Non-profit Organization in Bangladesh – Missions for Poverty Alleviation, Organizational Effectiveness and Issues for Future Development -A Case Study of Bangladesh Rural Advance Commission (BRAC)
This impact has generally depended on the extent of member’s involvement, quality of leadership, government policies and programs, availability of trained and qualified staff and structural support, but above all, the intrinsic ability of NPOs to serve their members. The success, moving from a low impact state to high impact state, of NPOs seems to depend on two major variables-the climate within which NPOs function and conditions of their working. Climate refers to the availability of external resources, government policy, and quality and character of government-NPO relations. The conditions for success include availability of trained and skilled staff, economic viability of operations, and the ability to efficiently meet member’s need for goods and services. The real challenge in the future shall lie in creating supportive climate and necessary conditions for success of NPOs. The study will provide a basic idea about the evaluation of the organizational effectiveness of NPOs and will identify the factors of organizational effectiveness. It will explore the relations of BRAC with other organizations in the society, and the potential and limitations for effective development partnership. The study will also identify the potential role and limitations of NPOs in poverty alleviation. The findings will be useful for important policy implication.

References
Paper Number: PA031405

Paper Title: Changing the World One Step at a Time:

Author(s):
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Summary of Research
This paper provides an in-depth look at the efforts of small- to mid-sized nonprofit organizations to contribute to social change based on a qualitative study of sixteen social change groups in two cities. In the paper we develop a typology of approaches to social change based on organizational mission and operations as well as interpretations offered by those working in these agencies. We then explore the linkages between these alternative approaches and such organizational characteristics as decision-making structure and sources of support. Finally, we consider the problematic relationship between building organizational capacity and contributing to a broader social mission.

Description
This paper provides an in-depth look at the efforts of small- to mid-sized nonprofit organizations to contribute to social change. Data are drawn from a larger project on leadership development in social-change organizations, in which we have examined 16 Boston and New York agencies that aim to effect greater economic and social equality through local advocacy, organizing, and service-provision. Our data come primarily from in-depth interviews with organization leaders and staff members, supplemented with organizational literature, informational tax returns, and both popular and scholarly accounts of these organizations. In this paper we develop a typology of approaches to social change based on organizational mission and operations as well as interpretations offered by those working in these agencies. We then explore the linkages between these alternative approaches and such organizational characteristics as decision-making structure and sources of support. Finally, we consider the problematic relationship between building organizational capacity and contributing to a broader social mission.

The paper takes up a number of issues that have been explored in different strands of the nonprofit literature and in other academic fields, but not usually integrated. For example, there has been an ongoing discussion about the role of organizations in mass movements for change (Piven and Cloward, McAdam, McCarthy); we examine the role of organizations working for change but outside of mass movements. Another literature looks at the forms of movement organizations (Morris, Minkoff), and there has been a growing interest in the role of specific types of social change nonprofits such as those engaged in advocacy and organizing organizations (Jenkins, Boris,et. al., Minkoff, Warren, Skocpol). Our study also looks at organizational form, but in the context of its relationship to particular models of social change other than the more common advocacy-vs-service typology. A piece of this relationship is the role of funding, which others have described as either creating or co-opting social movement organizations (Jenkins, Ostrander, Roelofs). Finally, several authors have written on the social change aspects of neighborhood, community-based, and/or grassroots organizations function as social change groups (Milofsky, Gittell, Horton Smith), and we expect to contribute directly to this area of scholarship.

A more complex mapping of different approaches to social change by grass-roots or community-based nonprofits should deepen our understanding of this portion of the sector. Enhanced understanding should contribute not only to scholarship on the nonprofit sector, but to practical designs for better accountability and effectiveness relevant to those working in the field.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

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Paper Number: PA031407

Paper Title: Competition and Cooperation among Organizations Serving an Ethnic Community: The Case of the Hmong Suicide Prevention Task Force

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Summary of Research
This paper describes the interorganizational relationships established by a task force that responded to an adolescent suicide crisis. The task force was explicitly established to design culturally appropriate services for the prevention of teen suicide within the Hmong community. The task force established preventative service programs by networking with government agencies. However, the task force was less successful in developing service capacity within the Hmong community due to traditional practices that limit decision-making authority to male clan leaders. In this paper, barriers to establishing linkages with existing ethnic organizations are examined.

Description
Ethnic organizations are often formed to provide services that are not offered to members of specific ethnic communities by mainstream social service organizations. Often members of ethnic communities face insurmountable language and cultural barriers in applying for services from organizations designed to serve people who are well integrated within the dominant culture (Yamashiro & Matsuoka, 1997). As defined by Iglehart and Becerra (2000), ethnic social service have a majority of board members and staff who are of the same ethnicity as agency clientele and integrate culturally appropriate content into the service delivery process.

Little is known about how ethnic social service organizations are established or the relationship of these organizations with other groups serving the ethnic community. Iglehart & Becerra (2000) argue that in order to survive in a resource scarce environment, many ethnic organizations establish contractual relationships for service delivery with mainstream institutions. Such interorganizational relationships provide a degree of power to the ethnic social service organization by virtue of their ability to reach populations that are often inaccessible to mainstream organizations. While cooperation with organizations outside the ethnic community may provide the key for economic survival, these ethnic organizations may actually compete for dollars and clients with other organizations serving the same ethnic group. Complicating competition for resources may be culturally specific practices and beliefs that specify what members of the ethnic group should be included or excluded from service-related decision-making (Yoshihama & Carr, 2002).

This paper examines barriers encountered by the alumni and faculty of a master's degree program in social work in forming a task group to address a crisis involving the suicides of eight Hmong teenagers. Despite the size of this suicide cluster, few governmental and nonprofit organizations were able to respond to this epidemic. The task group was founded explicitly to provide preventative counseling services for Hmong adolescents. However, competition among ethnic agencies within the Hmong community made working with these established organizations difficult. Other barriers encountered by the task force included the traditional role of clan leaders in making decisions for the community and traditional gender relationships. Most of the task force members were Hmong women; traditionally Hmong women are excluded from community decision-making processes (Yoshihama & Carr, 2002). The task force had considerably greater success in establishing working relationships with mainstream organizations that responded to the crisis by offering ethnic specific services within existing institutional structures.
This paper employs a case study approach to examine the complexity of these interorganizational relationships by using organization documents, meeting minutes, and personal interviews with participants. The authors were members of the task force and their observations are also incorporated in the analysis. It is hoped that information from this case study will contribute to our understanding of the types of interorganizational exchanges often transacted by ethnic social service organization to facilitate economic survival.

References


The NGO Fellows Program: Galvanizing International Graduate Students & Spouses to Enhance Nonprofit, Community, and University Capacity

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Summary of Research
A new capacity-building program successfully recruited volunteers from previously overlooked populations on campuses—international graduate students and their spouses at a large research university. Through becoming NGO Fellows for six months, these international visitors undertake volunteer internships at local nonprofits and learn about the nonprofit sector in the U.S. Their talents and efforts contribute to enhancing local nonprofit capacity; their interaction with agencies and clients promotes new understandings and tolerance; and the university program's existence helps both to welcome international students and their unemployed spouses to campus during times of global tension, and provide a new forum for mutual learning.

Description
The Problem or Issue to Be Addressed.
Current economic conditions and policies have made nonprofits desperately seek new resources to meet escalating growth and demands. At the same time, universities are seeking to broaden students’ educational and civic experiences by adopting various service-learning programs. Such programs engage students in community work, promote intergroup dialogues and foster democracy (Schoem & Hurtado, 2001), and can also encourage universities to become better neighbors with their local communities (See Maurrasse, 2001). The intersection of these two trends has already rendered productive outcomes, especially for undergraduate students (see, for instance, volumes of The Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 1994-2003 for a wide array of articles). However, less attention is given to the involvement of busy graduate students, especially those in professional schools whose careers await them. And, seemingly, little attention has been given to international graduate students (and their spouses, whose visas often forbid them to work while in the U.S.) as potential volunteer resources for the nonprofit sector and willing participants of service-learning.

Language and cultural barriers might seem to be obstacles to their inclusion. Yet the emerging global village requires both U.S. and international students to develop their cross-cultural competencies to be prepared for 21st century careers. Moreover, international students often relish an opportunity to learn more about the community beyond the campus' walls, especially when time and resources for interpretation, guidance, and support are provided.

This paper describes a new, “win-win” NGO Fellows program through which a selected group of international students and spouses became more engaged in local communities and contributed to overall nonprofit capacity. Specifically, (1) as a group, they learn about and personally interface with representatives of the U.S. nonprofit sector through varied activities; (2) they participate in volunteer internships at nonprofits in which they both leverage their prior talents and also obtain new nonprofit management knowledge and skills; and (3) they promote mutual cross-cultural communication through the direct involvement of NGO fellows in issues pertinent to the local community’s quality of life.

The Topic’s Relation to the State of Knowledge in the Field.
As U.S. universities continue to attract international students to their campus for considerable lengths of stay, these students should be looked at anew as a source of community volunteers, service-learning candidates, and potential recipients of—and volunteer contributors to—their current communities’ culture and understanding. While we have not yet formally reviewed all relevant literature, we have yet to find mention of similar programs, apart from those that have extensive financial resources to underwrite pre-selected international candidates’ travel to particular programs (e.g., Johns Hopkins’)
international Fellows in Philanthropy Program). In contrast, this program works with students and spouses whose primary aim is to study at the university and are already resident there, but who also demonstrate curiosity and interest in nonprofit concerns.

The Approach You Will Take.
The paper will discuss the program’s inspiration and initial planning, the recruitment of staff and participants, and the results of its first year in terms of participants’ experiences and evaluations. It will also emphasize the low-cost nature of the program, its sources of financial and in-kind support, and its interweaving with other activities of the university’s Nonprofit Academic Center and the local community’s nonprofit support organization. The University of Michigan’s Nonprofit & Public Management Center has developed this program, and it is especially applicable and cost-effective for universities with large international student bodies.

The Contribution To The Field Your Work Will Make.
This program illustrates how a relatively low-cost, university-based program can be developed to recruit an overlooked pool of volunteers, build local nonprofit capacity, and enhance knowledge, skills, and experience for international graduate students and visitors. Finally, this program provides an example that both welcomes and encourages current international students and their unemployed spouses to participate in a new campus activity during times of global tension, and provides a new forum for mutual learning among U.S. and international students.

References:


Summary of Research
Two mailback studies explored the perceptions and needs of volunteers who assist visitors with information and interpretive experiences. One focused on California State Parks and the other on the Coconino National Forest (Sedona, AZ). Volunteer management issues addressed were socio-demographics, motivations, benefits, recruitment, retention and rewards. Key findings are consistent across the two groups and reveal distinct motives, life-style needs, recruitment strategies, and management or retention practices for this part of the environmental sector. These results show that information-role environmental volunteerism is both similar to, and distinct from, volunteerism in other sectors. These results and their implications are discussed.

Description
Introduction: Volunteers are important contributors to public land management. Although recent articles have contributed substantially to professional knowledge about managing volunteers (Hostetter & Outlaw 2003, Brooks 2002; Ruby 1995, Brudney 1990), research into public land volunteer management is unusual. In part, this is because the subsector is relatively small and because a management research tradition is not well established. However, much is known about voluntarism from this and other sectors that can be used to frame such research (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Steinberg, Rooney, & Chin 2002; O’Neill & Roberts 2000; Haugen, & Meine 1998; Thompson, Simshauser, Howard & Wear1993; Hodgkinson, Weitzman, Noga & Gorki 1992; Ordubegian & Eagles 1990).

One dominant role for volunteers at parks and forests is to provide interpretive information at visitor centers or other visitor contact sites. Two studies were done: a survey of information-role volunteers at California State Parks [CSP] (Absher, Absher & Wegner 2000a & 2000b), and a study from Sedona/Red Rock, AZ [S/RR] area (Baker, Absher, Andereck & Knopf 2002). Together, they provide much needed information on how volunteer networks can be mobilized and encouraged to help natural resource management agencies so they can better serve visitors and market their services within a defined area. In addition, this study extends the generalizability of precepts and theories in the larger voluntarism literature to this less well known sector.

Objectives: The purpose of this study is to present the characteristics and perceptions of two volunteer groups in information-roles at CSP and S/RR. Of particular interest is the social meaningfulness of volunteering, satisfaction with the tasks given, and the organizational culture that sustains them (especially motivations, recruitment, retention and rewards), and suggestions for improvements to their volunteer experiences.

Methods: In 1999 a survey was sent to a random sample of 1,295 volunteers on CSP rolls. After a postcard reminder and duplicate mailing, 970 were returned for a 73 percent response rate. Similarly, in July 2001 surveys were sent to all S/RR volunteers: 160 Friends of the Forest volunteers and 101 Chamber of Commerce volunteers. Of these, 193 usable responses were received – for a 74 percent response.

Results and Discussion: The following are selections from the results and implications of this study. Additional data, comparisons between studies, and discussions about volunteer management are included in the paper.

As expected, the current volunteer pool tends to be a highly educated, senior-aged population with
relatively high household incomes. The majority are retired or working only on a part-time basis. With appropriate incentives from staff, the potential for retention and meaningful involvement of this population is high. The volunteers appeared to be reasonably committed to their roles. On average, they have worked as volunteers in their current capacity for four years and have given 150 hours of work in the past twelve months. This implies that the subsector has some unique appeal, that investments in training will be both fruitful and enduring, and that there is a relationship between time given and satisfaction.

The single most influential force in helping individuals learn about volunteer opportunities is the body of volunteers that currently work with an organization. Only about twenty percent of volunteers are paid staff from host organizations. This result points to the power of the existing volunteer staff in recruitment and the need to equip them with the necessary skills to aid in volunteer recruitment efforts.

The primary reasons for volunteering centered on learning, meeting others, helping others, and skill development. The primary rewards focused on the similar themes: learning, helping others, offering information, and teaching. Being part of a larger “family” was also an important reward. Promotional programs to recruit volunteers should emphasize potential outcomes that include learning, helping others, and becoming connected to a larger service community. At the same time, they would also appreciate more opportunities to work directly with organizational staff and have more volunteer training. Thus, it appears that volunteer loyalty to the organization could be further enhanced by more direct involvement of staff and a greater sense of community.

Some of the strongest predictors of volunteer satisfaction level include being part of a larger organizational “family,” interacting with other volunteers, learning new things at training sessions, and giving information to visitors. These results suggest that volunteers are searching for substantive growth opportunities in the form of learning, building community with others in the organization, and in serving customers. More than anything else, such growth opportunities would most likely build a loyal volunteer network.

