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This dissertation is dedicated to Chris, Truett, and Macey. They patiently endured my time in graduate school, and supported me even though it took so much time away from them.

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Abstract

Discussions about nonprofit organizations often portray a very unique sector with a specific set of values, goals, and norms. And yet, there is a lot of diversity among nonprofit organizations in role, purpose and structure. Recognizing the role that collaboration plays in nonprofit service delivery is important, because foundations and government agencies are increasingly requiring that nonprofits collaborate in order to qualify for grants and contracts. There has been a significant growth in the literature on collaboration which has helped us understand the determinants of successful collaboration and raised questions about how organizations choose partners and the effect of collaborative arrangements on organizational capacity. This dissertation examines nonprofit collaboration in three contexts: across the nonprofit sector, in the child welfare field, and in disaster response and recovery. Drawing on three unique data sources, this dissertation addresses the following questions: 1. Do substantive differences in purpose affect the frequency of nonprofit collaboration with organizations in the public and private sectors?; 2. How does the extent of relationships with government agencies affect the capacity and effectiveness of child welfare nonprofits?; and 3. How do nonprofit organizations collaborate with each other, with private businesses, and with government agencies following a disaster? The findings indicate that frequency of collaboration is determined more by resource dependency than differences in the substantive focus of nonprofit organizations. However, differences in substantive areas do affect the type of collaboration – informal v formal – in which nonprofit organizations engage.

Chapter 1: Introduction and Literature Review

Over the last 20 years, the study and practice of public administration has shifted from a focus on government agencies that were rigid, hierarchical bureaucracies, to an increased study of governing by collaboration. The move started in the 1970s, when policy scholars noted the effect of intergovernmental (Pressman and Wildavsky 1984) and interorganizational (Hanf and Scharpf 1978) collaboration on policy implementation. The shift accelerated when running government like a business, with a focus on efficiency and market-like mechanisms, became popular in the 1980s and 1990s. This led to a privatizations of many government functions through contracts with nonprofit and business organizations in order to create market-like competition (Osborne and Gaebler 1992) and take advantage of economies of scale (Hawkins, Ward, and Becker 1991). Scholars sometimes refer to this third-party delivery system as the hollowing out of government, where government service delivery to the community is increasingly provided by nonprofit and private businesses (Frederickson and Frederickson 2006; Milward and Provan 2000).

Public administration scholars have largely turned their focus to the study of governance, which has many different definitions, but often refers to the system of providing government services through collaboration between organizations across public and private sectors. Much of this research has focused on network structures (Granovetter 1973; Isett and Provan 2005; Provan and H. Brinton Milward 1995; Provan and Kenis 2008), network performance (Andrews and Entwistle 2010; Koontz and Thomas 2006; Provan and Kenis 2008; Provan and Milward 2001), and managing within and through networks and collaborative arrangements (Agranoff 2006; McGuire

2006; Milward and Provan 2006; O'Toole Jr. and Meier 2004; L. J. O'Toole and Meier 1999; Peters 1998).

Historically, public administration as a discipline focused on government agencies. The move to a focus on governance requires that scholars in the field widen their focus to organizations across sectors that provide community services. This dissertation focuses on the nonprofit sector, which has exploded in growth since the 1960s. Government agencies rely heavily on nonprofit organizations to provide social services to communities through grants and contracts (Steuerle and Hodgkinson 2006). We have some information on how contracting with government agencies affects nonprofit organizations' governance (Alexander, Nank, and Stivers 1999) and management practices (O'Regan and Oster 2002), but I seek to extend our understanding of how both informal and formal collaboration affect nonprofit organizations across the nonprofit sector.

The nonprofit sector is large and extremely diverse, and my goal is to speak to that diversity in this dissertation by examining nonprofit collaboration across several different nonprofit subsectors and in different organizational fields. I accomplish this task by first examining collaboration in a sample of nonprofit organizations in Oklahoma. Then, I narrow my focus to child welfare nonprofits, which collaborate both informally and formally under contracts with public child welfare agencies to provide foster care services across the nation. Finally, I examine nonprofit collaboration across sectors in times of emergency response and recovery by examining how nonprofits responded to a series of destructive tornadoes and flooding that affected much of central Oklahoma in the final weeks of May 2013. I conclude the dissertation by synthesizing

the findings of the individual chapters and discussing their implications for practice and theory.

The next section of this chapter discusses the public administration literature with regards to governance, networking and collaboration, and the nonprofit sector. Then I provide a summary of the chapters of this dissertation. The chapters are meant to stand individually, as empirical examinations of nonprofit collaboration in functionally different areas. However, in the final chapter of this dissertation, I discuss the overall implications of the findings from the three empirical chapters for theory building and practice.

Governance: The Problem of Definition and Theory

The term governance is often used in reference to collaborative and network structures to deliver public policies and programs; however, the term is used in so many different ways that it is difficult to pin down a definition (Frederickson 2007; Lynn, Heinrich, and Hill 2000). Lynn, Heinrich, and Hill (2000) define governance as "...the means for achieving direction, control, and coordination of wholly or partially autonomous individuals or organizations on behalf of interests to which they jointly contribute" (p. 2). Others describe governance as the role of government changing from controller to influencer within networks of public and private organizations (Peters and Pierre 1998). To others governance concerns the system of networking and collaboration that takes place within and between government organizations, non-governmental organizations, and citizens. It focuses on "...protection and enhancement of the public realm...both tangible and intangible values: streets and sidewalks, water

resources and wildlife, markets and settlements, peace and prosperity” (Oakerson 2004, 19).

Developing a coherent definition that explains what governance is-and maybe more importantly, what it is not-as well as developing a framework for study within the public administration field has become the goal of prominent scholars, such as H. George Frederickson (2007) and Laurence E. Lynn, Jr., Carolyn J. Heinrich, and Carolyn J. Hill (Heinrich and Hill 2004; Lynn, Heinrich, and Hill 2001; Lynn, Heinrich, and Hill 2000). Lynn, Heinrich and Hill (2000) offer a model, which they call the logic of governance, that reveals the multiple layers of variables that need to be included in a formal study of governance. The model is not meant to be a formal framework in itself, but it reveals the complexity of the concept of governance. They argue that a logic of governance would include outputs and outcomes (at the individual or organizational level) as a function of environmental factors, client characteristics, treatments, structures, and managerial roles and actions (p. 15). They concede that the framework is so complex that governance research will need to analyze the individual components separately.

The lack of a consistent definition and theory is not the only potential problem with a public administration theory tied to governance. Scholars have asked pointed questions about the role of government agencies, when nongovernmental organizations are implementing policies. Some scholars argue that the government is weakened and no longer has direct control over implementation (Kettl 2000; Peters and Pierre 1998), while others argue that hierarchical government agencies are still important in governance and administration (Hill and Lynn 2005; Meier et al. 2007). There are also

concerns about the democratic implications of governing through collaboration (Bogason and Musso 2006; Skelcher 2009). Finally, if the work of government is increasingly conducted by nongovernmental organizations, what happens to the legitimacy of the state (Bogason and Musso 2006; Milward and Provan 2000)?

Public administration scholarship that has fallen under the mantle of governance has focused mainly on collaboration, networking, and contracting. The next two sections focus on defining network and collaboration in the public administration literature and then detailing the scholarly literature in these areas. Then I shift to a discussion of privatization and contracting between government agencies and nonprofit and private organizations for social service delivery before narrowing the discussion to the literature on nonprofit organizations specifically.

Defining Networking and Collaboration

Collaboration within and across sectors has become more common as technology has reduced the costs of communication and coordination. Much of the literature uses the terms network and collaboration interchangeably, and these relationships between organizations fall on a continuum from informal-decentralized information sharing-to formal- contractual relationships (Agranoff 2003; Feiock and Scholz 2010; McGuire 2006). McGuire (2006) differentiates between coalitions, which are typically short commitments created to solve a specific policy problem, and networks, which are more enduring cooperation between organizations, encompassing broader policy and implementation problems.

In a similar fashion to the governance literature, research on networking and collaboration has focused on defining the terms. Agranoff (2007) defines public

networks as “...collaborative structures that bring together representatives from public agencies and NGOs to address problems of common concern that accrue value to the manager/specialists, their participating organizations, and their networks” (p. 2).

O’Toole (1997) defines networks as “...structures of interdependence involving multiple organizations, where one unit is not just the formal subunit or subordinate of the other in some larger hierarchical arrangement...with the element held together by authority ties, exchange relations, and/or common-interest-based coalitions” (p. 117).

Agranoff and McGuire (2003) focus on managing within collaborative arrangements with their definition; “Collaborative management is a concept that describes the process of facilitating and operating in multi-organizational arrangements to solve problems that cannot be solved, or solved easily, by single organizations” (p. 4).

This dissertation takes a broad view of collaboration that includes informal and formal ties between two or more organizations to share information, solve a problem, or implement a policy. Specifically, I focus on collaboration within the nonprofit sector and between nonprofit organizations and government agencies. Having developed broad parameters for collaborative relationships for this dissertation, the next section of this chapter reviews the literature on collaboration across sectors.

Collaboration as Implementation Tool

Since the New Deal, policies have increasingly required federal, state, and local government agencies to work together to solve complex social problems, such as poverty, unemployment, and crime. In the 1970s, many scholars in the fields of policy and public administration turned their attention to policy implementation. They discovered early that it is difficult to implement policies across multiple agencies

(Pressman and Wildavsky 1984). This is true even when a policy has widespread support and has reasonably clear cut goals. The difficulty lies in the number of decision points across multiple decision-makers. Each decision-maker has the opportunity to make changes in implementation, and even when the changes are very small, they can add up to a major difference in the initial policy goals and the final implementation outcomes.

The problem is that central control of policy implementation is also limited when it comes to solving complex social problems, and collaboration is a necessary tool (Hanf and Scharpf 1978; Hjern and Porter 1981). This is especially true in the United States, where the federal system ensures a shared sovereignty between the states and the federal government. The federal government usually funds new policies through block grants to states and then relies on state and local governments to implement the policies in a manner consistent with federal regulations, as well as state laws and (sometimes) preferences. State and local governments often lack the manpower and expertise necessary to implement policies that attack complex social problems. The roots of poverty are many, including mental health, historic racism, poor educational opportunities, and others. No one agency has the ability to tackle each of these causes. This has led to a system in which government agencies rely on relationships with each other, nonprofit organizations, and private businesses, to implement policies and provide services to constituents.

Milward and Provan (2000) call this joint implementation and service provision the hollow state. The moniker is in reference to the increasing reliance on organizations outside of the government to implement government policies with the specter of

government authority. Provan and Milward's research has focused on the structures of the relationships between government, nonprofits, and businesses, as well as the incentives and methods involved in managing the activities of nongovernmental organizations in a network (Milward and Provan 1998; Provan and Milward 1995; Provan and Kenis 2008; Provan and Milward 2001). They also have an acute interest in the effect of governance on the legitimacy of state agencies and service provision (Human and Provan 2000; Milward and Provan 2000).

Other public administration scholars focused on how individuals manage within collaborative structures. Agranoff and McGuire recognize that organizations are involved in multiple structures, often focusing on different policies and/or with differing levels of commitment, which require a different type of management than a traditional hierarchy (Agranoff and McGuire 1998; Agranoff 2007). While some scholars have focused on how to manage within collaborative structures, others have focus on how collaboration affects management and performance within public organizations. These studies have found that networking can have a positive influence on performance, but that some collaborative partners (mainly horizontal) do not have a significant effect (Meier and O'Toole 2003; O'Toole, Meier, and Nicholson-Crotty 2005). Furthermore, there are limits to the benefits of collaboration, especially when there are too many partners (Hicklin, O'Toole, and Meier 2008).

Choosing Partners and Structure

We do know a lot about why organizations seek collaborative arrangements or engage with certain partners. Resource dependency theories argue that organizations reach out to other organizations in order to access financial, personnel, political, or

other resources (Pfeffer and Salancik 1978; Provan and Milward 1995; Rethemeyer and Hatmaker 2008; Tschirhart, Amezuca, and Anker 2009). In a transaction cost framework, organizations will choose collaboration if the cost of being in the relationship, sharing information, increasing efficiency, and enforcing network agreements, is less than pursuing implementation or policy design alone (Alter and Hage 1993; Gazley and Brudney 2007; Provan and Milward 2001). This framework highlights the uncertainty that is inherent in collaboration, with regards to choosing partners, the type of collaborative structure to engage in, and whether or not partners will uphold their part of any formal agreements. This uncertainty emphasizes the importance of developing relationships and trust within collaborative structures.

Research has confirmed that collaboration between organizations is more likely if they have an established relationship (Berardo 2010; Thurmaier and Wood 2002). Trust, legitimacy, and credibility are important components in successful collaboration, and can be developed through repeated contact with other organizations (Bertelli and Smith 2009; Gulati 1995). A very few recent studies have examined multiple factors influencing collaboration to determine which are the most important (Guo and Acar 2005; Krueathep, Riccucci, and Suwanmala 2010). Krueathep, et al (2010) find that the decision to collaborate is complicated and dependent on the organizations resources *and* the political context surrounding the decision.

Formal Collaboration: Contracting and Privatization

While government agencies have always contracted with organizations in other sectors to provide services, the practice increased in the 1990s as politicians and the public began focusing on more efficiency in public agencies. Those who support

contracting with third party service delivery providers claim that it creates a competitive market-like environment and provides economies of scale, both of which bring down the cost of service provision (Boyne 1998; Osborne and Gaebler 1992). However, the presence of a contracting mechanism alone is not sufficient to bring down the costs of service provision. Agencies must assure that there is adequate competition between organizations wanting to provide services (Hodge 1999). The public also often believes that private organizations are more flexible and better able to provide services than government agencies (Flaherty, Collins-Camargo, and Lee 2008). Opponents of contracting argue that contracts sometimes fail to provide the efficiencies that they promise, are less equitable or democratic than direct service provision, and may reduce accountability in service delivery (DeLeon and Denhardt 2000; DeLeon 1998; Romzek and Johnston 2005). Romzek and Johnston (2005) found that proponents and opponents are both correct. Local governments that contract for service delivery do see gains in efficiency, but often at the expense of equity and citizen satisfaction.

Much of the research in contracting has focused on principal-agent relationships. These studies focus on contract provisions that deter shirking on the part of agents and reduce transaction costs-particularly monitoring costs-for the principal (Brown and Potoski 2003; Brown and Potoski 2003a). Others suggest that building credibility (Bertelli and Smith 2009), trust (Fernandez 2007), and shared objectives (Van Slyke 2007) between partners is a better way to manage contracts. Instead of a principal relying on incentives to keep agents from shirking, long-term, relational contracting builds trust and shared values between organizations. This trust leads the principal to

focus less on monitoring the agent, and allows more flexibility in service delivery and design.

Nonprofit Collaboration

The last two decades have seen an increased interest in the study of nonprofit management in the fields of public administration, sociology, and business. This increased interest is partially the result of rapid growth in the nonprofit sector, which has outpaced the growth of both the private and government sectors. The United States saw a 25% increase in the number of nonprofit agencies between 2001 and 2011 (Urban Institute 2012). The nonprofit sector has become a major contributor to the economy with an increasing share of the workforce and the GDP (Urban Institute 2012). Much of this growth has occurred due to increased reliance on nonprofit organizations to implement policies and programs for government agencies (Steuerle and Hodgkinson 2006).

The growth in the nonprofit sector has come at a time when the government is facing massive deficits, and other granting organizations and foundations are facing the reality of less money due to a weakened economy. The decrease in available funding from outside agencies leads to competition between nonprofit organizations, as well as an increased expectation by granting organizations that funds be tied to positive outcomes. This has in turn led to a rising interest in collaboration between organizations in order to combine resources. Sometimes this collaboration is triggered by the nonprofit agencies, but other times collaboration between organizations is a requirement tied to government or other foundation grants. Furthermore, many granting agencies are requiring nonprofit organizations to engage in performance management

activities, i.e. formal program evaluations, in order to receive funding. Nonprofits are increasingly being asked to show proof of achievements in order to continue receiving financial help. The movement toward both collaboration and performance management in the nonprofit sector mirrors the same trends in the public sector.

The federal system of governance in the United States has always required government agencies to collaborate with each other, though that activity increased with the heavy reliance on federal block grants after the New Deal policies of the 1930s. An intensified focus on social policies, such as poverty, crime, welfare, and education beginning with the Great Society policies of the 1960s, and again with welfare reform in the 1990s, saw even more money flowing to state and local governments to implement complex social programs. State and local governments, lacking the manpower and expertise to implement these programs alone, began relying heavily on nonprofit organizations to provide services within communities.

Dennis Young (2006) provides a framework for understanding government – nonprofit relationships through the lens of economic theories that explain why nonprofit organizations exist. He argues that the relationship between the sectors has been supplementary, complementary, or adversarial depending on the time period and the type of nonprofit service. Early charitable activity was supplementary (parallel) to government activity and programs. This relationship typology grew out of the economic theory of public goods (Weisbrod 1977). Where the government failed to provide an adequate service to citizens, nonprofit organizations were created to provide social services, such as feeding and clothing the poor.

