application and future repli-
cation.

Virtually unexplored are key lines of possible empir-
ical investigation that may uncover confounding influences,
deeper organizational patterns or more relevant, composite
variables, for valid reliable predictions of organization-
al and interorganizational relations. For example, the
particular stage of growth that an organization finds it-
self experiencing may be an important antecedent or moder-
ating variable with causal implications for the entire
organization. The growth stage, then, is a variable that
may skew, neutralize or unduly emphasize the conclusions
of empirically sound research. A vacuum is also evident
in the synthesis of short and long term organizational
phenomena. Past studies tended to assume either a short

run or long run perspective, and therefore, conclusions were anchored to either time frame. Yet, the empirical reality of the organization requires an integration of both perspectives.

Moreover, social or human service agencies in particular are increasingly typical of organizations today. They are service-producing, non-profit in character, employ a relatively high percentage of white collar personnel in general and women in particular and they have a high concentration of administrative and professional people. The collective impact of these trends has been to emphasize the rapid growth and emergence of human service agencies. Their developing importance also has made the relative lack of empirical studies in this area more obvious and more difficult to comprehend. The need for empirical testing and empirically-based principles in interorganizational relations also underlines the need for quantitative, comparative studies which indicate validity across a variety of organizations. In this way, logical interorganizational comparisons become possible and measurable variables and processes become standardized and suitable for replication.

Empirically-based case studies have an important role to play in the early stages of research in a new field. In the absence of a unifying theoretical perspective in this incipient area of interorganizational relations, this type of research helps to build classification

schemes, isolate key organizational variables, determine appropriate levels of analysis, and facilitate both replication and longitudinal-type studies. Yet, cases have to be multiplied in order to generate valid and reliable variable patterns and predictors. In addition, few case studies have been done that meet high standards in theory, methodology and analysis. Those that have met high standards (for example: Burns and Stalker /1961/; Crozier /1964/; Blau /1955/; and Gouldner /1954/) have tended to concentrate on internal organizational phenomena and variables.

Empirical Research: Product-Producing Organizations

Few empirical studies exist in the field of inter-organizational relations. Most of the research that has been done utilizes product-producing industries (for example: Burns and Stalker /1961/; Pugh et al. /1968 and 1969/; Inkson et al. /1970/; Lawrence and Lorsch /1967/; and Negandhi and Reimann /1973/). Among these studies, the Lawrence and Lorsch and Aston group studies deserve more attention for the purposes of this dissertation.

The Lawrence and Lorsch research is strong conceptually and analytically. In a comparative study of six organizations, the influence of sub-environments on the structure and process of organization sub-systems is carefully investigated and analyzed. Using the organization and its sub-system as the units of analysis, this study associates organizational adjustment to environmental

requirements with the economic performance of the organization. The two pivotal organizational attributes used in the research -- differentiation and integration -- are skillfully conceptualized and operationalized. Structural variables used are well grounded theoretically, and are drawn from the Woodward (1965) and Burns and Stalker (1961) studies.

On the other hand, the study lacks conceptual and operational clarity in the development and use of environmental variables, the key independent variables representing environmental influences on the organization. For example, measures of uncertainty in the environment such as "rate of change in conditions" or the "time span of definite feedback from the environment" are broad and nebulous in concept and defy appropriate application. Regarding methodology, the objective attributes of the environment as distinguished from the management's perception of them is not distinguished.

The Pugh and Inkson, et al., or Aston group studies, are rich in empirical detail. Embracing over fifty manufacturing plants in each study, the authors have developed seven contextual variables and measured their influence on organizational structure. Included among the dimensions of structure are organizational autonomy and centralization measures; interorganizational dependence represents one of the contextual factors. The level of analysis and the methodology of this study are exceptionally good. The

level of analysis and the methodology of this study are
exceptionally good. The complexities of organizational-
level behavior and the assessment of component variables
is integrated into the research design. The sole disad-
vantage of the study is the fact that it is virtually
impossible to replicate elsewhere.

Though both of these studies are useful for purposes
of this dissertation, conceptual and empirical research
in service-producing organizations is more relevant and
valuable.

Empirical Research: Service-Producing Organizations

Empirical research is rare among service delivery
organizations, and rarer still among local human or social
service agencies. Notable among the interorganizational
studies that do exist are the Heydebrand (1973) hospital
research and the health and welfare agency studies of
Levine and White (1961), Levine, Paul and White (1963),
and Aiken and Hage (1968). A few other studies in the
human service field have an empirical base for their con-
cepts and analysis, but lack specific operationalizing
and measurement of their concepts (for example: Litwak
and Hylton /19627; Warren /19677; Maniha and Perrow /19657;
and Braito, et al. /19727). Most other research in inter-
organizational and environmental relations are conceptual
analyses. The Heydebrand, Levine and White, and Aiken and
Hage studies are especially relevant to this research.

The Heydebrand (1973) study of structure and process

in 7,000 American hospitals was an attempt to develop a theoretical framework for analysis of organizations and to develop further a quantitative procedure applicable to organizations as the unit of analysis. This study had considerable empirical strength at the organizational level. Heydebrand defined and operationalized "organizational autonomy" and constructed a comprehensive framework for organizational analysis. A relative drawback of the study is the lack of a longitudinal dimension to the research; key variables such as "professionalism" and the "structure of bureaucratic authority" fail to reveal pattern and direction over a period of time. Nevertheless, Heydebrand's development of structural variables such as functional complexity, complexity of goals, organizational autonomy and degree of professionalism, was an important contribution to later studies such as the Aiken and Hage research.

The Levine and White (1961) research covered twenty-two health and welfare agencies in a New England town. This research drew upon the exchange theory of Homans (1958) and the environmental dependency concept and strategies of Thompson and McEwen (1958). Conceptualizing organizations as well as coordination among agencies as "systems of exchange," the authors developed further the germinal concepts of domain and organizational interdependence. Though the study was relatively small and not quantitative or comparable for later replication, it did

carefully define and operationalize components of human service agency interaction. Thus, this research helped prepare the way for conceptual analyses on resource exchange by Thompson (1962 and 1967) and Reid (1964), and empirical work by Aiken and Hage (1968).

The Aiken and Hage research analyzed the impact of environment on organizational processes in sixteen health and welfare agencies. Proposing that processes of conflict and cooperation can be incorporated into the same model of organizational interdependence, they related inter-agency joint programs to organizational complexity, innovation, de-centralization, internal communication and low formalization. These internal processes presumably are correlates of agency interdependence.

Aiken and Hage summarized and tested empirically a resource dependency rationale for inter-agency relations within a framework of inter-agency competition for scarce resources. Skillfully, they summarized clearly and comprehensively the background research in the field, and in the process, defined and operationalized a number of comparative and measureable concepts. Moreover, the authors posit assumptions as a basis for their hypotheses that appear well-supported and logically constructed. Also importantly, they attempt to build predictive validity and reliability into the research through their internal controls and statistical procedures.

The Aiken and Hage research has limitations and

difficulties in the areas of methodology and analysis.
The small number of agencies studied -- ten private and
six public -- make agency-level analysis and conclusions
uncertain and tentative. In their attempt to broaden and
add validity to perceptions utilized in the study, the
authors made a number of arbitrary decisions about the
particular personnel positions to be covered in the inter-
views, the percentage of staff interviewed for each level
of the agency hierarchy, and the increased social power
on higher levels of the hierarchy. In their inclusion of
decision-makers in lower levels of the agency, they may
have created a bias on perceptions based on remoteness
and lack of information regarding interorganizational
relations of the agency.

The concept behind the control variables is sound
but their measurement appears narrow and over-simplified.
For example, organizational innovation is measured by the
number of new programs. This measure would fail to factor
in structural and process changes in existing programs,
service upgrading or client impact innovation. The inter-
nal communication variable is measured solely by the num-
ber of committees and the number of committee meetings per
month. This criterion is unduly fragmentary for the con-
cept of communication.

In their theoretical path, the authors never explain
the process whereby organizations become diverse. Yet,
internal diversity is a vital part of the agency cycle

leading to joint programs.

Regardless of shortcomings, the Aiken and Hage study emerges as a bold attempt to measure organizational variables in relation to inter-agency relations. The concept and application of Joint Programs is developed further from the Black and Kase (1963) "functional cooperation" and Reid's (1964) "program co-ordination" constructs. The strengths of the study, therefore, are useful and appropriate in the theory development of this research.

Certain conceptual analyses in interorganizational relations have proven to be well-conceived and useful in pinpointing potential areas for empirical investigation. Reid's levels of coordination and conditions appropriate for inter-agency cooperation laid the groundwork for the Aiken and Hage study. Thompson's domain and organization-environment analysis was well-supported theoretically and was integrated into a comprehensive organizational framework.

Finally, the Selznick case study, though remote in time from current studies, produced durable environmental concepts relating to organizational adaptation. Selznick's thorough and in-depth study of TVA in its early stages of existence opened up system-environment analysis and helped to usher in the field of interorganizational and environmental relations.

Specific Literature Review

Part I - Organizational Effectiveness

Introduction

Organizational effectiveness has been represented as the criterion for progress and success at the organizational level and often within subsystems of the organization, in the conceptual analyses of numerous writers in recent years. Therefore, a theoretical and operational understanding of this concept is essential if one is to pursue organizational-level and organization-wide motivations and activity in interorganizational relations. More specifically, in the context of examining organizational policy and actions in relation to Joint Programs with other organizations, it is essential to have this ultimate criterion understood both in a conceptual and applied sense.

Definitions and Scope

Organizational effectiveness has been analyzed and interpreted in terms of the following: impact on society (Parsons, 1960); efficiency in the use of assets (Etzioni, 1960); success in serving the principal beneficiary (Blau and Scott, 1962); a balance between making a profit and attention to the internal human system (Guest, 1962); human asset values (Bennis, 1966); environmental bargaining in obtaining scarce and valued resources (Yuchtman and Seashore, 1967); the degree of cooperation attained with other organizations (Price, 1968); consonance of

internal organization process with external demands
(Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967); a system's ability to learn
and to perform according to changing contingencies in its
environment (Terreberry, 1968); behaviorally oriented
measures and economic criteria such as employee morale
or low turnover (Negandhi and Reimann, 1973); a three
component construct of goal achievement, integration of
personnel and adaptation to the environment (Duncan, 1973);
various quality and efficiency measures, depending on
whether the organization is a business, professional and
service oriented, governmental, or a voluntary association
(Heydebrand, 1973); and finally, the formal and informal
goals approach in which program performance is carefully
monitored and is measured against stated objectives
(Osborn and Hunt, 1974).

Difficulties in Definition and Scope

Certain conceptual and operational difficulties arise
in connection with both the nature and dimensions of
organizational effectiveness. Most investigators implic-
itly or explicity assume both that organizations have an
ultimate goal or mission toward which they are striving
and that this ultimate criterion can be identified empir-
ically and progress toward it measured. This orientation
to a specific goal is represented by many as the defining
characteristic of complex organizations (Yuchtman and
Seashore, 1967: 892). In application, however, formal
goals are often difficult to measure, monitor, and

evaluate. They are often expressed in vague qualitative terms; they often are presented as a series of co-equal goals with no regard to their relative priority or order in contributing to the organization; often they are not specific enough in terms of the time frame, performance measures, and short term versus long term dimensions.

There is a second, principally empirical difficulty. Though a central issue in organizational effectiveness is environmental adaptation (see other writers noted above, as well as Parsons /1956/ and Katz and Kahn /1966/) and coping with environmental uncertainty (see Crozier /1964/ and Thompson /1967/, for example), systematic theoretical or empirical analysis of the process or processes whereby organizations adapt environmentally has been lacking (Duncan, 1973: 273). Moreover, the criterion for organizational effectiveness becomes quite complex as it encounters the operational world. It is a dynamic, value laden and often disputed objective, and its precise nature and value depends considerably on measuring methods and evaluation techniques available to the organization.

Systematic Approaches

Yuchtman and Seashore (1967: 897) have made a valuable contribution in developing a system resource approach to organizational effectiveness. Their approach incorporates the following:

(1) the organization itself as the frame of reference, rather than some external entity or a particular set of people;

(2) the explicit treatment of the relations between the organization and its environment as a central ingredient in the definition of effectiveness;

(3) a theoretically general framework capable of encompassing different kinds of complex organizations;

(4) a latitude for uniqueness, variability and change in the operations for assessing effectiveness for any one organization, yet maintaining the unity of the underlying framework for comparative evaluation; and

(5) a guide to the identification of performance and action variables relevant to organizational effectiveness.

This open system model treats formal organizations not as phenomena incidental to individual behavior or societal functioning but as entities appropriate for analysis at their own level; it also points to the nature of inter-relatedness between the organization and its environment as the key source of information concerning organizational effectiveness, for the attainment of a goal always implies a change in the state of the organization vis-a-vis its environment. Thus, organizational effectiveness is based on the distinctiveness of the organization as an identifiable social structure and the interdependence of the organization with its environment.

Yuchtman and Seashore (1967: 892) conclude that their "system resource" approach to organizational effectiveness would lead to an operational definition of "organizational bargaining position as reflected in the ability of the organization, in either absolute or relative terms, to

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exploit its environment in the acquisition of scarce and valued resources."

The more recent formulation of Robert Duncan (1973) drew upon previous writings and concluded with a three component concept:

1. Goal achievement, or the extent to which the system is attaining its formally defined goals and objectives;

2. Integration, or how completely the members are being integrated into the system through clearly defined roles;

3. Adaptation, or the extent to which the system is adapting structurally to its environment so that occupants can adapt to new demands, resulting from a changing environment, on their jobs.

Duncan's definition still lacks operational clarity and completeness in that goals are often expressed and sought on an informal basis, and are not codified or formally stated. In addition, his second component, integration, fits logically into internal goal achievement, for it involves organizational job descriptions and specifications, orientation and training, career development and personnel policies generally.

Balancing Internal and External Factors

As Yuchtman and Seashore had stressed, a critique of an organization and its critical progress and success cannot be on the basis of its effectiveness merely as component or contributor to a larger system such as society, the economy, or the community. Likewise neither can it be viewed as the sum total or the collection of

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component criteria within the organization such as inter-
personal or departmental success, unit efficiencies, goal
attainment of individual units or individual performance.
Effectiveness criteria must be based on organizational
level and organization-wide progress and success.

In a somewhat analogous way, effectiveness criteria
can neither be exclusively internal as opposed to external
nor short term as opposed to long term. For example,
internal effectiveness can appear optimal with favorable
cost-benefit ratios, high performance and efficiency in-
dicators, and goal achievement; yet, the organization may
be ignoring changing consumer tastes or needs, effects of
new government legislation or fiscal policy, or changes
in the culture of the immediate community. In time, a
lack of responsiveness to the environment could cost the
organization in overall effectiveness. On the other hand,
external effectiveness can appear optimal as the organiza-
tion sees its share of the market grow, a favorable public
image of the organization develop, and its customers or
clients express satisfaction; yet, internal personnel
policy may be counter-productive or unrealistic, and
eventually, morale, productivity and quality control may
suffer. Thus, external effectiveness will be affected at
some point in addition to internal.

Internal Effectiveness

Internal effectiveness involves the efficient use of
internal resources and the effective balancing of

<u>differentiation-integration</u> processes in seeking optimal goal achievement. The pursuit of rationality in internal operating processes of the organization stresses principally the internal options apart from direct environmental pressures. For example, the protection and extension of its technology is a goal-oriented process in which the context and decision choices are comparatively clear, measurable and controllable. Thus, <u>internal</u> effectiveness is singular and salient in its contribution to overall organization effectiveness. In our admittedly open systems, however, internal is integrated at some point with <u>external</u> effectiveness. For example, Levine and White's (1961) inter-agency exchange research termed the organization a "system of exchanges" and cited agency goals as motivators toward these exchanges. Reid (1964), in an interorganizational study, still sees operational goals as organizational measures of success. And as Thompson (1967: 10) has said: "We will conceive of complex organizations as open systems, hence indeterminate and faced with uncertainty, but at the same time as subject to criteria of rationality and hence needing determinateness and certainty."

<u>External Effectiveness</u>

On the other hand, external effectiveness involves organizational planning for and coping with uncertainties in the task and contextual environments in its pursuit of survival and growth in a changing milieu. This

<u>environmental adaptation</u> can be divided into <u>task</u> and <u>contextual</u> areas of concern. In the task area, the managing of transactional interdependencies is central for organizational effectiveness (Thompson, 1962 and 1967). Further, the sub-systems of the organization develop differential attributes and modes of operation that fit the characteristics and demands of their sub-environments (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967). Osborn and Hunt (1974: 231) concluded from their research that, "Both task environment dependency and interorganizational interaction alone and in combination are positively and significantly correlated with effectiveness." And Yuchtman and Seashore (1967) argue convincingly that the crucial issue for organizational effectiveness is the agency's bargaining position with organizations in the environment that have control over scarce and valued resources needed by the focal organization. In the contextual area, the organization attempts to guarantee future goal achievement and growth through interaction with environmental "support" agents -- for example, governmental franchise authorities and law makers, legal safeguards, media and public opinion networks, and the community's educational institutions. Parsons (1960) and Katz and Kahn (1966) both have stressed organizational reliance on environmental strategies and support mechanisms for survival and growth, and the consequent need for the organization to adapt to its environment in order to remain a viable social system. Terreberry

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(1968) pointed out that organizational functioning is increasingly externally induced, and that organizational adaptability is a function of ability to learn to perform in accord with environmental changes. As Esman (1972) shows, organizations must not only be successful in managing _functional_ or _task_ linkages, but also in adequately handling contextual linkages such as _enabling_ or _normative_ relationships. Enabling linkages represent institutional mandates and funding for the birth and growth of organizations; normative linkages are those value supports offered by the social, political and religious institutions in the community.

Overall Organizational Effectiveness

Thus, a synthesis of internal and external effectiveness is essential for an integral and comprehensive organizational effectiveness. Therefore, the concept is viewed in this paper as a two-dimension construct:

1. _Internal Effectiveness_, with a principal objective of goal achievement; and

2. _External Effectiveness_, with a principal objective of _environmental adaptation_.

Organizational effectiveness, then, is the departure point and the unifying organizational criterion that motivates the agency to act on its domain or resource dependencies, and to coalesce programs with other agencies. Though the comparative contributions from internal and external factors may vary considerably depending on the nature of the agency and its environments, both sides of

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the organizational effectiveness construct are consistently present and operating to some degree.

Specific Literature Review
Part II - Domain, Domain Consensus and Domain Dependency

The concepts of Domain and Domain Consensus serve as both the condition and the rationale for organizational dependency and for joint program activity. Further, Domain Consensus is a prerequisite and a facilitator for coping interorganizationally with either a domain or resource dependency. Therefore, a conceptual and operational understanding of these terms is essential for an adequate analysis of the hypotheses.

Domain

Domain is defined appropriately by Levine and White (1961: 597) as, "the specific goals the organization wishes to pursue and the functions it undertakes in order to implement its goals." Operationally, they refer to domain as the claims that an organization stakes out for itself in terms of: 1) need covered, e.g., disease; health maintenance; social or physical rehabilitation; 2) population served, i.e., clients or consumers, and their qualifying characteristics; and 3) the range of services rendered, e.g., vaccinations; physical examinations; recreational facilities and supervision; on-the-job training.

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Domain Consensus

Domain consensus, on the other hand, is a common agreement, formal or informal, among relevant organizations in the task and contextual environments on the extent and limits of the individual organization's func- tions and goals. The foregoing definition represents a synthesis of the Levine and White concept with conceptual development in this research. Levine, Paul and White (1963: 1191) offer a helpful operationalization of domain consensus: i.e., "the degree to which they (agencies) agree and accept each others' claims with regard to prob- lems covered, services offered, and population served." In this research, a somewhat broader operational defini- tion is utilized in that both the task or transactional and the contextual environment is included in the con- sensus. This inclusion appears valid as contextual factors and agents such as the social and politial atmosphere and legal sanctions tend to help or hinder delivery of services.

Task and Contextual Environments

Dill (1958: 410) defined the task environment of management as consisting of "inputs of information from external sources." In defining the task environment as stimuli to which the organization is exposed, he dis- tinguished it from tasks which are the organization's interpretation of what environmental inputs mean for behavior. Certainly the latter are subject to errors

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of perception and the bias of past experience. For purposes of this research it is clear that agency director interpretations and biases are integral to interorganizational policies and activity. The mediation of environmental realities by decision makers in the organization is an empirical truth to be assumed and accepted.

What, then, is the distinction between the task and contextual environments?

Conceptually, the task environment has been referred to as those parts of the environment which are "relevant or potentially relevant to goal setting and goal attainment." This definition includes all of the organizational factors or means that are utilized in attaining goals. Both task and contextual factors are integrated in this definition. Dill (1958) operationalizes this concept, stating that it includes:

1) Customers or clients, both distributors and users;

2) Suppliers of materials, labor, capital, equipment and work space;

3) Competitors for both markets and resources; and

4) Regulatory groups, including governmental agencies, unions and interfirm associations.

In this research design, the first two elements above are distinguished as task environments and the remaining two are considered as contextual. Moreover, the contextual environment embraces a wider environmental sweep than is indicated in Dill's definition.

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The task environment then refers to functional link-
ages in the environment such as organizational input and
output transactions. The contextual environment covers
supportive and normative linkages such as competitors,
civic and legal institutions, community leaders, the
media, regulatory and licensing agencies, foundations
and government funding organizations and public opinion
generally. A distinction between these two segments of
the environment is useful as the former involves the
day-to-day operational relationships of the agency, the
latter involves institutional support mechanisms and
more diffuse environmental influences in the community.
Both are relevant when referring to domain and domain
consensus because both environments offer opportunities,
contingencies and constraints that influence organiza-
tional effectiveness.

Domain is distinguished from the task and contextual
environments as it embraces the goals as well as the
means to reach them. When establishing or extending
domain, the agency thinks first of the goals sought and
then explores the means required. For example, a senior
citizen's agency stakes out a domain by both establishing
goals and selecting alternatives for reaching them.
Therefore, it first decides to provide meals, transpor-
tation, and social activities. The task and contextual
environments come into play in the second phase when
resources are assembled, public approval obtained and

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a method of operation is determined.

Environmentally Imposed Domain

The Maniha-Perrow (1965) study of a Youth Commission illustrates the influence of domain consensus of an organization, when the focal organization itself has not consciously staked out a transactional or contextual territory in its environment. Thus, the establishment of domain is essentially a social act often beyond the conscious planning, control or even anticipation of the individual organization. Moreover, organizations in the transactional and contextual orbit of the focal agency often initiate its goal succession, its changing domain and its relative permanence. As Emery and Trist (1965) have pointed out, the sum total of an organizational environment (i.e., the interaction of organizations that are relevant to the focal organization, for example) may generate a "causal texture" independent of any single organization input or goal.

James Thompson (1967) endorses this primacy of the aggressive or somewhat directive environment over the organization in stating that establishment of domain cannot be an arbitrary, unilateral action. He goes on to note that a domain becomes operational only if the organization's claims to domain are recognized by those who can provide the necessary support, i.e., the task environment components.

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Interorganizational Mediation of Domain

In facilitating interorganizational exchange, Litwak and Hylton's (1962) coordinating agencies serve a supportive or enabling function to domain consensus. These "agencies" are formal organizations whose major purpose is to order behavior between two or more other formal organizations. They develop and continue in existence as long as organizations are partially interdependent and aware of this interdependence, and as long as the interdependence can be defined in standardized units of action. These entities bear a structural and functional resemblance to Joint Programs, as defined by Aiken and Hage (1968). In operational terms, Levine and White (1961: 597) point out that the organizational domain in the health field, for example, refers to the claims that an organization stakes out for itself in terms of the disease covered, the population served, and the services rendered. The goals of the organization constitute its claim to future functions and to the elements required for these functions, whereas the present or actual functions carried out by the organization constitute de facto claims to these elements. Within the health agency system, domain consensus must exist to the extent that parts of the system will provide each agency with the elements necessary to attain its ends. When organizations' goals are accepted, domain consensus continues as long as the organization fulfills the

functions adjudged appropriate to its goals and adheres to accepted standards of quality.

The Nature of the Individual Organization's Domain

The capacity of the environment to provide needed support may be dispersed or concentrated; similarly, demand for that capacity may be concentrated or dispersed. If the organization's need is relatively unique, demand for the input is concentrated; if many other organizations have similar needs, the demand is dispersed. Further, under both situations, there may or may not be competition. Similar distinctions can be made on the output side of the organization. The domain claimed by an organization and recognized by its environment, then, determines the points at which the organization is dependent, facing both constraints and contingencies. This concept of domain consensus can be separated from individual goals or motives, and also, it enables us to deal with operational goals without inputing to the organization the human quality of motivation or the assumption of a group mind (Thompson, 1967: 27-29, 37-38).