Despite differences in organizational context and geography, the similarity between the two studies is very strong. Differences among S/RR and CSP samples do exist but, in general, the results suggest a commonality of purpose and outcomes among natural resource information volunteers. This part of the environmental sector may have a strikingly consistent texture that managers may rely upon. Finally, knowing the motivations, benefits and satisfaction aspects of information-role volunteers will assist public land agencies in their mission to offer high quality services through volunteer programs and provides strong ties to the voluntarism literature.
Achieving a high response rate in survey research is a difficult and frequently vexing challenge that needs to be handled successfully by researchers intending to avoid the problem of non-response bias. For example, this problem is evident in nonprofit strategic management survey research as observed in recent literature reviews. The paper illustrates how a response rate of 80.52% was achieved in a mixed-methods survey of CEOs of large nonprofit mental health service organizations in New York City. Key issues involved in survey design and implementation are discussed to encourage other researchers to adopt this methodology for their studies.

Description

This study examined the impact of strategic planning process variation on organizational performance in nonprofit human service organizations providing mental health services. Following classic survey construction guidelines (see, for example, Salant & Dillman, 1994), the survey was developed through three stages of testing, with the final stage employing the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data from respondent CEOs. The first stage of testing involved a pre-test study with a purposive sample of 11 CEOs (11/11 = 100% RR). In-person interviews were conducted with personal contacts made through the Institute for Not-for-Profit Management at Columbia University’s Graduate School of Business. The second stage of testing included a pilot study with a random sample of 87 CEOs (30/87 = 34.48% RR). This incorporated a mail survey with follow-up telephone interviews. The third stage of testing was the dissertation study of a random sample of 380 CEOs (306/380 = 80.52% RR). This entailed a mixed-methods survey utilizing multiple data collection methods such as mail questionnaires, telephone and cell phone interviews, faxes, and e-mails.

The primary mode of investigation in the dissertation study was through a large-scale telephone interview survey utilizing an initial pre-contact mail questionnaire in a booklet format containing the same questions that were asked subsequently of the key respondents. The booklet survey format was developed according to the prescriptions of Dillman (1978, 2000) and Salant and Dillman (1994). Survey question items were based on the results of the author’s pilot study (_____, 2000), those recommended by Dillman (2000), and a new literature search. Enticing reward options were offered based on the results of the author’s pilot study (_____, 2000). The survey was implemented according to empirically verified procedures recommended by Dillman (1978, 2000). To control for “social desirability bias” (Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, & Sechrest, 1966) and following the example of Siciliano (1997), respondents were informed upfront in the consent form that 5% of the respondent sample’s agencies would be visited to inspect documentation supporting the respondent CEOs’ answers. Major issues concerning the pros and cons of undertaking complex primary survey research are discussed, so that future investigators may learn how to achieve high response rates when surveying nonprofit
CEOs or similar types of respondents.

REFERENCES

Nonprofit organizations are founded or die, or move from or stay in a geographic area, based in part on changes in community resources and needs (Wolpert 1996). Over the past several decades, the decline of city centers and growth of suburban areas has affected the ecology of nonprofit organizations in cities around the United States. This paper focuses on nonprofit performing arts organizations, some of which are easily moved and founded to serve the needs of mobile elite populations, and some of which are not.

Nonprofit performing arts venues and troupes can be found in central urban area across the United States. The establishment of many of these organizations, including operatic companies, symphonies, theatres, and dance troupes, can be directly associated with the growth of central cities in the late nineteenth century. DiMaggio (1986) describes the development of cultural institutions in Boston during this time as an expression of elite cultural preferences and a means of developing elite society and intergenerational transfer of wealth and prestige across generations.

However, the flight of wealth from central cities to the suburbs in the last 30 years has changed the dynamics between cultural institutions and the inner city. While many suburbanites travel into their central cities to enjoy arts and cultural events, some are investing in suburban nonprofit arts institutions. Hager and Pollak (2002) report that establishment of performing arts presenters in urban areas fell off substantially through the 1980s and 1990s, with the slack taken up by presenters founded in suburban settings.

Our paper investigates demographic trends and differential performing arts attendance patterns between central city and suburban residents of the Minneapolis-St. Paul metropolitan area (the “Twin Cities”). The paper follows from observations by Twin Cities performing arts organization executives regarding the expansion of performing arts venues and troupes in the counties surrounding urban Hennepin and Ramsey counties, and resulting tensions between central city and suburban arts organizations. While the central Twin Cities are noted for their diversity of performing arts opportunities, their suburbs represent a vibrant testing ground for the inevitable expansion of nonprofit performing arts organizations in suburban areas across the country.

We hypothesize that suburban residents travel to the central city to see performing arts events, but that these patterns will differ by the propensity of different performing arts organizations to move to or become newly founded in suburban areas. Specifically, we anticipate that suburban audiences will travel into the central city for opera and orchestra performances, but rely on the suburban reproduction of theatre and dance. Similarly, we anticipate that urban audiences will travel to the suburbs for some theatre and dance, but will attend opera and orchestra performances in the central city.
To explore the differences in urban and suburban attendance patterns and attitudes toward the performing arts, we conducted a random telephone household survey of Twin Cities residents. Our results are based on the responses of 897 respondents, 527 in Hennepin and Ramsey counties and 370 in suburban Anoka, Carver, Dakota, Scott, and Washington Counties.

To gauge attendance patterns, we asked both central city and suburban respondents about their central city and suburban attendance to theatre, dance, opera, orchestra, and other live, professional performing arts events. One observation from the data is that central city residents are more likely to have attended a live performing arts event in the past 12 months. Another observations is that suburban Twin Cities residents are more than three times more likely to have attended arts events exclusively in the central city than they are to have attended arts events exclusively in the suburbs. The overall results support the conclusion that popular performing arts have gained a foothold in suburban communities, while elite institutions draw the suburban wealthy into the central city.

Works Cited:


Foundations have long been interested in the strengths and weaknesses of their grant recipients, but few have looked inward, thus failing to systematically evaluate their actions and the consequences of their actions. Information gained from an internal organizational evaluation can be useful in tracking foundations priorities, effectiveness, and ultimately whether or not it has been able to meet its strategic goals. The purpose of this study was to critically examine the performance of health foundations serving the US-Mexico border as a means to build upon the growing body of knowledge in assessing a foundation’s social impact.

**Summary of Research**

Foundations have long been interested in the strengths and weaknesses of their grant recipients, but few have looked inward, thus failing to systematically evaluate their own actions and the consequences of their actions.

**CURRENT KNOWLDEGE**

Over the past two decades, foundations have used evaluation as a means of evaluating the effectiveness of their grantmaking. These evaluations, however, have been predominantly focused on the activities of their grantees. Grantee focused evaluation provide valuable information to the foundation. They are used as a means to hold their grantees accountable by either comparing actual accomplishments to the program’s original goals or by evaluating the full scope of the program effects, both intended and unintended consequences. Additionally, this type of evaluation can help the grantee with issues of sustainability by providing an objective means to demonstrate the benefits of the program, thus facilitating with fundraising efforts. It also helps the foundation to make decisions about the cost-benefit of the program. Most importantly, though, evaluations provide a powerful learning tool for grantees. They can help the grantee assess the effectiveness of their program and aid in refining and the program model. Many foundations have come to recognize that evaluation of grantee programs can provide substantial benefit, both for the grantee and for the foundation (McNelis & Bickel, 1996).

A second method commonly used to assess foundation performance is administrative measures that include cost-benefit analysis, operating costs, and the performance of investments. These types of measures are, at best, poorly correlated with the social impacts of interest to the foundation.

Despite the historical use of grantee focused evaluations or the use of administrative measures, foundations are moving toward a more comprehensive approach to performance measurement. According to a recent report from The Center for Effective Philanthropy (2002), “Foundation leaders are increasingly concerned with understanding and assessing the overall performance of their foundations, convinced that better performance assessment will lead to greater effectiveness and, in turn, to more social impact on the people and the issues they affect.” (p.1)

Foundation-focused evaluation is a method of “understanding the consequences of the decisions that the foundations makes – either explicitly or implicitly – in determining its approach to grantmaking.” (Easterling & Csuti, p.3) This type of evaluation provides an inward look at the organizational performance of foundations, allowing them to seriously examine the implementation of their strategic goals and objectives.
APPROACH
This study was delimited using foundations listed in the Grant Opportunities Guidebook: Private and Public funding sources published by the New Mexico Outreach Office, U.S.-Mexico Border Health Commission:
1. The study was delimited to 16 regional funding sources (New Mexico and Texas based) whose funding criteria is health related.
2. This study was delimited to 34 private national funding sources whose funding criteria is health related and New Mexico nonprofits are eligible for funding.

CONTRIBUTION
Foundations have routinely evaluated their performance by assessing the successes or failures of their grantees. They measure outcomes, assess social impact, and attempt to understand the intended and unintended consequences of the programs that they fund. However, there is an increasing need for foundations to take an inward look at their own performance and to be able to justify to board members, community members and donors that they are achieving their own objectives.
According to a study conducted by Patricia Patrizi and Bernard McMullan in a report prepared for the W.K. Kellogg Foundation Evaluation Unit (1998), “the importance of evaluation within foundations activities has increased in many foundations.” (p.7) This report also indicates that the relative importance of the purpose of evaluation (p.10) can be summarized in five broad categories:
1. improving grantee practice and implementation
2. improving foundation practice and grantmaking
3. responding to foundation board requests for evidence on benefit of grant investments
4. public policy planning, development, and analysis
5. development of best practices and models for the field

Although evaluation has a number of specific goals, it also contributes to the wider need of organizational development. By using evaluation to promote organizational learning, foundations can capture information that in the past has gotten lost in evaluation reports. This information can be useful in tracking the foundations priorities, its effectiveness, and ultimately whether or not it has been able to meet the strategic goals and objectives as set by its Board of Directors or Trustees.

REFERENCES
ABSTRACT
Problem to be Addressed

There is a sector-wide crisis in nonprofit executive leadership turnover that results in direct threats to the success of important and valuable programs serving communities across the nation. One result of this crisis is that many nonprofits are unsuccessful in maintaining their programmatic, administrative and resource development momentum during the transition from one executive director to another.

Poorly handled transitions have a negative impact on all organizations. In smaller and middle-sized nonprofits turnover places particularly severe stresses on both the staff and the Board of Directors. In these organizations senior staff are often diverted from their program responsibilities to handle administrative functions of the absent executive, and the program or services offered by the nonprofit suffer. For the nonprofit Board – consisting of volunteers – the problem is equally serious. That is, the Board and/or Board members may be pressured to assume management responsibilities for the nonprofit, functions they are neither equipped nor have they the time to handle effectively.

The consequences of this leadership gap may be two-fold: First, programs (and, therefore, clients) suffer. Second, Boards feel pressured to fill the executive director position quickly, without adequate consideration of the requirements for the position. As a result, poor leadership choices are made resulting in either weak or poor future executive leadership for the nonprofit.

This situation is often compounded when the nonprofit has had weak or ineffective executive leadership resulting in executive director forced resignation or outright dismissal. In this situation, the nonprofit has usually gone through a downward spiral leaving the organization in serious financial or other peril. Such dysfunctional situations have lead the authors to refer to these nonprofits as “distressed organizations”.

Summary of Research

It is becoming well documented that nonprofit organizations face a sector-wide crisis in nonprofit executive Director turnover. This paper briefly identifies the scope of the problem and its implications for the future of the nonprofit’s board and staff. It will present a model for Transition Management – a newly emerging field employing experienced nonprofit executives to help a nonprofit Board of Directors transition successfully to a new Executive Director. This model—developed by the authors, is the result of their experience guiding 20 nonprofit leadership transitions. Emphasis will be placed on the sequential steps involved in the transition process.
three years. A more recent study of first-time executive directors by CompassPoint found that only 14 percent had chosen another nonprofit leadership position and that for many, being a nonprofit executive director was a one-time event in their career. Two thirds of the respondents were first-time executive directors and only 20 percent of them planned to take a second job as executive director.

There are two distinct but interrelated issues involved in managing executive leadership transition: First, maintaining the momentum of the nonprofit in the absence of a permanent executive director, and second, the problems associated with the nonprofit's Board of Directors preparing itself to select a new executive director with the leadership and technical qualifications to move the nonprofit forward, often in a new direction. These two issues are frequently joined by a third, which is the host of problems that can result when the previous executive director has been unsuccessful. The treatment of these interrelated problems has been collectively named “transition management.” In part because it is a new field and has become a term applied to any change, transition or transformation occurring in a nonprofit either because of internal or external pressures, it is ill defined and tends to mean whatever the author or speaker intends it to mean. “Transition management” rapidly runs the risk of becoming a cliché such as “in pursuit of excellence”.

Beginning with William Bridges’ seminal work “Managing Transitions”, a rich variety of books and articles have been written about the most effective ways to manage organizational transitions. These include: “The Change Leader’s Roadmap”, by Linda Ackerman Anderson and Dean Anderson, “Beyond Change Management”, by the same authors, “Managing Change at Work” and “Getting Your Organization To Change”, by Cynthia D. Scott, Ph.D., M.P.H. and Dennis T. Jaffee, Ph.D., to name a few. New books and articles about managing transitions seem to appear with impressive regularity, some of which have application to leadership transition, but more often explore how an executive leads change within his or her organization. At least two national churches (Episcopal and Methodist) have developed programs of transition management for dysfunctional parishes.

The nonprofit CompassPoint in San Francisco, and in particular its executive director Jan Masaoka, have provided an ongoing series of articles about transition management as it applies to nonprofit executive leadership transition, based in part on its experience with the transition management service it offers to clients in the Bay area. Recently The Annie E. Casey Foundation has made an important contribution to the field by funding a website with ongoing articles and information about executive leadership transitions.