As the state began to rely more on nonprofits to provide services (for the reasons stated above), the relationship between government agencies and nonprofit organizations became more complementary (Salamon 1987; Young 2006, 56). While the provision of social services to the underprivileged has long been the province of nonprofit organizations, both established and newly created social service organizations began to rely heavily on government financing. This move toward a complementary relationship saw an intertwining of the sectors that has caused changes in how both are managed. Government agencies have changed course from service providers to case managers and influencers (Peters and Pierre 1998; Rosenthal 2000). Nonprofit organizations have had to rapidly professionalize due to changes in types of government funding, competition with for-profits for government contracts, and administrative requirements of government contracts (Salamon 2005; Suárez 2011).

Finally, government and nonprofit relationships have become increasingly adversarial (Young 2006, 63). This relationship has two origins. First, nonprofit organizations do not exist solely for service provision. For decades, scholars have recognized that nonprofit organizations play a mediating role between citizens and the government (Berger and Neuhaus 1977; Couto 1999; Kerrine and Neuhaus 1979). Nonprofits play the role of advocates for minority voices, and when organizations take sides in policy fights, it can put them at odds with government agencies. Second, when government agencies contract with nonprofit organizations, they retain the responsibility for providing services to citizens while delegating the actual work to contractors. This puts the government in a position to regulate the contracting organization's activities to ensure that contracts are followed and services delivered.

This has led to an increased reliance on performance information and indicators about programs offered by contracting organizations (Dubnick and Frederickson 2009; Dubnick 2005).

Previous research has shown that relationships with government agencies can lead organizations to change management and hiring practices (Steuerle and Hodgkinson 2006), decrease flexibility in nonprofit organizations (Salamon 1987), and shift governance priorities from a focus on fundraising to financial management (O'Regan and Oster 2002). We also have some evidence that as nonprofit organizations compete for decreasing funds, they are more likely to become more professionalized (Suárez 2011).

Relationships with government agencies, then, seem to be a double-edged sword. Financial support and other resources (i.e. political contacts, expertise, and information) from government agencies have the potential to increase nonprofit organizational capacity. However, these resources come with strings attached. Increased demands for efficiency, financial documentation, and program evaluation information can actually tax the capacity of nonprofit organizations, many of which already operate with limited staff.

This dissertation examines collaboration across the nonprofit and government sectors at both the sectoral and subsectoral level. I further examine differences in collaborative activity and relationships in different functional areas of service. The final section of chapter summarizes the chapters of this dissertation.

Chapter Summaries

The next chapter explains my case selection for the empirical chapters of the dissertation. I have chosen to examine collaboration across the nonprofit sector and within the public child welfare and disaster response and recovery substantive areas. I provide a brief description of the history of nonprofit and government relations in both child welfare and disaster management. Then I introduce the data and methods used in the remaining chapters.

Chapter three of this dissertation begins with an analysis of how nonprofit managers perceive their organizations fit within their greater environment. I sort organizations from the nonprofit sector into three categories based on their purpose and examine how managers perceive organizations in the public, private, and nonprofit sector understand the challenges their nonprofit organization faces and how much influence other organizations have over management of the nonprofit organization. Then I explore the relationship between nonprofit subsectors and frequency of collaboration with organizations in other sectors. I find that subsector differences do not predict increased frequency of collaboration with other sectors, but resource dependency and past experience with collaboration do.

In chapter four, “Government/Nonprofit Relationships and Organizational Capacity and Effectiveness: The Case of Child Welfare Nonprofits,” I focus on the relationship between public child welfare agencies and child welfare nonprofit organizations. Does a relationship with government agencies affect the capacity and effectiveness of a nonprofit organization? If so, what environmental and organization variables might make the effect more positive or negative? I examine this relationship

using theories of resource dependency, organizational culture, and relational contracting. I find that contrary to popular opinion, whatever the government touches is not rendered inefficient. Administrators at child welfare nonprofits report improved capacity and effectiveness due to a relationship with government agencies, even when controlling for dependence on government resources, hierarchical organizational culture, and negative views of government in general.

Chapter five focuses on collaboration between nonprofit organizations and across sectors after a series of devastating storms in central Oklahoma in the final weeks of May 2013. I examine the response and recovery activities of nonprofit organizations using data from a survey of nonprofit organizations in Oklahoma and interviews with nonprofit administrators. Over the last forty years, the activities of emergent groups, including voluntary organizations and unattached volunteers, in disaster response has been studied using the typology of organized disaster response developed by scholars at the Disaster Research Center at the University of Delaware (formerly at Ohio State University). While the typology has held up under empirical investigations, with some slight variations, I argue that the addition of institutional theories of organizations to the typology would help researchers better understand the strengths and weaknesses of collaboration across the nonprofit sector after emergencies. The norms and values of much of the nonprofit field are different from those in the emergency management field. This leads to interesting implications-and potential barriers to effective service-for disaster response when non-disaster related nonprofit organizations collaborate with professional emergency response organizations. Preliminary data suggests that many of the organizations that played a role in recovery after the May 2013 disasters have

maintained a longer term role in disaster planning. Furthermore, organizations were more likely to work with other nonprofit organizations than government agencies or private businesses. This chapter concludes with questions for future research, including a need for a closer examination of the role of religious institutions in disaster response and recovery and a better understanding of why some community based volunteer organizations respond, while others do not.

Finally, chapter six concludes the dissertation with a summary of findings from the previous chapters and implications for theory, management, and future research. I find that collaboration looks different in different substantive. Public child welfare nonprofits have different relationships with government agencies than nonprofits that collaborate after disasters. This may be due to similarities in goals and values in the child welfare professional field and differences in cultures between nonprofit organizations and traditional disaster management agencies. We need a better understanding of when we should study nonprofit organizations through the lens of distinct sector differences, degree of publicness, or focus on boundary spanning professional fields.

Chapter 2: Case Selection, Data, and Methods

Collaboration across sectors (government, nonprofit, and private) has become an important tool for the implementation of public programs and the provision of services to citizens. Government agencies often collaborate with nonprofit organizations both informally and formally to deliver services to the public. Nonprofit organizations provide a public benefit in their activities with government, and their activities apart from government collaboration. We need a better understanding of the role of nonprofits in these collaborative arrangements, as well as how collaboration affects the ability of the nonprofit organization to accomplish its mission.

This chapter summarizes case selection and data acquisition for the empirical chapters that follow. First, I describe the difficulty in studying a sector as diverse as the nonprofit sector, and how I chose different subsectors and functional activities within nonprofit organizations to examine. Then, I briefly examine the history, evolution, and relationships within the child welfare and emergency management organizational fields. Finally, I describe the three data sets and methods used in this dissertation to examine nonprofit collaboration.

Comparative Cases

It is difficult to understand phenomena across the nonprofit sector as a whole, because the sector is extremely diverse. An organization's nonprofit status is conferred by the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) and the federal tax code. "They are self-governing organizations that do not distribute profits to those who control them and are exempt from federal income taxes by virtue of being organized for public purposes" (Boris 2006, 3). Nonprofit organizations are diverse in both their purpose and the

services that they offer. The largest category of nonprofit organizations provides charitable and religious services. Social welfare organizations are the second largest group (Boris 2006, 7).

The IRS and the National Center for Charitable Statistics (NCCS) use the National Taxonomy of Exempt Entities (NTEE) Codes and the NTEE Core Codes (NTEE-CC) to classify nonprofits into ten broad categories and numerous subcategories (NCCS n.d.). The classification system makes it easier for the IRS to determine eligibility for tax exemption, but also serves as a mechanism to promote research, comparability, and analysis of data within and across subsectors of the nonprofit sector (NCCS n.d.). The ten major categories are:

- Arts, Culture, and Humanities
- Education
- Environment and Animals
- Health
- Human Services
- International, Foreign Affairs
- Public, Societal Benefit
- Religion Related
- Mutual/Membership Benefit
- Unknown, Unclassified

(NCCS n.d.)

Diversity in the nonprofit sector is not confined to the different purposes of organizations, but also to their primary activities. The NTEE Coding system assigns a number to each organization-called the common codes-to delineate the primary activities of the organization (NCCS n.d.). The common code categories are listed below.

- Alliance/Advocacy Organizations
- Management and Technical Assistance
- Professional Societies/Associations
- Research Institutes and/or Public Policy Analysis

- Monetary Support – Single Organization
- Monetary Support – Multiple Organizations
- Nonmonetary Support Not Elsewhere Classified (N.E.C)
(NCCS n.d.)

Scholars often take a generic look at the nonprofit sector, but a generic look is somewhat incomplete. The diversity of organization purpose and activity within the nonprofit sector leads to differences in training and professionalization (i.e. doctors v. attorneys), communities and clients served, and management within organizations—due to program type, employee needs, etc. We often hear that the nonprofit sector has expanded, but in reality organizations focused on the environment, education and religion have grown faster than other subsectors (Boris 2006). Furthermore, financial support for nonprofit organizations differs based on subsector, with government support more heavily focused in social services, education, and health (Abramson, Salamon, and Steuerle 2006; Steuerle and Hodgkinson 2006). Health and education also receive individual donations, but the subsector with the largest philanthropic giving is community improvement and public benefit (Steuerle and Hodgkinson 2006).

I have chosen to examine nonprofit collaboration both across the sector and within different subsectors. I am able to do this by utilizing three unique data sources, which I will discuss in further detail below. In order to observe functional differences in nonprofit collaboration within subsectors, I have chosen to employ case selection much like the comparative method of most different systems. The most different systems method of case selection focuses on two countries that have a number of variables of interest that are very different (Gerring 2001). The purpose of the comparative method and the most different systems approach is to “...use variation across systems to explain similarities and differences” (Denters and Mossberger 2006).

In order to understand how differences in nonprofit subsectors affect nonprofit collaboration, and the effect of collaboration on nonprofit organizations, I have chosen to study two very different nonprofit subsectors.

In separate chapters of this dissertation I focus first on child welfare and then on emergency management. The realm of child welfare is marked by extensive government regulation and involvement at the federal, state, and local level. The federal government provides financial support to state and local governments for welfare services, which are then commonly contracted out to nonprofit organizations. The activities of child welfare nonprofits-especially those involved in foster care services-are highly regulated, and their relationships with government agencies are often governed by formal written contracts. I discuss the history of government-nonprofit relationships in child welfare further in the next section of this chapter.

Emergency management differs significantly from child welfare. While the government is highly involved in emergency planning and response at all levels, government-nonprofit relationships in this system are rarely formal in nature. Most of the time nonprofit organizations respond to disasters that affect the community that they serve on a time bound basis. The majority of nonprofits that respond after a disaster are not involved in formal pre-planning relationships with each other or government agencies. The exceptions to this are nonprofit organizations with a primary mission of disaster response (i.e. Red Cross, United Methodist Committee on Relief). There are also nonprofit organizations with a primary mission that crosses over with relief activities, and have chosen to take an active role in planning and response (i.e. Feed the

Children, Catholic Charities). A longer discussion of nonprofit activities in emergency planning and response follows later in this chapter.

Public Child Welfare Services

The relationship between nonprofit organizations focused on child welfare and government agencies is complicated. Nonprofits work simultaneously in complementary and adversarial roles (Young 2006) with government agencies to help mend a system that is largely described as being “in crisis” (Curtis, Dale, and Kendall 1999). State and local governments rely on nonprofit organizations to provide a myriad of child welfare services, including placement services, counseling, shelters, and other services (Rosenthal 2000) in a complementary role. Other nonprofit organizations work as advocates and adversaries with the government for better child welfare services, by monitoring existing child welfare systems, and when necessary taking legal action against states to improve the care of children (Children’s Rights 2013).

These are not new roles for nonprofit organizations. Historically, responsibility for caring for children in the United States was the province of churches and charitable organizations (Mangold 1999). It was not until the late 19th century that state governments began regulating child welfare. The federal government did not get involved until the turn of the 20th century. The government’s role in child welfare grew throughout the second half of the 20th century, but consistent with other government services, public child welfare agencies began to shift actual child welfare service provision back to the nonprofit sector in the 1980s. This section of this chapter briefly describes changes in the public child welfare sector toward a shared responsibility

between government agencies and nonprofit organizations with specific attention to how changes in regulations have changed the relationship between these two sectors.

In pre-revolutionary America, children were not routinely removed from homes for issues such as malnutrition, neglect, or abuse, as they are in contemporary America. Children were regarded for their value as workers. Therefore, the earliest orphans were often placed in poor houses until they were old enough to begin working, or indentured as “apprentices” in households where they could learn a trade in exchange for their labor until their training and care costs were covered (McGowan 2005). Orphanages, operated by religious and charitable organizations, appeared soon after the American Revolution, and were the primary homes for orphans until the turn of the 20th century (Askeland 2006; McGowan 2005). In some states there was small monetary provision for charities providing care to dependent children (Flaherty, Collins-Camargo, and Lee 2008; Olasky 1996; Rosenthal 2000), but they were mostly funded by charitable donations (Olasky 1996).

State governments became critical of the care of dependent children in the late 19th and early 20th Centuries due to the practice of sending children out of cities to rural areas, often to work on family farms (Holt 2006). This practice of sending children to live with families was usually overseen by volunteer committees that chose applicants for these early forms of foster homes, and conducted follow up visits to determine whether children were treated fairly (Olasky 1996). These children were promoted as an economic benefit for the farm families that took them in, but ironically it was the labor aspect of the placements that began to turn state governments toward regulation (Olasky 1996). The move away from orphanages to a formal foster care system was

partially a result of criticism of both institutionalizing children in orphanages and using them for labor on farms (Olasky 1996). In the 1920s, states began moving toward a system of foster care and adoption for most dependent children.

At the turn of the 20th century, the states had varied child welfare policies, with some states more involved than others (McGowan 2005), but the federal government created the Children's Bureau in 1912, which would change government involvement in child welfare at all levels. The Bureau pushed for the first financial grants to states to provide child health programs (Lemons 1969). It was during this time period that states began regulating child welfare agencies through licensing laws (Bremner 1971). The federal government solidified its involvement in child welfare services with the passage of the Social Security Act of 1935 which created the Aid to Dependent Children grants to states. From 1940-1970, the number of foster care programs grew, as did the idea that children should be reunited with their families whenever possible. The state became even more involved in child welfare services as federal grants for welfare services increased greatly in the 1960s through the federal government's War on Poverty (Bremner 1974; Flaherty, Collins-Camargo, and Lee 2008).

Pressure began to build in public child welfare agencies in the 1960s as nonprofit organizations began to advocate for better monitoring of the welfare of children in foster care, as well as for expanded rights and benefits for foster families (McGowan 2005). This pressure increased as public awareness of child abuse and neglect grew during the 1970s and 1980s, with mandatory child abuse reporting laws required by the Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act of 1974. Child abuse was not a new phenomenon, but it had largely been overlooked by the public, despite many

nonprofit advocacy organizations focused on the problem since the late 19th century (McGowan 2005). Abused children were involuntarily removed from their homes by court order at a larger rate than in the past. The need for better monitoring of children, as well as the increase in the number of children in the system, put enormous pressure on the resources of public child welfare agencies (Lindsey 2004; McGowan 2005). The child welfare system, already stressed by the need to investigate child abuse and neglect, as well as care for growing number of foster children, began to take criticism for not focusing on permanent placement of children (McGowan 2005).

Increased responsibilities within public child welfare agencies, coupled with increased calls from the public for more conservative spending on government programs, pushed child welfare agencies to seek help in the nonprofit sector. The federal government began shifting policy implementation responsibilities to state governments throughout the 1980s and 1990s. The Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act of 1996 encouraged state governments to work across public and private sectors to implement child welfare policies by privatizing the delivery of many services (Courtney 1999; Mangold 1999; Scarcella et al. 2006). Child welfare policy is now a partnership between government agencies, which provide funding and case management, and nonprofit organizations (and sometimes for-profit businesses), which provide placement, counseling, adoption services, and other services (Rosenthal 2000).

The services provided by nonprofit organizations for child welfare differ widely, as do the agreements between nonprofits and government agencies. Many nonprofit organizations provide services under contract (or multiple contracts). These

organizations are highly regulated by state laws and the provisions of contracts. They are usually required to conduct performance measurement on at least a minimal level, and their activities related to child welfare are subject to state oversight. Other relationships are informal collaborations, with public child welfare agencies referring clients to nonprofits to obtain services the government does not provide. Some nonprofits work to improve child welfare by working outside of the system to advocate on behalf of children's rights (ex. Children's Rights), inform the public about the plight of foster children, or recruit foster parents to a system overwhelmed with children (ex. Wait No More).