Environmental Context of Domain Consensus

Braito, et al. (1972) agree with Thompson's premise that an organization may be highly committed to certain goals and means (the self-definition of domain), but unless support is received from relevant organizations in the environment (domain consensus), then the potential for favorable interorganizational exchanges is not

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realized. In practical terms then, domain consensus lays
down the organization's internal-external boundaries and
the scope of its functions according to both the organi-
zation's conceptions and the agreement of the organiza-
tions in the transactional and contextual environment.
Evan (1966) calls this environment the organizational set,
and he includes input and output organizations as well as
comparative and normative reference organizations --
interacting with the focal organization. Warren (1969),
leaving domain consensus as defined already, extended the
definition of domain. Suggesting that domain is a key
variable in decision-making, he sees it as the organiza-
tion's locus in the interorganizational network, includ-
ing the access to necessary resources and the right to
operate in a given geographical area. He felt that his
definition was broader than Thompson's as it includes
the elements necessary for an organization to maintain
itself in an environment.

Organizational Response to Domain Consensus

Braito, et al. (1972: 180) go on to state that
domain and domain consensus are intimately associated
with stability and change in an organization to the
extent that they are involved in exchange relationships
between organizations and are central to the decision-
making framework. They cite Thompson and McEwen (1958),
Litwak and Hylton (1962) and Hollister (1970) in explor-
ing the conditions for interorganizational cooperation,

and they agree that domain consensus is a prerequisite
for this cooperation. The relationship, then, implies
the sharing of domains, the extension of domains or the
control of domains, or some combination of these. They
point out that structural properties internal to organi-
zations have been associated with the organization's wil-
lingness to participate in interorganizational relation-
ships through the establishment of Joint Programs (Aiken
and Hage, 1968). This involves the staking of new claims
(domains) as well as the extension of claims (domains).

Domain Consensus and Domain Dependency

Since decision rationality is not achieved by largely
powerless or dependent organizations, then, agencies stake
out specific and possibly larger domains as a method of
enlarging contextual power and managing dependency
(Thompson, 1967). Yet, as Thompson notes, organizations
acquire dependence when they establish domains. This
development is based on the new reality that there is an
expanded task and contextual territory to maintain and
protect; and secondly, that the domain consensus required
for effective domain hinges on initial and continued sup-
port from the task and contextual environments.

Thus, the prior domain consensus essential for the
coordinating mechanisms and resource exchange agreements
creates dependency. Organizations may, however, trade
on the fact that other organizations in their task
environments also have problems of domain, and therefore,

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they too face constraints and contingencies (Thompson, 1967). In the management of this interdependence, organizations tend to employ cooperative strategies (Thompson and McEwen, 1958). As Cyert and March (1963) conclude, organizations avoid having to anticipate environmental actions or shocks by arranging negotiated environments.

Domain Dependency and Joint Programs

An example of Domain Dependency and its possible translation into Joint Programs is the case of a young and large public agency with a high diversity of services. The agency possesses funds and a mandated role in the community but may perceive a compelling need for community consensus for its functions along with local access to potential clients and professional staff. The public agency may simultaneously attempt to confirm a measure of domain consensus for its functions and goals and gain access to clients and other local resources through joint programs with older agencies in the community. A public multi-purpose agency such as model cities may fit this pattern.

Another example is that of an innovative drug treatment process originating at the Federal level. Domain consensus is sought for the new approach to be integrated into existing agencies and efforts already combating drug abuse in the community. If a carefully developed and comprehensive consensus is not developed prior to visible operation, the community of agencies would tend to

coalesce against the new program. Existing agency security is threatened by the new agency both because of competition for clients and because the innovative agency casts an adverse reflection on the methods currently utilized by local agencies. Therefore, domain consensus is an urgent need of the new agency. A way of managing the resulting dependency is by guaranteeing resources through Joint Programs.

Domain Dependency, Resource Dependency and Joint Programs

The Resource Dependency that often accompanies organizational innovation is sometimes related to Domain Dependency. The environmentally-located resources needed to implement the innovations are released to the organization through domain consensus of relevant organizations in the environment. For example, the new public agency that is treatment-oriented may want to add auxiliary or ancillary services to support its innovations in client treatment. It may need the help of a local agency in terms of transportation or meals for clients. The Resource Dependency is overcome through joint agreements, and the action is facilitated by domain consensus regarding the public agency. By the same token, a private agency such as the YMCA may want to add vocational counseling to its recreational services for youth. The resource need for professional employment counselors can be overcome through coalescing with the local public employment service in a Joint Program.

<u>Specific Literature Review</u>

<u>Part III - Organizational Dependency</u>
<u>and Joint Programs</u>

<u>Introduction</u>

Organizational pursuit of overall effectiveness, then, induces or results in Organizational Dependency. This dependency, whether in the form of domain or resource dependence is posited as a corollary to organizational cooperation in the form of Joint Programs.

<u>External</u> effectiveness, the sub-criterion relating to <u>environmental adaptation</u>, is directly associated with domain, domain consensus and Domain Dependency. The domain consensus described in the preceding section represents both cause and effect as well as a joint phenomenon with Domain Dependency. That is, the social act required to secure inter-agency and environmental consensus for the functions and goals of the focal agency is triggered by an organizational perception of lacking environmental control and power over scarce and valued external resources. Thereupon, the domain consensus itself becomes a basis for Organizational Dependency -- i.e., the domain must be protected and defended, and reinforced periodically; it must also be sustained by a continuing agreement from environmental elements. Domain consensus, then, rests on the fragile supports of individual and collective agreements by other agencies and by institutions generally on the role and goals of

the focal agency in the community service delivery scheme.

Internal effectiveness, the sub-criterion relating to goal achievement, is indirectly associated with domain consensus and dependency and is more immediately related to Resource Dependency, the second category of Organizational Dependency. That is, internal operating needs create a need for scarce and valued resources from external sources. Innovations in technology, production and distribution put pressure on the agency to overcome the Resource Dependency. The agency successfully deals with the dependency and achieves its operational goals by both initiating and participating in Joint Programs and by establishing domain and domain consensus over its functions and goals. The domain consensus it seeks proves valuable as a guarantee to essential resources and environmental supports in the future, as a basis for additional formalized agreements with other agencies for joint service delivery, and as an established task and contextual environment in the future.

Organizational Dependency Defined

In this research, Organizational Dependency is defined as "agency director perceptions that efficacy in relation to organization decisions and outcomes tends to be external to organizational boundaries." This definition is based on the concept of whether decision control is predominantly internal or external to the organization, and the locus of control is determined

by responses to twenty-four organizational decisions. The questions cover administrative, personnel, budget and operational decisions, and ask specifically for "persons, groups or things exerting the most influence over decisions." Examples of external sources of influence that represent Organizational Dependency are the Board of the United Way, businessmen, clients, funding organizations, general public, labor groups and local government officials and politicians. Internal sources of influence include the director of the agency, professional staff, the agency's board or commission, and volunteers.

Organizational Dependency: Theoretical Foundations

Empirical research examining the concept of sources and the locus of control for organizational decisions has involved three main areas -- namely: studies in managerial autonomy, principally, within the organization[1]; research in centralization of decision-making or the concentration of authority, a dimension of organization structure and process in which external influences

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[1] See Dill (1958); also, for laboratory testing of the distinction between environmental demands confronting a person and the person's interpretation of the demands and formulation of them into tasks, see: H. Guetzkow and H.A. Simon, "The Impact of Certain Communication Nets Upon Organization and Performance in Task-Oriented Groups," Management Science, Vol. 1 (1955), 233-250; and H. Guetzkow and W.R. Dill, "Factors in the Organizational Development of Task-Oriented Groups," Sociometry, Vol. 20 (1957), 175-204.

are measured for their effects on internal structure of activities[1]; and, <u>centralization or organizational auton-omy</u> pieces, which cut across organizational boundaries and have an external dimension as well as an internal. The third area of research listed here is relevant to inter-agency relations, and it furnishes a limited theo-retical background for organizational autonomy or depend-ency.

Considering the ample amount of research directed **toward** environmental phenomena or the transactional or contextual environment <u>vis-a-vis</u> the organization, it is surprising that more work has not centered on the autonomy of the organization in its external environment. Beyond questions of autonomy, the patterns of organiza-tional decision-making in reaction to environmental con-tingencies, and the effects of the consequent decisions on environmental policies and relations of the organiza-tion, have received little attention.

<u>Organizational Dependency and "Cooptation"</u>

Selznick (1949) helped to open up the organizational issue of autonomy in a sweeping case study of organiza-tional adaptation <u>to</u> and attempted fashioning <u>of</u> the

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[1] See Simpson and Gulley (1962); Lawrence and Lorsch (1967, 1969); Pugh, <u>et al</u>. (June, 1968); Pugh, <u>et al</u>. (March, 1969); Inkson, Pugh and Hickson (1970); Pugh Hickson, and Hinings (1970). In a separate conceptual stream, both Perrow (1961) and Lefton and Rosengren (1966) examined respectively the effects of prestige on organizational dependency and client influences on organizational structure and process.

task and contextual environment of a new organization.
He explored organizational policies intended to guarantee
friendly sub-environments, effectuate two-way communica-
tions with organizational consumers, and generally, to
come to terms with environmental uncertainties and con-
straints -- both on an informal and formal basis.
Selznick also treated the problem of participation, one
peculiar to the public organization. Thus, the injection
into bureaucratic behavior of the democratic ideal of
local participation meant that the public organization
was voluntarily surrendering some autonomy and exclusive
decision powers in order to achieve a longer term, more
over-riding objective for the organization -- that of
goal achievement and environmental adaptation so that
the organization could become increasingly viable and
assume permanence. Selznick called this organizational
strategy cooptation or the informal process of absorbing
new elements into the leadership or policy-determining
structure of an organization as a means of averting
threats to its stability or existence. This activity
also helped governmental agencies to penetrate the com-
munity more rapidly and effectively, and to get programs
off the ground.

This act of cooptation had disadvantageous conse-
quences for the organization as well as the desired
results. In pursuing this strategy, the organization
shared decision control with environmental elements,

some of which were hostile to original organizational objectives. Organizational Dependency evolved and the TVA altered policies in response to local pressures and groups.

Thus, a cooperative strategy as opposed to a competitive one led to increased dependency. In the process, internal goal achievement and autonomy was sacrificed in order to achieve environmental adaptation. The question then becomes: Can the organization initiate an environmental policy that both achieves goals and helps adapt environmentally -- the two ingredients of overall organizational effectiveness.

Formal Cooptation and Domain

A key distinction that Selznick made in formulating the concept of cooptation was that of formal as opposed to informal cooptation. The cooptation discussed in the preceding sections of this paper exemplifies the informal kind in which no publicly visible environmental structure may be established but a sharing of power with environmental elements does occur. A clear example of informal cooptation is the appointment of a community leader to the policy-making board of a new public agency which he or his institution opposes. On the other hand, formal cooptation involves the public act of constituting advisory boards or committees in which community elements are identified publicly and structurally with a new program

but there is no real transfer of decision power to the environmental element.

Thus, the act of formal cooptation may result in domain consensus at very little cost in decision autonomy. Therefore, the organization may obtain domain consensus and possibly engage in Joint Programs without suffering loss of autonomy referred to in the preceding section.

Theoretical Linkages

Part I - The Domain Dependency (Consensus) Model

The organizational objective of Environmental Adaptation as one of the two components of overall effectiveness prompts the organization to perceive interdependence as a basic environmental reality (Evan, 1966; Jacobs, 1974). This reality is based on increasing evidence that:

-- Organizations are open systems in constant and significant interaction with the environment (Katz and Kahn, 1966; Thompson, 1967; Osborn and Hunt, 1974).

-- Organizational change is increasingly externally induced, and therefore, organizational adaptability is increasingly a function of ability to learn and to perform according to changes in the environment (Terreberry, 1968).

-- Turbulent environments are becoming more commonplace, and therefore, a stable and unchanging organizational system is often dysfunctional (Emery and Trist, 1965).

-- Successful pursuit of organizational goals is partially dependent upon environmental strategies, and further, that transactional negotiations with the environment are critical

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for organizational viability (Thompson and
McEwen, 1958; Thompson, 1962 and 1967).

Though these conclusions are based on conceptual analyses,
their combined weight supports environmental adaptation
as central to organizational survival and growth.
Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) added empirical evidence
that the particular pattern of differentiation and inte-
gration of the parts of a large organizational system is
associated with coping effectively with a given environ-
ment. Moreover, Lorsch (1970) showed that effective
organizations have established a fit between their inter-
nal structures and the external environments.

Reid (1964) points out that advantageous coordina-
tion with other organizations is possible, especially
when shared goals and complimentary resources produce
a symbiotic relationship. Yet, Reid's conceptual work
appeared to need underpinnings in theory and empirical
proof. Emerson's (1962) and Blau's (1962) concepts of
power and exchange coupled with the domain concept of
Thompson (1967), Braito, et al. (1972), and Jacobs
(1974), fleshed out the theoretical linkage.

The organization, then, seeks power and control in
its task and contextual environments. It seeks this
power because of its awareness of transactional and
institutional dependencies in its environments and
because it knows that decision rationality is not
achieved by largely powerless or dependent organiza-
tions. Thus, the agency seeks power to offset its

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dominant perception of interdependence and dependence with its environments. Power affords a rational method of handling what would otherwise be serious contingencies, and thus, the organization is freer to pursue its own effectiveness (Emerson, 1962; Blau, 1964; Jacobs, 1964).

Interorganizational or environmental power is attained by the organization's establishing and extending its domain. The organization recognizes that effective inter-agency relations are related to sharing, extending and exercising some control over domains (Braito, et al., 1972). In the absence of structures of formal authority, a dominant coalition or allocating power, the individual organization seeks domain consensus in its task and contextual environments. In seeking this consensual agreement for its domain claims, the organization evolves into a Domain Dependency (Maniha and Perrow, 1965; Perrow, 1967; Thompson, 1967; and Braito, et al., 1972).

The environmental agreement for a well-defined task and contextual territory that comprises domain consensus, then, is accompanied by a dependency on environmental elements for the continuation of the agreement. Therefore, in managing its dependency by more firmly establishing and extending its task and contextual power through consensus, the organization acquires Domain Dependency. The focal organization may attempt to mediate, control or reduce this dependency by sharing or

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coopting task and contextual agents and institutions
into decision processes (Selznick, 1949). A more likely
outcome, however, is that the Domain Dependency is over-
come through inter-agency coalitions (Thompson and
McEwen, 1958),

Thus, though the operational result of domain con-
sensus may be a new dependency, a result of both the
consensus and the dependency may be an organizationally
desirable outcome -- resource exchange and coalescing
through formalized agreements such as Joint Programs.

Levine and White (1961) concluded in their empiri-
cal study of health and welfare organizations that domain
consensus is a prerequisite for any formal interorganiza-
tional relations or negotiated environments. Litwak and
Hylton (1966), in proposing coordinating agencies, con-
firmed the need for inter-agency agreement and standard-
ization of units of exchange. With this latter require-
ment met, domain consensus and Domain Dependency lead to
high exchanges in resources. As Litwak and Rothman (1970)
conclude, the most efficient exchange linkage between
organizations with high domain consensus would be formal
agreements, namely Joint Programs. The Joint Programs
then enable the organization to exploit symbiotic rela-
tionships in its environments for program and service
delivery. Program and service accomplishment beyond the
capacity of individual agencies becomes feasible, slack
resources are utilized and the organization suffers a

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negligible loss in autonomy. In the process, it manages
its dependency in a positive and creative way.

A limitation in this pattern that culminates in
Joint Program activity is that of the relative degree
of Organizational Dependency. If the dependency is so
great that the organization has neither valued resources
to exchange nor other forms of power or influence to
serve as leverage, then, joint activity is unlikely.

The final step in the Domain Dependency Model,
then, is agency involvement in Joint Program activity.
This model may apply to public agencies in particular.
Thus, the domain consensus and dependency evolution may
resemble the informal cooptation conceptualized by
Selznick (1949). In this process, decision control is
transferred from the organization to environmental ele-
ments. Often, this shifting of influence beyond agency
boundaries is not structurally visible. On the other
hand, if the organization attains domain consensus with-
out surrendering decision control, the result may approx-
imate Selznick's formal cooptation. In this form of
cooptation, the appearance of decision influence is
transferred to environmental elements but not necessar-
ily the substance. An example of this phenomenon is the
community advisory board to an agency.

The Domain Dependency predicted by the "consensus"
model at this point is measured on the basis of whether
sources of influence for the key organizational decisions

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are internal or external to agency boundaries.

The hypothesis then relates this form of Organizational Dependency to inter-agency cooperation in the form of Joint Programs.[1]

Theoretical Linkages
Part II - The Resource Dependency (Innovation) Model

The Resource Dependency or Innovation Model, an alternate organizational path leading to Joint Programs, is largely based on Aiken and Hage's theory of interorganizational relations in which inter-agency competition and cooperation are incorporated into the same model. In this empirically tested model, the intense competition or organizations prompts them to adopt cooperative modes such as Joint Programs.

In pursuing goals for Internal Effectiveness primarily, the organization both differentiates and integrates its personnel and functions. It differentiates for purpose of task efficiency, because of the nature of the technology, because of increasing size and the heightened specialized skills required, and because of transactions with specialized segments of the environments. On the other hand, the organization integrates personnel and functions in order to maintain the viability

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[1] See the succeeding section of this Chapter for the hypothesis. Component measures of Organizational Dependency and Joint Programs are listed in Appendix B.

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of the system overall, in order to achieve unity of effort
in meeting the composite demands of the external environ-
ment, in order to control conflict, and in order to util-
ize organizational resources optimally for over-riding
organizational goals (March and Simon, 1958; Woodward,
1958 and 1970; Burns and Stalker, 1961; and Lawrence and
Lorsch, 1967).

The generalized effects on the organization of the
differentiation process are the presence of differing
goals within the organization (by subsystem), specialized
working styles and mental processes, differences in atti-
tudes and behavior (by work group), varying formal report-
ing relationships and control procedures, different reward
criteria, differences in goal orientation and formality
of structure, and distinct language and underlying value
orientations. These factors are intimately related to
subsystem adjustment to its relevant sub-environment.
The integration process tends to lead to more centralized
and hierarchical decision structures for the sake of
unity and coordination, more "formalization" for the
sake of continuity and consistency throughout the organ-
ization, more emphasis on long term growth goals for the
organization and system-wide values, and the socializing
of individuals into an internalizing of organizational
goals and the organizationally-defined means for reaching
those goals. The integration process also raises aware-
ness of environmental interdependence at the overall

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system-interface level rather than merely the sub-system
level (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Argyris, 1964).

In these countervailing processes, differentiation
tends to prove a stronger and more sustained organiza-
tional imperative on the basis of:

1. the need for technical competence and special-
   ized skills at the subsystem level;

2. the rational pursuit of sub-goals over which
   the organization has considerable autonomy;

3. the press of specialized sub-environments in
   the transactional life of the organization;

4. the specialized roles required for advantage-
   ously receiving inputs and discharging outputs
   to environments;

5. in a situation involving stiff external compe-
   tition, the organization tends to differentiate
   externally in the first instance, and then
   internally; and

6. increasing professionalization, and the special-
   ists' relating to professional associations and
   counterparts in other organizations, as the
   organization grows and matures.

   (Eisenstadt, 1959; Thompson, 1962; and Lawrence
   and Lorsch, 1967).

Internal diversity becomes more pronounced as a
result of these differentiating phenomena, and organiza-
tion sybsystems begin to compete for resources from the
central allocating unit of the organization. Separate
identities and subsystem perceptions of distinct and dif-
ferential interests promote a competition and conflict
that is similar to that found interorganizationally among
agencies with perceived overlap in input or output, task
or contextual transactions, or most crucially, common
sources of funds, prestige or other support mechanisms.

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The internal diversity is heightened even more as sub-systems respond to competitive and technical changes in their relevant sub-environment and as they attempt to enhance their bargaining position in securing scarce and valued resources both internally and externally (Thompson, 1962; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Yuchtman and Seashore, 1967; and Marcus, 1973).

Organizational innovation evolves out of this internal diversity as:

1. competition among organization subsystems for current and future budget and resource allocations continues and becomes sharper;

2. subsystem identities and self-interests induce decisions in and for the subsystem itself;

3. the conflict between different occupations and interest groups as well as between different philosophical perspectives results in new ways of looking at organizational problems;

4. subsystem transactions with specialized task environments produce environmentally induced change through the subsystem itself rather than through the overall organization;

5. subsystems relate to clients and potential clients that they serve in a specialized way, and a consequent motivation to extend and broaden services because of related or more intensive needs uncovered often develops;

6. professionalization and professional activity neutralizes loyalty to and identification with the overall organization, and new ideas and concepts come into the organization through professional channels.

(Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Lefton and Rosengren, 1966; and Aiken and Hage, 1968).

Resource Dependency represents the price the organization must pay in order to implement innovations.

Yuchtman and Seashore's (1967: 878) effectiveness cri-
teria of "bargaining position in obtaining scarce and
valued resources" is a relevant portrayal of the depend-
ency situation that the organization faces at this point.
The greater the magnitude of the change or innovation,
or the degree of change withon some specified period of
time, the greater the amounts of resources that will be
needed and the less likely that the normal sources will
be sufficient (Aiken and Hage, 1968). In particular,
the need from external sources of essential and non-
substitutable resources in order to fuel the innovations
stimulates an organizational perception of resource de-
pendency (Jacobs, 1974).

Resource exchange in the form of Joint Programs is
an appealing organizational recourse at this point.
That is, the creation of joint, cooperative projects with
other organizations becomes appealing as a method of over-
coming Resource Dependency and proceeding with the innova-
tions (Aiken and Hage, 1968). Though the organization
has a strain to maintain its autonomy and avoid inter-
organizational constraints (Gouldner, 1959), it may well
have a degree of organizational "slack" or surplus re-
sources that it can exchange for essential and non-
substitutable resources from its environments (Jacobs,
1974).

As Bates and Bacon (1972) note, social exchange
between elemental groups develops even granting an

interorganizational assumption of conflict and competition rather than cooperation and mutual aid in the community system of agencies. The assumption here is that the constituent parts of the community system are forced, through the nature of <u>division of labor</u> to depend upon one another.

Since the environment is normally rich in potential resources for innovation (Wilson, 1966) and other organizations in the task and contextual environments also face resource deficiencies and dependencies (Thompson, 1967), strategies for gaining and guaranteeing needed resources into the future through Joint Programs is feasible and practical. Among the possible strategies of bargaining, cooptation, coalition, merger, or other medthods, the Joint Program is particularly appealing as it creates certainty, exchanges resources and facilitates programs and services through formalized agreements. Thus, organizational planning for goal achievement is made predictable and specific.

Therefore, as Aiken and Hage empirically confirmed among social service agencies, a dominant competitive mode in interorganizational relations incites agencies to adopt cooperative forms such as Joint Programs. Moreover it is the competitive disadvantage of Resource Dependency resulting from innovations that prompts the inter-agency joint activity.

The competitive act of innovating to maintain or enhance market position, therefore, culminates in Joint Programs. This model may apply more to private agencies than to public because of the economics of scarcity and the need for growth to measure progress and effectiveness.

The sharing of decision control associated with the Resource Dependency or "Innovation" Model is an immediate and practical decision of economic reality for the agency. In order to guarantee essential resources and to condition the environment for agency growth, Organizational Dependency based on resource need assumes the form of sharing decisions with environmental elements. In order to guarantee resources into the future and to formalize the guarantees, Dependency becomes associated with Joint Programs.[1]

The Hypothesis

"Joint Program involvement by human service agencies in the community is associated with agency director perceptions of Organizational Dependency."

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[1] See the succeeding section of this Chapter for the hypothesis. Component measures of Organizational Dependency and Joint Programs are listed in Appendix B.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND AGENCY CHARACTERISTICS

Introduction

This chapter consists of three major sections. Part I describes the survey locale in terms of its principal demographic characteristics. Then, the population of agencies is presented along with the survey scope and methods. Then, in turn, the data gathering method, the measurement components of the hypothesis, the statistical tools, the control and processing of the data and the research assumptions, are presented.

Part II of the chapter covers operational definitions of the agencies. Then, the relative incidence of these attributes among the thirty-five agencies is portrayed in a series of tables. As a result, a substantial understanding of agency profiles is afforded prior to analysis of the hypothesis.