Our Approach

For the last eight years the authors of the proposed paper have practiced nonprofit executive transition management with some 20 small to medium-sized nonprofits (budgets of between $250,000 to $1.5 million) in Colorado. Based on our experience as practitioners, reading relevant literature as it has become available, and applying concepts from family systems psychology models, we have evolved a model for accomplishing successful executive leadership transitions. Our approach would be to attempt to codify our experience and model in writing. Our particular model has certain distinctive characteristics: first, it allows for dealing with both dysfunctional nonprofits as well as relatively healthy ones; second, it focuses on and addresses the unique problems of transition with both the nonprofit board and the staff – addressing structural, process, content and (perhaps most importantly) the organizational dynamic issues; third it employs a team approach in which two consultants are assigned to the transition project – one to serve as interim or transition executive director, and one to serve as senior consultant to the project. This approach is borrowed from the strategy in clinical psychology and social work of utilizing a “peer supervisor” to the therapist. To the degree possible we will relate our model to the writings and work of others in the field. A significant portion of this paper will outline a step-by-step or “how to” approach to executive transition management, including a few practical written tools for guiding a successful transition.

Contribution to the Field
Clearly the crisis in nonprofit executive leadership is seriously threatening the effectiveness of many valuable nonprofits and, accordingly the important services they provide to a wide variety of clients served. We do not see executive transition management as the solution to the nonprofit leadership crisis, but it can make an important contribution in many situations. Nor do we see our approach as “the model”. However, because the field is in its infancy, the more systematic strategies (based on successful application) that are available to those concerned with the overall health of the nonprofit community will spark the evolution, development and application of this important work.

Second, awareness of the field can lead to more and more nonprofit Boards of Directors becoming aware of this important service. This in turn, can lead to more and more nonprofit communities acquiring the skills and art of executive transition management, which will strengthen (and occasionally save) the programs and services vital to their clients. Because we believe that executive leadership transitions are to a degree contextual to the community and only cost-effective when practiced by local transition management specialists, widespread education about this work will lead to local expertise and utilization.
Paper Number:  PA031419

Paper Title:  Refocusing the Lens: Nonprofits & Democratic Governance

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Summary of Research
This paper and presentation will examine the drawbacks of an overemphasis on business strategies and explore the ways in which nonprofit organizations support and sustain communities through the development of civic capacity and identity. By doing so, the intention is to encourage other scholars and practitioners to look critically at the current state of theory and praxis and to recognize the importance of examining and supporting the systemic role of nonprofit organizations in the fostering democratic governance.

Description
While there is familiarity with DeTocqueville’s argument about the importance of voluntary organizations to a democracy, what is most commonly examined, in both the literature and the classroom, is the definition of the nonprofit arena (Salamon & Anheier, 1997), its relationship to markets and states (Ware, 1989), and fiscal and strategic management tools (Letts, C. et al, 1999; Gronbjerg, 1993). As Stivers (2002) points out, “at present, the conversation about the policy role of nonprofit organizations centers almost totally on making them more businesslike and efficient in order that they be better equipped to take on responsibilities being off-loaded by governments”(118). Two problems arise from this overemphasis on market-based strategies for organizational effectiveness. One is the lack of discussion about the tradeoffs and potential dangers of adopting business models and embracing business values in nonprofit organizations. What is being lost with the overemphasis on efficiency and productivity?

The second problem with the current state of nonprofit scholarship is a loss of focus on the role nonprofit organizations play in a democratic society. A few notable scholars such as Verba et al (1995) have attempted to redress this issue, and yet they primarily focus on voting as a measure of the democratic efficacy of voluntary associations. In response, this paper will examine the drawbacks of an overemphasis on business strategies and explore the ways in which nonprofit organizations support and sustain communities through the development of civic capacity and identity. By doing so, the intention is to build a theoretical basis and normative argument for the systemic role of nonprofit organizations in the fostering democratic governance.

Selected References


Paper Title: Initial Research Results Towards a History of Philanthropy in Canada

Author(s):

Ms. Patricia Hardy, MA, ACFRE, The Tunnelwood Group, Dugald, Manitoba, CANADA

Summary of Research

My paper will address the current lack of a written survey history of philanthropy in Canada and the knowledge gap this has created for our non-profit and voluntary sectors.

My paper will review results of a literature search, surveys of over three hundred fundraisers and historians and interviews with key informants. I will draw conclusions from the research and offer comparisons with histories of philanthropy in the United States.

This work will create new knowledge for the non-profit and voluntary sectors, framing philanthropy in Canada in the context of the social, economic and political issues of the times.

Description

My Masters in Philanthropy thesis, Rationale for Further Study of the History of Philanthropy in Canada is the first stage in research towards a publication on the History of Philanthropy in Canada. The goals of this research were to uncover and classify written information and to investigate what fundraisers and historians believed were notable events, people and organizations in the development of the non-profit and voluntary sectors in Canada. A survey publication on the history of philanthropy in Canada has never been written and this has left a knowledge gap for practitioners and researchers in this field.

The components of this research include a literature review, surveys of two hundred and fifty-eight professional fundraisers and one hundred and thirty-eight historians and interviews with five key informants. The literature search revealed eight hundred documents consisting of meeting minutes, reports, government briefing papers, church activity reports, newsletters, public policy research studies, bylaws of organizations and a handful of books which referenced philanthropic issues. The discovery of these documents demonstrated that, with further research, a comprehensive history could be compiled. Fundraisers and historians were aware of the expansive nature of philanthropic activity in Canada but there was a general consensus that it's historical significance remained undefined. This discovery was reinforced by key informants, who affirmed the lack of recorded history and concurred on the need for a consolidation of data towards a publication on philanthropy in Canada.

The paper's conclusions include a preliminary historic timetable and arguments that philanthropy in Canada was shaped by symbiotic relationships between government, religions and individuals.

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Touchette, P. (1983). The contribution of the voluntary sector to the Canadian economy. Ottawa:
This paper describes a unique dataset of government contracts to New York City nonprofits, and presents preliminary analyses of the data. The dataset contains records of all New York State and New York City contracts to nonprofit organizations in the five boroughs of New York City, covering the period 1992 to 1998. I first discuss the data sources for the project, and then present some preliminary analyses in both tabular and spatial (GIS map) forms.

Summary of Research

This paper describes a unique dataset of government contracts to New York City nonprofits, and presents preliminary analyses of the data. The dataset contains records of all New York State and New York City contracts to nonprofit organizations in the five boroughs of New York City, covering the period 1992 to 1998. I first discuss the data sources for the project, including how the data was obtained, the cleaning and coding processes for the data, and the reliability of the data. I then present results from preliminary analysis of the data. Results are primarily descriptive, and include both tabular and spatial presentations (the latter using GIS mapping software). A variety of descriptive statistics will be presented, including: dollars per service area (e.g., health, education and youth, housing, arts and culture, etc.); dollars per racial/ethnic group; dollars per neighborhood (proxied by New York City Community District Area); dollars per political district (City Council, State Assembly, State Senate); etc. Results also will examine the distribution of contracts in relation to: the total number of nonprofit organizations in the city; organizational size; and a number of neighborhood characteristics, including racial composition, median income, immigration population, and so on.

Description

City and State Contracts to New York City Nonprofit Organizations: A Description and Preliminary Analysis of New Data

Most discussions of government contracting to nonprofit organizations have utilized aggregate figures on the level of support provided by government to nonprofit organizations, subdivided by service area (e.g., Hodgkinson and Weitzman 1986; Salamon 1995; Seley and Wolpert 2002). Other discussions of contracting to nonprofits have examined the theoretical and performance issues surrounding this practice (e.g., DeHoog 1984; Kramer 1982). There has been almost no work that examines the actual distribution of contracts to specific nonprofit organizations, and the implications of specific, locally-based contracting regimes.

One major reason for the dearth of studies in this latter area has been the lack of available data on discrete contracts to nonprofit organizations. This paper describes a unique dataset of government contracts to New York City nonprofits, and presents preliminary analyses of the data. The dataset contains records of all New York State and New York City contracts to nonprofit organizations in the five boroughs of New York City, covering the period 1992 to 1998. I first discuss the data sources for the project, including how the data was obtained, the cleaning and coding processes for the data, and the reliability of the data. I then present results from preliminary analysis of the data. Results are primarily descriptive, and include both tabular and spatial presentations (the latter using GIS mapping software). A variety of descriptive statistics will be presented, including: dollars per service area (e.g., health, education and youth, housing, arts and culture, etc.); dollars per racial/ethnic group; dollars per neighborhood (proxied by New York City Community District Area); dollars per political district (City Council, State Assembly, State Senate); etc. Results also will examine the distribution of contracts in relation to: the total number of nonprofit organizations in the city; organizational size; and a number of neighborhood characteristics, including racial composition, median income, immigration population, and so on.

WORKS CITED


When Outsiders Enter In: NGO Funding and Collective Action in Community Development Organizations in Kenya

Mary Kay Gugerty, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA

Summary of Research
There is an increasing consensus among development practitioners that small-scale, participatory development projects involving community organizations will be more effective in promoting development. There is little systematic evidence, however, on the impact of funding local organizations on participation and collective action among their members. This paper examines the effects of three development projects on community primary schools and indigenous women’s development organizations in rural Kenya. The evidence suggests that outside funding may not strengthen community organizations or benefit all participants, and may change the very characteristics of groups that made them attractive to funders in the first place.

Description
When Outsiders Enter In: NGO Funding and Collective Action in Community Development Organizations in Kenya

Mary Kay Gugerty

Background

There is an increasing consensus among development practitioners that small-scale, participatory development projects involving local community organizations will be more effective in achieving their goals (Edwards and Sen 2000; Narayan and others 2000; Robb 1999; Brown and Ashman 1996). This consensus has been backed by aid flows; large bilateral and multi-lateral donors are increasingly likely to channel aid through non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and NGOs themselves are increasingly likely to form partnerships with grassroots organizations (Edwards 2000; Fowler 1997).

Several mechanisms might privilege local organizations over larger, more centralized agencies as a means of distributing development funding. Community organizations may possess local knowledge that is more appropriate or relevant for designing effective projects (Scott, 1998). Indigenous organizations may possess advantages in reaching underserved or vulnerable populations such as women or the poor (Conning and Kevane 2000). Moreover, economic theory suggests that community-level organizations and tightly knit groups may be better able to foster collective action because participants are able to identify and sanction non-participants not (Besley and Coate 1995; Besley, Coate, and Loury 1993).

Finally, there is also widespread consensus that social capital is important for development outcomes (see, for example, Coleman 1990; Putnam 1993; Woolcock 1998; and Ostrom 1996) and that one of the key components of social capital in a society is the presence of a dense network of horizontal organizations (Putnam 1993). Many donors are therefore trying to support the development of civil society and social capital in developing countries by targeting social capital formation through funding local organizations.

Participation in development projects is often viewed as unambiguously good and as an end in and of itself. Proponents of this view often see participation as a means of widening access to resources, distributing power more equitably, and reaching more vulnerable members of society. In the same way, indigenous organizations of the poor and disadvantaged are often seen as a form of collective action that promotes justice and equality (Edwards and Sen 2000). There is some evidence to suggest that community participation can lead to improved project performance (Baland and Platteau 1996; Isham,
Narayan and Pritchett 1995).

But as other researchers have emphasized, participation is a social act that is embedded in a pre-existing set of social relations and may reinforce unequal relationships rather than promoting greater equality (Vieira da Cunha and Junho Pena 1998). Provision of funding to local organizations may also lead to rent-seeking, capture by local elites, or strategic manipulation of benefits on the part of beneficiaries (Conning and Kevane 2000).

Evidence from Kenya

The empirical research testing these propositions is surprisingly scarce and there is little systematic examination of the impacts of more inclusive or participatory programs on project outcomes. There is also little direct evidence on how development assistance affects organizational capacity, or of how funding affects the participation of women and the poor in local organizations.

This paper examines the effects of three development projects on collective action and participation among community primary schools and indigenous women’s development organizations in rural Kenya. The data is drawn from the experience of a Dutch NGO in funding local organizations that had not previously received outside funds from a foreign NGO. The data is both quantitative and qualitative and the empirical strategy relies on both statistical tests and interviews with NGO staff and grassroots organization members. The paper builds on previous work reporting on the results of a randomized evaluation of these projects (Gugerty and Kremer, 2002).

Previous work on these projects used an aggregate comparison of organizations that received funding to those that did not receive such funding. This research suggested that funder concern with social capital was not linked in any concrete way to measurable social capital outcomes. A top–down project distributing a predetermined set of textbooks to schools had similar effects to a participatory project providing grants which school communities could use as they wished. A women’s group project that focused explicitly on building social capital and which included a large element of organizational training did not improve social capital indicators and in fact may have allowed less disadvantaged outsiders to increase their role in the groups at the expense of the women who were the original members.

The current paper examines these results in light of additional qualitative and non-experimental evidence which suggests that the effects of outside funding vary with organizational characteristics. This evidence suggests that the social basis for collective action has important implications for the impact of outside funding on local organizations. Initial analysis suggests that when leadership positions of women’s groups is based on more “traditional” sources of authority such as age, kinship, or social position, the groups is more likely to see changes in membership that reduce the participation of women, particularly older women. In primary schools, when the headmaster is not from the majority ethnic group in the area, outside funding may tends to polarize rather than unite the school community. This evidence suggested that, at least in the short run, outside funding may not strengthen community organizations or benefit all participants, and may change the very characteristics of groups that made them attractive to funders in the first place.

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The purpose of this paper is to grasp the current state of social capital and its relationships with civic participation such as voluntary activities and nonprofit organizations in Japan. The concept of social capital such as social networks and trust has recently gained wide attention among academics, government and practitioners in Japan as well as in other countries, which were mainly triggered by Robert Putnam’s studies (Putnam 1993 & 2000). Governments in some countries such as the U.K. and Australia have strong interests in measuring social capital (ONS 2001). The Japanese Cabinet Office also began to pay attention to social capital focusing on its relationships with voluntary activities and nonprofits. However, the social capital research in Japan has mainly focused on the aspects of development assistance (JICA 2002, Sato 2001) and political science such as political participation (Hirano 2002, Ikeda 2002, Inoguchi 2002) and only a few studies dealt with nonprofits and volunteering (Inoguchi 2002, Yamauchi 2002).

The authors present findings from the first comprehensive survey exclusively designed for measuring social capital and with the focus on civic participation in Japan. The survey was conducted by the Japan Research Institute commissioned by the Japanese Cabinet Office with a national sample of 3,900 from January to March in 2003.