There are several reasons to examine nonprofit collaboration in the subsector of child welfare. First, public child welfare agencies and child welfare nonprofits have shared interests and goals, which directly contrasts with nonprofit organization relationships with emergency management agencies (discussed in the next section). Second, collaborative activities between child welfare nonprofits and government agencies are very diverse-ranging from informal information sharing to formal contracting relationships. Finally, there is diversity in the number of contracts child welfare nonprofits have with government agencies, as well as the amount of money received from the government as opposed to individual donations and other revenue. These factors combine to provide an excellent case study for understanding nonprofit-government collaboration in a highly structured, regulated context, as well as contrast it with the less regulated emergency management context below.

Collaboration in Emergency Response

Disaster management in the United States exists within a system of federalism that lays out specific roles for local, state, and federal responders, as well as a dense system of nongovernmental organizations (nonprofits) that routinely prepare and respond to disasters. Local police, fire, and medical teams are usually the first on the scene after a disaster. The state government responds if the disaster overwhelms the capabilities of local responders. Finally, the federal government, through the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) responds only if a state government asks for a federal disaster declaration and the President approves it. This decentralized response to emergency management is meant to allow states to develop response plans appropriate to their needs and ability. While the federal government does not require a standardized national plan, they do require training in the Incident Command System (ICS) and proficiency in the National Incident Management System (NIMS) in order to be eligible for federal grants (Haddow, Bullock, and Coppola 2014). There are also national moves toward an all hazards approach to disaster response, as well as calls for a national standard or plan.

Scholars have noted that response and recovery after disasters is somewhat different than in times of stability. Emergencies bring unexpected and non-routine tasks (Comfort, Ko, and Zagorecki 2004; Auf der Heide 1989), and are often plagued with communication problems that inhibit information sharing (Comfort and Kapucu 2006; Comfort 2007). Effective communication is imperative in disaster response (Moynihan 2009). The federal government created the ICS in the 1970s in order to reduce communication problems and duplication of efforts (Haddow, Bullock, and Coppola

2014; Moynihan 2009). The purpose of the ICS is to coordinate response after a disaster under a unified command in order to reduce power struggles. Moynihan (2009) found that the ICS worked better in disasters where organizations and individuals had prior relationships, which led to trust. As the number of responding organizations grew, coordination in the ICS was more difficult.

Collaborative relationships in emergency response are built on trust and repeated interaction (Moynihan 2008), and this relationship building must take place before the emergency happens. This requires organizations active in disaster response and recovery (i.e. fire, police, Salvation Army, local EMA offices) to identify potential partners and engage in joint planning for emergencies as varied as severe storms, wildfires, pandemic, and terrorist threats. Some disaster prone areas of the country have ongoing, joint planning efforts to respond to expected emergencies, such as wild-fires and earthquakes in California or hurricanes in Florida and Louisiana. Joint planning in these areas would include regular responding agencies, such as fire and police, as well as government agencies such as departments of mental health, and nonprofit organizations active in disasters (i.e. local Red Cross Chapters, Salvation Army). However, Moynihan's (2009) study of the ICS found that volunteer organizations can overwhelm the system that is largely developed by emergency response organizations.

While these voluntary organizations can cause coordination problems in emergency response systems, they are extremely important to the response and recovery process. FEMA has recognized this importance by incorporating roles for voluntary organizations in the National Response Framework (NRF). There are many kinds of voluntary organizations that respond after a disaster. The most visible organizations are

those that are active in preparedness and response as part of their organization's purpose. These organizations operate at the national level (i.e. American Red Cross, Salvation Army, Catholic Charities), and at the state and local level (i.e. churches, local shelters, local food banks). Many of these organizations network with each other as part of Voluntary Organizations Active in Disaster (VOAD) at either the national or local level. The nonprofit organization National Voluntary Organizations Active in Disaster (NVOAD) was created in the 1970s, and local VOADs have spread at the local level to bring together community organizations to communicate, coordinate, collaborate, and cooperate in disaster preparedness, response, and recovery (NVOAD N.D.). NVOAD and local VOADs work closely with FEMA and state and local emergency management agencies to coordinate activities in the event of disasters.

Other nonprofit organizations also respond after disasters. These organizations can be either national or local in nature, and while many do not consider disaster recovery part of their primary purpose, they respond after specific disasters affect their communities. These nonprofits operate outside of the pre-planned framework (at least initially), and can be a blessing or a curse to organizations operating within the NRF or other local response plans. They may provide valuable assistance to victims, or they may be duplicating services that other organizations were formally tasked with providing.

Nonprofit organizations that are not part of the official disaster plan for a community can make collaboration more difficult (Robinson and Gerber 2007). The collaboration literature has established that repeated interaction and relationship building breed trust and more effective communication in both times of stability

(Bertelli and Smith 2009; Gulati 1995) and after disasters (Kiefer and Montjoy 2006; Moynihan 2009). Identifying potential community level organizations that might have expertise, volunteers, or other resources to lend after a disaster should be a priority of all emergency planners. One of the nonprofit administrators interviewed for this dissertation suggested that formal emergency management plans are useless unless they are prepared with input from local nonprofits and churches. These organizations will respond no matter what the government's formal plan says. Unless their input is taken into consideration during the planning stage, the emergency manager might as well leave his formal plan on the shelf.

The emergency management field is a fascinating area to examine nonprofit collaboration, because of the divergence in the organizational cultures of nonprofit organizations and government agencies that respond after a disaster. Unlike child welfare, where public child welfare agencies and child welfare nonprofits have shared interests and goals, many of the nonprofits involved in disaster response do not count disaster response as a primary purpose or goal of their organization. Most government agencies involved in emergency response have a primary or secondary purpose related to planning and response, and they tend to be hierarchical in nature.

Neo-institutional theories tie organizations to institutions by defining organizations broadly as both rational structures of rules and regulations and adaptive systems reacting to environmental pressures (Scott 1995). In their work on institutional isomorphism, DiMaggio and Powell (1991), argue that organizations within the same field will, over time, succumb to coercive, normative, and mimetic pressures to replicate the symbols, activities, and values of other organizations in their field. This leads to

institutionalization and homogeneity of organizational structures and processes within the same field (Ashworth, Boyne, and Delbridge 2009). Nonprofit organizations and emergency management agencies have different norms, values, and structures that may clash when these organizations work together. In Chapter 5, I use institutional theories of organizations to understand potential problems when organizations in the nonprofit and emergency management fields collaborate.

Data and Methods

This section of this chapter is an introduction to the data and methods used in the following three empirical chapters. Previous research in collaboration has relied on a variety of data collection efforts. Scholars have used combinations of public data and surveys of public managers to understand their collaboration activities and the effect it has on their organizations (Hicklin, O'Toole, and Meier 2008; Meier and O'Toole 2002). Others study collaboration from a more formal networking standpoint, and employ combinations of survey data and networking software to study network structures (Feiock, Lee, and Park 2012; Henry, Lubell, and McCoy 2011; Isett and Provan 2005). In order to examine the research questions outlined in the previous chapter, I utilize three different sets of data.

Data used in Chapters 3 and 5 of this dissertation, were taken from a survey that was developed and distributed by this author in conjunction with the Oklahoma Center for Nonprofits (OCNP). The OCNP has offices in Oklahoma City and Tulsa and represents nonprofit organizations state-wide. The organization specializes in educating nonprofit organizations in Oklahoma in a wide-range of capacity building topics. The

OCNP also does advocacy work on behalf of its membership and the broader nonprofit community in Oklahoma.

A link to the survey was emailed to the 575 member organizations of OCNP on December 12, 2013 and a follow up email with the survey link was emailed on January 6, 2014. Survey responses were collected between December 12, 2013 and February 3, 2014. At that time, I had received responses from 93 individuals for a response rate of 16%. This response rate is within the range of response rates reported in previous studies of nonprofit organizations (Hager et al. 2003). The surveys in those studies were distributed by U.S. Mail, and emailed surveys are expected to have a lower response rate (Converse et al. 2008). Furthermore, previous research has shown that lower response rates are common when surveys are emailed to organizations and concern organization-specific topics (Anseel et al. 2010). The survey should have taken an average of 20-30 minutes for respondents to complete.

The validity of studies using a single state sample has been examined and found to be acceptable in a number of situations (Nicholson-Crotty and Meier 2002). Single state studies can help reduce the cost and complexity of sampling on a national level, as long as there is sufficient diversity in the units of study. The sheer number of nonprofit organizations in the United States would make a nation-wide sample of the sector extremely costly. I am confident that there is sufficient diversity in the types of nonprofit organizations in Oklahoma to be able to make some generalizations to the overall nonprofit sector.

Studying a single-state also gives advantages in research design that allows for a more in-depth examination and adds more context to our understanding of a

phenomenon (Nicholson-Crotty and Meier 2002). In this dissertation I pair data on Oklahoma nonprofits from survey data and interviews with administrators at Oklahoma nonprofit organizations. The interviews were largely conducted after the survey, and allowed me to ask questions that filled holes in the information provided in survey responses. Additional information about the interviews is provided below.

The survey contained questions about the organization's collaboration activities with the government and other nonprofit organizations. Respondents were also asked a series of questions regarding their individual beliefs about collaboration and its usefulness and effectiveness. Additional questions were included about organizational variables such as size, employment, and resource acquisition. The survey also included a series of questions about nonprofit activity and collaboration after a series of tornadoes and a flooding event in central Oklahoma during the final weeks of May 2013. Nonprofit organizations involved tornado response and recovery could opt into this section of the survey (see Appendix for full survey instrument).

Data from a second survey, used for analysis in chapter 4 of this dissertation, are derived from a nationwide survey of administrators at nonprofit organizations providing child welfare or advocacy services. A national sample of 426 child welfare administrators was constructed using the National Taxonomy of Exempt Entities (NTEE) codes assigned by the Internal Revenue Service and the NTEE-Core Codes (NTEE-CC) assigned by the National Center for Charitable Statistics (NCCS). The selected organizations were classified as human service foster care agencies under the NTEE and NTEE-CC codes of foster care services. This sampling system eliminates

some large organizations that provide foster care services, but provide other services and are classified differently under NTEE and NTEE-CC codes.

The email address of top administrators at each of the 426 nonprofit agencies was identified online and by telephone. The survey was conducted online between April 12 and June 27 2012, and follow up phone calls were made to individual administrators to help increase the response rate. A total of 189 administrators completed the survey instrument for a response rate of 43 percent. This is an excellent response rate for an emailed survey to administrators, who are generally expected to respond at a lower rate (Moncrief 1999). The responses come from 38 states. The survey instrument was designed from questions commonly asked on the National Quality Improvement Center on the Privatization of Child Welfare Services, and additional literature reviews of nonprofit, public administration, and social work research. The survey instrument contained 54 questions and should have required about 20 to 25 minutes of the respondents' time.

Finally, chapter 5 of this dissertation combines data from the survey of Oklahoma nonprofit administrators, as well as a series of interviews with individuals at nonprofit organizations in Oklahoma. I conducted internet and newspaper searches for nonprofit organizations that mentioned participating in disaster response or recovery after the May 2013 storms. Between February 4 and March 11, 2014, I contacted individuals at nonprofit organizations and asked them to participate in a one hour, recorded, semi-structured interview. Interviewees were asked to identify other nonprofit organizations active in the response. Eight individuals were interviewed in a location of their choosing. They were asked questions about their organization's

regular collaboration activities as well as their collaboration activities after the May storms. They were also asked to identify what they believed worked and did not work in the disaster recovery effort. Follow up questions were asked when more information was needed. The recorded interviews were transcribed by me, and the data is used in this dissertation to supplement data from the statewide survey of Oklahoma nonprofit organizations described above.

Chapter 3: Collaboration Across the Nonprofit Sector

As a prelude to studying nonprofit collaboration, this chapter examines how nonprofit managers see their environment and the relationship between their organization and other organizations across nonprofit, private, and government sectors. The nonprofit sector includes organizations with a wide range of purposes, including, but not limited to art and humanities, education, health care, child welfare, food delivery, philanthropy, and others. While we often discuss the roles and values of the nonprofit sector in research, some of these organizations fall into professional fields that overlap with the public and private sectors and may have roles and values that are unique to that field. We might expect to see differences in the management, values, cultures, and norms of these organizations based on an identity that is both nonprofit and health care or education or child welfare.

In this chapter, I examine differences between different fields within the nonprofit sector. First, I examine how nonprofit managers perceive their organization in relationship to organizations in the nonprofit, private, and public sectors, by asking the question, “How do nonprofit managers perceive that government agencies, private businesses, and nonprofit organizations understand the challenges faced by their nonprofit organization and influence the management of the organization?” In the second half of this chapter, I examine how nonprofit organizations in different fields collaborate by examining differences in frequency of collaboration with public, private, and nonprofit organizations. Finally, I discuss the importance of examining the nonprofit sector as a whole, and understanding organizational differences within different professional fields in the nonprofit sector.

The Nonprofit Sector: What Does it Mean to be Nonprofit?

Early work in organization theory treated management and organizations-both private and public-as if they had few differences, with an emphasis on a final goal of efficiency (Barnard 1938; Gulick 1933; Taylor 1911; Urwick 1956). Others argued that public organizations are different from private organizations, because they are created and controlled by political actors (Moe 1989; Ring and Perry 1985; Sayre 1958; Wilson 1989) and their focus is on public service rather than market mechanisms (Dahl and Lindblom 1953). Other scholars argued that all organizations have distinct norms and values that determine organizational structures, decision making, and reactions to environmental uncertainty and challenges (DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Ostrom 2005; Scott 1995; Simon 1948).

We often refer to organizations as part of the public, private, or nonprofit sector, differentiating them based on legal status and/or ownership. An organization is designated a nonprofit not because of its activities, but because it satisfies a number of legal regulations at both the state and federal level. A nonprofit organization may-contrary to its moniker-generate profits; however, unlike for-profit organizations, nonprofit organizations may not distribute those profits to individuals that control the organization, such as employees or board members (Hopkins and Gross 2010). Nonprofits are also often referred to as “tax-exempt”. While this is true for the majority of money received by charitable nonprofits, organizations are required to pay taxes on property, personnel, and earned income. Donors may deduct contributions to organizations deemed charitable under IRS code 501(c)3, but not for donations to nonprofit organizations that fall under other 501(c) categories.

Theorists studying the creation and development of nonprofit organizations rely on sector differences and the legal status of nonprofits as the basis of their theories. Most economic theories of nonprofits focus on the non-distribution characteristics of the nonprofit sector, and how that distinction from private organizations affects the development of organizations and service provision (Steinberg 2003). Some theorists argue that nonprofit organizations exist, because the government (at one or more levels) or private markets have failed to provide a public good or failed to provide/finance it adequately (Hansmann 1980; Weisbrod 1977). Citizens have a range of options when their preferences are not met, including seeking goods from the private market, moving to a different city or state that provides the public good, or forming voluntary associations to provide the good (Weisbrod 1977). Many individuals do not have the resources to buy the public good from the private market, and governments provide a mix of goods that are unlikely to satisfy everyone; therefore, there is a wide arena for the creation of voluntary associations (Slivinski 2003; Weisbrod 1977; Young 2006).

Other organizational theorists argue that the nonprofit sector has a specific culture or “nonprofitness”, and that the sector adds value to the public that the other sectors may not (Smith 2004; Til 2005). The nonprofit sector plays a role in helping connect individuals to community and political values. Nonprofit organizations often act as mediating structures between citizens and mega-structures, such as corporations or the government (Berger and Neuhaus 1977; Kerrine and Neuhaus 1979). Voluntary organizations are also uniquely situated to help build social capital and personal ties within communities (Putnam 1995).

A group of scholars working through the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project have examined nonprofit values and developed a list of five roles or contributions of nonprofit organizations globally (Chinnock and Salamon 2002; Salamon, Hems, and Chinnock 2000). Using literature reviews, interviews, and focus groups of leaders in the nonprofit sectors of multiple countries, the scholars identified the most common contributions made by nonprofit organizations to civil society. The first contribution is higher quality, more equitable, and cost effective service role within communities than might be offered by government agencies or for profit organizations (Salamon, Hems, and Chinnock 2000, 5–6). The second is innovation in new markets, services, products, or a combination thereof (p. 6). The third role is that of advocate either for policy changes or individuals in the community (p. 6). The fourth and fifth roles focus on development of leadership, community building, and democratization (p. 7). The final two contributions focus on the role that nonprofits play in developing individual self-expression and social capital, at both the individual and community level.

Salamon, Hems, and Chinnock (2000, p. 8-9) also identify the five drawbacks of nonprofit organizations. The first two drawbacks are heavily related. Nonprofit organizations have the particularism drawback, where the organization can be particular about the services that they provide and which individuals will receive the services (i.e. those who share the organizations values, religious affiliation, cultural values). Particularism is closely related to paternalism-the second drawback-because nonprofit organizations can require service recipients to adhere to those same values. The third drawback is excessive amateurism or professionalization, described as organizations

relying too heavily on either unskilled volunteers or professionals who crowd out contributions from clients or others with an interest in the organization. The fourth drawback is insufficient resources to provide services to society. Finally, nonprofit organizations lack the accountability measures present in for-profit organizations (profits) and government agencies (voters, elections).