The third and final part of the chapter is composed of a description and analysis of the relationship of agency characteristics to Organizational Dependency. A knowledge of the patterns that exist between agency attributes and agency director perceptions of Dependency

also is helpful in the data analysis. Prior awareness
of demographic and operational modes associated with
this Dependency assists in setting the stage for the
hypothesis. Further, it creates a fuller understanding
of conditions and possible rationales for agency Depend-
ency.

Part I - Methodology

The Community: Demographics

Kalamazoo, Michigan, the site of the survey that
has generated the data analyzed here, is a commercial,
industrial and educational center located in southern
Michigan. The city is notable for its institutions of
higher learning -- Western Michigan University, Kalama-
zoo College, and Kalamazoo County Community College --
and for the manufacturing and research facilities of the
Upjohn Parmaceutical Company. General Motors Corpora-
tion and the Brown Paper Company also have large plants
in the community. Beyond these institutions, the city
is at the core of a growing commercial, trade and manu-
facturing area which ranks fifth in population among
Michigan metropolitan areas.

Kalamazoo County, the area serviced by the human
service agencies covered in the survey, has a population
of approximately 225,000. This area grew by 18.8% in
the 1960 to 1970 decade, compared with a national growth
rate of 13.3%. The pattern within this overall trend

resembled the nation in the following respects: substantial growth occurred in the suburban area surrounding the city; population mobility increased; the 15-24 year age group had the highest rate of growth; the group under five years of age declined; the median age declined even though the 65 years of age and older group increased; and finally, the non-white population increased at a faster rate than the total population (i.e., the increase in the non-white population was 74.8% in the Kalamazoo SMSA /Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area/, an area coterminous with the county). In 1970, non-whites comprised 5.3% of the county population and 10.6% of the city population, or approximately 12,000 persons.[1]

The Community: Housing and Income Statistics

In Kalamazoo as in the United States, the growth rate of housing exceeded that of the population. In Kalamazoo County, renter-occupied housing increased at a dramatically faster rate (44%) than did owner-occupied housing (17%), yet in the United States as a whole, owner-occupied housing increased at a greater rate (22%) than did renter-occupied (17%). A partial explanation

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[1] Statistics were obtained from a March, 1973, publication of W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, titled, "Selected Population, Housing, and Economic Characteristics in Kalamazoo County, by Tracts: 1960-1970." By Phyllis R. Buskirk and Katherine H. Ford.

for this wide difference in growth from the country as a
whole is Kalamazoo's traditionally high incidence of
owner-occupied housing. Seventy-two percent of all
occupied units in the Kalamazoo SMSA in 1970 were owner-
occupied while 63% were owner-occupied for the United
States.

In 1969, median annual income for Kalamazoo metro-
politan area families exceeded the nationwide average:
i.e., $11,037 compared with $9,590. Comparative rates
of unemployment based on census data show Kalamazoo County
with a 1970 rate slightly higher than that of the country
generally (4.7% compared with 4.4%).

The increasing proportion of black residents within
the city and the higher incidence of unemployment among
blacks reflects an incipient pattern in medium-sized
cities that has already been experienced in the large
metropolitan areas. However, the difficulties and the
breakdown in social service delivery that have character-
ized many of the largest cities may be averted or amelior-
ated if service delivery systems in cities such as Kalama-
zoo are better planned, executed and evaluated. Thus, the
target population for this research is composed of the
existing complex of organizations that are delivering
human or social services in Kalamazoo.

The Target Population

All human service agencies operating in the Kalama-
zoo area and fitting the definitional criteria were

covered in the survey. The thirty-five agencies included public and private agencies that were operating locally in the areas of health, welfare, employment services, legal assistance, physical and mental rehabilitation, counseling, youth services, recreation, disaster relief, drug and alcohol abuse, community centers, and referral services (See Table 1 for Agency names and categories).

The criteria for inclusion in the survey included: formal organizational status; task orientation, with the delivery of a minimum of one social service as its primary function; the services may be on an individual or group level; a full-time staff of at least two persons; a minimum budget of $10,000 annually; and a local board or governing body (if a private agency).

The population was comprised of fifteen public and twenty predominantly private agencies. Six of the public agencies represented components of parent agencies, yet they were sufficiently independent in local identity, authority and operational mode to be surveyed and evaluated separately.[1]

Survey Approach and Field Method

United Way of Kalamazoo was approached and agreed to cooperate with and support a survey of local human service agencies. A majority of the agencies were private

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[1] See Part II of this Chapter and Appendix A (Glossary of Key Terms) for additional background and explanation of definitions.

Table 1. -- Human service agencies; Kalamazoo, Michigan, 1974; by Auspices.

Private:[1]	American Red Cross
	Big Brothers of Greater Kalamazoo, Inc.
	Boys' Club, Inc.
	Boy Scouts of America
	Catholic Social Services
	Comstock Community Center
	Constance Brown Hearing and Speech Center
	Douglass Community Association
	Family and Children's Services
	Glowing Embers Girl Scout Council
	Goodwill Industries of Southwestern Michigan, Inc.
	St. Agnes Foundling Home
	Salvation Army
	Senior Services, Inc.
	Vicksburg Community Center
	Visiting Nurse Association
	YMCA
	YWCA
	Legal Aid Bureau, Inc.
	Planned Parenthood Association
Public:[2]	Social Security Administration
	Kalamazoo County Department of Social Services
	Michigan Employment Security Commission
	Kalamazoo County Cooperative Extension Service
	Vocational Rehabilitation Services
	Kalamazoo County Health Department
	Kalamazoo Alcoholism and Addiction Council
	Kalamazoo County Community Mental Health Board
	Kalamazoo Substance Abuse Board
Public-Component:	McKercher Rehabilitation Center, Inc.
	Gryphon Place
	Upjohn (William) DeLano Memorial Clinic
	Child Guidance Clinic
	Kalamazoo Drug Abuse Program/Potter Program
	Kalamazoo Consultation Center

[1] See page 81.
[2] See page 81.

[1] A number of these agencies receive public funds, yet they are predominantly private and voluntary in identity, administration, and control. All of them with the single exception of the "Planned Parenthood Association" are United Way agencies.

[2] One public agency, Kalamazoo County Community Action Program, Inc., went out of existence during the initial phase of the survey in March, 1974. Therefore, it is not listed.

and members of the United Way recipient group. An interdisciplinary research team from the Department of Sociology, Michigan State University, already had completed a similar survey in Lansing, Michigan. Additional surveys were planned for other middle size cities in Michigan.

The United Way board, administration and staff shared the interest of the Michigan State University researchers in the increased coordination of local planning, delivery and evaluation of human services. Therefore, the focus of the survey was on inter-agency communication, problems in inter-agency coordination of programs, inter-agency networks, decision-making and influence patterns both internally and externally, public-private agency interaction and cooperation, and finally, agency data and characteristics -- demographics, budgets, personnel, client profiles and histories.

Five local women were recruited and trained as interviewers following approval for the implementation

of the survey by the United Way board and staff. The
interviewers were middle aged women with families who
generally divided their time between home, professional
work and volunteer activities in the community.

The executive director of United Way sent letters
to member agencies prior to any research team or inter-
viewer contact with them. The letter described the sur-
vey purpose and asked for their cooperation. The re-
search director then wrote a follow-up letter with a more
explicit description of the research purpose, survey con-
tent and techniques, and confidentiality of the survey
information, and the planned telephone call within a
week for an appointment. All interviews were completed
within a three-week period in the Spring of 1974, and
the entire population of thirty-five agencies completed
the the questionnaires.

Survey Purpose

The unifying purpose and the immediate objective of
the research was to specify and measure the conditions
under which both public and private agencies coordinate
or integrate their resources into a community delivery
system. In the process of learning about the overall
delivery scheme, considerable information is generated
on agency servicing decisions and priorities and the
interaction of the entire network of agencies. A more
ultimate goal of this survey research, then, is to pro-
vide planners with helpful, realistic data on motivations

and rationales for individual agency decisions on their corporate role in the community.

Survey Design and Content

The survey instrument was constructed to measure attributes common to most service agencies and was thus intended to yield comparative organizational data. Yet, at the same time, it was designed to be specific and diverse enough for relevant and precise responses from a variety of agencies. Therefore, in surveying agency characteristics and interaction processes, comparative variables are utilized that represent internal, external or interorganizational phenomena. The format is objectively-oriented and it relies principally on factual observations and agency history and activity as perceived by the director of the agency.

The survey instrument was divided into three distinct parts and each of these parts was administered in a different way.

Part I involved an hour-long private interview with the agency director. The information elicited included:

- a listing of the agency's major programs and services;
- the network of existing inter-agency relationships;
- joint (inter-agency) programs and their characteristics;
- preferences for public or private agencies in the delivery of specified services; and,
- the agency director's professional background and community involvement.

Part II was a self-administered section of the survey that the interviewer left with the agency director.

The director was instructed to fill it in within a few days and to return it by mail. Part II covered:

- -- agency service delivery difficulties and their relative importance;
- -- inter-agency areas of concern;
- -- agency support for joint planning, integration or merger;
- -- internal and external influences on agency decisions;
- -- conflict areas within the agency board;
- -- service areas requiring more inter-agency cooperation and coordination;
- -- agency ability to obtain support from various persons, groups and things toward inter-agency coordination; and
- -- United Way areas of assistance to the agency.

In this part as in Part I, five choices were specified whenever the questions referred to degree of agreement (e.g., very great extent to no extent; very great problem to no problem) or to choices from a list of organizations, needs, resources or community elements.

Part III, a section that could be completed by the agency director with the help of the personnel or financial manager, covered agency personnel, client and financial data. Specifically, the agency was asked to furnish: the number of staff and volunteers; a client profile along with the number serviced; referral statistics; the diversity or similarity of clients in age, sex, race and income; the budget; and funding sources.

The specific sections of the survey that were utilized in this dissertation for the measurement of the hypothesis were:

- -- Joint (inter-agency) Programs and their characteristics, in Part I; and

-- internal and external influences on agency decisions, in Part II (representing Organizational Dependency).

Measure: Organizational Dependency

Organizational Dependency, the proposed correlate to joint programs, is measured in the survey instrument by a series of twenty-five questions on sources of influence for the principal agency decisions (See Appendix B). The question format is worded: "Which of the five persons, groups or things (on an attached list) exert the most influence over decisions about each of the following?" Included among the areas covered are personnel, programs, administrative and procedural decisions. Decision areas utilized represented a synthesis and extension of the Pugh, et al. (1968) centralization measures, the Inkson, et al. (1970) lack of organizational autonomy questions, and the Negandhi-Reimann (1973) decentralization factors.[1]

For each of the twenty-five decisions, the respondent selects the five top choices from a list of persons, groups or things. The list contains sources of influence on decisions that are either external or internal to organizational boundaries (Table 2). The number of external sources of influence listed in comparison with the overall total of both internal and external sources,

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[1] See Appendix B for the survey format and questions relating to Organizational Dependency or "external decision control."

measures the organization's relative dependency. Agencies are dichotomized between relatively high and low dependency in measuring the correlations for the hypothesis. The median agency is used as the dividing line.

Components of Organizational Dependency

Both Domain and Resource Dependency are measured by the series of "source of influence" questions. For example, survey questions include: decisions to create, expand or eliminate services; decisions to hire or fire personnel, classify jobs, fix salaries, create new positions or make promotions; decisions to formulate rules and regulations, write proposals for funding, plan future levels of operation; and decisions to purchase equipment and determine the location of facilities. These decision questions measure the Domain Dependency involved in guaranteeing current and future functions and goals for the focal agency through the sharing of decisions with relevant environmental agents. At the same time, the decision questions measure Resource Dependency. This form of Dependency may represent pressures for resources due to innovation or expansion. Also, the agency's protection and extension of its Domain often creates a Resource Dependency. Though these two forms of Dependency have separate conceptual origins and though they tend to make variable contributions to Organizational Dependency overall, they are integrated in the survey questions (Appendix B).

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Table 2. - Persons, Groups and Things Representing Sources
of Influence for Organizational Decisions; Sub-
Divided According to Whether Decision Control
is Principally Internal or External to Organi-
zational Boundaries.[1]

INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL SOURCES OF INFLUENCE
FOR ORGANIZATIONAL DECISIONS

Internal		External	
1	Board or Commission of your agency	2	Board of Greater Kalamazoo United Way
16	President/Chairman of Board/Commission of this agency	3	Businessmen
18	Professional staff in this agency	4	Clients
24	Upper level staff in this agency	5	Directors of other agencies
25	Lower level staff in this agency	6	Funding organizations
26	Volunteers	7	General public
27	You, yourself	8	Labor groups
		9	Local governmental officials and politicians
		10	Local, state or federal laws
		11	Minority groups
		13	Need for new or additional services
		19	Professionals employed by other agencies
		20	Religious groups or clergy

Table 2. (continued)

	22	Staff of Greater Kala-mazoo United Way
	23	Staff of other agencies and organizations
	28	State or federal gov-ernmental officials or politicians

[1] See Appendix B for the survey format for this section.

Measure: Joint Program Involvement

Joint Program involvement, the correlate of Organizational Dependency, is measured by the relative frequency, initiation and intensity of Joint Programs.[1] The concept and operational nature of Joint Programs are based on the Reid (1964) formulation of levels of coordination, the Levine, Paul and White (1963) study, and the Aiken and Hage (1968) empirical research on sixteen health and welfare agencies.

Reid distinguishes three levels of inter-agency cooperation. The first two levels represent ad hoc or systematic case coordination. The third level, program coordination, represents a more extensive and complex inter-agency exchange. This third level involves joint

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[1] See Appendix B for the format and specific questions relating to Joint Programs.

agency programs which often require formal agreements, more valuable resources and a greater commitment by the agency. Reid fails to specify in more precise or in operational terms the crucial differences and the components relating to each of these levels. Yet, the third level does serve as a helpful conceptual basis for the Joint Programs utilized in this dissertation.

The Levine, Paul and White study proposed that some forms of organizational exchanges involve the sharing of clients, funds and staff in order to pursue common inter-agency objectives.

Aiken and Hage adopt the more formalized program coordination and resource integration for common objectives cited by Reid and Levine, et al. They also carefully distinguish the Joint Program from the joint organization. As a result of these conceptual and empirical treatments, Joint Programs are defined here as:

> -- a formalized integration of resources between
> two or more organizations for the purpose
> of jointly delivering programs or services
> (See Appendix A for the operational defini-
> tion).

Components of Joint Program Involvement

The first component, Joint Program frequency, is measured on the basis of relatively high agency frequency of Joint Programs (from two to six) versus relatively low frequency (either zero or one).

The second component, Joint Program Initiation, is measured on the basis of relatively high initiation of

Joint Programs versus low. The ratio of Joint Programs initiated to the total in which the agency is involved is the basis for the measurement of this component.

The third component, Joint Program intensity, is determined on the basis of relatively high commitment to Joint Programs versus low. The degree of commitment or intensity is measured by a point scale of seven Joint Program characteristics (Table 3). Then agencies are dichotomized into relatively high versus low intensity for statistical analysis in a 2 x 2 table format.

The higher point range accorded the "number of resources contributed," the only characteristic listed in Table 3 that exceeds one point per Joint Program, is based on two factors. Firstly, resources represent the strongest rationale and the basic elements of value exchanged or shared in the Joint Program context. Secondly, as a result of the foregoing, one to seven resources may be associated with each joint program -- namely: staff; clients; volunteers; supervision; facilities; auxiliary services; and institutional support.

The Key Informants: Agency Directors

The unit of analysis for this research is the organization itself rather than phenomena or processes at the individual, group or departmental levels within the organization. Two methods are used in gathering data. Characteristics such as age, size, professionalization, service diversity and mode of work are obtained through a

Table 3. - <u>Joint Program Intensity Index</u>. The Intensity
of Agency Commitment to Joint Programs;
Measured by Seven Component Characteristics
and Factors.

	Point Range Possible per Joint Program	Point Range Possible Per Agency[1]
1. Number of Resources Contributed:	(1-7)	(1-42)
2. Organizational Commitment of Money:	(0-1)	(0-6)
3. Joint Program Granted Decision Autonomy:	(0-1)	(0-6)
4. Joint Program Has a Distinct Name or Title:	(0-1)	(0-6)
5. Joint Program Was Not Mandated:	(0-1)	(0-6)
6. Joint Program Duration Exceeds One Year:	(0-1)	(0-6)
7. Joint Program Has a Formal Contract:	(0-1)	(0-6)
	(1-13)	(1-78)

[1] One to six Joint Programs.

combination of direct observation, personal interviews
with agency officials, published documents, and agency
records. The second method is that of the key informant,
and this particular method is utilized in gathering the
data relating directly to the hypothesis.

As Heydebrand (1973) points out, the assumption in
organizational research is that key informants have fac-
tual knowledge about their organizations as well as access
to key information by virtue of their positions. At the
same time, care must be taken that the informant does not
venture beyond individual knowledge and competencies into
unsupported judgments and opinions.

In this research, the agency director is the key
informant for all response items. The agencies as well
as the community locale are sufficiently small that the
director has a comprehensive knowledge both of his own
agency and of the rest of the human service agencies in
the community. At the same time, the decision position
of the agency director at the top boundary of the organ-
ization makes him uniquely qualified among agency person-
nel to perceive both internal and external influences on
decisions. Thus, survey response items fall within the
knowledge and possibly but not necessarily within the
jurisdiction of the agency director. The distinction
between knowledge and perceptions beyond the director's
jurisdiction as opposed to within his jurisdiction is
an important one. However, regardless of jurisdiction,

the perceptions of the agency director are a _mediating_ or _intervening_ factor that conditions agency interpretation of internal and external stimuli.

Perceptions as an Intervening Variable

Both Dill (1958) and Negandhi and Reimann (1973) point out that the impact of the task environment on organizational structure and functioning is not direct but is mediated by the perception of decision-makers. Thus, a realistic assessment of agency perceptions and activities, and their prediction, involves the perceptions and interpretations of the agency director as the top decision-maker within the organization. If data were obtained by documentation or observation alone, the perceptions of the key administrator of the agency would not be utilized. In that event, the data gathering method would be inconsistent with the purpose of the hypothesis. Specifically, the Organizational Dependency would not be measured on the basis of the key informant's perceptions; rather, the measurement would be based on objective observation from outside the situation. Since the hypothesis associates agency director perceptions of dependency with joint programs, explicit emphasis has to be placed on perception as an intervening and mediating variable between environmental stimuli and agency responses.

The Statistical Test

Because of the small size of the agency population and the fact that most of the data are in either nominal

or ordinal form, appropriate statistical tests for measurement of the hypothesis are relatively limited. Moreover, both the nature of the research problem and the small population made it essential to collapse the data into four-fold (2 x 2) tables for bi-variate analysis. The use of these dichotomous tables insures that there are minimum cell sizes for individual variables. At the same time, complexities of analysis are avoided that tend to go beyond the intended preciseness and refinement of the data. For some of the ordinal data, the median is utilized for division of the agencies into a bi-variate distribution. When two-way divisions are made that depart from the median, the rationale is explained.[1]

Parametric assumptions and more powerful statistical tests, then, are not in order. Since the dissertation is based on a case study, statistical inference also is inappropriate. Thus, the empirical study of human service agencies in one city does not generate inferences concerning inter-agency relations in other cities. Essentially, the research and statistics are descriptive and purport to lay out a profile of inter-agency relations in one particular community.

What statistical test is appropriate for these data, then? Tests for statistical independence such as Delta or Chi Square are insufficient. A standardized strength

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[1] See Part II of this Chapter.

of association coefficient is required, and Delta is unduly sensitive to sample size and it has no meaningful upper limits. For example, if you double the sample size, you double the value of Delta.

Four measures may be appropriate for determining the strength or degree of association for two-variable relationships: The Percentage Difference; Gamma; Contingency Tables; and Yule's Q.

Percentage Difference or the use of percentage tables to describe the magnitude of a correlation has the obvious advantage of being intelligible to the non-professional analyst. In addition, the reader can understand and calculate the raw figures from which the percentages are derived. On the other hand, this statistical method lacks a natural upper limit (as it would require two "zero" cells, a rare and unrealistic case) and the value of the percentage difference can be affected by manipulating the marginals.

Gamma is appropriate for larger tables and it yields finer distinctions in the data. Further, it uses more information in the data, it is more sensitive to the relationship's nature and direction at the extremes, and it generates more conservative coefficients. Disadvantages of Gamma are that all variables tested must be ordinal, and the use of larger and more complicated tables and calculations often involves excessive arbitrary decisions on data categories and refinements beyond the

nature and purpose of the research design and data.

Contingency tables are associated with analysis of nominal variables, and they are also appropriate for larger tables. Often, the statistical question involves whether row probabilities vary with or are contingent upon columns. However, because these tables may depart from chance in a variety of ways -- since there are multiple deltas -- it is difficult to find an overall summary of the degree of departure from chance. In addition, although one can understand what is happening in individual cells, there is no satisfactory way to state the degree of association in the overall table.

Yule's Q has the advantages over Percentage Difference and Contingency tests of meaningful upper and lower limits to the coefficient -- i.e., -1.00 to +1.00 -- and it is resistant to artificial manipulation of marginals. In contrast to Delta it is insensitive to sample size, and yields a standardized and readily understood coefficient. Though the Gamma test is more adaptable to larger tables and more precise analysis, it is inappropriate for bi-variate analysis that involves both nominal and ordinal variables. Moreover, when a coefficient is sensitive to the refinement or coarseness of the groupings, all variables tested should have the same number of categories and similar marginal frequencies. Otherwise, two coefficients may differ in magnitude merely because of the category structure, not because of differences in

the strength of association (Davis, 1971).

Thus, Yule's Q emerges as an efficient test for four-fold tables of both nominal and ordinal data. This unambiguous and standardized strength of correlation test fits the relative simplicity of the data. At the same time, artificial sub-dimensions of the data categories are kept to a minimum. It is easy both to compute and to understand. There are only two working parts, and the Q value equals zero (.00) when the two variables are independent and it approaches ± 1.00 when the variables are strongly correlated, either positively or negatively. An example may help to clarify further the meaning of a Q value: A Yule's Q of +0.75 indicates a 75% better than chance expectation that a positive correlation exists between the two variables under study.

The limitations of the Yule's Q involve minimum cell values and a minimum sample or population size depending on the balance in the marginal distributions. For the former the expected cell sizes must equal five or more; for the latter, the following marginal distributions and the number of cases indicate acceptable limits:

-- 25 cases - Minimum distributions of 50:50 by 60:40;
-- 31 cases - Minimum distributions of 60:40 by 60:40;
-- 33 cases - Minimum distributions of 50:50 by 70:30.

The measurement both of the characteristics and of the hypothesized relationships in the dissertation fall

within these methodology limits.

Since all relationships are arranged on a bi-variate basis, the Yule's Q is utilized for all measurements of the variables.

Analytical Tools

In the next section of this chapter, the operational definitions of agency characteristics are given along with their rationales and examples of each. Then, correlations among agency characteristics and their relative incidence are presented. Finally, agency profiles are constructed and analyzed that reflect the frequency and the various combinations of auspices, age, size, service diversity, staff professionalism and mode of work.

The final section of the chapter covers the relationship of these agency characteristics to Organizational Dependency. This information creates an understanding of patterns and uniformities between these variables prior to analysis of the hypothesis.

Further sub-divisions of the bi-variate distributions are impossible because of small cell frequencies. Therefore, additional test variables could not be integrated into the tables for the purpose of determining the moderating or intervening influence of other variables. For this reason, agency profiles are developed which supplement and add depth to the Q tables measuring the hypothesis. These profiles reveal the patterns of demographic and operational characteristics associated

with Organizational Dependency and the frequency, initiation and intensity of Joint Program involvement. Since the profiles are composed of characteristics common to most human service agencies, replication is possible, and the utility of this study for future research in inter-agency relations is enhanced.

Data Control and Processing

A data flow and processing system was established in advance of the field work, including:

-- a coding convention;
-- a complete list of the variables and response choices, arranged and numbered according to standard IBM card columns;
-- a codebook;
-- a system of internal checks and verification of all information for accuracy and consistency (e.g., two persons verify and check all work); and
-- a system of internal security to protect the data.

A pre-test completed in an earlier phase of the research both in the Lansing and Kalamazoo areas helped to eliminate survey ambiguities.

The pre-survey letters and the cover instructions on the survey forms assured the respondent complete confidentiality and explained that agency as well as individual names would not be used. The results would be furnished to respondents.

For the most part, interviewers and respondents mailed in the three survey sections, and follow-up telephone calls within the survey month secured the balance of them. Thus, data were available for analysis from

all agencies on the list. After coding and verification, all data were keypunched and verified a final time. Programs were then prepared for processing through the computer.