The survey identified five components and corresponding indicators of social capital as (i) levels of trust in society and others, (ii) social associations and exchanges, (iii) strength of associations in a community, (iv) levels of social participation consciousness, and (iv) levels of social support. The hypotheses of the survey were: (i) each component of social capital measured is in a mutually dependent relationship and may improve each other; (ii) especially, voluntary, nonprofit and civic activities vitalize each component and may trigger the overall improvement; (iii) the accumulation of social capital is one of the factors to facilitate the improvement of the social problem-solving capacity and efficient management of the social system; and thus, (iv) the revitalization of voluntary, nonprofit and civic activities contribute to facilitate the improvement of the social problem-solving capacity and efficient management of the social system through the accumulation of social capital. The hypotheses (i) and (ii) were verified through the micro-analysis based on individual survey responses. The hypothesis (iii) was verified through the analyses of the survey and the macro-statistical data and existing surveys.

Major survey findings are that people who participate in some kind of activities (voluntary activities, community activities, and sports and recreation) have tendencies to have a higher level of trust in society and community, to have a broader network in communities, and to have a higher satisfaction in life than those who do not participate. The survey verified the hypotheses that (i) each component of social capital and voluntary and nonprofit activities have a positive correlation, (ii) social capital may be fostered through voluntary and civic activities, and (iii) civic participation may be promoted with the accumulation of social capital. In summary, the survey suggests that social capital is fostered and is expected to produce social outcomes through the promotion of voluntary, nonprofit and civic activities.
Analysis of the existing macro data and surveys revealed overall tendency of social capital in time and by area in Japan. Some aspects of social capital have declined overtime, while others have not. Level of social capital differs between big cities and others and by area.

The policy implications are as follows: (i) various research and studies on social capital and its measurement at the national and local government levels should be promoted; and (ii) the government has a major role to facilitate the formation of social capital through promoting policies and systems such as a tax incentive for donors and nonprofits.

This paper shows the first comprehensive survey on social capital in Japan, which surely makes a significant contribution to the development of social capital research and may also be helpful for an international comparison.

Key words: social capital, civic participation, volunteering, nonprofits, Japan

Bibliographical references


Summary of Research
How much should foundations be required to distribute in grants each year? How should foundation management conceptualize payout rates? Drawing on the economics of long-term public investment (e.g. investment in environmental protection) this paper addresses these questions. The paper rejects a recent proposal to apply discounted cash flow analysis to foundation payouts, concluding that the concept of the time value of money is inapplicable. Rather, the only justification for preferring earlier to later payouts would be an expectation of declining marginal utility of money among a foundation's beneficiary class, or greater cost-effectiveness of current charity compared to future charity.

Description
Foundations are required by law to distribute 5% of their assets to charity each year, and the vast majority of foundations reportedly distribute little more than that amount. There has been a long-simmering debate over whether foundations should distribute more, and whether Congress should increase the legally mandated payout rate. Advocates of higher payout rates point to the obvious needs of today's charities and plead that more grants should be provided (Dundjerski 1999, Odendahl and Feeney 1999, Eisenberg, 2002, Kramer 2000). On the other side, foundations resist demands for higher payout rates by arguing that future charitable needs will be at least as compelling as present needs.

The issue of foundation payout rates comes down to a tradeoff between charity for the current generation and charity for future generations. Beginning with Congress's initial enactment of a minimum payout rate in 1969, the debate over payout rates has been carried out in the absence of a conceptual framework within which to consider the social value of current versus future charity. Recently, some commentators have tried to conceptualize the issue within a discounted cash flow framework of finance (Jansen and Katz, Bradley and Jansen). However, that approach—which essentially mandates immediate liquidation of all foundations-fails to capture the tradeoffs that the timing of grant-making entail. The flaws in that approach are numerous.

This paper develops an analytic framework for conceptualizing the foundation payout issue. The tradeoff between current and future charity is a version of a problem with which policymakers, economists, and philosophers grapple when considering very long-term public investments in energy production and environmental protection. How much sacrifice should the current generation make so that future generations can have a cleaner environment, cheaper energy, better health, and longer lives? The question for foundations is similar. How much charity should we withhold from the current generation in order to provide more charity for future generations? The problem is complicated by the fact that if a foundation withholds grants from the current generation and instead invests those funds, it will have more to distribute to future charity.

The tradeoff between current and future charity presents three issues for a foundation to confront in determining how much to save and how much to give. First, how cost-effective would a particular grant be, compared to a future grant, in pursuing a charitable objective? Despite the fact that a dollar of today's charity comes at the expense of many dollars of future charity, certain kinds of charity today will be more cost-effective; current and future generations will be better off if these charitable services are provided sooner rather than later (Arrow et al 1996, Revesz 1999). Second, in the context of a particular foundation mission, the value of a foundation dollar may be greater today than it will be in the future (Arrow et al 1996, Revesz 1999). This could occur as a result of greater wealth and lower marginal utility of consumption for a given class of foundation beneficiaries. Alternatively, it could occur
because the needs of future generations will be less severe. For this consideration to weigh in favor of current grants, however, the decline in the value of charity would have to be greater than the rate of increase in the value of the foundation investment portfolios. Third, although a utilitarian calculus might imply deferral of charity to the future (potentially for an infinite period of time), there must be some ethical limit to the extent of sacrifice any generation can be asked to make for future generations, even if further sacrifice would lead to net gains over time; there must be an intergenerational equity constraint on maximizing the aggregate utility of foundation grants (Cowan and Parfit 1992).

Different foundations, applying their own judgments regarding these issues as applied to their own missions will arrive at different conclusions regarding appropriate payout rates. Since future charity is not necessarily worth less to society than current charity, and it may well be worth more, why should there be a legally mandated minimum payout rate? If foundation managers were guided entirely by social welfare considerations in setting their payout policies, then no minimum payout law would be needed. Foundation managers, however, seem to be influenced by the prestige associated with large endowments, and foundation donors seem to be influenced by notions of immortality associated with perpetual existence. Consequently, donors and managers seem to have personal biases toward lower payout rates. The current minimum payout requirement responds to this self-interest in a fairly moderate way. It basically allows a foundation to maintain its principal and to make grants in perpetuity at the 5 percent rate. This allows donors immortality and forces foundations to treat current generations at least equally with future generations. A higher payout requirement would place foundations’ perpetual existence in substantial jeopardy. This could make the establishment of foundations less attractive to donors, which could result in less charity for present and the future generations. Such a measure is not warranted in light of the analysis above.
Paper Number: PA031433

Paper Title: Toward a Macro-Level Theory of Social Service Nonprofits: Reexamining Political Culture in Light of "Marketization"

Author(s):
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Summary of Research
This paper reexamines political culture’s role in the geographic variation of nonprofit social service organizational density by utilizing it as an indicator of regional disposition towards the “market” as an appropriate mechanism for addressing social problems. Multivariate models of nonprofit density are developed that include two new measures, density of for-profit service providers and social service commercialization. These variables significantly improve the overall model’s explanatory power, but surprisingly reveal a positive relationship between for-profit and nonprofit density. Political culture may indicate, in part, the overall size of the social service market available to both nonprofit and for-profit organizations.

Description
1. Issue to be Addressed
This paper empirically examines the role of culture as a factor contributing to the geographic variation evident in the density of nonprofit social service organizations. Schneider (Schneider, 1996) provides the theoretical rationale for utilizing one such measure of culture, Elazar’s moralistic, individualistic, or traditionalistic typology of political culture (Elazar, 1984; Elazar, 1994), as systematically reflecting different patterns and levels of philanthropy. The current study extends political culture theory to focus on its potential as an indicator of the regional disposition towards the “market” as an appropriate mechanism for addressing social problems. Therefore, the effect of political culture on social service nonprofit organizations may actually operate through the relative presence of organizational alternatives, such as for-profit entities. Using a unique dataset from the Statistics of U.S. Businesses (SUSB) program, I empirically test this interpretation of political culture, by introducing several new variables into a multivariate analysis of nonprofit density, namely nonprofit commercialization and for-profit social service density, that may also relate to the “pro-market” orientation of an area. This will help isolate the mechanisms through which political culture affects nonprofit social service sector growth and development.

2. Relation to Literature and Theory
Previous nonprofit sector research has illustrated the substantial variation in the distribution of nonprofit organizations throughout the United States (Boris, 2000; Weitzman, Jalandoni, Lampkin, & Pollak, 2002). While not without concern regarding the accuracy and inclusiveness of state and national databases as demonstrated by (Gronberg & Paarlberg, 2002), these data sources allow for an enhanced capacity to model and examine the factors contributing to differing distributions of nonprofit organizations. Notable examples of this research agenda include Bielefeld (Bielefeld 2000 #1100 /d), Corbin (Corbin 1999 #1090 /d), and Grønbjerg & Paarlberg (Grønbjerg & Paarlberg 2000 #1080 /d). These works include a variety of supply and demand factors that have been theorized and frequently empirically demonstrated to account for the density of nonprofit sector organizations.

Of particular interest to this research project is the role of local or regional culture as an influence on the number and types of nonprofit organizations operating in a particular geographic area. The emphasis on culture is especially relevant for the delivery of social services as Hasenfeld (1992) highlights their institutional nature, in that the various delivery mechanisms must coincide with the dominant, prevailing views concerning the appropriate manner of care giving. Several nonprofit sector studies have theoretically (Schneider, 1996) and empirically (Bielefeld, 2000) (Twombly, 2000) (Corbin, 1999) applied Elazar’s political culture framework to explain variation in the size and composition of local nonprofit organizations and their differential reliance on government funding versus private charity (Bielefeld & Corbin, 1996).
Overall, moralistic communities exhibited larger nonprofit sectors, greater connection with public welfare, and more organizations with a redistributive nature than traditionalistic and individualistic communities. Corbin’s (1999) study actually found no significant relationship between political culture and nonprofit density, however, my proposed reconceptualization of political culture would result in a different interpretation. I suggest that the effect of political culture may be accounted for by its differential emphasis on the institutionally appropriate organizational form of service delivery.

In this regard, moralistic communities’ concern for the collective welfare and suspicion of purely market-based responses to social problems would promote an active and strong reliance on the nonprofit organizational form. In contrast, the ambivalence of traditionalistic communities toward the market coupled with a desire to have services delivered in a manner that maintains the status quo and minimizes empowerment and activism of disenfranchised populations should make them fairly receptive to for-profit social service provision. Individualistic communities are harder to predict. They will clearly favor market solutions over government involvement, but both for-profit and nonprofit organizations satisfy this arrangement and entrepreneurial activity may lead people towards the formation of either for-profit or nonprofits. Therefore, individualistic areas are presumed to fall between moralistic and traditionalist in the density of the nonprofit social service organizational form. Such an ordinal treatment of political culture would have been supported by Corbin’s (1996) study. This hypothesis suggests a negative relationship between for-profit and nonprofit density, which should minimize the effect attributable directly to political culture as the inclusion of for-profit density captures the specific causal mechanism.

3. Analytical Data and Methods
Empirical examinations of this nature are complicated, in part, due to a lack of quality data sources maintaining information on both for-profit and non-profit organization operating in similar industries. Therefore, the data utilized to address the above research questions comes from a specially created data file from the Statistics of U.S. Businesses (SUSB) program (for more detail about SUSB data sources see http://148.129.75.3/csd/susb/susb.htm). This 1999 data file, based on County Business Patterns data, includes all employer organizations, both nonprofit and for-profit, operating within the 624 three-digit NAICS code (Social Assistance). For this research project, the “traditional” social service organizations industries of individual and family services, vocational rehabilitation, and community food and shelter have been collapsed into a single global indicator of total social service organizations.

From this data a series of multivariate regression models have been developed to examine, at the state-level, whether political culture represents a significant predictor of nonprofit social service density (organizations per 100,000 residents) and whether this effect is reduced with the inclusion of the for-profit social service density and a measure of social service nonprofit commercialization (calculated from the proportion of earned income reported in the 1997 Census of Service Industries data). Overall, the density of nonprofit social service organizations ranged from 9.58 to 41.2 organizations per 100,000 residents and reflected the general regional patterns of total nonprofit organizations reported in Boris (Boris, 2000). Relatively low densities were evident in the South and the West with high densities seen in New England and the North Central States.

After including a series of economic and demographic control variables (i.e. poverty rates, public and individual giving, church density), Elazar’s measure of state political culture still demonstrated a significant effect in the anticipated direction, such that traditionalistic states exhibited a decrease in nonprofit density of 11.4 organizations per 100,000 residents relative to moralistic states. Including the measures of for-profit and commercialism improved the model’s adjusted r2 significantly to .702, with both variables relating significantly to nonprofit density. While the coefficient for traditionalistic culture was still significant in this model, it’s substantial effect decreased by almost half. This suggests that for-profit density and commercialization represent some of the specific mechanisms that account for the effect previously attributed solely to the “black box” of political culture. Somewhat surprisingly, for-profit density and commercialization exhibit positive coefficients which indicate that both of these characteristics are positively associated with greater nonprofit densities. Therefore, it appears that the
effect of political culture is to signify, in part, the size of the overall social service “market” that is available to be populated by both nonprofits and for-profit organizations.

4. Contributions
This research project improves upon existing studies of the distribution of nonprofit sector organizations by providing an extended theoretical interpretation of political culture’s role that focuses not only on philanthropy but on the appropriateness of market-based solutions to the provision of social services. This orientation highlights the need to incorporate additional measures such as the density of for-profit social service organizations and social service commercialization, which have not been included in previous attempts at modeling the geographic distribution of the nonprofit sector. The resulting models account for almost ¾ of the inter-state variation in nonprofit density, while also providing more insight into the specific mechanisms by which political culture has been associated with systematic differences in nonprofit density.

Additionally, this work illustrates the need to acknowledge the presence of for-profit establishments as important environmental features in the context of nonprofit social service provision. The research helps to develop theories and models concerning the relationship between nonprofit and for-profit social service organizations. Building upon the foundation of this study, future cross-sectional and longitudinal research will need to examine the potential for a competitive relationship between nonprofit and for-profit organizations at more local levels of analysis.

Reference List

This paper presents the researcher's findings on social movement learning pertaining to organizations involved in social movement activities. In this session we will provide an overview of the relevant literature, provide a schemata for understanding organizational learning in social movements, give numerous brief examples, and suggest relevance for practitioners.

**Description**

Social Movement Learning: Organizational Level Learning

**Research Summary**

This paper presents the findings of a grounded theory research project begun in 2000 on social movement learning. Because of time constraints, this paper will focus on a summary of the findings as related just to organizational learning in social movements.

The data for this study include a variety of sources from e-mails and list serves to journal articles and books. Basically, the data was collected from three broad sources: an in-depth and rather thorough collection of data from the “a16” (April 2000 anti-IMF and World Bank protests in Washington, DC); the anti-Iraq war movement(s); and a review of the relevant literature, especially case studies, covering a wider range of movements.