The authors admit that these values are not all unique to the nonprofit sector, but “...capture the essence of what we would hypothesize makes this sector special and distinctive...nonprofit organizations are more likely to display these roles and drawbacks than other types of organizations” (Salamon, Hems, and Chinnock 2000, 9). These values and drawbacks have been qualitatively examined on a global scale (Chinnock and Salamon 2002; Salamon, Hems, and Chinnock 2000), and found to be present in the nonprofit sectors in sixteen countries. Six nonprofit sector roles (that largely line up with the roles and contributions described above) were further tested on a sample of nonprofit organizations in a single city in the United States using a “Nonprofit Sector Public Role Index”, that asked nonprofit managers to directly assess their organization’s performance in service delivery, innovation, individual expression and specialization, political advocacy, social capital and community building, and citizen engagement and democratization (Moulton and Eckerd 2012). One aspect of this local study that went beyond studying the nonprofit sector as a homogenous entity, was examining differences in nonprofit values by subsector or different substantive areas within the nonprofit sector. The authors did find some differences in values by subsector, but cautioned that their sample sizes within subsectors were very small, which might limit the overall value of the statistical findings.

Previous studies of values in the nonprofit organization have either focused on a single value or compared values within the nonprofit sector, but not across sectors to examine differences. We really have little empirical evidence that these values are unique to the nonprofit sector. Over the last few decades, some scholars have begun to examine how changes in the political environment-i.e. new regulations, increased public funding for nonprofit and for-profit firms-have blurred the lines between sectors so that our understanding of organizational differences may need to reach beyond legal status and ownership.

Sector Blurring – or “Publicness”

Public administration scholars use the term “sector blurring” to describe the complex relationships that have formed between nonprofit, for-profit, and government organizations over the last fifty years, and the effect that these relationships have on organization structure and behavior. There are many different explanations for sector blurring. Governments at all levels have begun relying heavily on both nonprofit and for-profit organizations to provide services or implement public programs since the 1960s, and this privatization of services can cause problems in identifying distinctions between sectors (Rainey and Chun 2007). Likewise, environmental pressures, such as resource constraints, and competition with for-profit organizations for contracts and clients have forced many nonprofit organizations to professionalize or pursue entrepreneurial activities normally attributed to for-profit organizations (Bush 1992; Kramer 2000). There have also been strong movements to push business-like activity and market mechanisms onto government agencies in order to create more efficiency (Osborne and Gaebler 1992).

Some public administration scholars argue that we should understand organizations, not within defined sectors or by their legal status, but by their degree of publicness (Bozeman and Bretschneider 1994; Bozeman 2004). Degree of publicness refers to the influence of government on private and nonprofit organizations based on ownership, funding source, and control (Bozeman 2004). Organizations can be simultaneously private and public, in the sense that organizations with a lower degree of government control are more private, while those with a higher degree of government control are more public. In that case, you might see for-profit organizations with a higher degree of publicness than some government agencies (Bozeman 2004).

Distinguishing between sectors, ownership form, or legal status may not be the best way to distinguish organizations, and public administration and nonprofit scholars need to be thinking about how we might study organizations within and across sectors. A series of scholars in sociology and public administration have advanced variations of institutional theories of organizations as potentially powerful in understanding similarities and differences between nonprofit organizations and across the sectors (Kramer 1981; Smith 2004; Wolch 2003).

Nonprofit Diversity

One group of neo-institutional theorists suggest that organizations within specific fields (i.e. arts, health) often begin with diverse structures and processes, but in an effort to gain legitimacy, they conform to the norms, values, and cultures of other organizations in their field (Scott 1995). DiMaggio and Powell (1983) argue that organizations with similar purpose and tasks become more homogenous through the process of institutional isomorphism. As these organizations interact, they respond to

uncertainty by mimicking the behavior of other organizations in their field.

Organizations within a common field must also conform to the formal and informal shared regulatory environment, which may include state laws and regulations or licensing requirements. Finally, as fields develop, legitimacy is often derived through connecting the profession to a formal education requirement (i.e. JD, RN, PhD) or the development of professional networks and membership organizations that pass along the values and cultures of the profession to new entrants.

Institutional theorists argue that examining nonprofits at the sector level has limitations due to the incredible diversity within the sector (Brody 2003; Smith 2004). Nonprofit organizations span a wide range of professional fields including health, education, arts, social welfare, environmental advocacy, and many others. Brody (2003) notes that the difficulty in classifying nonprofit organizations lies in our inability to say which should come first, organizational structure or functional differences/activities (p. 239). There are marked differences between fields within the nonprofit sector in financial resource acquisition and cross sector competition. For example, health related nonprofits rely less on charitable giving than organizations that provide social or educational services (Abramson, Salamon, and Steuerle 2006; Brody and Cordes 2006, 145; Steuerle and Hodgkinson 2006). Religious nonprofits-that meet specific requirements-are automatically afforded tax exemption, without the added necessity of applying through the IRS. While all nonprofit organizations are allowed to lobby, charitable organizations face strict restrictions on those activities and are far less likely to lobby for policy changes than issue advocacy organizations (Reid 2006). Finally, some nonprofit fields are more likely to face competition from the private

sector than others. This is especially true in the healthcare field, where nonprofit and for-profit clinics and hospitals compete for patients and fees for service from insurance providers and the government.

What is the relationship between different nonprofit fields and the other sectors- public and private? It is important to keep in mind that individuals rarely define themselves as one single thing. A person can simultaneously be a mother, doctor, and athlete. Usually a person identifies with one trait depending on their environment. For example, when interacting with co-workers, the individual is a doctor, but at home with family, the individual identifies as mother. Organizations can also identify both as a nonprofit and based on their professional field (i.e. education, health, child welfare) or substantive activities. It may be that the organization identifies primarily as one or the other depending on their environment.

I do not have the data to determine when individuals identify their organization as part of their primary field or as a nonprofit organization. Instead, in this chapter I am interested in determining whether nonprofit organizations in different fields perceive the relationships between their organization and organizations within the nonprofit, public, and private sectors differently. I examine these relationships using data from a survey of Oklahoma nonprofit managers. I am specifically interested in how these managers perceive organizations in the nonprofit, private, and public sectors understand the challenges faced by their organizations and influence the management of their organization.

This is a first attempt at gauging differences between the fields before examining differences in collaborative activity. It is difficult to develop hypotheses

with regards to these specific questions, because research on the relationship between the sectors has been sector-wide, instead of focused on subsector differences. I would suggest that funding mechanisms may have some bearing on the perception of influence. Human or public services organizations partner more often with government agencies to provide services and receive financial resources from government agencies for program implementation; therefore, they may be more likely to perceive that government agencies have more influence over the management of their organization. Likewise, arts and humanities nonprofits rely more heavily on funding from the private sector (Steuerle and Hodgkinson 2006), and therefore, they may perceive that organizations in the nonprofit and private sector understand and have more influence over their organization.

Hypothesis 1: Nonprofit organizations focused on public service are more likely to think that government agencies understand the challenges faced by their organization than other nonprofit organizations.

Hypothesis 2: Nonprofit organizations focused on arts, philanthropy, and community improvement/development are more likely than other nonprofit organizations to think that nonprofit and private sector organizations understand the challenges faced by their organization.

Hypothesis 3: Nonprofit organizations focused on public welfare are more likely to think that government agencies have more influence on the management of their organization than other nonprofit organizations.

Hypothesis 4: Nonprofit organizations focused on arts, philanthropy, and community improvement/development are more likely than other nonprofit organizations to think

that nonprofit and private sector organizations have more influence over the management of their organization.

Data and Methods

The data for this chapter are derived from a survey of managers at nonprofit organizations in Oklahoma. The survey was designed and distributed in partnership with the Oklahoma Center for Nonprofits (OCNP). OCNP is a nonprofit organization committed to community improvement through developing the nonprofit sector in Oklahoma. OCNP provides training and advocacy services to nonprofit organizations statewide. A link to the survey was emailed to OCNP's 575 member organizations on December 12, 2013, with a follow up email-including the survey link-emailed on January 6, 2014. Survey responses were collected between December 12, 2013 and February 3, 2014. A total of 93 individuals returned completed surveys for a response rate of 16%. This response rate is within the range of rates reported in previous studies of nonprofit organizations, as well as those emailed directly to organizations (Anseel et al. 2010; Hager et al. 2003). The survey should have taken respondents an average of 20-30 minutes to complete.

Variables

On the survey instrument, nonprofit managers were asked to identify the name and purpose of their organization. Using this information, I searched the GuideStar website for information regarding the nonprofit organization's substantive area. GuideStar is a nonprofit organization that provides an online, searchable database of every IRS-registered nonprofit organization, and provides information about the organization's mission, program, legitimacy, and more (GuideStar 2014). Guidestar

provides the National Taxonomy of Exempt Entities (NTEE) codes for all IRS-registered nonprofit organizations. NTEE codes are used by the IRS and the National Center for Charitable Statistics to classify nonprofit organizations for research, comparison, and tax exemption determinations (NCCS n.d.). Nonprofit organizations are first classified by major category based on organization purpose, and then further classified into a number of smaller categories based on primary activities (i.e. fundraising, advocacy, technical assistance).

I used the GuideStar search engine to search for the major code for each nonprofit organization that provided an organization name and purpose. Some organizations had more than one major category listed. In those instances, I and two other coders examined the IRS Form 990 documents and websites of the organizations to determine the major category that best described the purpose of the organization. In the few instances when there was not agreement among the coders on the best category, the category that was chosen by at least two coders was chosen.

Due to the low survey response rate, in many of the major categories there were too few organizations for analysis. Therefore, for this chapter, I reduced the number of categories to three¹-community development, public services, and other. The original distribution of nonprofits by category, as well as, the collapsed categories are displayed in Table 3.1. I used the three categories to develop a categorical variable for data analysis with 1= “Community Improvement/Development”, 2= “Public Services”, and 3= “Other”.

¹ Some nonprofit research suggests that nonprofit health organizations may have different relationships or interactions with the environment, and I initially created a fourth category for health related nonprofits; however, the health category was very small, and initial statistical analysis showed no differences in the behavior of that group. In order to broaden the categories, I included health and research with the “Other” category.

Table 3.1 Distribution of Nonprofits by NTEE Major Category and Collapsed Categories

Community Improvement/Development	N
Arts, Culture, Humanities	9
Community Improvement & Capacity Building	7
Philanthropy, Voluntarism, & Grantmaking	2
Foundation	
Public & Societal Benefit	1
Total	19
Public Services	
Education	9
Crime and Legal Related	1
Food, Agriculture, & Nutrition	3
Housing & Shelter	3
Human Services	35
Total	51
Other Nonprofits	
Health Care	6
Mental Health & Crisis	2
Diseases, Disorders, & Medical Disciplines	2
Medical Research	1
Environment	3
Animal-Related	4
Recreation & Sports	1
Youth Development	3
Religion-Related	1
Total	23

The first part of the data analysis is focused on how managers of nonprofit organizations perceive their relationship with the nonprofit, private, and public sectors. Respondents were asked, “How well do you believe individuals in the following organizations understand the challenges that your organization faces?” Responses were on a scale from 1-11, with 1= “not at all” and 11= “Completely”. Organizations included business leaders, other local nonprofits, state agencies involved in your field, federal government agencies, foundations, and local governments. Respondents were

further asked to identify-on the same scale from 1-11-how much influence the same individuals or organizations have over the way they manage their organization.

I first compared the averages across the three nonprofit organization groups for how well individuals and organizations across the sectors understand the challenges their nonprofit faces. The results are listed in Table 3.2. The statistically significant differences in averages are mainly between community improvement/development nonprofit organizations and the other two nonprofit categories. On average, managers at community improvement/development organizations believe that businesses have a better understanding of the challenges their organizations face than public service or other nonprofits. This is generally in line with my hypothesis that arts, philanthropy, and community development nonprofit organizations would be more likely than other nonprofits to believe that organizations in the private sector have a better understanding of the challenges their organizations face. Community improvement/development organizations, on average, believe that the federal government understands the challenges faced by their organization less than public service organizations do. This finding supports my hypothesis that public service nonprofits will perceive that government agencies understand the challenges faced by their organization more than other nonprofit organizations. Contrary to this same hypothesis, community improvement/development nonprofits believe that local government agencies, on average, have a better understanding of the challenges their organization faces than public service or “other” nonprofits do. This may be a result of including community development nonprofit organizations in this category. I would expect nonprofits with a

focus on community development to communicate more often with local government agencies also involved in community development.

Table 3.2: Average Scores: “How well do you believe individuals in the following organizations understand the challenges that your organization faces?” by 3 Nonprofit Categories

	Community Improvement/Development	Sig	Public Service	Sig	Other	Sig	Community Improvement/Development (repeated)
Business	6.842	****	5.666		5.565	***	6.842
Nonprofit	7.894		8.137		7.652		7.894
State Agencies	6.937		7.352		7.636		6.937
Federal Government	5.142	***	6.285		5.761		5.142
Foundations	7.736		7.294		7		7.736
Local Government	7.470	****	5.568		5.478	****	7.470

Scale 1-11, 1= “Not at all” and 11= “Completely understand” p-values *<0.1, **<0.05, ***<0.01, ****<0.001
The significance column signifies statistically difference averages between two groups (i.e. significance between Community Improvement/Development and Public Service Organizations).

Next, I compared averages across the three nonprofit categories for how much influence the managers believe individuals or organizations across the three sectors have over the way they manage their nonprofit organization. The results are presented in Table 3.3. As with the previous analysis of how well the nonprofit organization’s challenges are understood across sectors, the statistically significant differences are between community improvement/development organizations and the other two categories. On average, managers in community improvement/development organizations believe that businesses have more influence over the way they manage their organization than public service or “other” nonprofit organizations. They also believe that foundations have more influence over the way they manage their organization, on average, than the nonprofit organizations in the “other” category. Both

of these findings support my hypothesis that community improvement/development organizations will perceive more influence over the management of their organizations from the private and nonprofit sectors than other nonprofit organizations. Finally, community improvement/development nonprofits, on average, perceive that state agencies have less influence over the way they manage their organization than public service organizations, and federal government agencies have less influence than both the public service and “other” organizations. Again, these findings support my hypothesis that public service organizations will perceive government agencies to have more influence over the management of their organization than other nonprofit organizations.

Table 3.3: Average Scores: “How much influence do the following individuals or organizations have over the way you manage your organizations?” by 3 Nonprofit Categories

	Community Improvement/ Development	Sig	Public Service	Sig	Other	Sig	Community Improvement/ Development (repeated)
Business	6.315	****	5.039		5	**	6.315
Nonprofit	4.578		5.117		5.391		4.578
State Agencies	5.333	**	6.274		6.181		5.333
Federal Government	4.333	****	6.68		5.545	*	4.333
Foundations	7.157		6.795		6.043	*	7.157
Local Government	5.833		5.313		5.590		5.833

Scale 1-11, 1= “No Influence” and 11= “Complete Control” p-values *<0.1, **<0.05, ***<0.01, ****<0.001
The significance column signifies statistically difference averages between two groups (i.e. significance between Community Improvement/Development and Public Service Organizations).

There are statistically significant differences between the types of nonprofit organizations and their perception of their relationship with other sectors. This lends some support to those who argue that we should not be studying the “nonprofit sector”,

but instead we should pay more attention to the diversity within the sector. The statistically significant differences are mainly between community improvement/development organizations and all other types of nonprofits. The community improvement/development category is populated by organizations in arts and humanities, philanthropy, and community improvement. These are fields that do not have a robust presence in the private and public sectors. These organizations are uniquely nonprofit, and may identify primarily with their nonprofit status-though I do not have the data to test this assumption directly.

Organizations in the public service and “other” nonprofit categories have purposes that are found in all three sectors. The private and public sector also have organizations focused on education, healthcare, research, recreation and sports, etc. It is possible that individuals in these organizations identify first with their purpose (or field) and only secondarily with their nonprofit status. For example, if you ask a headmaster at a private school what type of organization he manages, he is likely to respond “educational” or “school” instead of nonprofit. Others might argue that the differences between organizations have to do with degree of publicness or with sector-blurring in general. Differences in dependency on public versus private resources could also be playing a role in the way nonprofit managers see their organizations situated in their broader environment. This is an area that is ripe for further research.

In the next section of this chapter, I extend my examination of field differences in the nonprofit sector to collaboration. First, I examine average differences in reported frequency of collaboration with organizations across nonprofit, public, and private

sectors. Then, I include a multivariate analysis of reported frequency of collaboration of nonprofit organizations with the nonprofit and public sectors.

How do Field Differences affect Collaboration?