Data contained in this analysis were also processed manually both as an additional internal check and for flexibility and convenience of analysis.

Assumptions

A summary of the assumptions inherent in this particular research is helpful in determining the value and relevance of the empirical data and its interpretation.

Principal assumptions are the following:

1. The research design dictates that the size of the city or metropolitan area be from small to medium size, or up to approximately 250,000 in population. This limitation is based on the survey premise that the agency directors interviewed are personally familiar with the population of human service agencies in the community, that they are professionally familiar with the functions of these agencies, and that they administer agencies that are relatively small by bureaucratic standards (i.e., the agencies surveyed have less than 100 employees).

2. The hypothesis predicts relatively short-term phenomena more than long term (i.e., under five years principally); therefore, for example, deeper structural changes in the organization are not considered.

3. The human service agencies from which the data are gathered are open systems; therefore, extensive interaction with the task and contextual environments is possible, and at least minimally, there is an organizationally recognized interdependence with the environment.

4. The organization itself is an identifiable and comparative unit of analysis. Therefore, it is useful and valid to analyze in terms of organizational-level phenomena as opposed to individual, group, or departmental level patterns.

5. The purpose and criterion assumed for the organization in the research is Organizational Effectiveness rather than societal good, the public good, the good of the human services profession, the good of the personnel involved, or efficiency.

6. The city and locale serving as the data base for this research are generally typical of medium-sized (approximately 50,000 to 250,000 population) metropolitan areas in northeast United States. However, this inter-city comparability refers to overall demographic characteristics (for example: age, sex and race breakdowns, income and housing patterns), rather than to the patterns and characteristics of human service agencies.

7. In conception and design, this research is a <u>case study</u> of human service agencies in a <u>particular</u> city. Therefore, inferences about agencies in other cities are inappropriate.

Part II - Demographic and Operational Characteristics

Introduction

Prior to analysis of the data connected with the hypothesis, it is helpful to examine agency characteristics and their relationships. An understanding of these patterns increases the value and defines more precisely the practical implications of the data. In addition, a fuller awareness of agency identity and attributes also confirms the limitations and uncertainties of data applications. Therefore, this section begins with

definitions of agency attributes along with examples.
Then, relationships among the characteristics are pre-
sented and agency profiles are developed that portray
the integration of these characteristics in the various
types of agencies.

The question of public versus private agency status
is analyzed more exhaustively than are other organizational
characteristics. This emphasis is responsive to the
heightened importance of <u>auspices</u> with the advent of
revenue sharing, increased pooling of public and private
funding at the local level, and sharper competition be-
tween public and private sectors for local programs and
clients.

<u>Definitions - Demographic Characteristics</u>

<u>Auspices</u> - Public: Federal, state or local agency, and thus is publicly identified, admin-istered and controlled.

         Private: Predominantly private or voluntary in identity, administration and control. (Often, public funding is involved, but it is not crit-ical to continued agency existence.)

<u>Age</u>   - Old: Pre-1964, or over 10 years old

         Young: 1964 to 1974

<u>Size</u>   - Large: 23 or more, full time equivalent
(3 way)   paid employees

         Medium: 10 to 22, full time equivalent paid employees

         Small: 3 to 9, full time equivalent paid employees

<u>Size</u>   - Large: 17 or more, full time equivalent
<u>(2 way)</u>   paid employees

          Small: Less than 17, full time equivalent
                       paid employees

<u>Definitions - Operational Characteristics</u>

<u>Service</u>
<u>Diversity</u>   - High: Multi-purpose agency with a
                              minimum of four direct special-
                              ized services

                 Low: Uni-purpose agency with less than
                              four direct, specialized ser-
                              vices

<u>Staff</u>
<u>Professionalism</u> - High: 50% or more professional employ-
                              ees in the agency. Profession-
                              alism based on the concept that
                              formal and specialized educa-
                              tion or training is required
                              to fill the position

                 Low: Less than 50% of the employees
                            are defined as professionals

<u>Mode of Work</u> - Treatment: Direct, specialized service
                              is rendered by personnel
                              within the agency; the
                              client satisfies a need or
                              aleviates a problem through
                              the intervention of agency
                              specialists

                 Distribu-   Facilitating or referral ser-
                 tive: vice is rendered by the
                              agency; clients come to the
                              agency for information, re-
                              ferral, and auxiliary or
                              ancillary service including
                              transportation, day care,
                              community resource counsel-
                              ing or information, access
                              to treatment facilities or
                              personnel, and appointments.

<u>Auspices</u>

Table 1 in the preceding section lists the popula-

tion of human service agencies in the Kalamazoo area.

They are subdivided according to public or private aus-
pices. Since the majority of private agencies receive
public funds either directly or indirectly, it is in-
creasingly difficult to categorize them as purely pri-
vate. _Predominantly_ private or voluntary identity,
administration and control are appropriate indicators
of non-public status, and this criterion is the basis
for the distinction in this study. On the other hand,
the public agencies listed are entirely public or gov-
ernmental in character and support. Whether the pre-
dominant identity, administration and control are Fed-
eral, regional, state or local, the sponsorship is
still public.

Public agencies range from Federally-mandated and
administered agencies to state or local agencies. The
situations include:

1. Social Security Administration, a Federally
   administered program based on a legisla-
   tive mandate, and involving servicing
   functions prescribed by law;

2. The local offices of the Michigan Employ-
   ment Security Commission and the County
   Cooperative Extension Services. Based
   on Federal legislation and financing,
   these agencies are administered by the
   state;

3. The Community Health Board, the County
   Department of Social Services, and the
   County Health Department. They are
   administered by state and county, but
   in recent years, have received consid-
   erable program funding from the Federal
   government.

In addition, there is a separate category of public agencies designated as components.[1] These public components are funded by parent or sponsoring public agencies for specialized services in the community. For example, services may involve treatment and counseling for specific health or social disabilities. An example of a component is a residential center or "halfway house" for ex-drug users. Financed and administered by the County Mental Health Board, this center has its own identity, supervision and staff. The Board handles policy decisions; the resident supervisor handles day-to-day operations.

The private or voluntary agencies also include a variety of situations. For example:

1. Local affiliates of national organizations with identity, administration and control predominantely at the national level, e.g., American Red Cross;

2. Local servicing or membership units of national or international organizations, with identity, administration and control split between local and higher level units, e.g., YMCA, YWCA, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts;

3. Locally identified and administered units, with some budget control from outside the community, e.g., Salvation Army, Good Will Industries, Catholic Social Services, Community Centers;

4. Local operation in terms of identity, administration and both budget and decision control, e.g., Legal Aid Bureau, Visiting Nurses Association.

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[1] See Appendix A (Glossary of Key Terms) for a more comprehensive definition.

All of the private agencies with the single exception of the Planned Parenthood Association are recipients of United Way funds. The characteristics distinguishing these agencies from public, therefore, are that identity, administration and decision control are largely private. Though budget control is often shared with government, the agency retains a residue of voluntary and non-public financial support. More crucially, the agency would remain in existence if public support was withdrawn. This latter criterion is a valid ultimate indicator of an essentially private status.

Tables 4 and 5 relate auspices to size. Public agencies are substantially larger than private, and the correlation between public status and size grows when medium-size agencies are omitted. Thus, seven of eleven agencies with 23 or more employees are public while only three of thirteen have fewer than ten employees. On the other hand, one-half of the twenty private agencies have less than ten employees. The small size of private agencies is doubtless related to a distributive mode of work. Many private agencies tend to act as referral agents and community facilitators since they often have an older history and considerable penetration into the community of providers and clients. This activity of distributive-type agencies does not require a large number of employees. Further, limited access to funds and an older tradition of institutional role and function

on the part of these private agencies tend to promote stability but do not encourage growth or expansion into other servicing areas.

Table 6 reflects the moderately older pattern among private agencies compared with public. Age appears to be a strong intervening influence between auspices and organizational dependency or Joint Program involvement; this conclusion will be explored further in the next section.

Table 4. - The Relationship Between Public or Private Agency Status and Relative Size (Two-Way), Expressed in Q values; by agency.[1]

AUSPICES	SIZE		
	Small (Less than 17)	Large (17 or More)	Totals
Public	33% (5)	67% (10)	100% (15)
Private	65% (13)	35% (7)	100% (20)
Totals	51% (18)	49% (17)	100% (35)
		Q=0.58	n=35

[1] Numbers in parentheses represent the actual number of agencies or Joint Programs here and in all succeeding tables. Yule's Q statistic is utilized for all four-fold tables.

Table 11 confirms the exceptionally high correlation between auspices and a treatment mode of work (Q=0.71). This relationship reflects government emphasis thus far on specialized services and direct intervention to

Table 5. - The Relationship Between Public or Private
Agency Status and Relative Size (Three-Way);
by agency.[1]

AUSPICES	SIZE			
	Small (3 to 9)	Medium (10-22)	Large (23 & over)	Totals
Public	20% (3)	33% (5)	47% (7)	100% (15)
Private	50% (10)	30% (6)	20% (4)	100% (20)
Totals	37% (13)	31% (11)	31% (11)	99% (35)

Q=0.71[1]　　　　　　　　　　　n=35

[1] Computed for "small-large" size dichotomy, with an n=24.

Table 6. - The Relationship Between Public or Private
Agency Status and Relative Age (Two-Way);
by agency.

AUSPICES	AGE		
	Young (1964 - Present)	Old (Pre-1964)	Totals
Public	40% (6)	60% (9)	100% (15)
Private	30% (6)	70% (14)	100% (20)
Totals	35% (12)	65% (23)	100% (35)

Q= -0.22　　　　　　　　　　n=35

relieve needs or ameliorate conditions rather than provide supportive or facilitating services for other local agencies or groups. This mode represents political and legislative realities that make the funding of skilled and professional services such as drug treatment and job counseling more feasible than transportation, child care, or referral assistance. The moderate correlation between public agency status and staff professionalism (Q=0.33) supports this conclusion. Whether an agency is public or private appears completely irrelevant to its diversity of services (Q=0.00).

Public agencies, then, are larger, decisively more treatment-oriented, are staffed somewhat more with professionals, are slightly older, and indicate no difference in service diversity when compared with private.

Public agencies do account for 43% of the agencies surveyed, yet they account for a much higher percentage of the total personnel working for human service agencies in the city surveyed. Thus, their importance is easily underestimated. Moreover, their relatively strong correlation with size and a treatment mode of work make public agency status an important control variable.

Age

In separating old agencies from young, 1964 appeared to be an appropriate year. That year represented a critical departure point in private and public awareness, commitment, funding and programs, in human service areas.

Federal legislation created much of the impetus, and both

public and private agencies appeared on the local scene,

often with Federal seed money, experimental funds, or

more permanent forms of support. Often Federal legisla-

tion spurred the initiation of local specialized agencies

such as drug or alcohol de-toxification centers, mental

health facilities, senior citizen centers and family

counseling programs. Prior to that year, the number and

nature of human service agencies had remained comparative-

ly stable for some years. Generally, the pattern was mod-

erate growth trends for existing agencies and few new

entrants into the agency field.

Stinchcombe (1965) has argued that age and structural

characteristics of an organization are not necessarily

related. He states that the founding date of an industry

is a more valid indicator of size and other internal

characteristics than is its age. This position assumes

the importance of an agency's technology and the state

of its specialized art as well as the relative progress

of the social service field of which it is a part. Con-

siderable research and analyses support this conclusion,

including studies by Woodward (1965) and Perrow (1970).

Pugh's (1969) empirical research sustains Stinchcombe in

the more restricted sense that no correlation was found

between age and either structuring of activities or line

control of workflow. The Pugh studies did reveal, how-

ever, that age correlates with autonomy and internal

de-centralization of decision-making.

Yet, age and size have been traditionally related to some degree and though modified somewhat by factors such as technology and environment, they represent two rather consistent correlates of each other both in product-producing and service-producing organizations.

Table 7 confirms a substantial positive correlation between these two factors in this research. It is notable that only three of thirty-five agencies are both young and large. Two of the three are public agencies, and the third receives substantial public funding.

Table 7. - The Relationship Between the Relative Age of Agencies and Their Relative Age of Agencies and Their Relative Size (Two-Way); by agency.

AGE	SIZE		
	Small (Less than 17)	Large (17 or More)	Totals
Old (Pre-1964)	39% (9)	61% (14)	100% (23)
Young (1964-1974)	75% (9)	25% (3)	100% (12)
Totals	51% (18)	49% (17)	100% (35)
	Q=0.65		n=35

Therefore, though increased public funding and revenue sharing may yet change the pattern, age and size

continue to be reliable correlates of each other. Moreover, in the case of human service agencies which do not generate profits by which to measure progress and success each year, growth and expansion of the agency are important symbols and measures of effectiveness. An organizational motivation stressed in this paper is that of measuring progress according to domain establishment and extension, an organizational initiative that not only maintains relative position in a client and service producer's market but enhances and expands it.

As Table 11 illustrates, age is a somewhat stronger correlate of service diversity than is size (Q=0.52), compared with 0.41). The difference is not significant, however, and both age and size appear to contribute to the expansion of agency services. Age is irrelevant to the question of staff professionalism (Q= -0.04), and with regard to mode of work, older age is associated with a distributive type agency (Q=0.45). This latter correlation would appear to relate older agency status with private auspices, since public status and a treatment mode are closely related. Yet, this is not the case and further elaboration is required to clarify or solve the uncertainty.

The relatively high correlation of older agencies with service diversity and a distributive mode of work may indicate an interesting pattern. That is: older agencies develop higher service diversity as they grow

in size. Since a distributive mode of work correlates moderately (Q=0.45) with service diversity, but reveals no relationship with agency size (Q= -0.07), the personnel staffing required by the agency as service diversity grows may lag behind client needs and the agency may develop a referral system, i.e., a distributive mode of work. In turn, this mode of work would tend to limit growth of the agency.

In summary, old agencies compared with young are substantially larger and relatively more diverse in services; they are also moderately correlated with a dis-tributive mode of work. Age appears irrelevant to auspices and the particular level of staff professionalism in the agency. Conversely, the younger agency tends to be smaller, less diverse in services offered and oriented toward a treatment mode of work.

Size

Caplow declares in his book, Principles of Organiza-tion (1964) that there is no wholly satisfactory measure of organization size. Pugh, et al. (1969) use the number of employees and net assets as a combined yardstick for size. Other individual measures or combinations of organizational traits have been utilized -- e.g.: geographical dispersion or density; budget levels; and hierarchical levels. Increasingly, the total number of employees is becoming acceptable as an appropriate as well as a quantitatively comparative method for measuring organizational

size. Recent empirical studies have generally used this measure both for causal and correlational analysis, including: Hall, Haas and Johnson (1967); Aiken and Hage (1968); and Payne and Mansfield (1973).

The total number of employees (or full-time equivalent employees, if part-time personnel are involved) is the size determinant in this research. Volunteers are not included.

Tables 4 and 5, referred to above, reflect the strong correlation between public agency status and relative size. This correlation is higher when agency size is segmented three ways and the middle one-third is omitted. A partial explanation for this relationship is indicated by the strong correlation between public status and a treatment mode of work. Thus, size is crucial for treatment oriented agencies as opposed to agencies engaging more in distributive functions. Distributive agencies rely more on a small non-professional staff who offer support services such as referrals, community information, volunteers, transportation, emergency assistance, and other ancillary services.

The correlations between relative size and both age and service diversity relate to the Blau (1955) conclusion that structural differentiation is a consequence of expanding size. Though this finding has been disputed by some researchers (for example: Zelditch and Hopkins, 1961; Hall, et al., 1967; Meyer, 1972), Blau's longitudinal study of finance units in governmental agencies strongly

supported size as an influential variable that affects
many organizational characteristics. All empiricists
thus far agree on the value and relevance of both age
and size in organizational context and structural analy-
sis. Aiken and Hage (1968) used size along with age,
auspices and technology as control variables applicable
to all organizations. Their design facilitated better
causal and relational analysis and indicated the signif-
icance of this organizational parameter. Thus, size is
an important intervening attribute in the analysis of the
hypothesized relationships.

Previous tables have indicated that larger agencies
tend to be public in auspices and older (Q=0.58 and 0.65,
respectively). These positive correlations are stronger
when the size is tri-chotomized, and the larger and smaller
one-third of the agencies is measured (Q=0.71 and 0.79,
respectively). Further, as Table 11 indicates, size and
service diversity are also correlated (Q=0.41). Growth
and service expansion and proliferation appear related,
then, and do represent a measure of service delivery ef-
fectiveness in the perceptions of agencies.

Increased size is correlated with lower levels of
staff professionalism (Q= -0.38, in Table 11), and size
and mode of work appear entirely unrelated. In summary,
larger agencies are older, under public auspices to a
slight degree, moderately high in service diversity, and
low in staff professionalism. On the other hand, the

smaller agency tends more to be professionalized, slightly more private than public, more often younger than older, and is less diverse in services offered.

Service Diversity

Service diversity is a measure of how broadly or narrowly the agency is focused with regard to the number of direct services. Low diversity implies an intensity of specialization, low agency differentiation and complexity and restricted functions and goals. Often, clients are well-defined and easily identified. Agencies specializing in alcoholism, drug abuse or legal aid are examples of low diversity types. High diversity usually involves a broad focus, a diffusion and proliferation of services, high agency differentiation and complexity and multiple functions and goals. Examples are distributive-type agencies such as community centers, county social services, the YMCA, and county health departments. Less often, they are treatment agencies such as vocational rehabilitation services or a child guidance clinic.

Table 8 indicates that there is no relationship between service diversity and staff professionalism. These two operational characteristics, when compared with all other organizational variables in Table 11, mutually exhibit an almost opposite pattern. The correlation between service diversity and a distributive mode of work (Q= -0.45, Table 9) may help explain the reason for the different patterns. High staff professionalism

Table 8. - The Relationship Between Service Diversity and
Staff Professionalism Among Human Service
Agencies; by agency.

SERVICE DIVERSITY	STAFF PROFESSIONALS		
	Low	High	Totals
High	43% (9)	57% (12)	100% (21)
Low	43% (6)	57% (8)	100% (14)
Totals	43% (15)	57% (20)	100% (35)

Q=0.00   n=35

Table 9. - The Relationship Between Service Diversity and
Mode of Work Among Human Service Agencies; by
Agency

SERVICE DIVERSITY	MODE OF WORK		
	Distributive	Treatment	Totals
High	67% (14)	33% (7)	100% (21)
Low	43% (6)	57% (8)	100% (14)
Totals	57% (20)	43% (15)	100% (35)

Q= -0.45   n=35

is strongly associated with a treatment mode of work
(Q=0.85, in Table 10); treatment modes are associated
with young, public agencies with narrow and restricted
functions and impact; distributive modes are associated
with older, predominantly private and less professional
agencies. These latter characteristics describe the high
diversity agency.

Service diversity along with size represents a form
of growth and acceptance for agency functions and goals.
The agency director, in the absence of profit measures in
his market of competitors and clients, perceives expansion
in services and size as the yardstick for organizational
effectiveness.

Table 10. - The Relationship Between Staff Professionalism
and Mode of Work Among Human Service Agencies;
by agency.

STAFF PROFESSIONALISM	MODE OF WORK		
	Distributive	Treatment	Totals
High	35% (7)	65% (13)	100% (20)
Low	87% (13)	13% (2)	100% (15)
Totals	57% (20)	43% (15)	100% (35)

$Q=0.85$ $n=35$

Staff Professionalism and Mode of Work

Staff professionalism has a strong positive correlation with only one other agency characteristic: a treatment mode of work (Q=0.81, in Table 10). The relationship is expected as treatment functions require professional services. Staff professionalism correlates weakly with public agency status and with a smaller size. The treatment mode departs from this pattern somewhat, showing a very strong correlation with public status (Q=0.71, Table 11), and a moderately strong relationship to younger age low diversity. Whether an agency is treatment or distributive oriented appears completely unrelated to size. However, when high professionalism and a treatment mode are combined, the smaller sized public agency predominates and relative age and diversity become largely irrelevant.

Agency Profiles

When demographic and operational profiles of the agencies are developed, Table 12 reflects the frequency of each type among the thirty-five agencies.

As the table indicates, the most prevalent demographic profile is that of the older agency which is either public and large or private and small. These two profiles comprise 57% or sixteen of the thirty-five agencies. The least prevalent combinations are the public, old and small agency and the private, young and large. Regarding operational profiles, an agency with high service diversity, low staff professionalism and a distributive mode

Table 11. - Summary of Relationships Among Agency Characteristics; by agency.[1]

	Auspices	Age	Size: Two-Way	Service Diversity	Staff Professionalism
Auspices (Public; Private)					
Age (Old; Young)	0.22				
Size: Two-Way (Large; Small)	0.58	0.65			
Service Diversity (4 or More; Less than 4)	0.00	0.52	0.41		
Staff Professionalism (50% or More, Less than 50%)	0.33	-0.04	-0.38	0.00	
Mode of Work (Treatment; Distributive)	0.71	-0.45	-0.07	-0.45	0.85

[1] All characteristics listed in the table have been dichotomized. Yules Q is utilized throughout, with an n=35 for all relationships.

Table 12 - Demographic and Operational Profiles of Human Service Agencies.

PART I - DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES

Auspices; Age; Size	Agencies	
	Percent	Numbers
1. Public; Old; Large	23%	(8)
2. Private; Old; Small	23%	(8)
3. Private; Old; Large	17%	(6)
4. Private; Young; Small	14%	(5)
5. Public; Young; Small	11%	(4)
6. Public; Young; Large	6%	(2)
7. Public; Old; Small	3%	(1)
8. Private; Young; Large	3%	(1)
Totals	100%	(35)

PART II - OPERATIONAL PROFILES

Service Diversity; Staff Professionalism; Mode of Work	Agencies	
	Percent	Numbers
1. High; Low; Distributive	23%	(8)
2. Low; High; Treatment	20%	(7)
3. High; High; Treatment	17%	(6)
4. High; High; Distributive	17%	(6)
5. Low; Low; Distributive	14%	(5)
6. High; Low; Treatment	3%	(1)
7. Low; Low; Treatment	3%	(1)
8. Low; High; Distributive	3%	(1)
Totals	100%	(35)

of work is the most prevalent type.

It is evident from the data that older age and larger size are associated in the case of the public agencies but not the private. The stable and more static situation reflected among private agencies contrasts with the bureaucratic growth patterns of the public sector agency. The least prevalent agency combinations also tend to emphasize this bureaucratic evolution. That is, the old and small public agency is rare. Increased public funding and sponsorship of local human services is also reflected in the paucity of private agencies that are both young and large.

Operational profiles reflect the fact that among high frequency combinations, high diversity-low professionalsim or low diversity-high professionalism are the most common profiles, with a distributive mode for the former and a treatment for the latter. These data underscore the fact that uni-purpose, highly specialized agencies are high in staff professionalism and dominantly treatment oriented. This conclusion is further emphasized by the fact that one of the least frequent combinations is the low-diversity-high-professionalism-distributive agency is the type that exists to furnish non-professional support, referrals and ancillary services to other agencies.

These agency profiles and the rationales for them are helpful both in analyzing and interpreting the data.

They reflect agency modes in such a way that modifying or intervening influences on the hypothesized relationships can be more precisely understood. For example, the researcher is encouraged to be cautious and to make careful distinctions in analyzing the data when public and private agencies alike appear to fit a <u>bi-modal pattern</u>. The old and large public agencies may react quite differently to Organizational Dependency than do young and small public agencies. Analogously, old and small private agencies may react to dependency or joint activity in a differential way from private agencies that are young and small. The profiles, then, add constraints and precision to data interpretation and conclusions. In this way, overall research value is enhanced and empirical conclusions are more readily transferrable to future research efforts.

<u>Part III - Agency Characteristics and</u>
<u>Organizational Dependency</u>

<u>Introduction</u>

A thorough understanding of the relationship between agency demographic and operational characteristics on the one hand and Organizational Dependency on the other is helpful in two respects. In the first place, a knowledge of these relationships provides profiles of agencies and their degrees of relative dependency. As a result, associations between agency conditions and levels of dependency are better understood, and possible causes of the

dependency may be deduced. Secondly, this analysis furnishes agency background and possible correlates or intervening variables that help explain "why?" and "under what conditions?" the hypothesized relationship may occur.

Auspices and Organizational Dependency

Public agency status is the only characteristic indicating a strong positive correlation with Organizational Dependency (i.e., Q=0.55, Table 13). Two-thirds of the public agencies perceive high dependency while only 37% of the private agencies fall in this category.

Table 13. - The Relationship Between Public or Private Auspices and Organizational Dependency; by agency.