**The Paper to be Presented**

While the study as a whole looks at other aspects of social movement learning, such as learning by individuals and societal change, this paper will focus on organizational level learning, where organizations have fairly identifiable, if sometimes changing, boundaries. This includes social movement organizations (SMOs), informal groups involved in social movement planning and activities, and also some other nonprofits involved in social movements but not usually considered SMOs.

In this paper we will take a brief look at some of the definitions and understandings of what organizational learning is and what it entails. Then we will present a schemata for understanding organizational learning as related to social movement activities in terms of contextual features, organizational type, and organizational development stages. We will also discuss how social movements effect organizational level learning. Once the broad framework has been set, we will use short examples from the data to illustrate the various types of organizational learning. In keeping with the theme of the conference, we will discuss some practical implications of these findings.

**Background to the Project**

The impetus for this research was in the lack of definition and generally poor understanding of what social movement learning is. The literature from social movement studies has many instances of learning in social movements, but generally just looks at one specific element of learning, and/or does not call it learning. The adult education literature also is heavy on specific instances of learning, and occasionally discusses broader theoretical issues, most recently around societal change affected by social movements. This researcher has not been able to yet find a definition of social movement learning. The situation is rather like the case of the blind people touching the different parts of the elephant and thinking that the whole elephant is like that part. It is the understanding of this researcher
that social movement learning is not only leadership development, it is not only societal change, nor is it only educating the public or nonformal activist education programs. It is all of that and more.

Some of the terms used in social movement studies and sociology complement adult education thinking. Examples of such terms include diffusion of ideas, social movement life cycles, and collective identity formation. The adult education literature also includes references to collective or group learning, such as from a sociological or group psychology perspective rather than an individual psychological perspective. In this paper will pull together the research data and literature from relevant fields to suggest a schemata for understanding organizational learning in organizations involved in social movement activities.

Key References

Hyperagency and High-Tech Donors: A New Theory of the New Philanthropists

Paul G. Schervish and Mary A. O’Herlihy

In this paper we develop the theoretical concept of hyperagency and apply it to the philanthropy of high-tech donors in particular, and wealthy donors in general. Over the past two decades, there has been a substantial rekindling of interest in the notion of agency as a conceptual tool for understanding the practices of individuals as both constrained by their circumstances and transformative of them (Giddens 1984; Sewell 1992; Emirbayer and Mische 1998). This emphasis on individual practice has grown in part from efforts by Marxists and non-Marxists alike to counter structuralist analyses that have focused on charting the positions to which individuals are distributed in the social structure and on the patterns of relations determined by the roles, norms, and interests associated with these positions, such as the class positions (Wright 1997; Wood 1995). The resultant focus on agency and the actual practice of agents as making relatively free choices, albeit within given conditions, has a natural affinity with theories of individual philanthropy which emphasize the voluntary and potentially transformative efforts of individuals on the world in which they live.

Over the past decade, our research on wealth and philanthropy has in large part revolved around determining the distinctive quality or class trait that distinguishes the empowerment of wealth holders in realms of business and politics, as well as life-style and philanthropy (Schervish et. al 1994; Schervish 1997). Our finding is that at least in the material realm, the class trait of wealth holders is hyperagency, which we define as the array of dispositions and capacities that enable individuals to relatively single-handedly produce the social outcomes they desire, as well as the conditions within which they and others exercise their agency. If agency is the capacity to make choices largely within the rules and resources that are socially given, hyperagency is the capacity to be a creator or producer of those rules and resources. If agents are finders of the most desirable or fitting place for themselves within a limited range of possibilities, hyperagents are founders of those possibilities for themselves, as well as for others. What takes the aid of a social, political, religious, or philanthropic movement for agents to achieve, can be achieved by hyperagents pretty much single-handedly.

Although to this point we have developed and employed a rudimentary notion of hyperagency in our studies on wealth and philanthropy, we have not systematically connected it to the theoretical literature on agency, developed its conceptual contours, or used it as the fundamental explanatory concept for an extended study of giving patterns by wealth holders. It is our intention to take up each of these issues in this paper.

In the first section of the paper, we draw on the sociological literature to identify those aspects of the theory of agency in so far as they are relevant to elaborating a general understanding of hyperagency (Emirbayer and Mische 1998; Alexander 1992; Archer 1982; Coleman 1990; Turner 1994). In the second section we elaborate the meaning of hyperagency as a distinctive kind of agency with specific dispositions and capacities. In the third section, we use this developed notion of hyperagency as the
principal interpretative concept for analyzing the dispositions and practices that high-tech donors manifest in business and philanthropy. In the fourth section we identify some of the specific aspects of hyperagency among high-tech donors that simultaneously open doors to a particularly caring or coercive practice of philanthropy. In the final section, we indicate the implications of the research for the understanding of hyperagency, the new philanthropists, the new horizons of philanthropy in general, and of fundraising.

In developing and demonstrating the workings of hyperagency, we draw on the findings from the 2001 High-Tech Donors Study, which was carried out by the Boston College Social Welfare Research Institute, January through March 2001 (Schervish et. al 2001). The leading questions of the research revolved around discerning: first, the relationship between how high-tech wealth holders accumulate their money in business and how they allocate it to philanthropy; second, the range of personal, business, and philanthropic issues that surround high-tech wealth and philanthropy; third, the implications of the findings for understanding and improving the trajectory of the philanthropy carried out by high-tech donors; and fourth, the application of what we would learn to further our understanding of the emerging problems and prospects of philanthropy in general. The research was conducted on behalf of the Association of Fundraising Professionals (formerly the National Society of Fund Raising Executives); and was initiated and funded by Dr. Robert B. Pamplin, Jr., President and CEO of the R.B. Pamplin Corporation in Portland, Oregon.

References:
Archer, Margaret S. 1982. Culture and Agency: The Place of Culture in Social Theory. Cambridge: Cambridge UP.
Summary of Research
Using a qualitative case study methodology of 3 South Asian non-profit organizations (NPOs), this paper seeks to understand how NPOs that serve the South Asian community in New York City reconcile the tension between political organizing and service delivery in regards to health issues. The paper will also attempt to understand the relationship between an organization’s collective identity and its strategic choices. Findings indicate that three conceptual areas regarding organizational forms and strategies are relevant, including the emergence of or shifting to new strategies; how organizations combine forms; and how collective identity and strategic decision-making are related.

Description
Non-profit organizations (NPOs) have played an increasingly important role in racial and ethnic minority groups in the United States during the past three decades, and face a variety of challenges. While many NPOs are established to provide services to groups where government sponsored programs are inadequate or completely lacking, many NPOs also engage in some amount of political organizing (Abraham, 2000; Altman, 1994; Marwell, 2000). Indeed, many NPOs that are currently conceived of as primarily service organizations began as a community organizing effort, using political means to garner recognition and funding for the services that they are currently providing. However, after becoming established as a service-oriented group, organizations find it difficult to maintain the same commitment to community organizing. This is due both to practical reasons (i.e. lack of time for organizing activities), and to political ones (i.e. a particular funding source does not allow the organization to partake in political activities). Thus, non-profit organizations are often faced with the tension between delivering services versus engaging in community organizing activities. Further influencing community organizing practices and service delivery in NPOs is the collective identity upon which the organization is based. Whether this identity is based on class, ethnicity, gender, or a combination of these factors, non-profit organizations often shape the content and direction of their activities based on the conceptualization of the identity that they publicly portray as well as the identity that their members share. On the other hand, movements sometimes choose to challenge established notions of “identity”; thus, an organization may seek to contest the dominant cultural norms regarding a particular identity, and view such a re-conceptualization as an outcome of its work. For these reasons, it is important to take a group’s collective identity into account when attempting to understand their political and organizational characteristics.

This paper will explore the relationship between service delivery and community organizing in several New York City based organizations that serve the South Asian American community. Using a qualitative case study methodology of 3 South Asian NPOs, this paper seeks to understand how non-profit organizations (NPOs) that serve the South Asian community in New York City reconcile the tension between political organizing and service delivery in regards to health issues. In addition, this research will attempt to understand the relationship between an organization’s collective identity and its strategic choices.

Findings indicate that three conceptual areas regarding organizational forms and strategies are relevant to this question, including the emergence of or shifting to new strategies; how organizations combine forms; and how collective identity and strategic decision-making are related. Findings indicate that organizations shift to new forms when new strategic forms like service delivery become legitimated or new resources become available (Minkoff, 1994). Legitimation may arise from the state or from an alternative funding agency. Such a shift in strategic form towards service delivery efforts is characterized by an increase in professionalization of staff members. As such, organizations face a
variety of strategic costs in shifting away from community organizing efforts towards service delivery. These include increased accountability towards funding agencies and a corresponding decrease in credibility towards the community members which the NPO serves. A second conceptual area that is relevant to the question of how organizations reconcile the tension between service delivery and community organizing efforts is NPOs’ efforts to combine different strategies. Organizations attempt to combine organizational forms by negotiating the terms of the state’s or funding institutions requirements; incorporating empowerment strategies into service delivery strategies; or hiring staff which have a commitment to both organizing and service delivery principles. Again, organizations often suffer strategic costs by combining forms in this manner, particularly in terms of fostering long-term organizing capabilities. A final conceptual area that is relevant to this research question is the role of an organization’s collective identity in choosing strategies. Identity may play an important role in the types of strategies an organization chooses; for example, an organization with an ideological commitment to democratic decision-making may find organizing efforts more appropriate than service delivery. On the other hand, organizational identity is also a manifestation of the community which it serves; as such, the acceptability of strategies must resonate with community members and may play a role in the organizational decision-making processes.

The findings of this study will have important implications for understanding organizational decision-making processes.

References:


Marwell, Nicole. “Community Based Non-Profit Organizations as Political Actors.” DRAFT, 2002.

Summary of Research
We will present findings from the second version of a wealth transfer microsimulation model that projects how much wealth will be transferred over the coming decades. This new version of the model predicts both inter-vivos and bequest giving; allows the breakdown of findings by select demographic groups; and has a special focus on predicting transfers to both charities and individuals by household wealth over the lifecycle. In January 2003, we confirmed the validity of a previous estimate of $41 trillion estimate. The new model will produce findings that answer the question, how much more than $41 trillion will be transferred?

Description
Paper Proposal: “New Findings on Wealth Transfer”
John J. Havens and Paul G. Schervish

The paper will present the first new wealth transfer estimates to be generated since 1999, the assumptions used to generate these estimates, and a glimpse at the implications for the level of charitable giving—both through bequests and during the lifetime of donors—among a variety of demographic groups, but especially by wealth holders, over the next 55-years. The projections will be derived from an enhanced version of the original of Wealth Transfer Microsimulation Model developed by the authors in 1999. The original model predicted that over the 55-year period from 1998 to 2052 total wealth transfer from estates, depending on economic growth rates, would be between $41 trillion and $136 trillion, with $6 trillion and $27 trillion of those bequests going to charity (Havens and Schervish 1999). The new model (WTMM II) has been adapted and expanded by the authors in a number of ways to predict both inter-vivos and bequest giving; to allow the breakdown of findings by select demographic groups; and to include a special focus on accurately predicting transfers to both charities and individuals by household wealth over the lifecycle.

In the first part of the paper we will look at some of the assumptions used to generate the estimates of wealth transfer. The enhanced model incorporates findings from research at the Boston College Social Welfare Research Institute over the past eighteen years on trends and patterns in inter-vivos and bequest giving, derived from a wide variety of data sources including the Survey of Consumer Finances and estate tax filings from the Internal Revenue Service. Death rates by age, race, gender, and wealth derived from data from the Center for Disease control are used to generate estates during the 55-year period of the simulation. In terms of growth in wealth over the period of the projection, while the first model assumed that all households’ assets grew at the same rates, regardless of the asset structure of the household portfolio, the new model has been modified to allow asset components to grow at different rates, so that wealth transfer can be modeled more accurately across the wealth spectrum. Furthermore, in regard to portfolio composition of assets, the model has built in an important restructuring of household asset portfolios among the wealthy. At age 65, as people retire or approach retirement, they reduce the percentage of assets held in primary residence and business equity, while increasing percentages held in financial assets. This shift in portfolio composition is important in light of differential growth rates because (1) it affects the growth in wealth after the restructuring and hence the amount of wealth transfer, (2) it offers the potential for increased inter-vivos giving and/or inter-personal transfers at the time of restructuring.
In the second part of the paper we will review the major findings of the model. First, in regard to bequests, we will be able to update our previous numbers on how much will be transferred via bequests over the 55-years of the projection, and how the transfer will be split among heirs, charity, taxes, and fees. Second, in regard to charitable giving over the lifetime, we will present projections for inter-vivos giving over the same period, including inter-vivos transfers to heirs. As in previous reports we will present projections for 2%, 3%, and 4% rates of secular economic growth.

In the third part of the paper we will examine how much wealth transfer will occur among various demographic groups. We will present projections of total wealth transfer, that is, bequests, inter-vivos charitable giving, and inter-vivos inter-personal transfers, by race/ethnicity, age, education, region, and marital status.

Finally, we will suggest some directions for research based on the findings, such as the potential for scenario development, using the model to answer questions, such as, if the amount of inter-vivos giving per household increases (or decreases) what will happen to household charitable bequests? We will also discuss the potential usefulness of the wealth transfer projections for fundraisers, nonprofit organizations, financial planners, and researchers of philanthropy.

References:


Summary of Research
The proposed paper is, first of all, a summary of the extant literature on the effect of the attenuation of ties between hospitals and their former religious sponsors, not on the hospitals, but on the sponsoring denomination or religious group. It will also include a summary of focus group research conducted with retired religious nurses in these institutions.

Description
The foundation and operation of health care institutions – hospitals, hospices, homes for the aged, etc – have a long history of religious involvement. Individual denominations and religious traditions have varied in their reasons for this involvement (Nelson, 2001; Risse, 1999; Farren, 1996; Kauffman, 1995; Numbers and Amundsen, 1986). All, however, both affected and were affected by their health care institutions. In recent years, nonprofit religious hospitals have displayed an increasing isomorphism with secular professional and economic models (Langley, 1997, 1998; Jones, 1995; Swartz, 1994; Hollingsworth, 1986; Starr, 1982). Previous literature has concentrated on the impact of this isomorphic change on the hospitals themselves (e.g. Bernardin, 1995; Sanders, 1988; Numbers and Amundsen, 1986). The proposed paper will explore the impact on the denominations of the loss or attenuation of their ties to health care institutions. In addition to a review of professional literature on this topic, the paper will also report focus group data of religious health-care practitioners and fund raisers – Roman Catholic nuns, Protestant deaconesses, and women’s missionary societies.