This section of this chapter examines the relationship between field differences within the nonprofit sector and frequency of collaboration across sectors. Much of the previous research in collaboration has focused on network structures (Granovetter 1973; Isett and Provan 2005; Provan and Milward 1995; Provan and Kenis 2008), network performance (Andrews and Entwistle 2010; Koontz and Thomas 2006; Provan and Kenis 2008; Provan and Milward 2001), and managing within and through networks and collaborative arrangements (Agranoff 2006; McGuire 2006; Milward and Provan 2006; O'Toole and Meier 2004; O'Toole and Meier 1999; Peters 1998). I am interested in whether different fields in the nonprofit sector collaborate with the other two sectors in different ways.

Prominent studies in the collaboration literature suggest that organizations are more likely to seek partnerships with agencies that can provide them with financial, political, or other administrative resources (Pfeffer and Salancik 1978; Provan and Milward 1995; Rethemeyer and Hatmaker 2008; Tschirhart, Amezuca, and Anker 2009). Nonprofits in different fields should rely on different types of organizations for resources. As noted above, human services nonprofits often contract with government agencies to implement public policies. In fact, the number of nonprofits increased dramatically as government agencies made more money available to nonprofit organizations to implement public programs (Steuerle and Hodgkinson 2006). Arts and

humanities organizations do receive some funding from government grants, but they receive more funding from private donations and foundations.

Hypothesis 5: Public service nonprofits will report more frequent collaboration with government agencies.

Hypothesis 6: Community improvement/development nonprofits will report more frequent collaboration with other nonprofit organizations and foundations.

Dependent Variable

In the survey, respondents were asked to identify how frequently their organization collaborates or partners with a series of organizations including, businesses, nonprofit organizations, state agencies, federal government agencies, foundations, and local government agencies. The responses are coded on a five point scale with 1= “never”, 2= “yearly”, 3= “quarterly”, 4= “monthly”, and 5= “weekly+”.

I first compared the average responses across the three nonprofit categories that I constructed, described above. I hypothesized that there would be differences in how often nonprofit organization collaborated with other organization based on the purpose of the nonprofit, with public service nonprofits collaborating more often with government agencies, and community improvement/development nonprofits collaborating more often with other nonprofit organizations and foundations. The averages for the frequency of collaboration are presented in Table 3.4.

In the case of collaboration, the statistically significant differences are between public service organizations and the other two categories. On average, public service organizations report collaborating with businesses and the federal government more often than community improvement/development organizations and other nonprofits.

Public service organizations also report collaborating more often, on average, with nonprofit organizations, state agencies, and foundations, than community improvement/development organizations.

Table 3.4: Average Scores: “How Frequently does your organization collaborate or partner with the following?” by 3 Nonprofit Categories

	Community Improvement/Development	Sig	Public Service	Sig	Other	Sig	Community Improvement/Development (repeated)
Business	3.142	**	3.585	*	2.95		3.142
Nonprofit	3.785	***	4.292		4.15		3.785
State Agencies	2.428	****	3.268		2.4		2.428
Federal Government	2	***	2.731	***	1.8		2
Foundations	2.571	****	3.341		2.7		2.571
Local Government	2.923		2.902		2.45		2.923

Scale 1-5, 1= “Never”, 2= “Yearly”, 3= “Quarterly”, 4= “Monthly”, and 5= “Weekly+”
 p-values *<0.1, **<0.05, ***<0.01, ****<0.001

The significance column signifies statistically difference averages between two groups (i.e. significance between Community Improvement/Development and Public Service Organizations).

This partially supports my hypothesis that public service organizations collaborate more with government agencies. On average, they collaborate more with the federal government and state agencies than community improvement organizations, but there is no statistically significant difference in average collaboration among the three groups with local government agencies. The results for local government are not entirely surprising. Much of the funding that goes to nonprofit organizations from government agencies is in the form of federal grants that flow through state agencies to contracts with nonprofit organizations. There is less funding available at the local government level for nonprofit organizations.

My hypothesis that community improvement/development nonprofits would report collaborating more often with other nonprofit organizations and foundations was not supported. Public service organizations report more collaboration on average with both nonprofit organizations and foundations than community improvement/development nonprofits. There is no statistically significant difference in average collaboration between public service organizations and “other” nonprofits.

Multivariate Analysis of Collaboration Across Sectors

In order to better understand nonprofit collaboration, I develop four ordered logit models that examine collaboration with nonprofit organizations, foundations, state agencies, and federal government agencies. I dropped businesses and local government agencies from this stage of analysis, because the differences in reported average frequency of collaboration between nonprofit categories either reached a low threshold of significance (businesses) or there was no statistical difference in the average collaboration by nonprofit category (local government agencies).

The dependent variables for the multivariate models are the same categorical variables used to compare averages above. An OLS model would be inappropriate for this analysis, because the dependent variables are categorical in nature. The dependent variables are also ordered from least to greatest amount of collaboration with 1= “never” and 5= “weekly+”. Therefore, I developed an ordered logit model with the following independent variables.

Independent Variables

The first independent variables are the three nonprofit categories that I developed using NTEE codes, with the categories community

improvement/development, public service, and other. In the multivariate model, the comparison category is community improvement/development. I also include a number of control variables that describe the organization's size and capacity. The first variable, AGE, is a count variable of the number of years the organization has existed. The second variable is a measure of the total annual operating budget of the nonprofit organizations with the following categories: 1= "less than \$100,000", 2= "\$100,000-\$499,000", 3= "\$500,000-\$999,999", 4= "\$1 million-\$4,999,999", 5= "\$5 million-\$9,999,999", and 6= "greater than \$10 million". The third variable is the number of both full and part time employees at the organization.

Finally, respondents were asked on a scale of 1-10 to rate their agreement with two statements:

1. In the past, collaboration with other nonprofit organizations has helped our organization meet its objectives.
2. In the past, collaboration with government agencies has helped our organization meet its objectives.

The responses to the first statement are used as a variable in the models for collaboration with nonprofit organizations and foundations. The responses to the second statement are used in the models for collaboration with state agencies and federal government agencies. Furthermore, the models for state agencies and federal government agencies include a variable meant to gauge how much the nonprofit organizations rely on federal funding. Respondents were asked what the effect would be on the daily operation of their organization if it stopped receiving government funds. The variable is a categorical variable with four categories: 1= "the organization does not receive government funds" and "it would have no impact on the organization", 2= "the organization would have to substantially cut its services and capacity", 3= "the

organization's scope and mission would change significantly", and 4= "the organization would have to be shut down." This final variable measures resource dependency on the government. A higher response on this question denotes a more negative effect with a hypothetical loss of government funding. The more an organization depends on government agencies for financial resources, the more likely the manager will answer this question in a higher category. Organizations that are more dependent on the government should indicate a higher frequency of collaboration with government agencies.

Multivariate Model Results

The results of the four ordered logit models are presented below in Table 3.5. The independent variables for nonprofit categories are included as categorical variables, and the models exclude community improvement/development for comparison purposes. In the model for frequency of collaboration with nonprofit organizations, the public service and "other nonprofits" category variables are statistically significant at the $p < 0.1$ level. Holding all independent variables constant, public service organizations have a 286% increase in the probability of increasing a category of the dependent variable -- across the values the dependent variable takes. Nonprofit organizations in the "other nonprofits" category have a 361% increase in the probability of increasing a category of the dependent variable -- across the values the dependent variable takes. Furthermore, for every one unit increase in belief that prior collaboration with nonprofit organizations helped meet the organization objectives, the organizations have a 26% increase in the probability of moving one category higher in the dependent variable, when all other variables are held constant in the model.

The results of the first model-frequency of collaboration with nonprofit organizations-do not support my hypothesis that community improvement/development

Table 3.5: Determinants of Frequency of Collaboration

	Nonprofits	Foundations	State Agencies	Federal Government
Nonprofit Categories	Odds Ratios			
Public Service	3.861* (2.639)	2.255 (1.387)	1.685 (1.060)	2.263 (1.753)
Other Nonprofits	4.612* (3.544)	1.432 (0.981)	0.697 (0.493)	0.955 (0.863)
Age	1.010 (0.011)	0.994 (0.009)	1.005 (0.010)	1.001 (0.010)
Budget	1.439 (0.366)	1.622** (0.367)	1.051 (0.253)	1.868** (0.496)
Employees	0.997 (0.002)	1.002 (0.002)	1.002 (0.002)	0.999 (0.002)
Prior Collaboration with Nonprofits	1.266* (0.121)	1.072 (0.087)		
Prior Collaboration with Government			1.203** (0.110)	1.398*** (0.149)
Hypothetical Loss of Government Funding			1.607** (0.353)	2.111*** (0.537)
N	70	70	67	67
Chi-Square	0.011	0.003	0.002	0.000

Dependent Variable is frequency of collaboration on a scale of 1-5
 1= "never", 2= "yearly", 3= "quarterly", 4= "monthly", 5= "weekly+"
 Standard Error in Parentheses
 *p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01

organizations will report more frequent collaboration with organizations within the nonprofit field. Instead, public service nonprofits and organizations in the “other” category are more likely to report more frequent collaboration with nonprofit organizations. This may be a result of the types of programs that public service organizations and some of the organizations in the “other” category tackle. These organizations are frequently dealing with “wicked policy problems” such as poverty, inequality, security, or environmental policies, which often require collaboration with multiple organizations across sectors (van Bueren, Klijn, and Koppenjan 2003; Milward and Provan 2006). It is important to note that the variables for public service organizations and other nonprofits reach a very low threshold for significance. This may be due to the small number of cases in the model. I suggest interpreting the results with caution, and hope to conduct large-N studies of nonprofit cross-sector collaboration in the future.

The nonprofit categories are not a significant predictor in any of the remaining models. Instead organizational variables measuring resources and resource dependency, as well as previous experience with organizations predict frequency of collaboration. For the Foundations model, organization budget is significant at the $p < 0.01$ level. For every one unit increase in budget, organizations have a 62% probability of moving up one category of the dependent variable – frequency of collaboration. Increased budget could be a sign that the nonprofit organizations have the financial and personnel resources to successfully apply for and receive grants from foundations. There are potential endogeneity problems. Organizations likely have a

larger budget, *because* they are collaborating with foundations. Collaboration with foundations is usually tied to financial backing from the foundation.

Resource dependency is significant in the models examining collaboration with state agencies and the federal government. Respondents were asked what the effect of a hypothetical loss of government funding would be on their organization. For every one unit increase in the hypothetical loss of funding, organizations have a 60% increase in the probability of moving one category higher in frequency of collaboration with state agencies, and a 111% increase in the probability of moving one category higher in frequency of collaboration with federal government agencies. As expected, organizations that depend on government agencies for financial resources have more frequent collaboration with government agencies.

Prior collaboration with government agencies is also significant in both government agencies models ($p < 0.05$ for state agencies and $p < 0.01$ for federal agencies). A one unit increase in prior experience collaborating with government leads to a 20% increase in the probability of moving one category higher in frequency of collaboration with state agencies and a 39% increase in probability of moving one category higher in frequency of collaboration with federal agencies. Finally, budget is significant ($p < 0.05$) in the federal agencies model. A one unit increase in budget leads to an 86% increase in probability of moving one category higher in frequency of collaboration with federal agencies.

One reason we may not see differences between the nonprofit categories is that the survey question merely asks frequency collaboration and does not examine the extent of the collaborative relationship (i.e. informal versus formal). Government

agencies and foundations are increasingly requiring nonprofit organizations from all fields to engage in collaboration with other organizations in order to be eligible for funding. The main reasons for these requirements appear to be the shrinking base of grant money, and a desire for nonprofit organizations to increase capacity through partnerships (Ostrower 2005). This may mean that all nonprofit organizations- regardless of primary purpose-are engaging in collaborative relationships with more frequency. Chapters 4 and 5 of this dissertation examine differences in type of collaboration by the substantive areas of child welfare and disaster response and recovery.

Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter presents some evidence that there are differences in how separate fields in the nonprofit sector view their organization's relationship with the nonprofit, public, and private sectors. Community improvement/development organizations may be situated more wholly in the nonprofit sector than others, because the arts and humanities fields do not have a robust presence in the private or public sectors. Other nonprofit organizations, including those in health industries, education, and social welfare fields have counterparts in the public and private sector. It may be that individuals in these organizations identify first with their field, and then as part of a nonprofit organization. Likewise, individuals in organizations with fields that cross sectors could identify with the nonprofit sector in some environments, and their professional field in others. This chapter of the dissertation does not examine that relationship directly, but future research should examine under what circumstances

professional field verses nonprofit sector norms and values are dominant in decision making.

While the initial descriptive analysis of average frequency of collaboration showed differences between public service nonprofit organization and other nonprofit organizations, the multivariate analysis did not show differences in frequency of collaboration by nonprofit category for three of the four models. Instead, organizational resource and capacity variables, such as budget and the effect of a hypothetical loss of governmental funding were significant indicators of frequency of collaboration. Not surprisingly previous positive experience collaborating with organizations predicted an increased frequency of collaboration as well. While these results should be interpreted cautiously due to the limited number of nonprofit organizations in each category, it suggests that for collaboration, different fields within the nonprofit sector may not be an important indicator of partner selection. Managers should focus on creating capacity to collaborate with other organizations. This may mean both identifying partners that have desired resources and developing unique skills, services or other resources that other organizations may require.

Due to the small number of responses to the survey, the results of the collaboration models should be interpreted with caution. Even the collapsed NTEE categories had few nonprofit organizations to examine. It may be that large N data of nonprofits across the sector would find more differences between nonprofit fields. It has proven difficult to get larger response rates from nonprofit organizations in the past, but larger N studies are necessary to get a better understanding of relationships across the sector.

Chapter 4: Government Effect on Capacity: The Case of Child

Welfare Nonprofits

Society's problems have become increasingly complex, and the expectation that government agencies can solve those problems within the boundaries of rigid, hierarchical agencies has largely gone by the wayside in public administration (Kettl 2006). Even straightforward service provision, such as waste management, is often administered through contracts with private agencies instead of direct service provision through a central government office. Policies aimed at "wicked" problems such as poverty, security, and child welfare, require the involvement of multiple levels of government and agencies across sectors (van Bueren, Klijn, and Koppenjan 2003; Milward and Provan 2006).

Early implementation research found that it is difficult to coordinate multiple levels of government and multiple government agencies to implement public policies, even when those policies are relatively straightforward in goals and support (Pressman and Wildavsky 1984). When there are multiple decision points, there is more opportunity for changing or vetoing ideas. However, additional work showed that central control and coordination also has substantial limitations in implementing complex policies (Hanf and Scharpf 1978; Hjern and Porter 1981). As the federal government has pushed implementation down to state and local governments, networking and collaboration has become more vital, because lower level governments rely on nonprofit organizations to implement policies within communities. This early literature on implementation, institutions, and networks informed current research in collaborative management and governance (Heinrich and Lynn 2000).

As government agencies increased funding to nonprofit organizations to develop and deliver social service programs, the nonprofit sector increased in size (Steuerle and Hodgkinson 2006). Much of this increase came from the creation of new nonprofit organizations, but some of it was due to established nonprofits creating new programs to compete for government funding. Some scholars shifted their attention to how the reliance on government funding changed nonprofit organizations' governing and management practices (Alexander, Nank, and Stivers 1999; Guo 2007; O'Regan and Oster 2002; Van Slyke 2007). I seek to further this area of the literature by determining how a relationship with government agencies affects nonprofit organizational capacity and effectiveness.

In this paper, I examine the relationship between government agencies and nonprofit organizations using the policy arena of child welfare. I determine whether a relationship with government agencies—specifically public child welfare agencies—improves or worsens a child welfare nonprofit's organizational capacity and effectiveness. Previous research has focused on contracts to determine how the structure of an agreement between a principal and an agent affects the actions and reactions of parties involved. This perspective ignores other important factors, such as leadership, ideology, and organizational goals (Miller 1992). My research seeks to build on previous research in resource dependency, organizational culture, and relational contracting to identify other variables that might explain the effects of cross-sector collaboration on nonprofit organization capacity and effectiveness.

First, I provide a brief overview of the evolving relationship between public child welfare agencies and child welfare nonprofits. Next, I introduce hypotheses about

government-nonprofit relationships that stem from theories of resource dependency, organizational culture, and relational contracting. Finally, I provide an OLS model and results and discuss the implications of my findings and areas for further research.

Providing for the Welfare of Children: Complicated Relationships

The child welfare system-which encompasses abuse and neglect prevention, foster care services, adoption, and family reunification-is widely seen as a system in crisis in the United States (Curtis, Dale, and Kendall 1999). Even though the number of children in foster care has slightly fallen over the last few years (Children's Bureau 2013), we are just beginning to understand the complex needs of individuals in the child welfare system, including mental health (Clausen et al. 1998), long term educational deficiencies (Burley and Halpern 2001), and family reunification (Berrick, Barth, and Needell 1994; Davis et al. 1996; Maluccio 1999). The issue of child welfare is complex, and like other wicked policy problems requires expertise from multiple fields across sectors. Government agencies-i.e. State Departments of Human Services-do not have the capacity to provide all of the services necessary, and they have increasingly sought out the diverse expertise of nonprofit organizations to help administer programs aimed at the care of children.