AUSPICES	ORGANIZATIONAL DEPENDENCY (External Decision Control)		
	Low (Below Median)	High (Above Median)	Totals
Public	33% (5)	67% (10)	100% (15)
Private	63% (12)	37% (7)	100% (19)
Totals	50% (17)	50% (17)	100% (34)

Q=0.55   n=34
Missing data=1[1]

[1] Data on Organization Dependency is missing for one agency. Therefore, M=34 for this and succeeding tables including this variable.

Therefore, though only 44% of the agencies are public, public auspices accounts for 59% or ten of seventeen of the high dependency agencies. On the other hand, twelve of nineteen or 63% of the private agencies perceive low dependency. What factors or development explain this difference?

Public agencies evolved into increased dependency under the succession of Federally-sponsored programs passed by Congress in the 1960's. The Area Redevelopment Act of 1961, the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the Elementary and Secondary School Act of 1965 and the Demonstration Cities (later, Model Cities) legislation in 1967 -- are examples of human service legislation that mandated local advisory or decision-making bodies from among persons, groups and institutions in the local community, both private and public. In addition, the increasing popular ideology of shared decision-making and the officially sanctioned maximum feasible participation guideline in key pieces of this legisation, served as a further spur toward Organizational Dependency. The atmosphere created by these guidelines and this general emphasis led many public agencies in the local community to informally coopt influential persons and groups, in order to pursue their goals effectively. This informal coopting, when combined with the formal, mandated cooperation with local decision-making elements,

resulted in considerable dependency for public agencies.

For example, the Federally funded and mandated Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) was established in 1966 for the purpose of reducing unemployment in geographical areas with a history of persistently high unemployment and poverty. In order to secure the good will, access to potential clients and job sources, and the general support of local persons and institutions that already were established in the relevant community, the CEP began informally and formally to share decision control. Thus, the newly created program barters its legislative mandate, funds and other agency resources for community acceptance and access to local institutional support and resources. With the good will and cooperation of local institutions that already have status among the unemployed and those with jobs to offer, the CEP program could survive the initial period of growth and show a measure of success within its initial budgeted year.

Almost twenty years earlier, Selznick (1949) had termed this agency-initiated activity, cooptation, or the absorbing of outside elements into the policy making structure of the organization as a means of averting external threats to its existence. This environmental activity may provide protective coloration for a new program or service, secure local legitimacy and acceptance for a project originated outside the community, help guarantee clients and resources from the local

area, and step up the project implementation. Cooptation, however, may have adverse effects for the organization. The agency is likely to face unplanned and undesirable consequences such as a sufficient loss of decision autonomy that the organization may be forced to change direction or emphasis in policy and operations.

Apart from these informal agency initiatives, recent legislation erecting or expanding human service programs often mandate the maximum use of existing local institutions and resources whether public or private. Subcontracts are encouraged in order to quickly penetrate the community of providers and clients and to absorb any slack in the utilization of community professionals.

In addition to these developments, an ideology of client and public participation has evolved into a general mode of operation for most public agencies. The War on Poverty's declaration of maximum feasible participation by the community being served has influenced the policies and practices of all local delivery systems to some degree.

The extensive use of citizen boards and advisory committees in the public area has influenced private agencies as well. Increasingly, these voluntary agencies have sought client and community input and even decision involvement. This phenomenon may be due as much to changing managerial philosophy and practices as it is to governmental influence and example. Yet, as Table

13 has indicated, private agencies have retained a com-
paratively high level of internal decision control.
Their smaller size and older, more traditional role
institutionally may encourage and sustain a low depend-
ency on their environment. They have less motivation
to seek community support, resources and consensus than
do newer, Federally-sponsored agencies or programs orig-
inating outside the community. With a secure and pre-
dictable volume of resource support and clients, they
tend to back away from extensive decision-sharing with
their respective environments.

In observing the dependency associated with public
agencies, one may conclude that inter-agency Joint Pro-
grams are highly likely. However, the influence of
joint effects of agency characteristics such as age,
size and service diversity may alter this pattern con-
siderably. Further, two other patterns may occur. If
the agency is extremely dependent, it may lack valued
resources for exchange. Thus, regardless of its intent,
it is unable to act on its dependency. On the other
hand, if the agency is highly successful in its informal
and formal cooptation, it may secure such strong domain
consensus for its functions and goals that it no longer
perceives a need for joint activity. It is feasible,
then, that a public agency may be so successful in its
cooptation that its own prestige, influence and role
in the community exceed and are more secure than are

any agencies with whom they may coalesce resources.
Domain consensus may then emerge as a substitute for
Joint Programs, and the organization would neither
initiate nor participate extensively in inter-agency
activity.

Age and Size

Both age and size appear largely irrelevant to the
dependency level of the agency (Table 14). However, the
older and smaller status of many private agencies com-
pared with public indicates that age and size may be sig-
nificant intervening attributes that help explain the
low dependency of private agencies. Older age is a more
significant correlate of low dependency private agencies,
however, than is relative size (see Table 15).

Older status implies considerable independence, com-
munity acceptance, a tradition and identity in particular
servicing areas, possession of certain valued resources,
a symbiotic relationship with other agencies in the com-
munity, high agency credibility with other agencies in
the community, high agency credibility and relatively
skilled personnel. This overall pattern indicates low
Organizational Dependency, a predicted correlate of low
Joint Program activity in this research.

A few characteristic elements of older agencies may
promote joint activity -- namely, identity and confidence,
possession of valued resources for exchange, and skilled
personnel. These elements are probably more than offset,

Table 14. - Summary of the Relationships Between Agency
Characteristics and Organizational Dependency; Expressed in Q Values; by agency.[1]

	Organizational Dependency
Auspices (Public; Private)	0.55
Age (Old; Young)	0.25
Size: Two-Way (Large; Small)	0.12
Service Diversity (4 or more; Less than 4)	0.36
Staff Professionalism (50% or more; Less than 50%)	0.12
Mode of Work (Treatment; Distributive)	0.35

[1] All variables listed in the Table have been dichtomized.

however, by agency independence, traditional identification with service delivery in a specialized area, stable support and access to resources, and community acceptance of their functions as they exist. Moreover, the advantages of exchange often appear negligible and a gratuitous risk for an old line agency.

In theory, size exerts a pressure both ways. That is, increased size supports internal control and independence. Yet, increased size also promotes multiple interfaces with the environment and higher service

diversity. Agencies with high service diversity, low professionalism and a distributive mode of work reflect a high dependency situation (Table 15). When increases in agency size are added to this combination, the dependency is heightened still further.

Like age, the influence of relative size in predicting dependency becomes clearer when it is tested with other characteristics. As Table 15 illustrates, when combined with age and auspices, size contributes almost equally to both low and high dependency. However, again in similar fashion to age, when size is tested with combinations of operational characteristics, its role is more apparent.

Operational Characteristics

Table 14 depicts the moderately positive correlation between both service diversity and a treatment mode of work and Organizational Dependency. The level of staff professionalism and dependency appear unrelated.

The dependency assumed by the organization as services expand and become more diverse is understandable. Both Resource and Domain Dependency occur as additional resources are needed and guarantees for future functions and goals are solicited from the relevant environments. When high service diversity is combined with public auspices and low professionalism, dependency tends to be higher (Table 15). The mode of work associated with this pattern is more distributive than treatment oriented,

Table 15. - Demographic and Operational Profiles of Human
Service Agencies, and Their Relative Levels
of Organizational Dependency; by Agency.

PART I - DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES

	Agencies		
Auspices; Age; Size	High Dependency	Low Dependency	Totals
1. Public; Old; Large	29% (5)	18% (3)	24% (8)
2. Private; Old; Small	24% (4)	18% (3)	20% (7)
3. Private; Old; Large	12% (2)	24% (4)	18% (6)
4. Private; Young; Small	0% (0)	29% (5)	15% (5)
5. Public; Young; Small	18% (3)	6% (1)	12% (4)
6. Public; Young; Large	6% (1)	6% (1)	6% (2)
7. Public; Old; Small	6% (1)	0% (0)	3% (1)
8. Private; Young; Large	6% (1)	0% (0)	3% (1)
Totals	100% (17)	100% (17)	100% (34)

PART II - OPERATIONAL PROFILES

	Agencies		
Service Diversity; Staff Professionalism; Mode of Work	High Dependency	Low Dependency	Totals
1. High; Low; Distributive	29% (5)	18% (3)	24% (8)
2. Low; High; Treatment	24% (4)	18% (3)	20% (7)
3. High; High; Treatment	18% (3)	18% (3)	18% (6)
4. High; High; Distributive	18% (3)	18% (3)	18% (6)
5. Low; Low; Distributive	0% (0)	29% (5)	15% (5)
6. High; Low; Treatment	6% (1)	0% (0)	3% (1)
7. Low; Low; Treatment	6% (1)	0% (0)	3% (1)
8. Low; High; Distributive	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Totals	100% (17)	100% (17)	100% (34)

but not as decisively as in the case of the other characteristics mentioned. Public agencies that are diverse, low in professionals and distributive oriented are dependent by the very nature of their inherent role.

However, why should dependency be associated with a treatment mode of work in a significant number of agency profiles? Clearly, this work orientation implies an independence of specialized and skilled functions and a predominantly high level of staff professionalism.

In somewhat a parallel to the public and private auspices experience, a bi-modal pattern is evident. As Table 15 shows, a treatment mode is almost equally distributed between high and low dependency agencies. Closer inspection of the operational profiles reveals that a fairly equal division between high and low dependency agencies also persists whether the treatment agency is high or low in diversity. Two other elements of the profiles create the bi-modal pattern. Firstly, whenever high diversity or high professionalism (alone or jointly) are a part of the profile along with either a treatment or distributive mode, the balance between high and low dependency agencies remains. However, the rationale for the dependency level varies within this group. High diversity with high professionalism invites multiple contacts with professionals of other agencies regardless of the particular mode of work. Inter-agency awareness, coordination and informal exchange of information

by professionals evolves into Domain Dependency. This dependency is based on a perception of clients as needing multiple services and support systems. On the other hand, when low diversity is combined with high professionalism, the agency perceives problems of more funding and programs in the face of a dynamic environment and considerable inter-agency competition. This type of agency recognizes the inflexibility and static nature of its competitive position, and attempts to innovate. This activity creates a Resource Dependency. And finally, the high diversity-low professionalism agency perceives both Domain and Resource Dependency. This agency type is aware of protecting and guaranteeing its domain of multiple services; simultaneously, it lacks the security of highly prized professionals.

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CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Introduction

In this chapter, individual sections are devoted to each of the three components of the hypothesis. The fourth and concluding section contains a synthesis of the components, a composite summary of the findings and an interpretation of their overall meaning.

The basis of the analysis is the hypothesis:

Joint Program involvement by human service agencies in the community is associated with agency director perceptions of Organizational Dependency.

The data analysis begins with statistical measurement of the relationship of Organizational Dependency to each component of Joint Program involvement: frequency; initation; and intensity.[1] This process then includes an evaluation of individual agency characteristics and their relative contributions and relationships to the particular

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[1] Hereafter, in this chapter, the relationships between Organizational Dependency and each of the three components of Joint Program involvement are referred to either as first, second, or third components, or the frequency, initiation or intensity components.

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component of the hypothesis. Finally, demographic and operational characteristics are combined into <u>agency pro-files</u> according to their association with the hypothesis is measured by agency, by individual characteristics apart from agency identification, and by combined characteristics or agency profiles.

The fourth and concluding section of the chapter integrates the findings from the three components of the hypothesis, and presents an interpretation of the overall meaning of the data.

<div align="center">

Part I - Organizational Dependency and
Joint Program Frequency

</div>

<u>Results: General</u>

The first component was sustained. A Yules Q of 0.54 (<u>Table 16</u>) indicates a positive relationship between Organizational Dependency and a relatively high frequency of Joint Programs. Eleven of the agencies or one-third of the overall total are high dependency agencies with from two to six Joint Programs; and another one-third are low dependency agencies with either none or one Joint Program. Therefore, twenty-two agencies or two-thirds of the entire group confirm the direction of this first component. Thus, they support the proposition that a high frequency of Joint Programs is associated with agency director perceptions of an external locus of decision control for the organization; and conversely, a low frequency of Joint Programs is associated with perceptions

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of an internal locus of decision control for the organiza-
tion.

Results: Demographic Characteristics

Though public agencies indicate considerably higher
dependency -- i.e., two-thirds or ten of the fifteen pub-
lic agencies compared with a little over one-third or
seven of nineteen of the private -- Table 17 shows that
private agencies offer more support to this component
than do public. Especially in the low dependency-low
Joint Program quadrant, private agencies predominate,
accounting for eight of the eleven in this category.
Private agencies constitute 56% of all agencies, yet
they contribute 64% of the agency agreement with the
frequency component.

Table 16. - The Relationship Between Organizational
           Dependency and the Relative Frequency of
           Joint Programs; by agency.

Organizational Depend-ency (External Decision Control)	Joint Programs		
	Low (0-1)	High (2-6)	Totals
High - Above Median Agency	35% (6)	65% (11)	100% (17)
Low - Below Median Agency	65% (11)	35% (6)	100% (17)
Totals	50% (17)	50% (17)	100% (34)
	Q=0.54	n=34 Information Missing=1	

Regarding age, older agencies constitute 73% of agency agreement with this component. Since they comprise 65% of all agencies, the margin between the expected and actual level is identical to that of private auspices. However, in absolute numbers, older status is the strongest demographic variable for high dependency-high Joint Program frequency (nine agencies) as well as for both high and low dependency agreement with the component (16 agencies).

Next to older status, a larger size is the best predictor of high dependency and high Joint Program frequency in terms of the <u>number</u> of agencies involved (nine and seven, respectively) and <u>percentage</u> involvement (82% and 64%), among demographic characteristics. On the low dependency-low Joint Program side, private agency status is the only characteristic that has marked strength, covering eight agencies and 73% of this side of the auspices dichotomy. <u>Thus the edge of private over public</u> <u>auspices in contributing to the component is based on low</u> <u>dependency couples with low Joint Program involvement</u> <u>that characterizes private agencies</u>. It is evident then that the frequency component would not have been sustained if the high dependency and high Joint Program frequency of one-third of the public agencies was not reinforced and strengthened by the more significant 42% of private agencies indicating low dependency and low Joint Program frequency, the correlative of the hypothesis.

Table 17. - Agency Demographic Characteristics and Their Contribution to the First Component of the Hypothesis -- The Association of Organizational Dependency with Joint Program Frequency; in Numbers and Percentages; by agency.[1]

Agency Demographic Characteristics	Low Frequency Low Joint Program Frequency	High Dependency High Joint Program Frequency	Total	Overall Totals (All Agencies)
Auspices - Public	27% (3)	45% (5)	36% (8)	44% (15)
Private	72% (8)	55% (6)	64% (14)	56% (19)
Total	100% (11)	100% (11)	100% (22)	100% (34)
Age - Old	64% (7)	82% (9)	73% (16)	65% (22)
Young	36% (4)	18% (2)	27% (6)	35% (12)
Total	100% (11)	100% (11)	100% (22)	100% (34)
Size - Large	45% (5)	64% (7)	55% (12)	50% (17)
Small	55% (6)	36% (4)	45% (10)	50% (17)
Total	100% (11)	100% (11)	100% (22)	100% (34)

[1] Organizational Dependency information is missing for one agency, therefore n=34 for all data involving Organizational Dependency.

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The modal composite agency in the hypothesized direction is predominantly older, usually larger and tends somewhat more toward private than public status.

Results: Operational Characteristics

Table 18 illustrates the contributions of operational characteristics to the frequency component. Although high service diversity comprises an unusually high percentage of total agencies (21 of 34, or 62%), this organizational trait still emerges as proportionally a more important contributor to the hypothesized relationship than any other characteristic. Moreover, its incidence of ten agencies and 90% agreement with high dependency-high Joint Program frequency make it the most noteworthy correlate to this component among all demographic and operational characteristics. This strength is reflected to a lesser degree in its correlative, i.e., low diversity and low Joint Program frequency. Only one low diversity agency is recorded as a high dependency organization, the lowest cell size in all relationships recorded.

Staff professionalism and mode of work both are less decisive in their impact and contribution to the frequency component. High staff professionalism does comprise seven (64%) of the eleven agencies that are high in dependency and Joint Program frequency. Thus, it is a positive correlate of the hypothesized direction. Whether the agency is treatment or distributive oriented in mode of work appears irrelevant when measuring these

Table 18. - Agency Operational Characteristics and Their Contribution to the First Component -- The Association of Organizational Dependency with Joint Frequency; in Numbers and Percentages; by agency.

Agency Operational Characteristics	Low Dependency Low Joint Program Frequency	High Dependency High Joint Program Frequency	Total	Overall Totals (All Agencies)
Service Diversity				
High	55% (6)	90% (10)	73% (16)	62% (21)
Low	45% (5)	10% (1)	27% (6)	38% (13)
Total	100% (11)	100% (11)	100% (22)	100% (34)
Staff Professionalism				
High	55% (6)	64% (7)	59% (13)	56% (19)
Low	45% (5)	36% (4)	41% (9)	44% (15)
Total	100% (11)	100% (11)	100% (22)	100% (34)
Mode of Work				
Treatment	45% (5)	45% (5)	45% (10)	44% (15)
Distributive	55% (6)	55% (6)	55% (12)	56% (19)
Total	100% (11)	100% (11)	100% (22)	100% (34)

attributes in terms of this component.

Composite Results: Individual Characteristics

Table 19 ranks all characteristics -- demographic and operational -- in the order of their relative contribution to the first component. Certain numbers and percentages in this table help one to better understand agency patterns that are associated with the hypothesized direction.

High diversity and older status appear as the strongest and most consistent individual correlates for agreement with Organizational Dependency and Joint Program frequency, with larger size and high staff professionalism somewhat less influential. Yet, the former attributes do not emerge quite as significantly in a table that stresses low and high contributions to this component in comparison with the previous tables that tended to stress high. For example, the large number of private agencies that have low dependency and either none or one Joint Program helps make private auspices a significant contributor to the hypothesized direction. The third column in the table illustrates that a scant eight percentage points separate the top five characteristics -- high diversity, private, old, large and high staff professionalism -- when they are ordered according to their ranking among agencies in the category. Service Diversity is the only characteristic that is decisively on the high side, with a rather small percentage contribution from the low.

Table 10 - Demographic ...

Table 19. – Demographic and Operational Characteristics of Agencies, Ranked According to Agreement with the First Component of the Hypothesis; in Numbers and Percentages; by agency.

Agency Characteristics	Low Dependency Low Joint Program Frequency	High Dependency High Joint Program Frequency	Total	Overall Totals (All Agencies)
Service Diversity --High	29% (6)	48% (10)	76% (16)	100% (21)
Age --Old	32% (7)	41% (9)	73% (16)	100% (22)
Auspices --Private	42% (8)	32% (6)	74% (14)	100% (19)
Staff Professionalism-- High	32% (6)	37% (7)	68% (13)	100% (19)
Size --Large	29% (5)	41% (7)	71% (12)	100% (17)
Mode of Work--Distributive	32% (6)	32% (6)	63% (12)	100% (19)
Mode of Work--Treatment	33% (5)	33% (5)	67% (10)	100% (15)
Size --Small	35% (6)	24% (4)	59% (10)	100% (17)
Staff Professionalism-- Low	33% (5)	27% (4)	60% (9)	100% (15)
Auspices --Public	20% (3)	33% (5)	53% (8)	100% (15)
Age --Young	33% (4)	17% (2)	50% (6)	100% (12)
Service Diversity --Low	38% (5)	8% (1)	46% (6)	100% (13)

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All other characteristics produce balanced contributions from both the high and low sides.

Whether an agency is treatment or distributive oriented in its mode of work appears irrelevant to this component. Each mode contributes two-thirds of its respective total to the hypothesized direction, and, therefore, they are equally influential. Doubtless, confounding effects from other characteristics are operative. For example, the high correlation previously noted between high staff professionalism and a treatment mode would tend to associate treatment orientation with this component; on the other hand, the nature of a distributive agency induces Joint Program involvement in the sense that referrals and facilitating services involving other agencies are commonplace. Does the professional's willingness to relate to other specialists and to cooperative ventures outside the organization prove a stronger spur to Joint Programs than the non-professional's need in the distributive type agency for effective referrals and services -- an activity that requires professionals from other agencies?

Agency Profiles

Agency agreement with the first component is arranged by demographic and operational profiles in Tables 20 and 21. The modal demographics fitting the hypothesized direction are public, old and large agency status. The counterpart operational profile is that of high diversity

Table 20. - Agency Demographic Profiles and Their Contributions to the First Component -- The Association of Organizational Dependency with Joint Program Frequency; in Numbers and Percentages; by Agency.

Auspices; Age; Size	Low Dependency Low Joint Program Frequency	High Dependency High Joint Program Frequency	Total	Overall Totals (All Agencies)
1. Public; Old; Large	18% (2)	36% (4)	27% (6)	23% (8)
2. Private; Old; Small	18% (2)	27% (3)	23% (5)	23% (8)
3. Private; Old; Large	27% (3)	18% (2)	23% (5)	17% (6)
4. Private; Young; Small	27% (3)	0% (0)	14% (3)	14% (5)
5. Public; Young; Small	9% (1)	9% (1)	9% (2)	11% (4)
6. Public; Young; Large	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	6% (2)
7. Public; Old; Small	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	3% (1)
8. Private; Young; Large	0% (0)	9% (1)	4% (1)	3% (1)
Total	100% (11)	100% (11)	100% (22)	100% (35)

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Table 21. – Agency Operational Profiles and Their Contributions to the First Component -- The Association of Organizational Dependency with Joint Program Frequency; in Numbers and Percentages; by Agency.

AGENCY -- Service Diversity Staff Professionalism Mode of Work	Low Dependency Low Joint Pro- gram Frequency	High Dependency High Joint Pro- gram Frequency	Total	Overall Totals (All Agencies)
1. High Diversity Low Professionalism Distributive Mode	18% (2)	27% (3)	23% (5)	23% (8)
2. Low Diversity High Professionalism Treatment Mode	18% (2)	9% (1)	14% (3)	20% (7)
3. High Diversity High Professionalism Treatment Mode	27% (3)	27% (3)	27% (6)	17% (6)
4. High Diversity High Professionalism Distributive Mode	9% (1)	37% (3)	18% (4)	17% (6)
5. Low Diversity Low Professionalism Distributive Mode	27% (3)	0% (0)	14% (3)	14% (5)
6. High Diversity Low Professionalism Treatment Mode	0% (0)	9% (1)	5% (1)	3% (1)
7. Low Diversity Low Professionalism Treatment Mode	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	3% (1)
8. Low Diversity High Professionalism Distributive Mode	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	3% (1)
Total	100% (11)	100% (11)	100% (22)	100% (35)

and professionalism coupled with a treatment mode. This classification furnishes a more practical and realistic guide to both understanding component strengths of the hypothesis and making applications to agencies. A worthwhile piece of information revealed by the tables is that in only one profile of the sixteen demographic and operational combinations is there 100% agreement with the component -- i.e., high diversity, high professionalism, and a treatment mode. Demographically, a private-old-and large agency profile comes the closest to total agreement representing five of the six agencies in this category.

A review of Table 20 confirms the dominant part that older status and private auspices play in sustaining the frequency component. Each characteristic is present in three of the four top agency profiles. These particular profiles account for nineteen of the twenty-two agencies that sustain component direction. This table also reveals that the low dependency-low Joint Program side is more consistent and diffused in influence across the first four profiles than is the high side. This tends to indicate mixed patterns leading to Joint Programs rather than a few dominant ones.

Table 21 indicates that the third-ranking profiles in overall incidence -- high diversity and professionalism, with a treatment mode -- leads in agreement with dependency-frequency in terms of number of agencies (6), percentage of agencies in agreement (27%) and in its

percentage margin <u>above</u> its portion of total agencies.

When the third and fourth ranking profiles are combined,

ten of the twelve agencies fitting that category are in

support of this component. This table establishes fur-

ther the dominance of high diversity, and to a somewhat

less extent high professionalism in reporting support of

frequency.

When demographic and operational characteristics are

combined in order to determine an overall modal agency

in the component direction, the type of agency resulting

is a private, old and small one with high diversity,

high professionalism and a distributive mode of work.

This prototype occurs three times among the twenty-two

agency types that support the frequency component.