Bibliography


Summary of Research
The aim of the research is: 1) Expanding our understanding of the phenomenon of social entrepreneurship and its contribution to the development of new responses and knowledge in area of social services. 2) Expanding the available knowledge regarding the socio-demographic attributes, motivation, strategies, and operating patterns of individual social entrepreneurs. 3) Identification of the environmental conditions and organizational factors (incentives and barriers) effecting the chance for success of new social ventures.

Description
This exploratory study was carried out within the framework of doctorate thesis and was based on the results of five preliminary case studies of social ventures and on the subsequent analysis and comparison of the entrepreneurial processes characterizing 28 additional ventures that were founded during the 1990s in Israel. In the absence of previous in-depth research on the subject, and given the dearth of sound theoretical foundations regarding social entrepreneurship, the research based itself on concepts and categories found in the business entrepreneurship literature. As a result, the applicability of those concepts to the area of social entrepreneurship was checked and the need for additional concepts and categories, unique to the area of social entrepreneurship was assessed.

The research has adopted the interactive approach, which views entrepreneurship as a process based on interdependence and reciprocity related to variables in four main dimensions: The individual entrepreneur; The environment; The organization; and the process. The following criteria were chosen, a priori, to measure a social venture success: 1) Goal achievement 2) Sustainability (resources for ongoing operation including availability of the resources required for the venture's growth and development) 3) Integration of the venture’s services/programs within the framework of an existing organization.

The research dealt with three main issues:
First, is it possible to base research of non-profit social entrepreneurship on the business entrepreneurship literature?
Second, are there conditions unique to the sphere of social entrepreneurship that determine the social venture’s success?
Third, which combinations of variables help us explain the success of social ventures initiated by individual social entrepreneurs?

With respect to the first issue, the findings support the approach stating that the problems and challenges confronted by social entrepreneurs at each stage of the social venture's development are similar to those confronted by business ventures. The main challenge faced by the social entrepreneur is not development of a new, innovative service or program but development of a sustainable organizational framework.

Like business entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurs first recruit supporters among family and friends. The findings confirm that among female social entrepreneurs, dependence on family-based support, especially the husband. Also similar to economic ventures, it was found that total commitment to the project on the part of the social entrepreneurs can contribute a lot to the venture's success. Like business entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurs must often invest capital from their own private sources.
Another common factor is the importance attached to the structure and location of the entrepreneur's social network and the actions taken by intermediaries in determining the venture's success.

With respect to the second issue, social entrepreneurs can be considered "pioneers" in many respects. The first-order changes are occurred when social entrepreneurs bring tabooed issues to light, often by means of personal disclosures. Second-order changes occur when they express new attitudes and innovative approaches to service provision, as well as stimulate the search for new knowledge.

Analysis of the findings indicated that social entrepreneurs, like business entrepreneurs, are driven by combinations of motives rather than one single motive. Common motives include: the desire for self-fulfillment, occupational independence, and opportunities for creativity. Motives unique to social entrepreneurs include: search for solutions to individual distress, obligation to one's community of birth (e.g., ethnic community) or affiliation (e.g., individuals sharing a problem or common fate), and unanticipated recruitment to a cause/idea.

The ventures that were created, support the literature on non-profit organizations with respect to the entrepreneurs motivation: the desire of individuals and groups to contribute their time, skills, energy to society, dissatisfaction with current services and or the desire to fill a service gap left by the public sector. The findings clearly indicate that the sphere of social entrepreneurship, still lacks an infrastructure providing access to capital which brings their operation to excessive dependence on stuff ready to accept below-market wages as well as on volunteers.

An important finding relates to the role that can be played by non-profit organizations in the promotion of new social ventures: Besides the possibility that a veteran non-profit organizations would compete with new social ventures over resources and legitimacy. Some veteran non-profits tended to support the new venture with seed capital; provide the incubator conditions necessary to protect the young venture, incorporate the new venture within their areas of activity, use venture services on a contract basis, and cooperate with the venture.

Relating to the third issue, the analysis revealed two main groups of ventures. The first group involves ventures who developed and operated a wide range of services on the national or local level. accomplished by means of a complex organizational structure and a salaried staff from its establishment days. The second group contains ventures that adopted the self-help organizational model and/or relied solely on volunteer staff.

Among the ventures that developed a broad range of services on the national or local level and have reached success, we may infer interdependence between the following variables:
- The entrepreneur's previous experience in the areas of management and entrepreneurship contributed a lot to his/her ability to recruit, consolidate and manage the venture's staff.
- Acceptance of the venture's aim in the public discourse, the social network, receipt of financial support from foundations, and availability of funding at the time of the venture's establishment stage.

Organizational capacity is expressed in the ability to learn from experience, take advantage of opportunities, and adjust goals during the process of implementation, as well as market testing major elements of the service, acquisition of contracts, and formation of long-term cooperative partnerships with other organizations active in the same area.

Ventures that operate according to the self-help organizational model are likely to depend on a volunteer staff devoted to the venture's vision, on the ad hoc recruitment of funds and getting support on volunteer base from organizational consultants, advertising, and accounting services. However, it is doubtful that they will be able to reach the consolidation stage if they continue to rely solely on volunteer staff. The incorporation of their activities as an independent unit within the framework of a public organization or non-profit association is another option that permits social entrepreneurs to direct all their energies to the professional advancement of the venture's product or service.
Please note that the expended bibliography will be included in the paper.


Summary of Research
Can computers help HIV positive, low-income, minority clients better self-manage their disease? This paper presents results of an evaluation of COMET, a web-based, user-focused, interactive HIV/AIDS disease management and education system. Using analysis of focus groups, pre-test/post-test surveys, computer use, and medical records, the evaluation explores technical, attitudinal, knowledge, behavioral, and medical changes related to COMET use. Client, health care provider, and staff perspectives were used to determine what worked and didn't work in the federal demonstration project. The paper considers relations between theory and practice from HIV/AIDS, technology, and evaluation fields, and whether the COMET concept can be exported.

Description
The CORE Foundation is a nonprofit foundation at the CORE Center, the Midwest's largest provider of HIV/AIDS services. In 1998 the Foundation began wrestling with issues related to using computer technology in work with the CORE Center's inner city, predominately minority and low-income client base. General medical care trends in the United States had moved away from a paternalistic approach to patients toward emphases on patient autonomy and greater involvement with their own treatment (Kasper et al. 1992, Quill 1996). Use of open-access online resources for providing treatment and diagnostic information, synchronous and asynchronous discussions, medical advice and improving medication adherence had recently emerged as potentially useful tools in improving health care (Kuperman et al. 1998, Robinson et al. 1998). With the development and introduction of effective drugs and highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART), HIV positive/AIDS patients were living longer. Yet effective HIV/AIDS treatment depends not only on early diagnosis and adoption of appropriate therapy (Kitahata et al. 2000), but also on patient adherence to testing, treatment, and drug regime schedules (Valenti 2000). And that depends on effective patient-provider communication, collaboration, and better patient knowledge about HIV/AIDS and its effective treatments (Tsasis 2001). All of which provide a challenge in the context of the complexity of HIV/AIDS, changing treatment guidelines, inaccurate clinical information, and expression of issues and ideas in ways that are often beyond the comprehension of lay readers.

Urban inner-city populations with HIV/AIDS are also faced with a variety of other life challenges and social issues. Inner-city populations such as those served by the Center have had variable success with HIV/AIDS treatment adherence programs due to issues of homelessness as well as to medication side effects and the number of pills required per day. Focus groups with CORE Center HIV/AIDS clients in late 1999 and early 2000 verified a general lack of basic computer knowledge and limited computer access on their part. The focus groups also confirmed that available web sites were generally inappropriate for HIV/AIDS education of CORE Center clients. It was feasible to provide computer access to clients at the CORE Center. But could an interactive computer system linking HIV/AIDS patients and care providers be designed and implemented that would be effective in helping its clients better manage their disease?

In 2000 the CORE Foundation obtained Congressional funding for a demonstration project, run through the federal Office of Minority Health, to design and implement the Community and Minority Education and Training (COMET) Initiative for HIV/AIDS. COMET is an integrated computer system that seeks to empower patients by providing:
· Self-paced education for patients with HIV/AIDS;
· Tools to improve medication adherence; and
· Improved communication between patients and providers.

The project seeks to demonstrate that patients and providers can improve patient outcomes by integrating the use of the specialized computer network into their daily disease management and patient care practices. The COMET computer system was developed during 2001/2002 and went live in June 2002.

This paper presents selected results of an implementation and outcomes evaluation of the COMET project during its first year of actual use (June 2002 through June 2003). Nonprofit staff plans for the COMET project included an evaluation of intended effects on both patient outcomes (e.g., satisfaction with care, quality of life, medication adherence, self-management confidence, appointment adherence, and medical outcomes) and provider/physician outcomes (e.g., physician satisfaction, changes in adherence in physician’s patients, and physician use of the COMET system). The nonprofit CORE Foundation staff therefore built into the project specific kinds of data collection including baseline and post-six-month surveys of COMET clients, COMET usage tracking, and focus groups. Provider staff are gathering all the data. The contractor hired in March 2003 is analyzing the data, collaborating on identification of further information needs and data collection instrument design, and performing an outcomes evaluation of COMET. The evaluation also includes some exploration of implementation issues as they might impact outcomes.

This paper, authored by the evaluator and COMET project staff, will present selected results from the evaluation. It will provide quantitative and qualitative evidence concerning how well the project met its goals. In particular, it will address the following general questions:

· How did patients and providers respond to the computer system itself and the way it was implemented? How did they use the system?
· How successful was the COMET system in further educating the patients about HIV/AIDS?
· How successful was the COMET project in involving patients/clients in decision-making about their own treatment and disease related problems?
· Did patient-provider communication and understanding change, and if so, how?
· How did COMET affect patient adherence to drug regime and testing schedules?
· What correlations could be determined between COMET use by patients and providers, and disease treatments or medical test results?
· Did COMET use correlate with client self-reports of behavioral changes related to effectively dealing with chronic HIV/AIDS and medical or other problems typically associated with being HIV positive or having AIDS?

The presentation will also consider matters related to whether the COMET approach can be exported to other nonprofit agencies that serve patients who have chronic diseases.

Bibliography


Kuperman GJ, Sussman A, Schneider LI, Fiskio JM, Bates DW. Towards improving the accuracy of the


Valenti, WM. Treatment adherence improves outcomes and manages costs. AIDS Reader 2000; 11(2):77-80.
Summary of Research
Over the past several decades the number of private social service organizations, especially for-profit entities, has grown dramatically, but not uniformly. This research uses data from a national data file to investigate the hypothesis that inter-state variation in the nonprofit/for-profit organizational mix reflects differences in state-level factors and processes that create or erode institutional boundaries supportive of the maintenance of nonprofit organizations as a distinctive organizational form. Initial findings generally are supportive of the hypothesis, although the effect of additional control variables indicates that the processes underpinning the segregating processes are complex in nature.

Description
Introduction
Over the past several decades the number of private social service organizations in the United States has increased dramatically, due to growth in numbers of both nonprofits and for-profit forms of social service organization. In fact, the proportionate growth of for-profit forms of organization has out-paced the growth of the traditionally numerically dominant nonprofit form to a substantial degree (Salamon, 1999). This latter observation is particularly important because it means that there has been a change in the proportionate mix of the social service sector, from one where nonprofits were overwhelming dominant to one where the numbers of for-profit now constitute a significant and viable presence. While understanding the factors and processes underlying this change is an important problem in its own right, that is not the focus of this paper. Instead, we propose to focus on an aspect of this change that is masked by the tendency to characterize the change in mix using national statistics, namely, that the distribution of this change has not been uniform across geographic areas (Sommerfeld, 2002). This leads to the central question of this research: "Why does the proportionate mix of nonprofits to for-profits vary by state?" We attempt to answer this question using data from a specially designed data file from the Statistics of U.S. Businesses (SUSB) program. Our central hypothesis, drawn from organizational ecology, is that variation in the numbers of for-profits operating across different states reflects differences in state-level factors and processes that create or erode institutional boundaries supportive of the maintenance of nonprofit organizations as a distinctive organizational form.

Theoretical Background
A descriptive emphasis on geography has been common in nonprofit research as a number of studies have documented and explored the uneven geographic distribution of nonprofit sector organizations (Bielefeld, 2000; Boris, 2000; Corbin, 1999; Grønbjerg & Paarlberg, 2000). The interest in geographic variation has succeeded in tracking the effects of such local conditions as poverty levels, ethnic heterogeneity, and measures of religiosity on the size and structure of the nonprofit sector. Cultural influences on public and private generosity (Wolpert, 1993; Schneider, 1996) as well as normative views regarding the roles of the market and public sector (Elazar, 1994) also have been shown to effect the geographic distribution of nonprofit organizations (Bielefeld & Corbin, 1996; Bielefeld, 2000). However, these studies do not include a measure of the for-profit social service alternatives that exist within the areas studied. Hence, none really address the problem of explaining variation across geography in the mix of nonprofit and for-profit forms of social service organization. This represents an important limitation because, among other things, it limits our capacity to understand the role of organizational diversity in creating and shaping social change in society, as well as our capacity to anticipate the implications of such change for the provision of services to vulnerable populations.

Despite the foregoing limitation in the nonprofit literature, the organizational ecology literature has for
some time been concerned with characterizing and explaining organizational diversity through the scientific examination of the founding, transformational, and mortality processes in populations of organizations (Carroll & Hannan, 2000). Hence, we propose to draw on this tradition in explaining the propensity for the proportionate mix of nonprofit and for-profit social organizations to vary across states. Our central argument is that such variation can be explained by the comparative strength of segregating and blending processes associated with the boundaries around these organizational forms (Hannan & Freeman, 1986). In contexts where processes segregating nonprofits social service organizations are stronger, we expect to find proportionately lower numbers of for-profit organizations. Conversely, where segregating processes are weaker, i.e., a greater propensity toward the blending of organizational forms, we expect to find proportionally greater numbers of for-profits organizations. In this paper, we characterized segregating and blending processes by focusing on the actions of significant institutional actors with the potential to affect the degree to which non-profits may be institutionalized in a given state.