Nonprofit organizations have been in the business of caring for poor children and orphans for hundreds of years, but direct government involvement in the welfare of children did not begin in the United States until the early 20th century with the creation of the Children's Bureau, which advocated for the first grant-in-aid program targeted at child health programs (Lemons 1969; Lindenmeyer 1997). From 1940-1970 the number of foster care programs and children in foster care grew, as did the idea that

children should be reunited with their families whenever possible. The state became even more involved in child welfare services as federal grants for welfare services increased greatly in the 1960s through the federal government's War on Poverty (Bremner 1974; Flaherty, Collins-Camargo, and Lee 2008). The 1970s and 1980s saw increased child abuse reporting standards for states, and many public agencies became child protective service agencies, as well as foster care service providers (Lindsey 2004). In the 1990s, changes in federal law (most notably the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act) shifted much of the responsibility for child welfare to the state and local level, and encouraged state governments to work with nonprofit organizations, faith-based organizations, and private organizations to provide services (Courtney 1999; Mangold 1999; Scarcella et al. 2006). Child welfare services (i.e. foster care, adoption services, neglect and abuse monitoring) now resembles a partnership between government agencies-providing funding, case management, and regulation-and nonprofit organizations-providing placement, counseling, facilities, and other services (Rosenthal 2000).

Public child welfare is an excellent policy arena to study the effect of collaboration with government on nonprofit capacity and effectiveness for a couple of reasons. First, government agencies rely heavily on nonprofit organizations to provide the range of complex services needed by children and families. Second, the relationship between government and child welfare nonprofits is often governed by contracts, but the type and number of contracts differs by agency, which provides diversity for this study. Furthermore, many of these relationships are informal in nature, with government agencies merely referring clients to nonprofit organizations that can

provide services the government agency cannot. Finally, not all child welfare nonprofits accept government funds. Some nonprofits accept a mix of public and private funds, as well as earned income through fees for service. Other nonprofit organizations rely entirely on government for funding, which further provides diversity for this study, because I can further examine the effects of resource dependency on nonprofit capacity and effectiveness.

Resource Dependency

Resource dependency theory is commonly used to explain why organizations seek collaborative arrangements (Gazley and Brudney 2007; Guo and Acar 2005). Nonprofit organizations often need to seek resources-finances, personnel, etc-to combat the negative effects of competition, reductions in overall revenues, and other environmental factors. In order to survive external shocks, such as an economic downturn, nonprofits will collaborate with other nonprofit organizations and across sectors to seek those resources (Pfeffer and Salancik 1978).

In the 20th century, nonprofits saw a marked increase in funding available from the government (Steuerle and Hodgkinson 2006; Young 2006). However, funding streams to nonprofit organizations vary by subsector-arts v. health and human services-and by nonprofit organization. Some organizations exist wholly on government funding, while others accept a mix of government and private funding, and still others operate with no government funding. The fact that the number of nonprofit organizations has increased as the availability of government funding has increased suggests that government funding has a positive effect on nonprofit organizations. Even for organizations that only operate partially with government funding, the addition

of government financial support can provide flexibility in the use of private giving and open up additional service opportunities (Boyne 2003).

Reliance on government funding can also have negative consequences for the organization. First, government grants and contracts often come with strings attached that can “tie” the hands of nonprofit organizations. These strings include overly restrictive spending guidelines, such as the requirement that the money only be used for acquiring computers, when the organization really needs new staff members. Much of the time, contracts and grants have restrictions on how or when programs are delivered that may not be in line with the overall mission or goals of a nonprofit organization. When organizations adjust to comply with contract or grant requirements, it can lead to mission drift (Van Slyke 2007), changes in management and hiring (Steuerle and Hodgkinson 2006), changes in governance, including less community representation (Alexander, Nank, and Stivers 1999; Guo 2007), and a shift in focus from fundraising to financial management (O’Regan and Oster 2002).

Second, many grants and contracts have extensive reporting obligations that require organizations to conduct program evaluation or additional performance reports (Dubnick and Frederickson 2009; Dubnick 2005). New performance reporting is often coupled with increased accounting requirements, and this can force nonprofit organizations to either professionalize or to seek professional help, which taxes personnel and financial resources. Focusing on paperwork and politics can also force organizations to lose focus on mission, goals, and service.

While the availability of government resources can have positive effects on nonprofit organizations by allowing them to provide new programs and services, or

freeing up private giving for other purposes, this funding can also negatively affect an organization's capacity, through additional paperwork and red tape, and effectiveness through constraints on spending and program services.

H1: Organizations that rely on government funding will report that their capacity and effectiveness has decreased as a result of the organization's relationship with government agencies.

Organizational Culture

Many studies of collaboration and contracting have focused on the external environmental factors that affect the desire to collaborate or enter into a contracting relationship. This is particularly true in studies relying on principal-agent or transaction cost theories, which focus on how a contract or arrangement is structured to increase compliance by the agent and decrease monitoring costs for the principal (Brown and Potoski 2003a, 2003b). We have learned a great deal about contracting relationships from this literature, but it tells us little about how the agency's internal environment affects the organization's likelihood of entering into a partnership or organization's ability to deal with external shocks, such as the negative aspects of contracting discussed in the previous section. One measure of an organization's internal environment is its organizational culture, which is "...the patterns of values and ideas in organizations that shape human behavior and its artifacts" (Zammuto and Krakower 1991, 83–84).

Many scholars have tried to develop a meaningful definition and measure of organizational culture. I utilize the definition from the competing values model of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983).

The Quinn and Rohrbaugh model argues that organizational approaches to performance vary along three dimensions: (1) organizational focus

(people versus the organization, (2) differing preferences about structure (control versus flexibility), and (3) different foci on important organizational processes and outcomes (means and ends).” (Moynihan and Pandey 2005, 426).

The competing values model was first operationalized by Zammuto and Krakower (1991) and includes four cultural types. Developmental culture is focused on the organization, flexibility, adaptability, growth, and resource acquisition. A hierarchical culture is focused more on people (human resources), control, managing information, and organizational stability. The third group, rational culture, focuses on organizational goals, control, planning, production, and efficiency. Finally, group culture focuses on people, flexibility, and employee morale and cohesion (Moynihan and Pandey 2005, 2010; Quinn and Rohrbaugh 1983; Zammuto and Krakower 1991). For this study, I use measurements of the Competing Values Model developed by Moynihan and Pandey (2005, 2010).

In previous research, organizations with a developmental culture have been found to be more likely to use performance management information than those with a hierarchical or rational, risk averse culture (Moynihan and Pandey 2010). Furthermore, a manager’s ability to cultivate a developmental culture has been cited as one management choice that can make an organization more effective (Moynihan and Pandey 2005). I believe that developmental culture will have similar significance in this study-a positive effect on the how the relationship between government agencies and nonprofits affects the nonprofit’s capacity and effectiveness. Conversely, I believe that hierarchic cultures will have a negative effect in this same area. The other cultural types have not significantly influenced management decisions in previous studies, and

while we include them in statistical models for control in this study, we do not hypothesize about their relationship with collaboration or capacity and effectiveness.

A developmental culture is focused on expansion, organizational development, and resource acquisition (Moynihan and Pandey 2010). As discussed above, nonprofits are more likely to seek partnerships with other organizations when they need tangible and/or intangible resources to increase capacity and/or expand services. Therefore, organizations with a culture that encourages growth will be more likely to partner with government agencies that provide the resources necessary to achieve that vision. When organizations enter into a relationship with other organizations they do so with some uncertainty. It is unlikely that the two organizations will have similar processes, goals, or cultures, and that this new relationship will require changes in procedure or other organizational processes. A developmental culture focuses on organizational flexibility and adaptability. The flexibility and adaptability of the organization will make it better able to absorb shocks to its internal operations—such as new reporting standards or constraints on program delivery—that come from relationships with government agencies. The ability to be adaptable and modify operations when necessary will make these organizations less likely to perceive negative effects on their capacity and effectiveness due to their relationships with government agencies.

Organizations with a hierarchical culture are more focused on centralization and control and may not be able to adapt to internal shocks as easily. These agencies may be more likely to perceive negative effects on their capacity and effectiveness due to their relationship with government agencies.

H2a: Organizations with a developmental culture will report that their capacity and effectiveness has improved as a result of the organization's relationship with government agencies.

H2b: Organizations with a hierarchical culture will report that their organization capacity and effectiveness has decreased as a result of the organization's relationship with government agencies.

Contracting

Formal relationships between government agencies and nonprofits are governed by contracts or grants. As discussed briefly above, these agreements are structured to prevent shirking on the part of agents (nonprofit organizations), and reduce the cost of monitoring on the part of the principal (government agencies). This rigid relationship is born out of uncertainty, but some research has shown that as relationships develop between government agencies and nonprofits through continued partnerships, contracts can take on a more relational tone based on credibility (Bertelli and Smith 2009), trust (Fernandez 2007), and shared objectives (Van Slyke 2007). Due to successful relationships over time, government agencies can focus less on monitoring nonprofit activities, and allow the nonprofit organization more flexibility in program design and service delivery. I argue that the flexibility that develops out of long term relationships can increase the capacity and effectiveness of nonprofit organizations, because it gives the nonprofits access to needed resources without as many of the constraints that may be present in newer contract relationships, such as program evaluation and financial reporting requirements discussed previously.

H3: Organizations with more government contract experience will report that their capacity and effectiveness has improved as a result of the organization's relationship with government agencies.

The following section discusses the data and methods used to test the hypotheses discussed in the previous sections.

Data and Methods

The data for this analysis were collected via a survey of administrators at nonprofit organizations providing child welfare or advocacy services. The list of organizations was compiled using the National Taxonomy of Exempt Entities (NTEE) codes and National Taxonomy of Exempt Entities-Core Codes (NTEE-CC). The survey was emailed to a nation-wide sample of 426 administrators, and 184 surveys representing organizations from 38 different states, were returned completed for a response rate of 43 percent.

In order to determine what factors influence the perception that a relationship with government agencies has improved or worsened nonprofit agency capacity and effectiveness, I develop an OLS model with the following variables.

Dependent Variable

Respondents were asked what effect their organization's relationship with public child welfare agencies had on eleven organizational dimensions. The responses were listed on a scale from 1-5, with 1="it's made it much worse" and 5="it's made it much better". A list of the eleven dimensions is included in Table 4.1.

I conducted exploratory factor analysis on the eleven dimensions for two reasons. First, I suspected that there were one or more latent variables that connected and better described the dimensions. Second, I wanted to simplify the data and avoid including eleven separate models. I expected to find that the dimensions would be grouped into two categories, which I would call capacity and effectiveness. However,

the results of the factor analysis showed that the dimensions were not wholly independent of each other. Instead, the analysis revealed a single dimension with an eigenvalue of 5.98. The next closest dimension had an eigenvalue of 0.57. I then computed a factor score for use in a single OLS model. I used the factor score as a dependent variable representing the reported improvement (or deterioration) in agency capacity and effectiveness brought on by relationships with public child welfare agencies.

Table 4.1: Thinking specifically about your agency’s relationship with public child welfare agencies in general, what effect has this relationship had on the following areas of your agency?

Agency transparency
Ability to respond to community needs
Doing paperwork
Outside oversight and monitoring
Accountability to clients
Relationship with other nonprofits
Overall financial outlook
Development of new programs
Development of long-standing programs
Ability to serve children and families well
Ability to meet key agency performance outcomes

Independent Variables

Resource Dependency: I used responses to two questions from the survey to test my resource dependency hypothesis. The first question asked respondents to identify the source of the largest portion of their agency’s operating budget revenues. Respondents could choose a single answer with the choices, “government”, “individual donations”, “business grants and/or donations”, “fees for services rendered”, “other nonprofits or foundations”, or “business subsidiaries of your agency”. Since my main concern was

dependency on resources from the government, I constructed a dummy variable where 1=government support and 0=all other funding sources.

The second survey question examining resource dependency asked respondents what the effect would be on their agency's daily operations if they stopped receiving government funds. Respondents were asked to choose one of the following options; "the agency does not receive government funds", "it would have no impact on my agency", "the agency would have to substantially cut its services and capacity", "the agency's scope and mission would change significantly", and "the agency would have to be shut down." For ease of data analysis, these responses were collapsed into an ordinal variable with 0= "no effect", 1= "affects services or mission", and 2= "agency would shut down".

Organization Culture: In order to identify organizational culture, respondents were asked to rate how well a series of four statements describe the work environment of their agency. The statements are variants of those used by Moynihan and Pandey (2005) and are provided in Table 4.2 . Responses were given on a scale of 1 to 5 with 1="strongly disagree" and 5="strongly agree". Due to my hypotheses, I am primarily interested in the variables for developmental and hierarchical cultures. However, I include independent variables for each of the cultural types in the model in order to provide a more robust model and provide a more complete picture of the relationship between organizational culture and the effect of relationships with government on nonprofit capacity and effectiveness. This resulted in four ordinal variables measuring organizational culture.

Table 4.2: Survey Questions Measuring Organizational Culture

Rational Culture - My agency is very production oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People aren't very personally involved.

Group Culture - My agency is a very personal place. It is an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.

Developmental Culture - My agency is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.

Hierarchical Culture - My agency is a very formalized and structured place. Rules and procedures generally govern what people do.

Relational Contracting: Finally, in order to test my hypothesis regarding relational contracting, I developed two independent variables that are proxies for the density of the contracting relationship with public child welfare agencies. For the first variable, respondents were provided with a list of common services that public child welfare agencies contract with nonprofit organizations to provide. The respondents were then asked to identify each of the services that their organization contracts with government to provide. The complete list of 12 possible services is provided in Table 4.3. I summed the number of contracts to create a continuous variable to measure the density of the relationship between public child welfare agencies and nonprofits.

The second contracting variable is meant to capture the extent of the relationship, contractual and non-contractual, between a nonprofit organization and public child welfare agencies. Respondents were asked to identify how frequently their agency collaborates or partners with public child welfare agencies to provide services. Respondents were given a scale from 1-5 with 1= "never", 2= "yearly", 3= "monthly",

4= “weekly”, and 5= “daily”. This resulted in an ordinal variable measuring frequency of collaboration with public child welfare agencies.

Table 4.3: List of Contract Types

Child abuse prevention services (primary prevention)/family support
CPS investigation or assessment
Family preservation/in-home services
Family reunification services
Foster care placement services and licensing
Residential treatment or congregate care
Adoption services
Foster parent recruitment
Adoptive parent recruitment
Independent living services
Counseling, therapy, or mentoring programs
Case management

While the relational contracting literature has focused on the length of contractual relationships, and the effect of time on contract management, I believe that these two variables are reasonable ways to measure nonprofit contract experience, because they each explain a small piece of the extent of a relationship between a nonprofit organization and a public child welfare agency. Many times nonprofit agencies are awarded contracts, because they have performed satisfactorily under a previous or current contract. The first variable identifies the number of current contracts that the nonprofit has been awarded, so we can assume that an agency with multiple contracts has had previously successful contracts. I use the second variable to understand how the extent of a relationship beyond contracting alone (i.e. informal relationships) affects the operational capacity and effectiveness of the nonprofit organization.

Control Variables I added five control variables to the model, including organizational variables that are commonly used for controls in studies of contracting and

collaboration. Organizational variables include the total operating budget for the nonprofit organization and the age of the agency. For total operating budget, the respondents were given a scale of 1-6 with 1= “less than \$100,000”, 2= “\$100,000-\$499,999”, 3= “\$500,000-\$999,999”, 4= “\$1 million - \$4,999,999”, 5= “\$5 million - \$9,999,999”, and 6= “greater than \$10 million”. Respondents were also asked to identify the age of the nonprofit organization by identifying the year that their agency first began providing services to children and families in the child welfare system. In this model, this variable is included as the number of years since the agency began.

I wanted to get a better understanding of how the manager’s personal perceptions of government and government control over the nonprofit affects their perception of an increase or decrease in capacity and effectiveness. I added three control variables to the model to better understand this relationship. First, respondents were asked, “Would you take government funding if you did not need it?” Respondents were given three possible responses, 1= “yes”, 2= “maybe”, and 3= “no”, which were used as ordinal variables. Second, respondents were asked about the state government’s role in holding the agency accountable. “How involved is the state legislature in holding your agency’s operations accountable?” Ordinal variables were constructed from the three possible responses- 1= “less than I would like”, 2= “about right”, and 3= “more than I would like”.

Finally, since I am asking individuals within the agency about their perception of child public welfare agency’s effect on the nonprofit, we controlled for individual perceptions of the government’s effect on the nonprofit organization. Respondents were asked if strong government influence over agency operations “present a challenge

for your nonprofit agency's ability to effectively provide services". Responses were coded from 1-5 with 1= "no challenge" and 5= "very severe challenge".