Analysis: Organizational Dependency and Joint Program Frequency

If the analysis is done by individual characteristics,

the most prevalent pattern for a dependency-frequency

relationship is the old and large private agency with

high service diversity and staff professionalism, and

a treatment mode of work (<u>Table 19</u>). If the analysis is

on the basis of <u>agency profiles</u>, the most salient indi-

vidual profiles in support of dependency-frequency are

the old and large public agency with high diversity and

professionalism and a treatment mode (<u>Tables 20</u> and <u>21</u>).

The agency profile indicating the least tendency toward

Joint Program frequency is the young and large public

agency with low diversity, low professionalism and a
treatment mode.

Private agency status is a bi-modal phenomenon in
its contribution to the first component. Private agencies
with low dependency and low Joint Program frequency tend
to be older and smaller, high in staff professionalism,
and they are evenly distributed in service diversity and
mode of work. They occupy a traditional, stable place
in the community service delivery scheme; they have a
solid core of influential supporters at the local level;
they deal with United Way as an equal in the sense that
they perceive that they bring as much or more value and
resources to the organization as they take away; increased
specialization and professionalism has often reinforced
their sense of autonomy and self-sufficiency; they find
it relatively easy to resist United Way efforts to coa-
lecce their programs or service delivery with other agen-
cies; and they are averse to swift growth or innovations
in programs or services. For these reasons, they see no
rationale for sharing decisions with outside agents and
thus acquiring dependency. Often, they have a constitu-
ency and a traditional community role that is widely
acknowledged and respected. Though they may have resources
to exchange with other agencies, they lack a rationale or
motivation. Neither Resource nor Domain Dependency are
perceived as either present or a relevant consideration
to agency effectiveness.

What explains, then, the high dependency-high Joint Program agencies that are under private auspices? These agencies are predominantly older and high in service diversity, they are likely to be high in staff professionalism and a distributive mode of work. Size appears to have little influence either way. Though these agencies are older and may be quite traditional, their high diversity of services and distributive mode generate differentiation within the organization, multiple contacts with outside agents and organizations, a number of specialized services or programs, a more diffuse and possibly less responsive constituency, and a need for innovation. They perceive the need for United Way support and accede more to the latter agency's direction toward more inter-agency cooperation. Competitive innovations and the seeking of multiple sources of funds are considerations that motivate them to acquire dependency and to engage in Joint Programs. In addition, their tendency toward a distributive mode of work encourages inter-agency agreements on referrals and ancillary services. Resource Dependency based on innovation needs appears more prevalent among these private agencies than is Domain Dependency. Though a basic budget and solid community support is often guaranteed, innovation and growth in programs and services represent the competitive edge for the agency -- the measuring instruments among non-profit organizations that is comparable to profit levels in the more typical private enterprise. Not only are additional resources

needed to fuel the innovations, but there is an awareness
of competing with public and private agencies alike, for
public monies and additional service delivery roles in
the community. Activity in the public sphere, then, may
influence and enhance private agency propensities to in-
novate and grow. In the perceptions of these agencies,
the sharing of some budget and decision autonomy in the
birth of Joint Programs appears to be a reasonable price
to pay for worthwhile innovations and a favorable growth
curve.

Agency characteristics least associated with depend-
ency and Joint Program frequency are low service diver-
sity, younger age and public auspices. The fact that an
agency specializes in the delivery of few services implies
both low dependency and low Joint Program involvement.
Neither Resource nor Domain Dependency would appear as
likely in an agency situation of few services or programs.
On the other hand, high diversity feeds on change in the
resource mix and relative needs, and it carves out a ter-
ritory that involves multiple transactions and task envi-
ronments. High service diversity also helps create the
differentiation of functions and an internal dynamic lead-
ing to innovation, especially in agencies that have high
staff professionalism and considerable external competi-
tion. This pattern fits the theoretical formulation ear-
lier in this research that results in Resource Dependency.

Younger, public agencies, however, do not confront

competition in the same way that private agencies do.
If the public agency also is low in service diversity,
and is small and treatment-oriented, it is not inclined
to participate in Joint Programs <u>regardless of its per-
ceived level of Organizational Dependency</u>. An analysis,
then, of the public agency ingredient-characteristics
that support the hypothesis makes the contribution and
the limitations of the frequency component clearer.

In examining public agencies, the bi-modal pattern
evident among private agencies changes to a mixed pat-
tern. On initial inspection, the high Organizational
Dependency coupled with comparatively large size would
appear to indicate high Joint Program frequency. Pre-
sumably, this development would be based on Domain De-
pendency. Since legislation and administrative guide-
lines make program mandates and budget levels specific
and fixed for the period involved, Resource Dependency
due to innovation appears unlikely. However, the desire
of the public administrators to penetrate client sources
and to secure support and cooperation from agencies and
institutions in the community often leads to Domain De-
pendency. That is, effort to gain community consensus
in favor of the public agency's programs involves shar-
ing decision control with relevant environmental agents.
However, in contrast to the dependency perceived by pri-
vate agencies, this dependency does not necessarily
induce the public agency to seek Joint Program involvement.

A particular mix of agency characteristics is the key to whether the public agency reacts to dependency by coalescing with other agencies. Without economic and competitive motives to engage in Joint Programs, characteristics have to be ideally favorable to an exchange of resources. Clearly, the economic and competitive motives of many private agencies are stronger spurs to joint activity than are domain needs for public agencies.

Thus, when public agencies are generally low in service diversity, treatment-oriented, relatively small and young, and tending toward low staff professionalism, their Organizational Dependency does not result in Joint Program efforts. This result, however, changes dramatically if service diversity is high and the agency is both old and large. Staff professionalism and mode of work orientation appear irrelevant to Joint Program frequency for public agencies.

This pattern of public agencies appears to complement that of the private agencies. That is, perceptions of Resource Dependency are a more significant motivation toward Joint Programs than are perceptions of Domain dependency. These young, public agencies with low diversity perceive high resource independence, and this leads them to avoid Joint Programs even though they may perceive Domain Dependency. Thus, their money and legislative mandate grant them an independence that make Joint Programs seem unnecessary. On the other hand, with

increases in diversity and older age, the public agency

may sense Resource as well as Domain Dependency. As

the data confirm, this new pattern may lead to Joint

Programs.

The question of whether the focal agency initiates

or merely responds to Joint Program activity assumes

rather critical importance at this point. An under-

standing of agency conditions associated with the

initation of Joint Programs complements and supple-

ments the value of this first component.

Part II - Organizational Dependency and Joint Program Initiation

Results: General

The second component of the hypothesis -- the

association of Organizational Dependency and Joint

Program Initiation -- was supported at a relatively

weak correlation level (Q=0.21, Table 22). Seven of

the twelve agencies reporting that they have initiated

Joint Programs are in the high dependency-high Joint

Program quadrant. Yet, this figure represents only

21% of the total number of agencies. On the other

hand, 30% of the total agencies are high dependency

agencies that have not initiated any Joint Programs.

Therefore, the association between dependency and Joint

Program initiation between dependency and Joint Program

initiation is weak and tenuous.

Table 22. - The Relationship Between Organizational
Dependency and Agency Initiation of Joint
Programs; by Agency.

Organizational Dependency (External Decision Control)	Agency Initiation of Joint Programs		
	No	Yes	Totals
High - Above Median	59% (10)	41% (7)	100% (17)
Low - Below Median	69% (11)	31% (5)	100% (16)
Totals	64% (21)	36% (12)	100% (33)

Q=0.21   n=33
                        Missing Data=2

Results: Individual Characteristics

Table 23 presents a ranking of both demographic and
operational characteristics according to their individual
contributions to the second hypothesis. At this level of
analysis, high service diversity and older status stand
apart from the other characteristics as strong correlates
and therefore relatively ideal situations for the initia-
tion of Joint Programs. Private auspices, a distributive
mode of work and high staff professionalism are also
associated with program initiation, but their influence
is subject to doubt because of their smaller percentages
and their mixed patterns.

The most unfavorable circumstances for Joint Program
initiation would involve agencies with low service diver-
sity and a treatment mode of work.

Table 23. – Demographic and Operational Characteristics of Agencies, Ranked According to Agreement with the Second Component of the Hypothesis; in Numbers and Percentages; by Agency.

Agency Characteristics	Low Dependency No Joint Program Initiation	High Dependency With Joint Program Initiation	Total	Overall Totals (All Agencies)
Age -Old	36% (8)	27% (6)	63% (14)	100% (22)
Service Diversity -High	29% (6)	33% (7)	62% (13)	100% (21)
Auspices -Private	37% (7)	26% (5)	63% (12)	100% (19)
Mode of Work Distributive	32% (6)	26% (5)	58% (11)	100% (19)
Staff Professionalism-Low	50% (7)	20% (3)	71% (10)	100% (14)
Staff Professionalism-High	26% (5)	21% (4)	47% (9)	100% (19)
Size -Large	29% (5)	24% (4)	53% (9)	100% (17)
Size -Small	38% (6)	18% (3)	56% (9)	100% (16)
Age -Young	55% (6)	9% (1)	56% (9)	100% (11)
Auspices -Public	22% (3)	14% (2)	36% (5)	100% (14)
Service Diversity -Low	42% (5)	0% (0)	42% (5)	100% (12)
Mode of Work -Treatment	13% (2)	13% (2)	26% (4)	100% (14)

Results: Demographic Profiles of Agencies

As Table 24 indicates, agencies that are either pub-
lic, old and large or private, old and small have the
highest number of Joint Program initiations. Yet, the
most favorable agency profile for initiating programs is
a small and old private agency. The strength of this
profile is not fully revealed in Table 24 because three
of the agencies involved do not confirm the hypothesis.
Actually, all six of the agencies with this profile re-
port that they initiate Joint Programs. Therefore,
though this profile fits only 25% of all agencies with
Joint Programs, it constitutes 50% of all agencies
initiating Joint Programs.

On the other hand, the profiles least associated
with Joint Program initiation -- among agencies already
involved in Joint Program activity -- are public or
private agencies that are both young and small. Though
one of these two profiles -- private, young and small --
comprises 28% of the agreement with the Initiation Com-
ponent, this support is based on the fact that the five
agencies fitting the profile are low dependency agencies
that did not initiate Joint Programs. Thus, the agree-
ment comes from the correlative of the component.

Among the seven agencies with both high dependency
and Joint Program initiation, the private-old-small
profile again leads numerically with three. The public-
old-large profile is next with two.

Table 24. - Agency Demographic Profiles and Their Contribution to the Second Component -- The Association of Organizational Dependency with the Initiation of Joint Programs; in Numbers and Percentages; by Agency.

AGENCY Auspices; Age; Size	Low Dependency No Joint Program Initiation	High Dependency With Joint Program Initiation	Total	Overall Totals (All Agencies)
1. Public; Old; Large	18% (2)	29% (2)	22% (4)	24% (8)
2. Private; Old; Small	0% (0)	43% (3)	17% (3)	21% (7)
3. Private; Old; Large	27% (3)	14% (1)	22% (4)	15% (5)
4. Private; Young; Small	46% (5)	0% (0)	28% (5)	15% (5)
5. Public; Young; Small	9% (1)	0% (0)	6% (1)	12% (4)
6. Public; Young; Large	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	6% (2)
7. Public; Old; Small	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	3% (1)
8. Private; Young; Large	0% (0)	14% (1)	6% (1)	3% (1)
Totals	100% (11)	100% (7)	100% (18)	100% (33)

Results: Operational Profiles of Agencies

The high diversity and professionalism agency with
a distributive mode constitutes 25% of all agencies en-
gaged in Joint Programs. Yet, as Table 25 reveals, this
profile is not the most advantageous one for the initia-
tion of Joint Programs. The high diversity-low profes-
sionalism and distributive agency makes the highest per-
centage contribution to the second component (33% and it
holds the highest percentage margin of initiation (43%)
and it holds the highest percentage margin of initiation
(43%) over its share of agencies (24%). However, apart
from contributing to the hypothesis, the best situation
for Joint Program initiation is shared by two other pro-
files -- agencies that are high in both diversity and
professionalism with either a distributive or treatment
mode.

Analysis: Organizational Dependency and Joint Program
                      Initiation

When small and old private agencies are involved in
Joint Programs, they tend to initiate them. Inter-agency
initiatives appear to be left especially to the older
agencies that have deep community ties and specific con-
stituencies; they also generally have stable core funding
and favorable public images in the community. Presumably,
these agencies have had many years to build community
good will and resource support. They also have access
to clients, skilled professionals, an established role

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Table 25. - Agency Operational Profiles and Their Contribution to the Second Component -- The Association of Organizational Dependency with the Initiation of Joint Programs; in Numbers and Percentages; by Agency.

AGENCY -- Service Diversity Staff Professionalism Mode of Work	Low Dependency No Joint Pro- gram Initiation	High Dependency With Joint Pro- gram Initiation	Total	Overall Totals (All Agencies)
1. High Diversity Low Professionalism Distributive Mode	27% (3)	43% (3)	33% (6)	24% (8)
2. Low Diversity High Professionalism Treatment Mode	9% (1)	0% (0)	6% (1)	21% (7)
3. High Diversity High Professionalism Treatment Mode	9% (1)	29% (2)	17% (3)	15% (5)
4. High Diversity High Professionalism Distributive Mode	18% (2)	29% (2)	22% (4)	18% (6)
5. Low Diversity Low Professionalism Distributive Mode	36% (4)	0% (0)	22% (4)	15% (5)
6. High Diversity Low Professionalism Treatment Mode	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	3% (1)
7. Low Diversity Low Professionalism Treatment Mode	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	3% (1)
8. Low Diversity High Professionalism Distributive Mode	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Total	100% (11)	100% (7)	100% (18)	100% (33)

in service delivery, and especially, a community consensus for their functions and goals. However, in a period of increased sensitivity to client and community needs and with the infusion of more public money into local service delivery systems, their stable and often static funding becomes inadequate. Though their domain of functions is largely unchallenged in the community, their inter-agency competition for additional funds and the pressure of innovation professionals within the agency induces strong motivations to grow and to seek new or expanded roles in programs and services. A Resource Dependency develops as the agency moves to implement its innovations.

A symbiotic relationship may develop in these circumstances between the public and private agency. The public agency perceives a Domain Dependency; the private agency perceives a Resource Dependency. When the public agency coalesces with the private, it would be inclined to share money and a legislative mandate in return for local status, clients, and consensus for their programs and goals. On the other hand, the private agency has a domain consensus already for its function and goals, but often lacks new funds and expanded legal status. The data appear to support the <u>private agency initiatives toward Joint Programs considerably more than the public</u>. For this reason, <u>a specific and immediate economic need and tangible resources appear as a stronger motivation</u>

to inter-agency cooperation than the more normative need
and intangible resources associated with community con-
sensus and support.

Private auspices and a Resource Dependency associ-
ated with innovation appears to be a more dominant mode
leading to both the initiation and a high frequency of
Joint Programs than is public auspices with its tendency
toward Domain Dependency. Thus, the high Organizational
Dependency that is characteristic of public agencies does
not necessarily lead to Joint Programs because Domain
Dependency -- a dependency that is managed through shar-
ing decision control with external environmental agents
and institutions -- is not as strong a motivation to
coalesce programs as is the Resource Dependency asso-
ciated with innovation and growth. Moreover, the public
agency's dependency involves shared decision control but
often not shared budget control. An expanded budget and
possibly a newly mandated service role are often the
primary motivators for the private agency's initiating
joint activity. Thus, the potentially symbiotic rela-
tionship may more readily be recognized and sought by
the private agency rather than the public.

An additional explanation for private agency initia-
tives toward Joint Programs more than public lies in the
inherent rewards of domain concensus through shared
decision control. The public agency may conclude that
the domain consensus attained through its policy of

cooptation or cooperation -- i.e., the soliciting of
advice and the sharing of organizational decisions
through advisory groups, community boards, specialized
task forces, individual or program interaction with
environmental elements -- is sufficient and appropriate
to handle its Domain Dependency. For this reason, the
public agency may utilized domain consensus as a sub-
stitute for Joint Programs. On the other hand, the pri-
vate agency is apt to require tangible resources for
program delivery; this outcome often requires a formal-
ized Joint Program.

Regarding a favorable level of professionalism or
mode of work for initiation of Joint Programs, a mixed
pattern appears. Agencies with low staff professional-
ism and a distributive mode have high dependence on
Joint Programs. They depend for effectiveness on refer-
rals to professionals in other agencies or in symbioti-
cally relating their facilitating or ancillary services
to those of other agencies. Therefore, they indicate
high initiation of Joint Programs because of Resource
Dependency. Thus, for example, Senior Services has
access to clients and some funds, but they must bargain
or coalesce for professional expertise and program funds.

Another pattern involves high professionalism with
either a distributive or treatment mode. High profession-
alism may either create self-sufficiency and independence
that leads to avoidance of Joint Programs or it may

generate greater knowledge and concern about related

needs and services that may lead to joint activity.

When this high professionalism is associated with high

diversity and older status, the initiation of Joint Pro-

grams occurs regardless of mode of work.

Part III - Organizational Dependency
and Joint Program Intensity

Results: General

The third component of the hypothesis -- the asso-

ciation of Organizational Dependency and Joint Program

Intensity -- was supported (Q=0.38, Table 26).

Therefore, agencies with high dependency tend to be

more committed to the Joint Programs in which they are

involved. This commitment is measured, for example, by

component elements such as the number of resources con-

tributed, agency commitment of money, the decision-making

autonomy granted to the Joint Program by the agency, the

formality of the Joint Program agreement, the distinct-

ness of its identity and its duration. Each of these

components may contribute to Joint Program intensity,

and they measure the depth and extent of agency willing-

ness to grant resources, authority and status to an

inter-agency structure.

Support for the intensity component comes virtually

in equal measure from high dependency-high intensity

agencies (eight) and from low dependency-low intensity

agencies (seven). Thus, seven low dependency agencies

choose some Joint Program involvement but tend to avoid
intense commitment to them, and eight high dependency
agencies not only choose Joint Programs, but also tend
to commit themselves intensely. This factor reinforces
the tentative conclusions drawn from the data for the
first and second components. That is, a general pattern
exists for all agencies that associates various levels
of Organizational Dependency with a series of Joint Pro-
gram involvement plateaus, namely: no Joint Programs;
low Joint Program frequency; high Joint Program frequency;
the initiation of Joint Programs; high intensity of Joint
Programs.

Agency Profiles

The old and large public agency has the highest
incidence as well as the highest percentage intensity
of all agency profiles (Table 27), whether one is refer-
ring to high dependence-high intensity alone or whether
this profile is combined with low-dependency-low inten-
sity agencies. Thus, neither private nor small agencies
appear to support this component as they supported the
previous ones.

In terms of operational characteristics the profiles
are more evenly distributed with no one pattern clearly
dominant (Table 28). High diversity, high staff profes-
sionalism and a treatment mode is highest in incidence
and percentage of all agencies involved in Joint Programs,
followed closely by high diversity, high professionalism

Table 26. - The Relationship Between Organizational Dependency and the <u>Intensity</u> of Joint Programs; by Agency.

Organizational Dependency (External Decision Control)	Intensity of Joint Programs (Agency Intensity Index)		
	Low	High	Totals
High - Above Median Agency	38% (5)	62% (8)	100% (13)
Low - Below Median Agency	58% (7)	42% (5)	100% (12)
Totals	48% (12)	52% (13)	100% (25)

Q=0.38   n=25
Agencies w/o Joint Programs=9
Dependency Data Unavailable=1

[1] The intensity of Joint Programs is measured by a seven-component index of Joint Program characteristics. See Chapter III under <u>Methodology</u> for an explanation of the index.

and a distributive mode. When these two profiles are combined with the third ranking agency type -- high diversity, low professionalism and a distributive mode -- the result is almost identical to the initiation component. Thus, <u>initiation</u> and <u>intensity</u> of Joint Programs appear somewhat associated.

Again, high service diversity and older status emerge as stronger elements in the hypothesized direction than any single profile. However, in contrast to the frequency and initiation components, larger size is a crucial characteristic in association with high intensity

Table 27. - Agency Demographic Profiles and Their Contribution to the Third Component of the Hypothesis -- The Association of Organizational Dependency with the Intensity of Joint Programs; by Agency.

AGENCY Auspices; Age; Size	Low Dependency Low Joint Program Intensity	High Dependency High Joint Program Intensity	Total	Overall Totals (All Agencies with Joint Programs)
1. Public; Old; Large	28% (7)	50% (4)	44% (7)	38% (3)
2. Private; Old; Small	24% (6)	25% (2)	25% (4)	25% (2)
3. Private; Old; Large	16% (4)	0% (0)	6% (1)	13% (1)
4. Private; Young; Small	12% (3)	0% (0)	6% (1)	13% (1)
5. Public; Young; Small	8% (2)	13% (1)	13% (2)	13% (1)
6. Public; Young; Large	8% (2)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
7. Public; Old; Small	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
8. Private; Young; Large	4% (1)	13% (1)	6% (1)	0% (0)
Totals	100% (25)	100% (8)	100% (16)	100% (8)

Table 28. - Agency Operational Profiles and Their Contributions to the Third Compoent -- The Association of Organizational Dependency with the Intensity of Joint Programs; by Agency.

AGENCY -- Service Diversity Staff Professionalism Mode of Work	Low Dependency Low Joint Program Intensity	High Dependency High Joint Program Intensity	Total	Overall Totals (All Agencies) with Joint Programs
1. High Diversity Low Professionalism Distributive Mode	20% (5)	25% (2)	19% (3)	100% (1)
2. Low Diversity High Professionalsim Treatment Mode	16% (4)	0% (0)	6% (1)	13% (1)
3. High Diversity High Professionalism Treatment Mode	24% (6)	38% (3)	38% (6)	33% (3)
4. High Diversity High Professionalism Distributive Mode	35% (6)	25% (2)	25% (4)	25% (2)
5. Low Diversity Low Professionalism Distributive Mode	12% (3)	0% (0)	6% (1)	13% (1)
6. High Diversity Low Professionalism Treatment Mode	4% (1)	13% (1)	6% (1)	0% (0)
7. Low Diversity Low Professionalism Treatment Mode	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
8. Low Diversity High Professionalism Treatment Mode	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Total	100% (25)	100% (8)	100% (16)	100% (8)

Joint Programs.

Analysis: Organizational Dependency and Joint Program Intensity

Among those twenty-five agencies engaging in Joint
Programs, high intensity or commitment to their Joint
Programs appears related at a modest level to high Organ-
izational Dependency (See Table 26). This outcome is
analogous to the first and second components in the sense
that relative dependency is associated not only with
Joint Program initiatives and frequency but also with
agency transfer of power, authority, resources and other
indicators of commitment to the joint activity. It is
a logical extension, then, of the basic principle of the
overall hypothesis that a perceived Organizational De-
pendency -- whether it revolves around domain or resource
needs and deficiencies -- is associated with agency will-
ingness to share some of its autonomy, assume the risks
of inter-agency commitment and decision-making, and to
formalize the joint delivery of some of its programs and
services. However, beyond the frequency and initiation
components, the intensity of the Joint Program commitment
gauges the depth of inter-agency commitment to the joint
activity. The intensity factor measures agency willing-
ness to grant or surrender some of its autonomy and con-
trol in resource and program administration. To some
degree, intensity also measures inter-agency confidence
and trust as well as commitment.

In contrast to the tendency of private agencies to support the frequency component to a slight degree and initiation to a more decisive degree, <u>public agencies are associated strongly with the intensity component.</u> Though public agencies account for only 43% of all agencies, they comprise <u>63% of high intensity agencies.</u> Private agencies, often perceiving Resource Dependency, may coalesce in a limited fashion in order to relieve an immediate resource deficiency. The joint activity has a precise and limited purpose, and when the innovation or resource need becomes less pressing and possibly institutionalized, the joint activity may be terminated. Thus, limited resources and purposes are related to limited commitment. Public agencies, somewhat in contrast, perceive a more durable, developmental, agency-wide and partially intangible Domain Dependency. If this dependency leads to Joint Program activity, the commitment is comparatively strong. The very nature of guaranteeing future domain through Joint Programs is a longer term effort and it is more <u>total agency-related</u> than merely resource-related. Therefore, more organizational level commitment is involved. In addition, recent public agency guidelines for shared decision-making and maximum use of existing services and facilities in the local community create a pattern for high commitment to Joint Programs.

Among the eight agencies indicating high intensity commitment to Joint Programs:

> six are both old and high in diversity;
> five are public;
> five are large;
> four are public, old, large and high
> in diversity.

These combinations of characteristics may intervene to either emphasize or suppress the public-private agency pattern discussed above. Organizational complexity arising from age, high service diversity and larger size tends to multiply agency interfaces and sub-environments, generates more specialties and sub-units, induces additional domain and resource needs, and thus, may support agency intensity of commitment to Joint Programs. A review of the correlations presented in Table 11 reveals agency auspices is unrelated to service diversity. However, public agencies are significantly larger than private and are somewhat older. Therefore, size and to a lesser extent age appear to reinforce the high intensity-public agency association.