Data and Methods
The data used in this research come from a specially designed data set from the Statistics of U.S. Businesses (SUSB) program. This unique data file includes all 1999 employer organizations operating in the 624 three-digit NAICS code (Social Assistance). Unlike the publicly available data from the SUSB, this data set distinguishes between taxable and tax-exempt organizations.

We measure variation in the strength of segregating/blending processes using a number of institutional indicators, including the state legislative response to hospital and HMO conversions, union strength, private foundation activity, and nonprofit sector legitimacy as measured by a reliance on earned income. The dependent variable is measured as the proportion of all social service establishments that operate as for-profit entities in a given state. Social service establishments are defined to include any organization classified as providing individual and family services; community food and housing; or vocational rehabilitation services. Descriptive statistics reveal substantial inter-state variation in the for-profit proportion of social service organizations, ranging from about 11% of all providers in South Dakota to 38% of all providers in Washington State. In 15 states, at least 25% of all social service establishments were operating as for-profit entities. Finally, to deal with the possibility of alternative plausible explanation to our segregating/blending hypothesis of variation in nonprofit/for-profit, we also have measures for a number of realistic control variables that other research has shown to have implications for explaining the composition of the private social services sector.

Preliminary Findings
The data are analyzed using multivariate regression techniques. Initial findings generally are supportive the importance of institutional processes in accounting for the inter-state variation in relative proportion of nonprofit and for-profit social service organizations. However, the effect of the additional control variables suggests that the processes underpinning this variation represent a complex phenomenon. As anticipated, foundation involvement exhibited a significant negative effect on for-profit social service provision. Also, consistent with prior research indicating that greater density of houses of worship increases nonprofit social service density (Corbin, 1999), our findings demonstrate a strong negative relationship between houses of worship and proportion of social service organizations operating as for-profits. However, other controls had inconsistent or insignificant coefficients. We anticipate refining the analysis using additional measures of the institutionalization process in the final version of the paper.

Contribution to the Field
This research addresses several important academic and practitioner interests. From an academic perspective, this analysis provides a unique opportunity to test empirically theoretical arguments concerning the presence of competing organizational forms in a given industry. Further, while the cross-sectional nature of the data prevents the inclusion of time-varying covariates, the construction of the basic multivariate model and the findings from this research lay the foundation for future longitudinal, dynamic studies in this area. On the instrumental side, by providing critical information to practitioners, clients, donors, and elected official on the conditions favoring particular legal forms of social service organizations, this research connects to the tradition in nonprofit research that paying attention to
variation in the legal form of social service organizations is important because there are real consequences of form for such issues as the quality and access of care for vulnerable populations (Weisbrod, 1998; Harrington, Woolhandler, Mullan, Carrillo, & Himmelstein, 2001)

Selected References
Perhaps now more than ever, the U.S. is aware of how interconnected it is with the rest of the world. Since the September 11 terrorist attacks, when for the first time in decades the people of the United States felt truly threatened for their own safety, understanding of the importance of a global perspective has increased. In being a target, many Americans asked for the first time about their country’s role in the global landscape, and what business practices and governmental policies could lead to such a poignant hatred of the U.S.

The philanthropic response to September 11 was astounding, yet addressed symptoms (such as the aftermath of the tragedy) rather than causes (such as global inequity and hopelessness). This illustrates the isolationist tendencies of the U.S.’s nonprofit sector. According to the American Association of Fundraising Counsel, Giving USA report 2001, in 2000, 1.3% of the $203 billion given by U.S. donors went to international causes. The percentage of grants that support programs abroad by American foundations hovers around eleven percent. Given the flow of funds across borders in the government and for-profit sectors, this proportion seems exceedingly low. The paradox of the small percentage of funds U.S. foundations donate to international causes when compared with the huge presence of the United States in the world and vice versa is at the heart of this study.

In this qualitative, cross-sectional ethnography of philanthropy, the researcher performed twenty in-depth interviews from stakeholders in the field of international philanthropy. The unit of analysis is the individual stakeholder. Through these interviews and review of site documents, the researcher engaged in an inductive process of learning and understanding a complex cultural setting.

The four populations interviewed are: 1) individuals who work for US-based nonprofits that do work in foreign countries or re-grant funds to small organizations based in foreign countries; 2) individuals who work for US-based foundations that have (or have had) an international grantmaking program; 3) individuals who work for US-based foundations that do not have an international grantmaking program, and 4) individuals who work for affinity groups or other organizations related to international grantmaking. This is the population most knowledgeable and most involved with international giving. Through these interviews, the researcher gained an understanding of barriers foundations face in international giving, such as challenges in evaluating projects, predominant psycho-cultural attitudes about international engagement, local and global political factors (including the effects of 9/11), and legal/tax barriers. In addition, the role of intermediary and re-granting organizations in making international philanthropy more accessible and the unique role of private philanthropy in the international arena were addressed. Through researching these subjects, the researcher is able to make claims about the perceptions of people knowledgeable about international giving by U.S.-based private foundations.

Significant quantitative research on the topic has been and is continuing to be done by the Foundation Center, Charities Aid Foundation and the Council on Foundations. However, qualitative research on attitudes and beliefs stakeholders have about international giving has not been done.

While many of the issues that face foundations wanting to fund international projects are discussed in the existing literature, they are not approached from the perspective of foundations, nor do they take into account the current economic downturn and the post-9/11 political climate.
The literature does confirm that foundations to have a unique role to play in international aid, funding groups and projects that do not benefit from the diminishing pool of government aid or private investment. What's more, funding programs that address global issues is beginning to be seen as in our self-interest.

The literature provides few frameworks for understanding foundation decision-making and motivations for giving. Those that do exist can be useful tools in answering the question of why foundations are or are not giving to international causes.

Research on barriers to international giving is also scarce. The literature that does exist on issues that serve as barriers to international giving does not frame them as such, and is not focused on foundation activity. Some of the issues addressed in the literature are: evaluation, culture-specific models of civil society, patterns of imperialism in philanthropy, the challenges of cross-sector collaboration, political issues, corruption, and dependence on foreign donors. To the extent that literature exists, information on these and other barriers to international giving is fragmented and incomplete.

There has been no attempt to address the challenges facing foundations in their international work in one study. Through this study, internal challenges foundations face in international giving (such as the way decisions are made, business processes and insularity) and external challenges (such as political issues both in the United States and in the recipient country) will be addressed and placed in a larger context. Understanding the foundation perspective and experience will not only fill a gap in the literature, but will be highly useful for both foundations as well as domestic and foreign nonprofits seeking funding.

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Summary of Research
This is a theoretical paper assessing existing nonprofit theory and its ability to explain mixed industries. The main thesis is that reliance on the term “collective good” obscures the variation in different categories of goods, which in turn obscures our ability to explain why mixed industries exist for some goods and not others. My contribution is to divide collective goods into three different types of goods (common property, public, and toll) and then more clearly link each good to sector.

Description
Please note that this is an excerpt from the paper rather than a stand alone description.

Much of the theorizing about nonprofits suffers from a lack of clarity on the nature of the good and its relation to institutional arrangements. With the exception of Ben-ner and Van Hoomissen’s work, goods are divided into only two types: private and collective. Hansmann (1980, 1986) exclusively focuses on private goods with information asymmetry. Weisbrod (1977, 1988) and Krashinsky (1986) do not distinguish between different types of collective goods. Both Weisbrod’s market/government failure and Hansmann’s contract failure theories link the good with institutional form but do not differentiate beyond private and collective goods. In this paper I argue that further clarifying the nature of goods improves our ability to explain why nonprofit, for-profit and public sectors provide the goods and services that they do.

Traditionally goods have been divided into public and private depending on two attributes: exclusion and jointness of use (Musgrave and Musgrave, 1976). Exclusion refers to the ability to exclude a person from consuming a good once it is provided. Jointness of use refers to whether one person’s consumption of the good diminishes the amount of the good available to another person. This term is used interchangeably with rivalry. Exclusion and nonjointness in use are defining attributes of pure private goods whereas difficulty of exclusion and jointness of use are the defining attributes of pure public goods. If the good is perfectly excludable that means that an exchange must occur for someone other than the owner to gain access to the good. For public goods, a person can benefit from the good while not contributing to its provision. Since benefits can be received without paying for them, a temptation to free-ride exists. If left unchecked, free-rider problems will lead to suboptimal provision of the public good. For this reason, traditional economic theory concludes that a governing structure with the power to tax individuals and to enforce compliance is the appropriate institutional arrangement to overcome the free-rider problem. However, many goods do not fit neatly into the public or private categories. For example, it is difficult to exclude people from fishing on the open seas. Therefore ocean fishing leans towards being categorized as a public good. Yet, one person’s use of this resource decreases the amount available to the next user. This attribute of the good classifies it closer to a private good. A second example of a good that does not fit either public or private good definitions is a health club. Membership dues effectively exclude nonmembers but the facility is jointly used by the members.

Scholars in the public choice tradition developed a more refined theory of goods building on the exclusion and jointness of use attributes to define two additional categories: toll (club) goods and common-pool resources (Ostrom and Ostrom, 1977). The fishing example described above is an example of a common-pool resource (CPR). CPRs share the nonexclusion attribute of public goods which means that they are subject to free-rider problems. But they also share the nonjointness of use attribute of private goods. Therefore, CPRs are congestible or depletable unless institutional arrangements exist for regulating appropriation and provision (Ostrom, 1990; Ostrom et al., 1994).
The health club example is classified as a toll (club) good because it has the attributes of excludability and jointness in use (Buchanan, 1965; Cornes and Sandler, 1996). Weisbrod's definition of collective good as one that "can be enjoyed by a number of people simultaneously" only addresses one axis: jointness of use. This axis encompasses both public goods and toll goods. However, in terms of institutional choice, making the distinction between public and toll goods has important consequences. For pure public goods, the theoretical foundation for the institutional choice of government provision is well founded in theory. However once we move from pure types and include toll goods, institutional choice is more variable. For example, the health club described above is an example of a toll good. Institutional arrangements for a health club include nonprofit clubs that are governed by members, for-profit spas, or recreational facilities such as a public pool which are provided by local or central governments. In other words, institutional arrangements for toll goods exist in many forms (Sandler, 1992:72). Therefore, we would expect mixed economies for toll goods. A market/government failure theoretical approach falters in being unable to explain mixed economies precisely because it does not make the exclusion distinction. Because exclusion allows members or owners to charge a price for admission, the realm of institutional possibilities expands. If consumers are willing to pay a price allowing a profit margin for the for-profit entrepreneur, then there is room for for-profit entrepreneurs in the market for toll goods.

Ben-ner and Van Hoomissen (1993) add asymmetric information to the attributes of excludability and jointness of use. They note that excludability, jointness of use, and asymmetric information are not strictly intrinsic attributes of goods, but are affected by the variable circumstances under which they are transacted. For simplicity, they refer to excludability and jointness of use as if they were attributes of goods and treat asymmetric information as an attribute of both goods and transactions (1993:34, footnote 6). Weimer and Vining (1992) make a finer distinction between information as a good and information asymmetry as information about a good's attributes. Information as a good is nonrivalrous (one person's consumption does not diminish another person's consumption) therefore the critical issue is the difficulty of exclusion. Weimer and Vining reserve the term information asymmetry for "information about a good's attributes as distributed between buyer and seller or between externality generator and affected party" (1992:69). For my purposes I refer to excludability and jointness in use as attributes of a good and information asymmetry as an attribute of the distribution of information about a good.

This distinction is important for understanding market failure. Weimer and Vining examine the loss of social surplus due to information asymmetries. Depending on when consumers can determine the good's characteristics, Weimer and Vining define search, experience, and post-experience goods (1992:71). Consumers are able to ascertain the qualities of a 'search good' prior to purchase (e.g., a chair). For 'experience goods', consumers are not able to judge quality until consumption (e.g., meal in a restaurant). 'Post-experience goods' are goods for which quality cannot be determined even after they have begun consumption. Child care is an example of a post-experience goods. For these goods, continued consumption does not necessarily reveal the quality to consumers. Purchasing post-experience goods involves uncertainty because the potential harm from low quality post-experience goods may not be revealed until significant time passage, if at all. The information asymmetry is substantial and will lead to decreased social surplus and market failure.

The critical issue then centers on the success of secondary markets to decrease the information asymmetry. Weimer and Vining define secondary markets as consisting of third party actors and organizations that help remedy information asymmetry problems. Although secondary markets decrease information asymmetry for experience goods, persistent asymmetries may remain because consumption alone does not perfectly reveal the true quality of the good. Therefore, we can expect some secondary market activity for post-experience goods but information asymmetries will persist.

Theoretical approaches to explaining the origin and persistence of nonprofit organizations link the nature of the good to institutional form; For-profits are the institutional arrangements appropriate for private goods and nonprofit and public institutional arrangements are appropriate for collective goods and for private goods with information asymmetry. But, as discussed above, institutional choice for toll goods is more variable. Mixed industries exist for many goods and
services and, interestingly enough, mixed industries also exist for toll goods with post-experience information asymmetry. According to existing economic theories, consumers should demand nonprofit production of all these types of services. While this occurs, it does not occur to an extent that theory predicts as evidenced by the number of for-profits flourishing in industries producing post-experience goods such as child care, nursing home, and hospital industries.

A careful analysis of toll (club) good theory and its relevance to mixed economies is needed. Mixed economies exist and it may be that toll good theory can inform our understanding of the role of alternative institutional forms within the same industry. For example, an analysis of child care as a toll good may lead to a focus on market differentiation (i.e., who is serving what to whom). It may be that nonprofit, for-profit, and public child care organizations serve very different populations or offer different services. If this is the case, the child care policies should be geared at supporting the sector(s) serving the target population. Or, it may be the case that there is considerable intra-sectoral variation and that some for-profits and nonprofits are more similar than the full spectrum in either sector. In this case, research needs to focus on determining the commonalities across the similar for-profit and nonprofit organizations to determine the variables important to quality.
Modern university presidents are expected to spend an increasing amount of their time raising net new resources for their campus. In fact, many advertisements for presidents and chancellors ask for experience with fundraising. This paper compares the results of two similar surveys of college and university presidents to see whether and/or how their perceptions about and satisfaction with their campus’ development efforts have changed over time. In addition, the two samples allow us to use pooled time series cross sectional analyses to better utilize the data.