Results and Discussion

Resource Dependency: The results of the OLS model are presented in Table 4.2. The model shows the effect of the independent variables on reported improvement or worsening of nonprofit agency capacity and effectiveness brought on by relationships with government agencies. I hypothesized that when a nonprofit agency depends on the government for financial resources, respondents would perceive a decrease in agency capacity and effectiveness due to government relationships. My first test of this hypothesis was an independent variable in which respondents reported the source of the largest portion of their operating budget. When government is the largest source of support for an agency the model shows a positive and statistically significant effect on agency capacity and effectiveness. The results for a hypothetical loss of government funding (reported by the respondents in the second resource dependency question above) further validate this finding. As the consequences of loss of government funding go up, the respondent is more likely to perceive a negative relationship between the nonprofit's relationship with public child welfare agencies and the organization's capacity and effectiveness. This finding is statistically significant at the $p < 0.01$ level.

The resource dependency results do not support Hypothesis 1-that nonprofits that have more dependence on government resources will perceive a decrease in agency capacity and effectiveness due to their relationship with public child welfare agencies. I developed this hypothesis, because contracting relationships often come with increased work and reporting duties for nonprofit organizations. Furthermore, grants and

contracts from government agencies usually tie money up on specific projects or for a specific purchase. One would initially suspect that these increased duties and financial constraints would create a hardship that negatively affects the organization's capacity and effectiveness; however, these results suggest the opposite.

The results of the resource dependence variables in the model support the contention of resource dependency theorists that nonprofit organizations seek relationships across sectors in order to diversify finances and gain flexibility and autonomy as a buffer against negative environmental impacts (Gazley and Brudney 2007; Guo and Acar 2005; Pfeffer and Salancik 1978). This is also likely a confirmation that the availability of government funding frees resources from other sources to be used how the nonprofit wishes (Boyne 2003).

Table 4.4: Perceived Effect of Relationship with Government on Agency Capacity and Effectiveness

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error
Resource Dependency		
Reliance on Government Funding	0.693**	0.259
Hypothetical Loss of Government Funding	-0.34*	0.157
Organizational Culture		
Developmental Culture	0.21 ⁺	0.111
Hierarchical Culture	0.063	0.081
Rational Culture	-0.086	0.083
Group Culture	-0.179	0.118
Relational Contracting		
Density of Government Contracts	0.064*	0.029
Frequency of Collaboration with Government	0.065	0.073
Control Variables		
Total Operating Budget	-0.022	0.081
Agency Age	-0.002	0.003
Receive Government Funding	-0.014	0.232
Agency Accountable to Legislature	-0.202	0.126
Government Influence is a Challenge	-0.384***	0.067
Constant	1.067	0.685

N=127, Adj. R-squared=0.2618, ⁺=p<0.05, *p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Organizational Culture: I hypothesized that organizational culture would affect the perception of relationship outcomes on nonprofit capacity and effectiveness. I hypothesized that a developmental culture would have a positive relationship (H2a) and hierarchical culture would have a negative relationship (H2b). The model included four independent variables to examine this hypothesis: developmental culture, hierarchical culture, rational culture, and group culture. Only one of these variables, developmental culture, reaches the level of statistical significance ($p < 0.1$), and it confirms my hypothesis with a positive coefficient. Hypothesis 2b—that hierarchical cultures would perceive a negative influence on capacity and effectiveness of the organization—was not confirmed as the hierarchical variable did not reach a level of statistical significance.

Organizations with developmental cultures are more flexible and decentralized. These are attributes that are important in collaboration and can be cultivated by managers (Agranoff and McGuire 1999, 2003). When an organization has a more developmental culture, the effect of a relationship with government agencies on capacity and effectiveness is positive. This suggests that the more decentralized and flexible an organization is, the more likely it is able to absorb external shocks to its system, including changes that are inevitable when entering into a relationship or contract with a government agency.

The results of the model are consistent with findings from Moynihan and Pandey's work on organizational culture and performance (Moynihan and Pandey 2005, 2010), where developmental culture had an effect on organization performance, but other the other organizational cultures did not. The fact that the other organizational

cultures have not had an effect leaves some questions about the validity of the measures used here and in previous studies.

Relational Contracting: Finally, I hypothesized that a higher density of relationships between a nonprofit organization and public child welfare agencies would have a positive impact on a nonprofit organization's capacity and effectiveness (H3). In the model I tested this hypothesis with two independent variables. The first variable is a count of the density of contracts with government agencies. The results show that as the density of contracts rises, the nonprofit manager perceives a positive and statistically significant effect on agency capacity and effectiveness ($p < 0.05$). This supports Hypothesis 3. The second variable, which measures the frequency of collaboration with government, does not rise to the level of statistical significance.

This finding supports the literature with regard to longer term relationships and the potential for positive relationships based on credibility, trust and shared objectives between nonprofit organizations and government. Unfortunately, since I do not have information regarding specific contract details, I do not know the extent of flexibility built into contracts or if it differs based on how long the agency and nonprofit organization have worked together. Furthermore, since this study focuses solely on public child welfare nonprofits, I do not know if this type of relationship can extend to other nonprofit subsectors, such as arts and entertainment, which focus less on service delivery.

The only control variable to reach the level of statistical significance is the individual perception that government influence over agency operations presents a challenge for the nonprofits ability to effectively provide services. As a manager

perceives a higher challenge for the nonprofit agency, they are more likely to perceive a negative effect on agency capacity and effectiveness. This finding is not particularly surprising, but it is interesting in the context of the overall model. I think of this variable as a type of managerial ideology. In the case of public child welfare, nonprofit managers perceive an increase in capacity and effectiveness when they have a greater relationship with government agencies. This holds true even when they believe that government influence over the nonprofit organization's operations is a greater challenge.

Conclusion

We often hear from American citizens and the media that when government gets involved in anything it becomes more inefficient. Perhaps I bought into that folk wisdom when I hypothesized that a greater reliance on government funding would lead to an increased perception that government had negatively influenced a nonprofit's capacity and effectiveness. The results of the OLS model show the opposite. I hypothesized that greater reliance on resources from government agencies would create a hardship-in the form of increased regulatory and performance measurement requirement-that would increase the perception of nonprofit managers that a relationship with public child welfare agencies decreased the nonprofit organization's capacity and effectiveness. The model results show the opposite. It is likely that government funding allows nonprofit organizations to pursue their missions either directly or indirectly by freeing up money from other sources to be used by the nonprofit in different areas. This question is not answered in this paper, but should be studied in the future.

This study does have some implications for managing nonprofit organizations. Organizations with a developmental culture perceive an increase in capacity and effectiveness from their relationship with government agencies. This is likely due to the flexibility of these organizations, and their ability to absorb shocks from the external environment, such as increased oversight and reporting requirements that are common in contracts with government agencies. Managers can help develop flexible cultures within their organizations by flattening hierarchical structures in order to create an atmosphere that is more amenable to collaboration.

While this study gives us some insight into the effect that government has on nonprofit organizations, one limitation is that it focuses only on child welfare nonprofits. These organizations often rely more heavily on government funds than other organizations, which may rely more heavily on foundations, corporations, or individual donations. Future work should include variables that help us understand how diversity in both the purpose of the nonprofit and diversity in funding affect the way government influence alters organization capacity and effectiveness.

Chapter 5: Nonprofit Collaboration in Emergency Response

In the final eleven days of May 2013, three major storms produced multiple tornadoes and a flooding event that devastated parts of central Oklahoma. The damage from the three storms spread across several counties and included both rural and suburban areas. The final death toll was 46, with over 500 reported injuries. The close proximity of these storms, and the widespread damage created a challenge to organizations involved in response and recovery. Traditional disaster response organizations, such as fire, police, ambulance, and state and local emergency management agencies were present, as well as nongovernmental organizations that are traditionally involved in disaster response (i.e. Red Cross, Salvation Army). Nonprofit organizations that are not usually considered disaster-related were also present and active for both response and recovery activities. Because these organizations are not often thought of as disaster related, they are generally understudied in the disaster literature.

This chapter discusses the role and activities of nonprofit organizations-both disaster related and non-disaster related-in emergency preparedness and response. I use the typology of organized response developed at the Disaster Research Center (DRC) at the University of Delaware (previously at Ohio State University) and neo-institutional theories of organizations to understand how nonprofit organizations interact with each other, private businesses, and government agencies after a disaster. Using survey and interview data of nonprofit administrators in Oklahoma, I examine the collaborative activities of nonprofit organizations after the May 2013 tornadoes and flooding that affected central Oklahoma.

Collaboration in Emergency Response and Recovery

Nonprofit organizations are extremely important in disaster recovery and response, because when government agencies are unable to adequately provide a service, we expect nonprofit organizations to step in and fill the gap (Weisbrod 1977). While local government responders are usually the first on the scene after a disaster, it takes time for federal response teams to respond with basic goods, such as food, water, and shelter. These necessities are often provided by local nonprofit organizations, such as food banks, homeless shelters, or churches. Furthermore, federal funding for disaster recovery is limited to specific purposes, and government “boots on the ground” are also temporary. Due to their existing relationship and proximity to the community, nonprofit organizations are uniquely placed to extend their services to long-term recovery after the government’s official response has concluded.

Collaboration after a disaster is similar to collaboration in times of stability, because organizations are seeking information and resources in order to effectively help with response and recovery (Comfort and Kapucu 2006; Kapucu 2006, 2007). Collaboration after a disaster is different, because there are unexpected and non-routine tasks and an even higher level of uncertainty (Comfort, Ko, and Zagorecki 2004; Auf der Heide 1989). For many individuals or organizations, there is also a lack of past experience with disasters or with collaboration partners (Moynihan 2008). Trust and effective communication are cited repeatedly as important components in successful collaboration both in times of stability (Bertelli and Smith 2009; Gulati 1995) and after an emergency (Kiefer and Montjoy 2006; Moynihan 2009). When organizations

collaborate after a disaster, lack of a previous collaborative relationship could lead to less trust and inefficient communication.

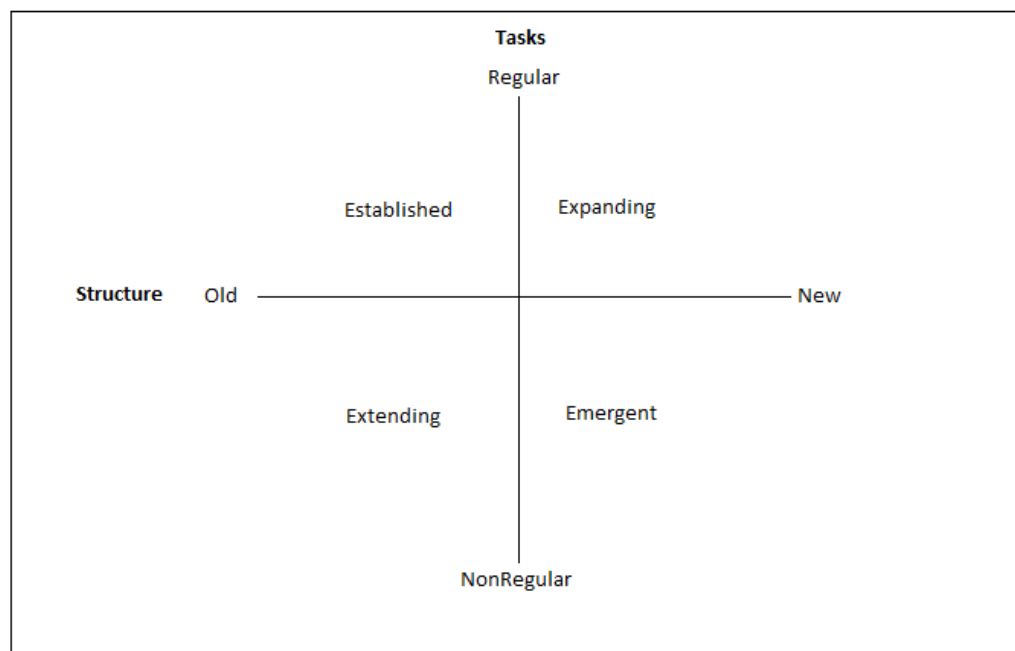
In areas where disasters are relatively common, such as hurricane prone areas or the “tornado alley” of the United States, there may be fairly robust ongoing collaboration among organizations with a common mission of disaster response and recovery, such as government agencies, nonprofit organizations, and businesses. These long term collaborative links have the propensity to overcome the difficulties inherent in responding to disasters in networks. These organizations have had time to develop the social capital necessary to work together in a high stress, highly uncertain situation (Kapucu 2006).

Organized Response to Disasters

Over the last forty years, some sociologists have understood disaster response as part of a typology of organizations or groups of people that engage in response activities. Researchers at the Disaster Research Center (DRC) developed a typology of organized disaster response based on the tasks involved in an organized response- whether they are regular or nonregular- and whether the organized response existed prior to the disaster (i.e. whether the organization existed or there was a response plan in place) (Kreps and Bosworth 2006; Quarantelli and Dynes 1977; Quarantelli 1984). The typology resulted in four types of organized responses (see Figure 5.1). The first type is called established, because it involves organizational structures that existed before the disaster (i.e. police, fire, hospital) engaging in expected or normal behavior (i.e. public safety, recovery, medical care). Type II is called expanding, because these organizations expand their organization structures to include additional volunteers and

resources after a disaster; however, their activities after a disaster are generally expected (i.e. city and county emergency management agencies, disaster related NGOs). These organizations are usually part of the preplanning process, so their activities have been determined in advance (Scanlon 1999). The third type is called extending. These organizations existed prior to the disaster and retain their structures, but their activities are either not preplanned (Kreps and Bosworth 2006, 299) or change after the disaster (Scanlon 1999, 30). Finally, the fourth type – emergent - did not exist as an organized structure before the emergency, and the tasks they perform are not expected or regular for disaster response.

Figure 5.1: Typology of Disaster Response



Much of the research on organized adaptation to disasters has expanded our understanding of emergent organizations or behavior (Drabek and McEntire 2003; Rodríguez, Trainor, and Quarantelli 2006; Scanlon 1999; Stallings and Quarantelli 1985). This work usually discusses emergent behavior in association with groups of

citizens banding together to provide services that are not being provided by regular structures (Rodríguez, Trainor, and Quarantelli 2006). There has also been much discussion of emergent behavior from individuals embedded in established structures, but coming together to form new structures and provide new tasks. Examples of this behavior include government workers from multiple agencies that perform door-to-door knocks to check on citizens after a major ice storm (Scanlon 1999); and hospital and hotel workers organizing evacuation of citizens after Hurricane Katrina (Rodríguez, Trainor, and Quarantelli 2006). This focus on emergent behavior has helped scholars and responders better understand the activities of volunteers who show up to help after a disaster by providing their manpower, expertise, or donated goods. However, the typology is underspecified when it comes to our understanding of the role of non-disaster related nonprofit organizations in disaster response.

While nonprofit organizations have been included in studies of emergence, and discussed briefly as examples of expanding or established structures, there has been little attention paid to nonprofit organizations that are not part of existing disaster response structures, but respond after a disaster in their community. These organizations have the characteristics of both extending and expanding organized response. They have established structures, though not necessarily established in the preplanned disaster response. They are often nonprofit organizations that existed prior to the disaster, serving individuals in the community affected by the disaster. They are engaging in both regular and non-regular tasks, because they are usually simultaneously serving prior clients and disaster victims; however, they may be providing the same services to disaster victims that they provide to prior clients.

Part of the weakness of the typology is that it only applies structure and tasks to our understanding of response. It does not consider how the very diverse organizations working within those structures and tasks respond together. The dramatic differences in cultures between the emergency management and nonprofit fields has been mentioned before as a barrier to disaster response collaboration in previous research (Robinson and Gerber 2007). Institutional theories which define organizations as systems of norms, cultures, and values may help us better understand different organizational fields collaborate with each other. This could lead to better cooperation in disaster response in the future.

Institutional Differences in Emergency Response and Collaboration

In their work on organizational diversity and homogeneity, DiMaggio and Powell (1983; 1991) argue that within organizational fields, we see striking homogeneity. They define organizational fields as, "...organizations, that, in the aggregate, constitute a recognized area of institutional life: key suppliers, resource and product consumers, regulatory agencies, and other organizations that produce similar services or products" (DiMaggio and Powell 1983, 148). Relatively new organizational fields demonstrate significant diversity in structure and activities, but over time, in a bid to reduce uncertainty, obtain resources, and gain legitimacy within the field, organizations succumb to isomorphic pressures and mimic the technologies, values, practices, and norms of other organizations in their field (Ashworth, Boyne, and Delbridge 2009; DiMaggio and Powell 1983; DiMaggio et al. 1991).