Apart from the question of public or private auspices, combinations of either large size and high diversity or high diversity and high professionalism are correlated with high intensity commitment. High diversity, a characteristic common to all high intensity agencies, indicates the importance of number and variety of services and resources to Joint Program intensity. A large number of programs and services generates more resources from

within the agency with which to engage in Joint Programs and requires more resources from outside the agency. Either way, Joint Program intensity tends to be increased. Larger size and older status offer adtional support for the intensity factor, but at a considerably less influential level when compared to diversity.

Part IV - Summary and Overall Interpretation

Introduction

When the data from the hypothesis are analyzed, some understanding emerges of "why?" and "under what conditions?" does joint activity take place. Therefore, this section presents agency characteristics and profiles that are associated with Joint Program involvement. Then, an analysis follows proposing possible agency rationales for Joint Programs or the lack of them.

Summary

Table 29 presents the relative impact of agency characteristics, alone or in combination, on the three components of the hypothesis. Older status and high service diversity emerge as such relatively strong correlates of the hypothesis that they have a higher percentage agreement than other characteristics even when combined. High service diversity is in 100% agreement with both initiation and intensity of Joint Programs, and therefore is a stronger and more consistent trait

Table 29. - Agency Characteristics and Their Percentage Agreement with the Three Components of the Hypothesis; Includes all Characteristics and Combinations Reflecting a Minimum of 50% Agreement with the Frequency Component; by Agency.

| | High Dependency -- High Joint Program Involvement | | |
AGENCY CHARACTERISTICS	First Component High Dependency High Joint Program Frequency n=11	Second Component High Dependency With Joint Program Initiation n=7	Third Component High Dependency High Joint Program Intensity n=8
High Service Diversity	91% (10)	100% (7)	100% (8)
Old	82% (9)	86% (6)	75% (6)
Old and High Service Diversity	73% (8)	86% (6)	75% (6)
Large	64% (7)	57% (4)	63% (5)
High Staff Professionalism	64% (7)	57% (4)	63% (5)
Private Auspices	55% (6)	71% (5)	37% (3)
Distributive Mode of Work	55¢ (6)	71% (5)	50% (4)
Old and High Staff Professionalism	55% (6)	57% (4)	50% (4)
Large and High Service Diversity	55% (6)	57% (4)	63% (5)
High Staff Diversity and Staff Professionalism	55% (6)	57% (4)	63% (5)

than is age. Older age status is related somewhat more to initiation than it is to either frequency or intensity of Joint Programs. When the influence of size and staff professionalism are examined, the opposite phenomenon occurs; i.e., larger sized agencies with high staff professionalism tend to be higher in frequency and intensity than they are in the initiation of Joint Programs. Aside from service diversity, then, frequency and intensity of involvement are highly correlated with each other for age, size and staff professionalism while Joint Program initiation is somewhat less correlated with the other two.

The initiation of Joint Programs departs still further from the other two relationships with regard to auspices and mode of work. Private agencies with a distributive mode of work tend to initiate Joint Programs at a considerably higher rate than they either involve themselves in Joint Programs or commit themselves intensively. In contrast to the other two components, private status and a distributive mode are more salient elements of the initiation component than are larger size or high staff professionalism. Moreover, though positively related to frequency and initiation, private status is negatively related to intensity. Conversely, then, public agencies reflect 45% frequency, only 29% initiation, and fully 63% intensity. Therefore, agency auspices and mode of work account for the only notable differences that arise among the three components.

Table 30 portrays the agency profiles that are associated with the three components. The strongest association is between public, old and large agency status on the one hand and a high intensity of Joint Program commitment on the other. This same profile also has the largest input into the frequency component. However, a bi-modal pattern appears when components of the hypothesis are compared. Thus, agencies that initiate Joint Programs have a 43% chance of being private, old and small. Since this latter profile has over 25% incidence for each of the three components, it is clearly an alternate profile in support of the hypothesis. It is noteworthy that old and small private agencies tend to initiate Joint Programs at a significantly higher rate than the old and large public agencies; however, the latter profile is twice as important as the former in intensity of commitment.

Among operational profiles, the high diversity-low professionalism-distributive-type agency reflects the strongest positive association with Joint Program initiation. This particular profile also has a slight edge over others in contributing to all three components of the hypothesis.

When the six demographic and operational characteristics are considered together, there is no overall agency profile with a frequency exceeding one. When Joint Program frequency is combined with initiation,

Table 30. - Agency Profiles and Their Percentage Agreement With the Three Components; Includes All Agency Profiles Reflecting a Minimum of 25% Agreement with the Frequency Component; by Agency.

AGENCY PROFILES	High Dependency -- High Joint Program Involvement		
	First Component High Dependency High Joint Program Involvement n=11	Second Component High Dependency With Joint Program Initiation n=7	Third Component High Dependency High Joint Program Intensity n=8
Public-Old-Large	36% (4)	29% (2)	50% (4)
Private-old-Small	27% (3)	43% (3)	25% (2)
High Diversity-Low Professionalism-Distributive Mode	27% (3)	43% (3)	25% (2)
High Diversity-High Professionalism-Treatment Mode	27% (3)	29% (2)	38% (3)
High Diversity-High Professionalism-Distributive Mode	27% (3)	29% (2)	25% (2)

however, the single profile with a frequency of two is
the old and small private agency with high diversity and
professionalism and a distributive mode.

Overall Interpretation

Public as well as private agencies appear to follow
a bi-modal pattern in associating their relative depend-
ency levels with either high or low Joint Program fre-
quency, initiation, or intensity. Thus, an analysis of
the data supports the conclusion that one group of public
agencies manages its dependency with joint program activ-
ity; another group does not coalesce programs or services
with other agencies, and thus may manage dependency with
domain consensus alone. In addition, public agencies
initiate Joint Programs at a considerably lower average
level than do private agencies; yet at the same time,
their frequency is comparable and their intensity of
commitment is considerably stronger.

Whether large or small, then, the young public
agency indicates a high Domain Dependency; however, the
data confirms that this agency type fails to go beyond
any domain consensus into Joint Program activity. Since
this group of public agencies already often has money
and a legislative mandate for its role, a consensus of
community support for reaching clients, establishing
credibility and obtaining supportive services, is appro-
priate. Domain consensus accomplishes this goal, and
therefore, this organizational strategy can serve as a

precondition of Joint Program activity.

If a public agency finds it possible to attain con-
sensus without a real surrender of power or autonomy, it
is successfully pursuing an environmental strategy of
formal cooptation. Here, as Selznick (1949) had empha-
sized, no central decision-making power is sacrificed and
therefore there is no substantive transfer or sharing of
power with environmental elements. Yet, the organization
benefits from structured lines of communications and
feedback from the relevant environments and the protec-
tive "coloration" and support afforded by community
boards and advisory committees.

Admittedly, the appearance and structure of shared
authority over a long period of time may lead to a real
sharing of power. Increased age, size and service diver-
sity may also induce a perception of Resource Dependency
to reinforce the agency's need to continually maintain
and renew its domain consensus. The data indicate that
this pattern fits another group of public agencies --
the older and larger public agencies with high diversity
-- and this type of agency has a high frequency partici-
pation in Joint Programs.

The older and larger public agency in the community
begins both to resemble and to complement the old line
private human service agency. It begins to resemble the
private in its gradual acceptance of community values
and norms, rules of inter-agency relations, attitudes

of its personnel, its operational procedures, and its
approach to service delivery. The public agency, in bar-
gaining for continued local consensus, also is motivated
to increasingly complement and support private agency
efforts in service delivery. Among these efforts, Joint
Programs and other forms of program cooperation become
appropriate and appealing for the public agency. More-
over, high diversity and larger size generate both
resource deficiencies and resource surpluses. Thus,
these agencies perceive Joint Programs as a means to
obtain needed external resources for program and service
delivery; at the same time, they are able to utilize un-
needed internal resources more efficiently in the more
varied inter-agency delivery system.

These older, larger and more diverse public agencies
do not _initiate_ Joint Programs as frequently as do private
agencies; however, their _intensity_ of commitment is much
stronger when they _are_ involved. The larger size and high
service diversity of these agencies helps explain the high
intensity commitment. _The low initiation appears to_
relate to the fact that Resource Dependency among private
agencies is a stronger spur to initiate Joint Programs
than is Domain Dependency among public agencies. _Resource_
dependency is short term, immediate, compelling and
directly related to service delivery. _Domain dependency_
is a longer term, community support phenomenon which is
indirectly related to programs and services.

Private agencies stand out even more decisively in
a bi-modal pattern: the small and old private agency
that indicates high dependency and high Joint Program
frequency and initiation, and to a lesser extent inten-
sity; and the small and young private agency that per-
ceives low dependency and low Joint Program frequency
and initiation.

The small and old private agency already possesses
a strong domain consensus in the community and it is
moved to initiate and participate in Joint Programs on
the basis of resource needs for innovation or expansion
rather than for community acceptance and support. How-
ever, both because of smaller size and specific resource
needs, these private agencies have a less intense commit-
ment to their Joint Programs. Generally, these agencies
tend to have high diversity, but show a mixed pattern in
professionalism level. A distributive mode of work is
highly associated with Joint Program initiation, and the
level of association is identical to that of private
auspices with a distributive mode. Private agencies
that are distributive would tend to perceive the need
for inter-agency links for treatment support and follow-
up. In general, the distributive agency perceives inter-
agency dependency more crucially than the treatment
agency as the former often measures progress on the
basis of effective referrals and access to support
facilities.

This private agency pattern adheres to the Aiken and Hage construct of joint activity for the purpose of obtaining resources for innovations and to meet the increasing needs of agency complexity and diversity. The private agency pattern is the young and small private agency with low service diversity, low staff professionalism and a distribute mode. This pattern reflects low dependency and low Joint Program activity. The combination of private status, small size and low diversity appear strong elements in support of resource independence. Older age and high diversity are consistently the highest correlates of Joint Program activity, and these agencies are on the opposite end of the continuum -- with less age and diversity. Thus, youthful age tends to indicate few slack or surplus resources for exchange, a concentration on internal policies and operations, an unwillingness to surrender autonomy until more organizational confidence and stability evolves, and a dearth of inter-agency knowledge and community contacts. Low service diversity reinforces these factors in that it indicates narrow agency objectives, often a concentrated and stable client population, and little need for inter-agency coalition.

Across both public and private agencies, therefore, Resource Dependency appears a stronger motivation toward Joint Programs than Domain Dependency. Though Resource Dependency is more prevalent among private agencies, both

public and private agencies appear to perceive it as a pre-condition to joint activity. On the other hand, Domain Dependency appears to be rather neutral to joint activity and to serve as a substitute for the Joint Programs as often as it leads to them. However, when the public agency does commit itself it does so more intensely than does the private. This outcome may not only be associated with the larger size of public agencies, but also with the fact that the inter-agency trust generated through domain consensus has overcome inter-agency restraint and supported a fuller commitment of the agency.

Though high service diversity and older status are the characteristics that are closely associated with Joint Program frequency, initiation and intensity, a less obvious fact emerges from analysis of the hypothesized relationship. The private and distributive type agency is associated considerably more with the initiation of Joint Programs than it is with frequency or intensity. This outcome emphasizes that Joint Program initiatives come from non-mandated, resource-dependent and high-complexity agencies in the more competitive sector of our economy. Thus, the pressure of competition and the press for innovation appears to induce inter-agency activity. This activity occurs as a result both of intra-agency sub-system competition and inter-agency community delivery system competition.

High diversity feeds on additional resources, both inter-
nally and externally. The distributive mode of work
fortifies the propensity to engage in Joint Programs
based on a perceived external dependency related to the
servicing job itself. When these characteristics are
combined -- private, high diversity, distributive status
-- agency association with Joint Programs is strong
indeed.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

The Original Purpose

This research represented one phase in a multi-step
sequence of empirical studies of local human service
agencies. An ultimate goal of the series of studies was
to provide planners and administrators with reliable in-
formation for the design of human or social service pro-
grams for an entire urban area rather than specialized
segments of the population. Effective and efficient
community-wide delivery of services, then, served as
the criterion that unified the series of research phases.
The immediate objective of the empirical studies was to
specify the conditions under which public and private
human service agencies integrate and coordinate their
resources into a community delivery system. In practi-
cal terms, the researcher hoped to assess the feasibil-
ity of a multi-services center concept and to increase
the efficiency of client servicing. The cooperation of
the United Way and its member agencies in the community
enabled the research team to perform the studies empir-
ically.

The specific phase of the empirical studies that
is covered in this research involved the measurement

and analysis of agency characteristics, dependency and

Joint Program activity. Data from these factors were

to increase understanding of "why?" and "under what con-

ditions?" interorganizational cooperation took place.

In turn, an understanding of the correlates and possible

causes of inter-agency cooperation and joint activity

assists in answering the four questions posed in the

Introduction. They were:

1. How do individual agencies that have grown
   in specialization, professional compe-
   tencies, and autonomy, react to a chang-
   ing environment that appears to require
   negotiation, coordination, and possibly
   coalitions with other agencies?

2. Are these agencies inclined toward compe-
   tition and conflict or cooperation and
   joint activity in their inter-agency
   relations?

3. What specific agency characteristics and
   conditions are associated with Joint
   Program activity?

4. Are inter-agency cooperation and coali-
   tions compatible with agency pursuit
   of organizational effectiveness?

In order to measure and attempt to answer these questions,

the survey instrument and research design provided for an

analytical breakdown of agency characteristics, relative

levels of agency dependency, and Joint Program activity

(whether frequency, initiation, or intensity was involved).

The agency characteristic of private versus public auspices

was examined more specifically, and its correlates and in-

fluence were analyzed and interpreted in more detail than

were the other characteristics.

Interorganizational theory, both in general and specific to the research problem, was reviewed, evaluated and linked to the research objectives.

The theoretical purpose involved the use of the case study approach to analyze organizational characteristics and interorganizational relations within a descriptive research framework. In this way, the researcher planned to extend empirically organizational classification and comparison systems, common organizational terminology and attributes for interorganizational research, and a research design and methodology amenable to extension and replication.

Theoretical Basis

The theoretical framework supporting the research direction is based on streams of thought and theory development from social psychology, economics, organizational sociology and psychology, and the administrative sciences. The concepts include: exchange theory; power and control, and its balancing with environmental agents; organizational-environmental interaction for both effectiveness and resources; and cooperative or competitive models for interorganizational relations.

Essentially, the question posed in the research design is: Are cooperation and coordination among human service agencies feasible and mutually advantageous in the particular community studied? In general, interorganizational and economic theory is negative to these

outcomes unless competition for scarce resources and
favorable exchanges dictates the cooperation. Utilizing
this theoretical rationale, Aiken and Hage (1968) related
key internal variables -- organizational complexity,
innovation, communication, de-centralization and low
formalization -- to Joint Program activity among health
and welfare agencies. They concluded from their empir-
ical evidence that increases in division of labor stim-
ulate complexity and innovation, and the need for resources
to support such innovations promotes interdependent rela-
tions with other organizations -- namely, Joint Programs.

This dissertation posed two dependency models in
order to explain interorganizational cooperation in the
form of Joint Programs.

The Resource Dependency or "Innovation" Model builds
on the Aiken and Hage rationale in which cooperation and
competition are integrated within the same framework.
Thus, in pursuing goals for internal effectiveness, organ-
izational sub-units differentiate increasingly from each
other and internal diversity is heightened. Innovation
evolves out of the diversity as subsystems compete, and
Resource Dependency develops as the organization seeks
resources to fuel the innovations. Resource exchange
through formalized commitments such as Joint Programs
is an attractive alternative for overcoming the resource
deficiency at a relatively low cost in organizational
autonomy.

The Domain Dependency or "Consensus" Model evolves principally from the Selznick, Levine and White, and Thompson concepts of cooptation and domain. Therefore, in pursuit of environmental adaptation for external effectiveness, the organization seeks power and control in its task and contextual environments. Interorganizational or environmental power is attained by the establishment and extension of the organizational domain. In order to effectively assert domain, the organization seeks to secure a consensus for its functions and goals among agents in its relevant environment. However, in managing its environmental dependency through domain consensus, the organization acquires a Domain Dependency. This problem occurs because the continuation of domain is dependent on continued agreement or consensus from environmental agents. The focal organization may then attempt to diminish or control the dependency by cooptation (Selznick, 1949), or overcome it through interagency coalitions such as Joint Programs.

It was proposed in this research that Organizational Dependency, whether in the form of Resource or Domain Dependency, would tend to lead to Joint Programs. Further, it was posited that public agencies tended to evolve into Domain Dependency and private agencies tended to experience Resource Dependency.

Practical Basis

The research is intended to develop more systematic and useful information for people in public policy and community decision positions in order to raise the efficiency and effectiveness of human service delivery in the community. Presumably, an important step in this direction involves the cooperation and coordination of local agencies, and sometimes the integration and joint delivery of their programs and services. The need appears crucial to coordinate and unify at the implementation level the myriad legal, legislative and budgeting initiatives for programs and services that originate at higher levels of government or private organizations. If the largely autonomous human service agencies in communities do not develop coordinated and integrated systems for program delivery, their resources and services will often be inefficiently utilized and distributed. A failure at the operational level due to an information and coordination vacuum or barrier not only deprives clients of services but also may unfairly discredit the agency and the program. Moreover, efficiencies achieved through increased inter-agency cooperation not only make the cost and benefit comparison more favorable but they also add to system credibility and service penetration into the community.

On a long term basis, agencies in the community may expect increasingly scarce dollars and resources generally

to divide within the community. Thus, local officials

probably will feel pressured to utilize the economies

of integration and coordination of service delivery for

efficiency and decision rationality.

Finally, human service agencies are growing in num-

bers and influence in this country, and they are increas-

ingly typical of organizational prototypes. For example,

among their attributes are the following characteristics

that are growing in importance:

1. their collegial structure, with professional, technical and administrative personnel pri-marily;

2. the composition of their personnel in terms of largely white collar, almost entirely service-producing and with a large per-centage of women;

3. their non-profit character;

4. their private and public interface and (often) integration of planning, funding, servicing and evaluation;

5. their focus in the area of "helping" occupa-tions, a job area that is growing rapidly.

Theoretical Implications of the Data

The integration of competition and cooperation in

the same model -- envisioned by Aiken and Hage -- appears

operative in the interorganizational relations of human

service agencies in this case study. Thus, the rationale

for inter-agency cooperation and coordination appears to

be competitive advantage. This advantage is attained

and maintained through favorable inter-agency exchanges

for scarce and valued resources. Thus, the foundation

laid by Homan's exchange theory and Levine and White's
element exchange with other agencies for goal achieve-
ment appear relevant and appropriate among the human
service agencies in this community.

Agency awareness of community and inter-agency allo-
cation of scarce resources and the competitive realities
associated with this perception, then, incites the agency
to joint activity. Individual agencies react to rival
agency attempts to gain favored positions competitively
by differentiating and innovating their programs and
services. In turn, this internal activity leads to more
symbiotic relations with other agencies. As a result,
resource needs between agencies are complementary and
Joint Programs are both appealing and profitable to the
agencies concerned.

The process by which this pattern occurs appears
to confirm the Aiken and Hage competition-cooperation
model. The Resource Dependency perceived by coalescing
private agencies supports the concept that goal achieve-
ment and environmental advantage for agency growth in-
spire the inter-agency cooperation rather than client
needs, service rationality or community-wide servicing
imperatives. Thus, agency perceptions of scarce funds
and sponsors, scarce professionals, scarce legal status,
scarce clients, and even scarce programs and services
to be allocated among agencies, results in inter-agency
cooperation based on economic competition. In turn,

agencies associate their effectiveness with the ease
and favorableness of the exchanges for the scarce and
valued resources. Aiken and Hage's relating of these
exchanges with agency innovation and internal complex-
ity and differentiation appears to be supported for the
private agencies in particular. Thus, as Aldrich has
confirmed, the cumulative effect of research and theo-
rizing for the past decade has been the development of
a resource dependence model of organization-environment
interaction.

Public agencies, in contrast, adhere to a somewhat
different theoretical path. The domain consensus con-
ceptualized and tested by Levine and White and later
confirmed conceptually by Thompson, as a precondition
for joint exchanges and activity, represents a substi-
tute as well as a facilitator for Joint Program involve-
ment. Analogous to the Selznick concept of formal coop-
tation, domain consensus may obtain environmental support
for agency functions and goals at little or no cost in
autonomy. Successful cooptation and its maintenance may
entirely obviate the need for joint activity possibly
until a Resource Dependency actually materializes.
Thus, the theory of domain consensus in terms of its
direct association with interorganizational activity
and particularly Joint Programs may be misleading.
Unless certain intervening factors are present, domain
consensus may be a desirable and viable organizational

state *in itself*.

What factors would tend to stimulate public agencies to translate domain consensus into joint activity? Two patterns may result in inter-agency cooperation. If the agency is relatively large and complex in both services and staff professionals, domain consensus may lead to Joint Programs. Thus, large agencies with high diversity and high professionalism greatly increase propensities to engage in Joint Programs whether the agency is private or public. And, if the public agency is both domain and resource dependent to a degree, joint activity may ensue.

Therefore, the agency may perceive Domain Dependency and seek a domain consensus either to manage the dependency or as an intermediate step toward inter-agency activity; or the agency may perceive domain and resource *independence* and refrain from any joint activity. In any event, the agencies do not view inter-agency cooperation and Joint Programs as an *a priori* good. Instead, the perception of dependency motivates them to seek consensus and/or Joint Programs in order to manage, control, limit and predict future dependency. As the data findings attest, agencies perceiving *low* dependency tend not to coalesce with other agencies regardless of the virtues and ultimate advantages to the community that may be present. Since the competition for scarce and needed resources is the key to the cooperative mode, the Joint Programs continue as long as the dependency is recognized

and outweighs the price paid in reduced autonomy.

Certain assumptions and hypotheses of Aiken and Hage appear confirmed by the data. They include:

1. the association of organizational diversity with innovation which in turn creates Resource Dependency, and therefore, a need for Joint Programs to gain necessary resources;

2. organizational tendencies to maximize gains and minimize losses in obtaining resources;

3. heightened interdependence is associated with internal diversity; and

4. a high decree of complexity varies directly with a high number of Joint Programs.

In this research, the dichotomizing of dependency into resource and domain related, and the association of these dependencies principally with private and public agencies respectively, helps explain the rationale for the results, and this distinction may be helpful for future studies in inter-agency relations. The multicomponent index of inter-agency commitment through Joint Program intensity extends the work of Reid in detailing levels of coordination and may serve as a departure point for future Joint Program intensity levels. Finally, the profiles of agency characteristics and their typical modes, their relationships to each other and to the hypothesis posed, furnish one empirical reality of human service agencies. These profiles and individual characteristics serve as testable and replicable variables and relationships for

additional case studies, and eventually for more systematic and comparative organizational research in the future.

Practical Implications of the Data

The economics of competition and scarcity of resources appear to be stronger agency motivations or pre-conditions for inter-agency cooperation than are community acceptance and consensus in support of the agency role or the effective satisfaction of client needs, or the welfare and advancement of community-wide service delivery or even agency survival in the long run. Competition, usually for scarce and valued resources in the environment, is a more substantial reality for organizational effectiveness than is cooperation for client and community effectiveness. In the absence of profit margins, the human service agency's criterion for progress and success is the growth and proliferation of programs and clients often at the expense of other agencies. Size and diversity tend to offer institutional security and a perception that the agency is getting a larger slice of the pie vis-a-vis its competitors.

Organizational Dependency, then, is associated with inter-agency cooperation in the form of Joint Programs but in a somewhat different way than expected from the theory development. Resource Dependency appears to be a notably stronger correlate of Joint

Program initiation and activity than is Domain Dependency.
The rationale _for_ and the effects _of_ Domain Dependency
and consensus correspond to Selznick's formal cooptation.
This environmental activity represents less a transfer
of control or decision-making to the environment than it
does a strategy for goal attainment and environmental
adaptation with no substantive loss of autonomy. The
attainment of domain consensus by the public agency es-
pecially furnishes a sufficient appearance of cooperation
and integration with the community that Joint Program
activity may become superfluous for agency purposes.
Domain consensus in the form of community boards and
advisory groups then substitutes for inter-agency coali-
tions for joint service delivery. For example, the Co-
operative Extension Service or the State Employment Ser-
vice may solicit advice and constitute advisory boards,
but they may not seek or participate in Joint Programs
unless and until a Resource Dependency supplements
their perceived need for domain consensus.