Summary of Research
Modern university presidents are expected to spend an increasing amount of their time raising net new resources for their campus. In fact, many advertisements for presidents and chancellors ask for experience with fundraising. This paper compares the results of two similar surveys of college and university presidents to see whether and/or how their perceptions about and satisfaction with their campus’ development efforts have changed over time. In addition, the two samples allow us to use pooled time series cross sectional analyses to better utilize the data. We have a sample of 166 responses from 1990 and 124 from 2000 (pooled n = 290) from the research and doctoral universities in the US.

Rooney et al. (2002) examined the factors that explain satisfaction of university presidents with their development efforts from a sample of 124 research and doctoral universities in 2000. This paper uses a similar framework, but adds a sample collected by Bouse in 1990. By combining the samples we can ascertain both trends over time and whether or not the same factors matter in both years. In addition, we can ascertain whether or not the same independent variables are the best explanatory variables for both years and/or in a pooled time series cross sectional analysis.
In the aftermath of the social changes and civil rights awakening of the 1960s newly emergent causes coalesced around issues of fundraising in the workplace and, specifically, joined in efforts to open up governmental and corporate employee campaigns previously dominated by United Funds. This paper reviews the history of what was dubbed the "alternative fundraising movement", considers the role of the National Committee for Responsive Philanthropy in its development, and analyzes the impact of growing numbers of progressive "alternative funds" on the United Way system and philanthropy more broadly.

In Kurt Lewin's language (1951), unfreezing workplace fundraising has been difficult, because the forces resisting change were initially far stronger than those that urged changed. However, from the 1980s through the end of the 20th century, the forces for change increased and coalesced. One interesting part of the dynamic that has received inadequate attention, was that success in the end resulted from combined public-private efforts, involving Congressional leaders, e.g. Pat Schroeder, as well as the National Committee for Responsive Philanthropy-- an outgrowth of the Donee Group which received support from John D. Rockefeller 3rd and the Filer Commission (Brilliant, 2000). Many groups were involved in the change effort, including the "Legal Defense Funds", Women's Way (Philadelphia) and local funds in California (e.g. Associated-In-Group Donors-United Givers and the Brotherhood Crusade of Los Angeles, an early Black United Fund). But success in gaining Congressional support for change, after hesitation on the part of the Supreme Court (1985), can certainly be attributed in significant part to the persistent efforts of Bob Bothwell, Executive Director of the National Committee for Responsive Philanthropy.

In the subsequent decade and into the early 21st century, alternative funds and the causes they support have been making slow, but overall consistent progress with regard to the amounts of money raised and their numbers; there are now over 52 members in the National Alliance for Choice in Giving, which is the umbrella organization for progressive workplace federations. The role of alternative groups, both more traditional causes, like health related funds, as well as social justice groups, has increased in public sector campaigns at all levels, local, state and municipal. And they are now participating in more than 60 business workplace campaigns. This competition (along with other accountability issues) is forcing a major change in the United Way approach to their own fundraising, with an evolving concept of community problem-solver (United Way of America, 2001; Young, 2001). Although relatively speaking, the amounts collected by all the "alternative funds", a reported $222 million (National Committee for Responsive Philanthropy, 2003), is small compared with $3.95 billion for the United Way.
in 2001-2002, the new funding movement has had a major impact on the vision of workplace fundraising. It also suggests a need for a new conceptualization and name for the many different groups formerly considered "alternatives" but now evolving with their own identity.

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______________________________________________. Charts with data on amounts raised by non-United Way alternative funds and Federations (provided to the author), January 2003.


My presentation will address two main questions: (1) How have local Chicago nonprofits participated in civic and protest activity in the city over time? And (2) Do characteristics of the communities in which nonprofits reside impact the ability to secure funds from foundations, and by extension their potential effectiveness as agents of social change? I intend to discuss how coalitions of nonprofits have worked together on certain issues and what these patterns of participation look like across decades. In addition, I will address questions about the spatial locations of nonprofits: how do communities impact nonprofit organizational behavior?

The paper presents results from an empirical study of nonprofit involvement in collective action (protest and civic events) in the city of Chicago. I also utilize community data from a survey of Chicago neighborhoods (Project on Human Development in Chicago Neighborhoods) and data on foundation funding of nonprofit organizations in Chicago.

This paper examines the role of nonprofit organizations and local communities in protest and civic events in Chicago neighborhoods during the past three decades. In addition to providing organization-specific services, local nonprofit organizations are also a voice for change in the communities they serve. At the same time, the communities in which nonprofits reside exert influence on the behavior of these organizations and may affect external funding of local nonprofits. This paper describes nonprofit involvement in protest and civic events, examining what coalitions of organizations (nonprofit, profit, government) work together in these events. This analysis will contribute to the literature on nonprofit organizations by further examining their advocacy role in specific communities. It will also contribute to the literature on social movements, by including previously neglected forms of collective action (civic events).

In addition to analyzing nonprofit action in Chicago, this paper considers the influence of “community” (or neighborhood) in nonprofit activity and activism. There is a large “neighborhood effects” literature in sociology that examines how (and whether) neighborhood attributes impact various social outcomes. This prompts the question: “Are there “neighborhood effects” which work through nonprofit organizations to impact local protest and civic activity?” The paper examines this question with regard to (1) the level and type of protest and civic activity involving nonprofits located in specific neighborhoods in the city of Chicago and (2) whether structural characteristics of neighborhoods attract funding to nonprofits in certain areas of the city. This analysis will build on previous work in social movement philanthropy (Jenkins and Halcli, 1999 and Ostrander, 1999) by considering the role of “community” and spatial location in nonprofit advocacy and foundation support for these organizations.

Following conventions of social movement researchers in sociology and political science, the paper reports analyses of cross-sectional event data collected from the Chicago Tribune newspaper. However, unlike traditional social movement data, civic events (e.g. ethnic festivals or fundraisers) as well as protest events (e.g. a march protesting a city policy) are included in the data. The event information coded includes (but is not limited to) the event type (civic or protest), event size, and event location (community area), the names and types of organizations involved in the event, and the claims and forms of civic engagement or protest used in the event. In order to assess the influence of communities the paper analyzes data from the Project on Human Development in Chicago.
Neighborhoods, census data, and nonprofit funding data. This paper reports findings from an analysis of the decade years 1970 to 2000.


Utilizing Organization Theory to Understand Faith-Based Organization (FBO)-Government Collaboration

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Summary of Research
A long tradition of public-private collaboration exists, especially in education and health care. However, in an era of devolution, the trend towards privatization of social service delivery continues to advance networks and network structures between the sectors for public policy and management. Such developments are further witnessed with the recent passage of the landmark 1996 federal welfare reform legislation, which contains the small but controversial “Charitable Choice” provision formalizing the relationship between faith-based organizations (FBOs) and government agencies. This paper explores the nature of FBO-government collaboratives utilizing organization theory literature. Case examples provide a way of linking theory with practice.

Description
In the United States, a long history of public-private collaboration exists, especially in education and health care. Still, the trend towards privatization of social service delivery has led to an even stronger push towards networks and network structures for public policy and management, in general. Even the widespread use of terms like “collaboration,” “partnership,” “strategic alliances,” and “joint ventures” (more generically) across the sectors have become commonplace. Policymakers, social science researchers, and practitioners, alike present the taken-for-granted advantages of and increasingly popular approaches to addressing America’s social problems, although there is scant research on the actual process and nature of the effects of such efforts. The current paper will apply organization theory to actual case studies of FBO-government partnerships to link theory with practice.

Background
The Charitable Choice legislation specifically outlines new rules for collaboration between government agencies and faith-based organizations. This paper explores the process and nature of these relationships by utilizing the interorganizational relations, collaboration and trust, and partnership literatures. Following the literature review, I will provide specific case examples of FBO-government partnerships to link theory with practice.

Relevance to field
Current organization theory literature overwhelmingly views collaboration and partnership between government and nongovernmental organizations as a positive phenomenon. However, in light of my direct observation of these collaboratives and interviews with church leaders presently involved in collaborative efforts with government, there are challenges that may not be easily overcome. For one, the issue of capacity of smaller religious congregations to take on government funding is a concern. Several other challenges will be presented in further detail in the paper.

This exploratory study embarks on the effort to assess existing FBO-government “partnerships” by using qualitative data in conjunction with theory-based research. Drawing from in-depth interviews with pastors and lay members, participant observation, and organizational documents, recommendations to inform both policymakers and researchers alike regarding the kinds of collaborations that may be feasible and those that perhaps should be avoided will be presented.
Contribution

Faith based organizations are a diverse lot as noted in the footnote, but the focus of most studies remains on congregational efforts. Most of the research on congregations as social service "partners" with government agencies has focused on the types of services large, urban American, inner-city congregations provide and the outcomes of the services offered. Scholars have studied congregations from various social science disciplines (including sociology, social work, public health, history, political science, psychology, theology, public policy, and economics to name a few) using diverse methodologies that fall along the continuum of exploratory to explanatory research. Still, very few studies have focused on the collaborative relationships as a unit of analysis. The proposed paper will do just that.

Conclusion

We are now in an era of devolution in which the role of federal government as the primary social service deliverer has diminished and the shift towards sub-national governments (i.e., states and locals) is the norm, furthering the blurring of the lines between the sectors. This has implications for issues of accountability: a theme that will be developed further in the paper. With the emphasis on this sub-sector (i.e., FBOs) of nonprofits by the current Bush administration, it is important to understanding the nature and process of the existing relationships between FBOs and government agencies. Understanding the present role of congregations and their capacity (or lack thereof) to expand will allow policymakers to make more informed decisions about the types of collaborative relationships that warrant public funding support; those that require more indirect relationships; and finally those "partnerships" that perhaps should be shunned. The issues surrounding the capacity question of congregations also have implications for nonprofits, in general, that are entangled with government agencies. This idea will also be developed further in the paper.

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Prediction of future cash flows is a major premise underlying most economic valuation models. Research has shown that many of the key conventions and elements embodied in the Financial Accounting Standards Board's conceptual framework apply to nonprofit institutions. This research paper will address a topic of concern to users of financial information of educational institutions. The objective is to determine if Form 990 information with adjustments can provide a number for cash-provided-by-operations that approximates the actual number from the audited financial statements.

Description
The importance of forecasting cash flows is well established in the accounting and finance literature. Prediction of future cash flows is a major premise underlying most economic valuation models. One of the major objectives of financial reporting that the Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB) has stated in its Statement of Financial Accounting Concepts (SFAC) No. 1 is decision usefulness. The FASB emphasized this objective for nonprofits by issuing SFAC No. 6 which included nonprofit organizations as well. Research by Barragato and Basu (2002) has also shown that many of the key conventions and elements embodied in the FASB's conceptual framework apply to nonprofit institutions.

IRS form 990 has become an important resource for understanding Not-for Profit (NFP) organizations. Due to the increase in availability of Form 990 data through databases of the National Center for Charitable Statistics and the Philanthropic Research Inc.'s GuideStar website (Gordon, et al 1999), an increase number of users are relying on the 990 data. These issues include: financial vulnerability and debt management (Tuckman and Chang, 1991, 1993), sources and uses of funds (Chang and Tuckman, 1990) and economic performance (Chang and Tuckman, 1990). However concerns have been raised about the reliability and quality of Form 990 (Froelich et al, 2000; Gantz, 1999; Froelich, 1997; Froelich and Knoepfler, 1996; Skelly and Steuerle, 1992) data versus audited financial statements. Form 990 was recently revised in response to the major changes in NFP accounting and reporting embodied in the Financial Accounting Standards Board's (FASB) Statement of Financial Accounting Standards (SFAS) no. 116, 117 and 124.

Recent research has examined the implementation of FASB Statement No. 117 by colleges and universities. The flexibility in FASB Statement No. 117 was intended to let not-for-profit organizations make distinctions that they believe will provide more meaningful information for the users of their financial statements (66-68). Fischer, et al (2002) examined one important measure, operating income, and found a substantial diversity in practice. This diversity makes inter-institutional comparisons difficult, if not infeasible and impossible.

The objective of this study is to determine if Form 990 information with adjustments can provide a number for cash-provided-by-operations that approximates the actual number from the audited financial statements. This study will make several contributions to the literature. It will help determine the reliability and usefulness of 990 Data for estimating cash flows from operations. It should also provide useful evidence for accounting standards setters and users of financial information that includes the institutions themselves and their associations (ACE, NACUBO, accreditation agencies, etc.), the Board of Regents, Foundations, Alumni, and other donors.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY
This study has obtained the actual financial statements issued by private colleges and universities for the fiscal year ending in 2000. The annual reports were obtained in conjunction with a survey of the
1,100 four-year, degree-granting private colleges and universities in the United States to collect information regarding financial statement display. Of the 293 survey respondents, only 71 percent (207) provided their annual report. We were then able to obtain the form 990 data from the GuideStar Database for 184 of these Colleges and Universities. We will use the model developed by Barragoto and Basu (2002) to predict cash flows from operations based on 990 data. Variables are defined as follows based on Form 990 general line descriptions (in parentheses):

TA = total assets (total assets, beginning of year),
TR = total revenues (total revenue),
NA = change in net assets (excess + other changes),
AR = accounts receivable (accounts receivable),
PLGE = pledges receivable (pledges receivable),
GRTREC = grants receivable (grants receivable),
PPD = prepaid expenses (prepaid expenses),
AP = accounts payable (accounts payable),
GRTPAY = grants payable (grants payable),
FUTSUP = support and revenue designated for future (support and revenue designated for future),
INV = inventories (inventories for sale or use),
DEPR = depreciation (depreciation, depletion, total),
CFT = NAT + ART - 1 - ART + PLGET - 1 - PLGET + GRTRECt - 1 - GRTRECt + PPDt - 1 - PPDt + INVt - 1 - INVt - 1 + APt - GRTPAYt - 1 + GRTPAYt - FUTSUPt - 1 + FUTSUPt + DEPRt.

Cash flows computed using this data will then be compared with actual cash flows from operations presented in the statement of cash flows in the audited financial statements. Variations will be analyzed and reasons will be discussed.

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Entrepreneurship has been a driving force behind the rapid expansion of the voluntary sector as well as the engine propelling much of the growth of the business sector. This paper examines the extent to which elements that contribute to successful business entrepreneurship can be adapted and applied to successful social entrepreneurship. This paper offers a comparative analysis of commercial and social entrepreneurship based on a prevailing analytical model from commercial entrepreneurship. The analysis highlights key similarities and differences between these two forms of entrepreneurship and presents a framework for how to approach the social entrepreneurial process more systematically and effectively.