On the other hand, when public agencies that per-
ceive Domain Dependency _do_ coalesce with other agencies,
they indicate high intensity commitment to Joint Pro-
grams. This outcome is probably related both to their
larger average size and to the contact and trust already
established through consensus structures and agents.

Public and private agencies do differ perceptibly,
then, in the dependency perceived and in organizational

response to the perception. Joint Program <u>initiation</u> is strongly associated with older, highly diverse private agencies; Joint Program <u>intensity of commitment</u> is associated especially with older, larger and highly diverse public agencies; and high frequency of Joint Programs is associated with <u>both</u> public and private agencies. However, private agency status is a more substantial factor in the findings because a number of low dependency private agencies are highly correlated with the low Joint Program frequency. Thus, a sub-group of private agencies perceive both domain and resource <u>inde-pendence</u>. They are the older, smaller, and less diverse private agencies that are relatively stable and secure in resource support and clients.

<u>To an extent therefore, public and private agencies</u> <u>have and mutually perceive a symbiotic relationship in</u> <u>their inter-agency relations. The public tends to pos-</u> <u>sess domain and to seek resources. The extent of the</u> <u>Joint Program activity depends upon how essential and</u> <u>non-substitutable are the resource or domain needs in</u> <u>the agency's pursuit of its own effectiveness</u>.

Older age status and high diversity then represent the best correlates of Joint Program frequency, initiation and intensity among agencies. Older agencies often have valued and slack resources for exchange, agency confidence and coalition experience, a secure funding base, and often, resource depth for potential exchanges.

The number of services and increased complexity of high
diversity agencies create multiple interactions with
sub-environments, multiplied and expanded resouce needs,
more differentiation and innovation, and a pressure for
environmentally available resources. When older age and
high service diversity are combined, their strength and
consistency in sustaining the hypothesis in this research
tend to override other agency characteristics.

Since market competition and perceptions of resource
scarcity are dominant elements of inter-agency behavior,
Joint Programs evolve as cooperative in form and content
but competitive and directed toward market advantage in
intent and motivation. If this market motivation is
recognized and dealt with by agencies or individuals who
are attempting to unify delivery systems or improve client
service in the community, then considerably more hope
exists for inter-agency cooperation. For example, in
encouraging inter-agency cooperation, a community fed-
eration or the United Way would stress resource and
market advantages of Joint Programs rather than community
welfare, client benefits or servicing efficiencies. Fur-
ther, groups committed to increased integration of human
services would underscore the rigidities, survival prob-
lems, and competitive disadvantages, and the insecure
organizational future, associated with either Resource
or Domain Dependency. In this way, change agents and
community integrative organizations are responding to

agency perceptions of reality instead of operating from their own a priori or rational version of agency reality.

In line with this thinking, the domain consensus sought by public agencies would be viewed as a strategy for injecting the agency into the community service delivery scheme permanently rather than an idealized shared decision system for client and community input. The Resource Dependency that leads to Joint Programs primarily among private agencies would be viewed as an attempt to maintain or enhance market position rather than improve program relevance or client servicing. In turn, the new Joint Program then may attract scarce and mobile professionals into an agency's orbit, and further, create new agency expertise for other programs or possibly "going it alone" in the future.

Community integration organizations may utilize two other helpful strategies for increasing coalitions. The first would be the highlighting and facilitating of the symbiotic relationships possible between public and private agencies, between treatment and distributive types, and between professional and non-professionally oriented agencies. The complementary roles that are possible have advantageous implications for both agencies in each of these cases.

Secondly, the real possibility of a larger resource pie to split rather than a static level of total resources in the community may motivate the agencies

toward increased coordination and cooperation. Thus, an expanding market of available funds, professionals, clients and service needs may expand agency thinking beyond assumptions about the existing market.

A strong dose of reality therapy for community planners and agency administrators alike would be a priority for the more effective coordination of human service delivery in the community. This reality would recognize the agency's need for success criteria and community-recognized measures comparable to profit margins and market positions in private industry.

Limitations of the Research

The phenomena discussed and predicted principally are within a short run framework. Therefore, it is difficult to be confident about the relative persistence or variability of the characteristics and patterns over long periods of time. Further, the relatively small number of agencies and their individual idiosyncratic characters prevented a more intensive and analytical breakdown of characteristics and component variables. For example, wide differences existed among agencies in size, age, nature of programs, administrative structure, affiliations, and level of dependency. The matrix of these characteristics defied specific patterns to a notable degree.

The researcher becomes aware of the complexities and interventions of multiple factors in the tracing of

organizational-level patterns and behavior. In the rare instances in which a cause-effect pattern appears clear, the timing and intensity of the components are subject to doubt. Therefore, conclusions are to be regarded as general points of departure for future research. As a case study in the relatively new area of interorganizational relations, the research emphasis is on developing common variables and a replicable design for future studies.[1]

Directions for Future Research

Local human service agencies represent an increasingly prevalent form of organization in our country, and their relative importance has grown rapidly. Yet, most case studies and comparative organization research have involved the more traditional industrial organization -- product-producing, predominantly blue collar, private enterprise, and often exceptionally large. Future organizations will tend to be service oriented, largely white collar, sometimes in private and public partnership, and composed of a mixture of scientific, professional and technical employees. Further, local autonomy and decentralization of large organizations are making the smaller, autonomous agency at the community level more typical. Therefore, the emphasis in empirical research

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[1] The Assumptions sub-section in Chapter III, Part I, lists the limitations inherent in the research design and the empirical setting.

should acknowledge this trend and more resources should
be put into these types of organizations.

In terms of methodology, longitudinal studies at
the <u>organizational level</u> as well as at the <u>sub-system</u>
level are needed. The legitimacy and value of individ-
ual, small group and department level research has been
long established; but the treatment of the organization
itself as researchable and not merely the sum of compo-
nent studies of its parts is essential.

It is increasingly important to factor in and eval-
uate <u>contextual</u> factors of organizations in addition to
the more immediate task environment factors when research-
ing organizational-level and interorganizational phenom-
ena. The more porous organization boundaries and the
multiplied interfaces between organization and community
agents and institutions demand a more scientific appraisal
and measurement of contextual factors. This approach is
more realistic in that it acknowledges the changing
values in the organization-community relationship. For
example, environmental and consumer concerns have given
rise to both an organizational presence in the community
and also, a pervasive effect on the community image of
organizational responsibility and responsiveness. In
time, this community value induces organizational infor-
mation-sharing and eventually, decision-sharing with
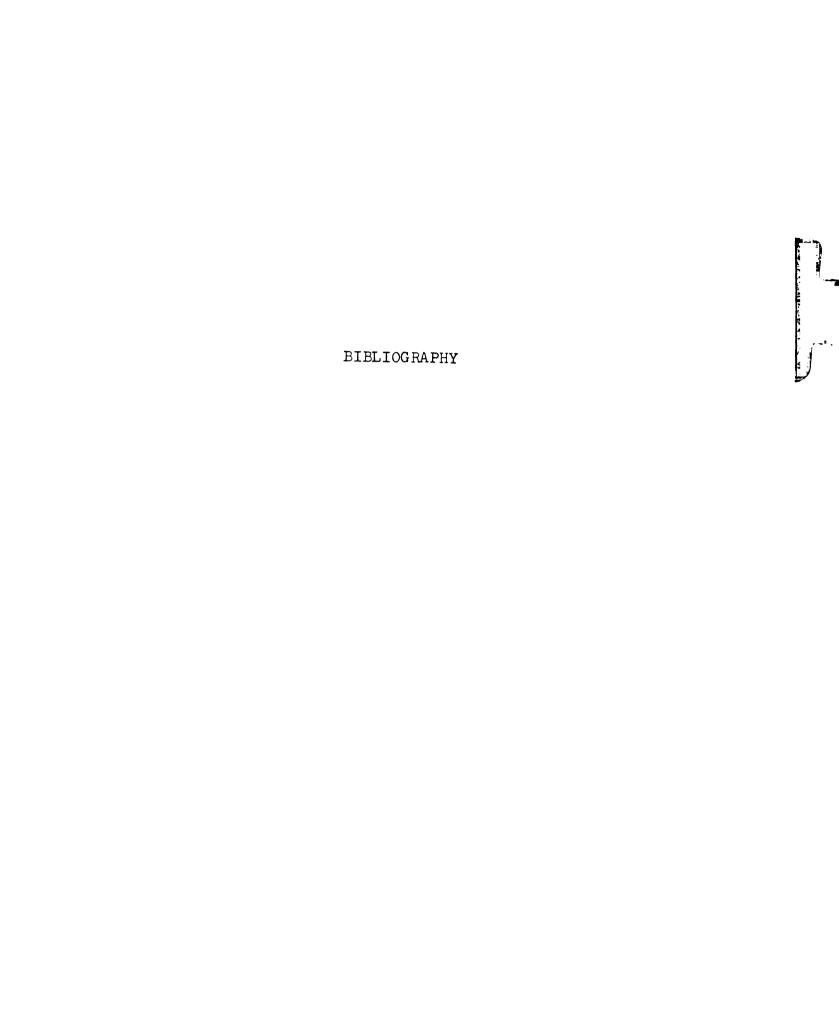community elements.

In researching organizations, both a quantitative comparative and an inductive, case study approach are necessary. The former method systematizes variables and multiplies inferences by an analytical breakdown of system characteristics and the study of precise and limited organizational characteristics in large numbers and over a period of time. The case study approach is needed for an understanding of the total reality of the on-going organization and its uniquely system-wide and system-level phenomena. Valuable perspective could be added to inductive-type case studies if the organizations could be standardized for comparisons according to <u>stage of growth</u>.

In the non-profit and profit-oriented service organizations, research is needed to understand and cope with the relationship of self-regarding organizational propensities toward goal displacement, goal succession and oligarchy on the one hand and the organizational motivation to de-centralize decisions, respond to client or customer need, and to compete effectively in meeting those needs. This paradox of organizational behavior may be mediated and resolved by the market reality of competition for scarce resources and the cooperative modes that may flow from competitive considerations. These patterns merit further empirical exploration.

More interorganizational research should be pursued in which the concepts of micro and macro economics,

political science and ecological psychology and sociol-
ogy are integrated with the more accepted and traditional
disciplines in organizational studies. For example,
economic concepts of competition and scarcity and eco-
logical principles of community influence and power,
both have relevance. The organizational and environ-
mental concepts of domain, domain consensus, dependency
and Joint Programs, also are useful in pursuing system-
atic interorganizational research.

In research content, more attention should be paid
to the environmental context of organizations and of
the community. An objective such as an effective, com-
munity-wide, social service delivery system involves
extra-organizational and unstructured processes that
must be researched directly rather than as fallout or
by-products of organizational behavior. As Emery and
Trist have pointed out, the environments that surround
organizations are increasingly turbulent and unpredict-
able. For the empirical researcher, even the unpredict-
able must be fitted into a predictable framework when
causal or contaminating forces are at work. In this
way, even hazardous and hedged predictions contain more
validity because they embrace a more comprehensive
reality.

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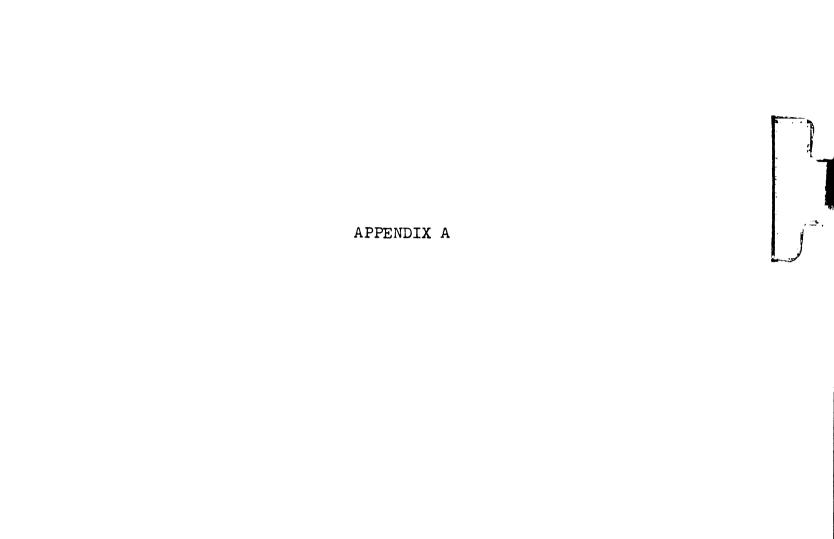Thompson, James D. Organizations in Action. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

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APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

GLOSSARY OF KEY TERMS

Coalition: A cooperative strategy involving the combi-
nation of two or more organizations for a common purpose,
and the commitment of resource(s) of value in order to
conduct a joint program or render a service. (Reid,
1964)

Domain: "The specific goals the organization wishes to
pursue and the functions it undertakes in order to imple-
ment its goals." (Levine and White, 1961, p. 597)

> Operational definition: "The claims that
> an organization stakes out for itself in
> terms of 1) need, program, service, i.e.,
> substantive area of need covered; 2) popu-
> lation served; 3) range of services
> rendered." (Levine and White, 1961,
> p. 597)

Contextual Environment: Normative and diffuse elements
in the environment that indirectly influence the organi-
zation, e.g., the media or political authority.

Coordinating Agency: A formal organization whose major
purpose is to order behavior between two or more other
formal organizations. (Litwak and Hylton, 1962)

Differentiation: "State of segmentation of the organi-
zational system into subsystems, each of which tends to
develop particular attributes in relation to the require-
ments posed by its relevant external environment."
(Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967, pp. 3-4)

Domain Consensus: Common agreement, formal or informal,
among relevant organizations in the task and contextual
environments on the extent and limits of each organiza-
tion's functions and goals.

> Operational definition: "The degree to
> which they (agencies) agree and accept
> each others' claims with regard to prob-
> lems covered, services offered and

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population served." (Levine, White,
and Paul, 1963, p. 1191)

Effectiveness: Organizationally, the question of "what
to do," i.e., policy and allocative decisions for goal
achievement internally and environmental adaptation
externally.

Efficiency: The criterion for operational progress and
success of the organization, within the framework of the
organizational effectiveness criterion; organizationally,
the question of "how to do it," i.e., coordinative,
instrumental and technical decisions for a favorable
cost-benefit ratio.

Human Service Organizations:

Private Agencies -- United Way: Formally organized,
task-oriented group which provides at least one
social service as defined in the functional budget-
ing guide of United Way of America (UWA). Main
objective is providing social services to people,
either at the individual or group level. (Organi-
zations primarily offering services and programs
in the fields of health, education, recreation,
and law enforcement are excluded even though they
may offer a social service.) All United Way
agencies are included.

Private Agencies -- Other: Organization must have
a paid, full-time equivalent staff of at least
five persons and an annual budget of at least
$10,000. Work must be directed primarily toward
the provision of social services (see above for
exclusions), and the staff must be directly
employed. The organization must have its own
policy-making body with power to hire and fire
and to determine the allocation of funds.

Public Agencies: Organizations primarily depend-
ent upon tax funds, federal, state, regional or
local, which have as their major function provi-
sion of social services as described in the
United Way Agency guide. Funding sources may
include contributions and grants from non-public
sources.

Public Agencies -- Component: At least five full-
time equivalent paid staff and a yearly budget of
$10,000. The director must have power to hire
and fire staff without consultation with the
parent organization, and considerable freedom

to determine funding allocations. There may be some kind of semi-autonomous, governing body or at least an advisory body. A generally recognized community visibility as an agency is important.

Integration: "The process of achieving unity of effort among the various subsystems in the accomplishment of the organization's task." (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967, p. 4)

Joint Program: A formalized integration of resources between two or more organizations for the purpose of jointly delivering programs or services.

> **Operational definition:** Service-oriented relationships involving the use of resources of two or more autonomous human service organizations; the activities must be planned, formalized to some extent, approved (formally or informally) by a policy body or by staff decision; and the relationship must be durable and contemporary, i.e., in operation for at least six months, and in existence sometime during the past five years.

Organizational Dependency (External Decision Control): Efficacy or control regarding organizational decisions and outcomes is perceived to be external to the organization's boundaries.

Organizational Exchange: Any voluntary activity between two (or more) organizations which has consequences, actual or anticipated, for the realization of their respective goals or objectives. (Levine and White, 1961, p. 583)

Power: "Ability to exercise influence in a decision-making process." (Hawley, 1973, p. 422).

Resource: Tangible or intangible elements of value (exchanged by organizations); may be economic, social, or psychological in nature, e.g., money; staff; space; affect; good will; information; access; social or legal approval.

Subsystem: A component operating unit or department of an organization.

Task Environment: Direct functional linkages and elements in the environment that are relevant or potentially relevant to goal setting and attainment of an organization, e.g., clients. (Adapted from Dill, 1958).

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

SURVEY QUESTIONS FOR MEASUREMENT

ORGANIZATIONAL DEPENDENCY[1]

(Part II of questionnaire). Which of the five persons,
groups of things (on an attached list) exert the most
influence over decisions about each of the following:

> (Twenty-five decisions are listed
> labeled (a.) through (y.). For each
> decision item, space is indicated
> for the five top choices from a list
> of persons, groups and things. The
> listing of internal versus external
> influences is included in the Method-
> ology Section of Chapter III.)

---

[1] See the pages following for the survey format.

THIS LIST IS USED FOR QUESTIONS ON NEXT PAGE

LIST OF PERSONS, GROUPS AND THINGS WHICH MAY
EXERT INFLUENCE ON DECISIONS

1. Board or Commission of your agency

2. Board of Greater Kalamazoo United Way

3. Businessmen

4. Clients

5. Directors of other agencies

6. Funding organizations

7. General public

8. Labor groups

9. Local government officials and politicians

10. Local, state or federal laws

11. Minority groups

12. Money

13. Need for new or additional services

14. Parent organizations (national or state)

15. Professional standards

16. President/Chairman of Board/ Commission of this agency

17. Previous Board/Commission members

18. Professional staff in this agency

19. Professionals employed by other agencies

20. Religious groups or clergy

21. Requirements of governmental funding agencies or organizations

22. Staff of Greater Kalamazoo United Way

23. Staff of other agencies and organizations

24. Upper level staff in this agency

25. Lower level staff in this agency

26. Volunteers

27. You, yourself

28. State or federal governmental officials or politicians

29. Sponsoring organization or agency

30. Other, please specify

In informal interviews in several communities, agency directors have described the many conflicting pressures experienced in administering local agencies within the limited resources available. Because this problem of multiple pressures is so important in the planning of human services, we need to collect systematic information for it to be really useful in planning to improve services. The questions which follow are the best method we have found to collect the necessary information.

On the page to your left is a list of persons, groups and things that may have an influence over decisions in your agency. In the spaces provided below each question, please write in the number or name of the five persons, groups or things on the list which exert the most influence over each of the decisions. Look over the entire list to familiarize yourself with it before you begin. Please do not write more than five answers; you may write in fewer than five if that is appropriate. If you select 'other', please specify. If none, please write in NONE.

To illustrate, here is an example:

Which of the five on the list exert the most influence over your decision to help us by answering this question?

(1) _15_   (2) _27_   (3) 30 - Prestige of NSU   (4) _30 - need for information_   (5) _—_

7. Which five persons, groups, or things exert the most influence over decisions about each of the following:

a. The decision to develop new programs? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

b. The decisions concerning planning to meet local needs? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

c. The decision to seek funding from a new source? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

d. The decision to create new services? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

e. The decision to eliminate services? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

USE LIST ON THE PAGE TO YOUR LEFT

f. The decision to expand services? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____ (4)_____ (5)_____

g. The decision to write proposals for funding? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____ (4)_____ (5)_____

h. The decision to make rules and regulations? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____ (4)_____ (5)_____

i. The decision to publicly debate agency's opponents? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____ (4)_____ (5)_____

j. The decision for location of agency offices and service centers? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____ (4)_____ (5)_____

k. The decision to advertise the agency? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____ (4)_____ (5)_____

l. The decision to recruit volunteers? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____ (4)_____ (5)_____

m. The decision to fire volunteers? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____ (4)_____ (5)_____

n. The decision to increase work load of staff? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____ (4)_____ (5)_____

o. The decision to fix and/or raise salaries? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____ (4)_____ (5)_____

p. The decision to classify jobs? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____ (4)_____ (5)_____

USE LIST ON THE PAGE TO YOUR LEFT

q. The decision to make staff promotions? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

r. The decision to create new positions? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

s. The decision to hire administrative staff? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

t. The decision to hire professional staff? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

u. The decision to hire clerical staff? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

v. The decision to fire administrative staff? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

w. The decision to fire professional staff? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

x. The decision to bring in own assistants? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

y. The decision to purchase office equipment? WRITE IN NUMBER OR NAME

(1)_____   (2)_____   (3)_____   (4)_____   (5)_____

SURVEY QUESTIONS FOR MEASUREMENT

JOINT PROGRAMS[1]

First Component of Hypothesis: The Frequency of Joint Programs

Survey Question:

Do you run any programs, projects or services with other Agencies or organizations? For instance, have you been involved in any joint programs over the past three or four years? How many?

(The interviewer is asked to probe a little to insure that this question is clearly understood and fully answered.)

Second Component of Hypothesis: The Initiation of Joint Programs

Survey Question:

How did this program begin? Who got it going? What agencies or organizations provided leadership?

(This series of questions is utilized in order to secure as clear an answer as possible as to which organization provided the original impetus.)

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[1] See the pages following for the survey format.

Third Component of Hypothesis: The Intensity of Joint Programs

Survey Questions:

1. Number of resources contributed to the joint program by the respondent agency

2. Number of times the agency committed its own funds to joint programs

3. Number of times the agency agreed to share authority over joint programs

4. Joint program characteristics:

    a) Its own name or title?
    b) Formal contract?
    c) Was it a voluntary agency commitment?
    c) Relative duration of the program?

    (A Joint Program Intensity Index is computed for all agencies on the basis of a point system representing the levels of organizational commitment to Joint Programs. The agency's relative level of intensity is determined, and the results are then dichotomized into high and low intensity agencies. The Index is included in the Methodology Section of Chapter III.)

20. Please identify any agencies with which you have formal contracts for services. WRITE IN NUMBERS/WORDS

    a._____ b._____ c._____ d._____ e._____

21. Do you run any programs, projects or services with other agencies or organizations? For instance, have you been involved in any joint programs over the past three or four years?

    ____yes ____no

    a. IF YES, about how many? _____ENTER NUMBER

    b. IF NO, PROBE A LITTLE. Perhaps the agency worked with some others on a community project; do you ever use another organization's building?

       EXPLORE THE QUESTION A LITTLE. DO NOT PRESS RESPONDENT TO TELL YOU ABOUT PROGRAMS. PROBE BECAUSE SOME RESPONDENTS DO NOT KNOW WHAT IS MEANT BY 'JOINT'.

       IF YOU LEARN ABOUT SOME JOINT PROGRAMS, RECORD NUMBER _____

       IF DEFINITE NO, GO TO QUESTION 23.

IF YOU GET POSITIVE RESPONSES, THEN ASK THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS FOR EACH JOINT PROGRAM. RECORD ANSWERS SEPARATELY FOR EACH ONE. SPACE IS PROVIDED TO RECORD INFORMATION ABOUT SIX PROGRAMS. IF RESPONDENT HAS INDICATED HIS AGENCY IS INVOLVED IN MORE THAN SIX, USE OTHER PAGES TO RECORD INFORMATION. ASK HIM TO DESCRIBE THE MOST IMPORTANT ONES, THE MAJOR ONES.

We need information about the joint programs your agency is or has been involved in during the last three or four years. Let's go through them quickly, one at a time, to be sure I get the details for the major ones clearly recorded.

TURN OVER PAGE TO BEGIN RECORDING

22. DETAILS OF JOINT PROGRAMS

		Program 1	Program 2
a.	What is the name of the program?		
b.	What is its content, scope; what goes on in the program?		
c.	What other agencies are involved?		
d.	How did this program begin? Who got it going? What agencies or organizations provided leadership?		
e.	Duration: (if ongoing) when did program begin? (if past) how long was program in operation?	months	months
f.	What does (did) your agency contribute (money, staff, clients, space, information, supervision, etc.)		
g.	What resources do (did) other agencies contribute? (see above)		
h.	Where does the money for this come from?		
i.	Staff: who works on this program? does it have its own staff? are they from agencies? are their volunteers involved?		
j.	How are decisions made? how are any disagreements or conflicts resolved?		
k.	Is there a formal contract?	____yes ____no	____yes ____no
l.	Are you pleased with the program? What are major problems, if any?		