While research under the typology of organized response explains a lot about response with regard to organization activities, it does not help us fully understand how

responding institutions work together. It is important that we understand different institutional cultures within emergency management and nonprofit fields. These organizational fields exist under very different regulatory structures and cultural pressures. While I cannot provide an extensive literature review of institutional cultures for the emergency management and nonprofit fields in this chapter, I do try to summarize common values for each field below.

The Culture of Emergency Management

It is difficult to pinpoint what exactly constitutes the institutional culture of emergency management agencies, but in this section I discuss some of the recent recurring themes in literature on emergency management. There is some agreement that the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) focused heavily on security after September 11, to the detriment of disaster planning and response activities of FEMA (May, Workman, and Jones 2008; Tierney 2006). After the controversial federal response to Hurricane Katrina, agency focus turned back to an all-hazards approach (FEMA 2011a; Waugh 2005). President Obama's administration has further stressed community capacity, resilience, and collaboration as important core focuses of emergency management (FEMA 2011b). While FEMA stresses the importance of flexible planning and all-inclusive response-including government agencies, nonprofit organizations, tribes, and private businesses-emphasis is still heavily on coordination, centralized command, and control for actual response activities (Waugh and Streib 2006), as evidence by the Incident Command Structure (ICS) and National Incident Management System (Moynihan 2009; Tierney 2006).

Emergency management has become increasingly politicized since the September 11 attacks and the botched Hurricane Katrina response by the still young Department of Homeland Security (DHS). The creation of DHS was a response to the lack of information sharing between the major intelligence agencies. Therefore, it is no surprise that the initial primary focus at DHS was terrorism (May, Workman, and Jones 2008; Tierney 2006). FEMA was one of the multiple agencies that were merged together to form the new massive bureaucratic agency. FEMA's primary purpose is to be the "...lead agency for emergency preparedness and response" (Tierney 2006, 406). However, some argue that the domestic security culture of DHS severely undercut FEMA's ability to respond to one of the most significant natural disasters in United States history-Hurricane Katrina (May, Workman, and Jones 2008; Tierney 2006).

State and local government emergency management agencies and emergency responders rely heavily on federal grants from DHS and FEMA to fund preparedness and response activities. The institutional theories discussed above suggest that these agencies should react strategically to their political environment and, over time, take on the cultures exhibited by the national organizations that provide them with necessary resources and legitimacy. In fact, while federal guidelines suggest that state and local governments should develop plans that accommodate their specific circumstances, compliance with certain federal government systems-Incident Command Systems and National Incident Management Systems-is a prerequisite for federal grant eligibility (Haddow, Bullock, and Coppola 2014; Tierney 2006). As federal agencies in charge of emergency management shift focus and change structures, we should expect to see similar changes happen in state and local emergency management agencies.

The Culture of Nonprofit Organizations

In a recent review of the literature on nonprofit roles and values, Moulton and Eckerd (2012) identified six common values that are attributed to nonprofit organizations from within and outside of the sector. Nonprofit organizations place a high value on service delivery, with special emphasis on providing quality affordable services where government or private markets are providing inadequate services (Salamon 1987; Weisbrod 1977). Innovation, through creativity and entrepreneurship, for finding new solutions to social problems is a hallmark of nonprofit organizations, which are not constrained by the profit-mindedness that often leads to risk aversion for private businesses or political and public opinion concerns of government agencies. Nonprofits allow individuals free expression and specialization, by providing opportunities for individual staff, volunteers, and donors to practice their "...values, commitments, and faith" (Moulton and Eckerd 2012, 662). The author's suggest that political advocacy is an important value that is tied into nonprofit focus on service delivery and funding. Nonprofits work within and across communities to build social capital and relationships (Kapucu 2007; Putnam 1995). Finally, nonprofit organizations value citizen engagement as mediating structures between individuals and democratic structures (Berger and Neuhaus 1977; Kerrine and Neuhaus 1979).

These values are deemed significant across the nonprofit sector, though the importance placed on each individual value is not uniform in all nonprofit subsectors. Moulton and Eckerd argue that organizations with higher participation in service delivery and more funding from government sources will be more likely to value

political advocacy. Furthermore, cultural, arts, and religious organizations will place a higher value on individual expression and specialization.

A Bridge Between the Cultures

While we do not have an exhaustive list of values important in either the emergency management or nonprofit organizational fields, a comparison of the lists above shows that the values of the two sectors rarely converge. This has potential to create problems when the organizations collaborate for emergency planning, response, or recovery.

A potential bridge between the two fields lies in nonprofit organizations that routinely engage in emergency planning, response, and recovery activities. Many nonprofit organizations are heavily involved in emergency management activities before and after disasters. The Red Cross, United Methodist Committee on Relief, Feed the Children, Southern Baptist Convention, and Salvation Army are just a sample of the organizations that are involved in National Voluntary Organizations Active in Disaster (NVOAD) (NVOAD n.d.). NVOAD promotes preparedness and plans for response and recovery and closely collaborates with FEMA. NVOAD also promotes the creation of local VOADs for community level planning between nonprofit organizations. These nonprofit organizations essentially have a one foot planted firmly in each field, and we might expect them to have developed institutional cultures that are a hybrid of the emergency management and nonprofit fields. Where the institutional cultures of non-disaster related nonprofit organizations and emergency management agencies might clash during response and recovery activities, disaster related nonprofit organizations can be a go-between for the two fields.

In order to examine the collaborative activities of nonprofit organizations after a disaster, I use data derived from surveys and interviews of nonprofit administrators in Oklahoma. While I do not have data specifically on institutional cultures, I find that there are some themes from the data that suggest non-disaster related nonprofits are more likely to work directly with other nonprofit organizations, and have little contact with government emergency management agencies. I present the context of the research below, followed by a summary of the data and a discussion of findings. This chapter gives some insight into the activities of nonprofit organizations after a disaster, but it also serves as a jumping off point for future research in nonprofit collaboration after disasters.

Context: May 2013 Central Oklahoma Tornadoes and Flooding

This chapter looks at nonprofit collaboration after a disaster in the context of the weather disasters that occurred in Central Oklahoma across a two week time period in May 2013. On May 19, 2013, the first of a series of three major storms struck central Oklahoma. This first day of storms produced tornadoes that affected the central Oklahoma towns of Edmond, Arcadia, Luther, Carney, and Shawnee, as well as others (NWS Norman 2013). The tornado that struck Carney, Oklahoma was on the ground for 20 miles and rated an EF-3 on the Enhanced Fujita Scale (NWS Norman 2014a). An additional tornado moved into Shawnee, Oklahoma, injuring 26 individuals and killing two individuals (KOCO 5 News 2013).

On May 20, 2013, a second tornado outbreak devastated parts of Moore and southern Oklahoma City. This tornado was on the ground for 19 minutes with a length of 14 miles. At the height of its intensity, the tornado reached the highest Enhanced

Fujita Scale rating of EF-5 (NWS Norman 2014c). The Moore/South Oklahoma City tornado was the most damaging and deadliest storm in the United States in 2013. The Oklahoma Emergency Management Agency reported that 24 individuals were killed on May 20 and 387 individuals were treated for injuries (OEM 2013c). Two elementary schools in Moore were destroyed in the ending moments of their school day, and seven children were killed. Damage assessment indicate that nearly 4000 buildings were destroyed or damaged between the May 19-20 tornadoes (OEM 2013b) and the Oklahoma Insurance Department has estimated the monetary cost of damage over \$2 billion (OEM 2013c).

While Oklahoma was continuing recovery efforts from the May 19-20 tornado outbreak, the weather turned severe again on May 31, 2013. One tornado touched down west of Union City and El Reno, Oklahoma, and became the strongest (as measured by wind speeds) and widest (2.6 miles at its widest point) tornado ever recorded (NWS Norman 2014b). The tornadic activity weakened as the storm moved into Oklahoma City, but the storm caused flashed flooding across Oklahoma City, including areas that had been devastated by the May 20 tornado the week before. Though most of the tornado's path was rural farmland, property damage from the tornado and flooding destroyed 52 buildings and damaged 352 buildings (OEM 2013a). The May 31 tornadoes and flash flooding event in central Oklahoma killed 20 people and injured 121 individuals (OEM 2013d).

Within a week of the May 19-20 tornadoes, donations to nonprofit organizations, including the Red Cross, had topped \$20 million (CNN 2013). Individual volunteers showed up at tornado sites to help with response and recovery, but

were discouraged from volunteering without connection to a voluntary group (UMCOR 2013). Local nonprofit groups, including Feed the Children, the Regional Food Bank of Oklahoma, and others, set up distribution sites, donation centers, and housed displaced victims (NewsOK 2013). National and international relief nonprofit organizations, such as Convoy of Hope, Operation USA, the Red Cross, and the Salvation Army, were also dispatched to central Oklahoma soon after the disasters occurred (Nonprofit Times 2013). Churches and other non-disaster related nonprofit organizations took part in immediate response and recovery efforts, as well as long term recovery efforts.

Data and Methods

This chapter uses survey data paired with data from interviews of individuals in nonprofit organizations in Oklahoma. The collection of data from survey and the interviews was a non-sequential design, as survey results were being collected at the same time that individuals at nonprofits were identified for interviews.

The survey data was collected via email between December 12, 2013 and February 3, 2014 from the Oklahoma Center for Nonprofit's (OCNP) members. OCNP is a nonprofit organization that provides advocacy and training to nonprofit organizations across the State of Oklahoma. The survey instrument included questions about nonprofit collaboration in times of stability, and included a separate opt-in section for organizations to answer questions about their activities following the May 2013 storms.

The survey was distributed to 575 OCNP member organizations, and 93 individuals responded for a response rate of 16%. Of the 93 respondents, 21 opted into the survey questions regarding disaster activities by indicating that they took part in

response and recovery activities. Only two of those organizations identified disaster response as a primary purpose of the organization.

Individuals at eight nonprofit organizations were contacted between February 4 and March 11, 2014 and asked to participate in a one hour, recorded, semi-structured interview regarding their collaboration activities in times of stability and after a disaster. The first few organizations were identified through an internet and newspaper search, as organizations that had responded or were still engaged in response after the storms. The interviewees were asked to identify other organizations that also participated in response and recovery, and additional interviews were scheduled based on those recommendations.

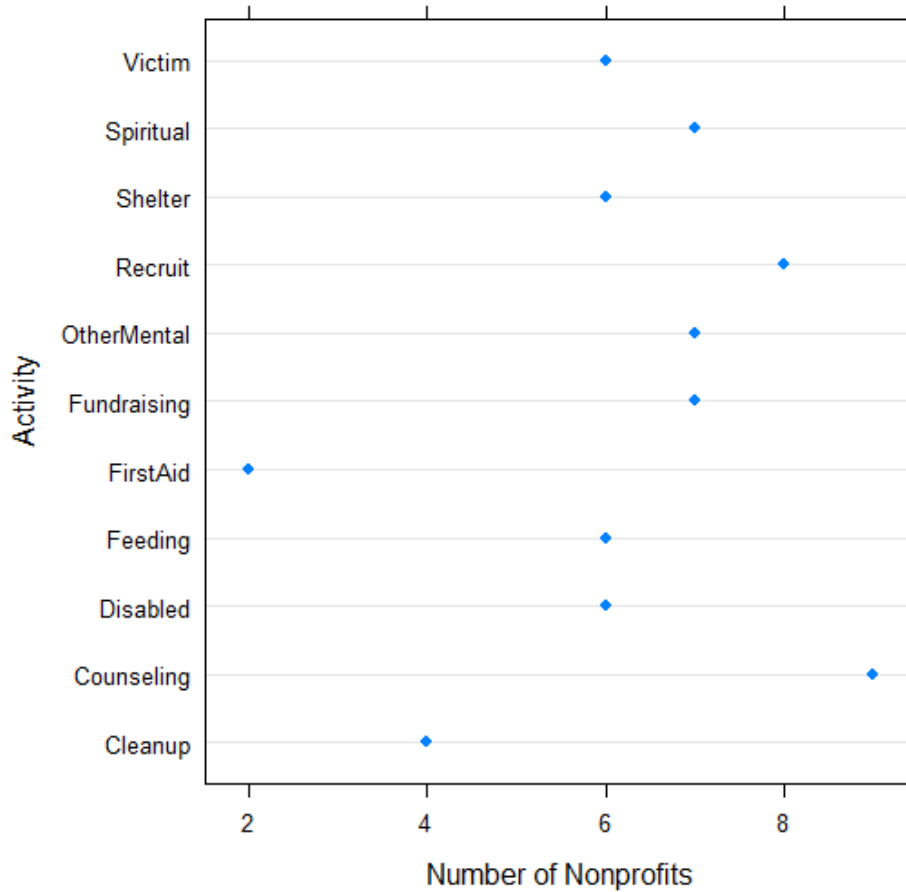
Interviewees held a variety of positions within the nonprofit organizations including executive director, board members, outreach coordinators, and disaster relief coordinators. One interviewee was a volunteer that has been coordinating case management and volunteers for the nonprofit on a full-time basis without pay. Two organizations were active members of Oklahoma Voluntary Organizations Active in Disaster (OKVOAD) prior to the storms. The primary purposes of the organizations were varied and included food banks, volunteer recruitment, construction, legal services, and religious/evangelical services.

The following section uses information from the survey responses and interviews to examine the activities of nonprofit organizations following the storms. This includes the actual response and recovery activities, as well as relationship with government agencies, and collaboration activities across various types of organizations.

Activities After the Disaster

After the May storms in central Oklahoma, nonprofits in the communities affected responded in a number of ways. The survey instrument asked respondents to identify the organization's activities related to the May 2013 tornadoes from a list of eleven options. Figure 5.2 is a graphical depiction of the survey results. The survey results show a limited view of the activities of nonprofits after the storms. Furthermore, I am not able to make inferences regarding the organized response typology from the survey data alone. The survey data do not provide a means to examine whether responding organizations were performing tasks related to their primary mission.

Figure 5.2 Nonprofit Activities after May 2013 Storms



Interviews with nonprofit organizations reveal a more detailed, but still incomplete look at what activities nonprofit organizations performed after the May 2013 storms. The interviews also allow a more detailed examination of the relationship between pre and post-disaster activities. The interviews revealed that in addition to the categories listed on the survey, nonprofit groups provided legal and rebuilding services to disaster victims in Oklahoma. With regard to the relationship between pre-disaster activities and post-disaster activities, most of these organizations continued to perform the same tasks that they performed before the disaster (see Figure 5.4 for a description of pre and post-disaster activities).

In response to the May 21 Moore and South Oklahoma City tornado, a local nonprofit organization with a primary purpose of building safety features into homes for the elderly, provided similar building services after the disaster to a wider range of disaster victims. This organization's tasks also expanded into some advocacy for victims that were experiencing fraud or subpar construction from private contractors. Another nonprofit organization provided free legal service to indigent citizens before the disaster. The organization continued to provide civil legal services, including information on replacing lost documents and representation in legal cases against insurance companies, contractors, etc...after the disaster; however, there were some differences in task, because prior to the disaster, this organization primarily provided services in family and contract disputes. The post disaster legal activities were slightly different, and greatly increased the number of cases handled by the organization. The change in focus required the organization to bring on additional attorneys to focus solely on the disaster cases.

The data show that nonprofit organizations were involved in activities that we would expect to see from government agencies (i.e. first aid, debris clean up), but nonprofits filled the gap of required services government is not expected to provide, such as repairing and rebuilding homes and businesses, food distribution to victims and responders, and volunteer recruitment. While none of this is particularly surprising, it is important to understand that organizations that are not usually considered disaster related can be utilized to provide specialized services that are not usually provided by the government.

Table 5.1: Post Disaster Activities of Nonprofit Organizations from Interview Data

Organization	Primary Organization Purpose	Post-Disaster Activities
1	Food Distribution	Food Distribution
2	Legal Services to Indigent	Legal Services to Disaster Victims
3	Connecting Volunteers with Service	Connecting Volunteers with Service in Disaster Areas
4	Building Safety Features into Homes for Elderly	Rebuilding Homes in Disaster Area Advocacy between Homeowners and Contractors
5	Religious Worship/Evangelical	Site Cleanup, Volunteer Recruitment
6	Maintain Database to Connect Churches and Volunteers with Nonprofits	Maintain Database to Connect Churches and Volunteers with Nonprofits
7	Food Distribution	Food Distribution
8	Did not exist	Case Management and Volunteer Management

Government Effect on Relief Activities

Many nonprofits report to the scene of disaster in their community in order to provide immediate aid to victims before government agencies, such as FEMA or state emergency management agencies arrive. Two of the individuals interviewed for this chapter explained that their organization was providing services to disaster victims before government agencies or the larger national disaster focused nonprofits (i.e. Red

Cross, Salvation Army) could arrive and set up operations. These larger agencies do not have the community presence or the manpower to provide immediate services.

In order to examine the relationship between government agencies and nonprofit organizations, the survey instrument asked respondents to rate how government agencies affected a series of disaster related activities. The responses were coded on a 5 point Likert scale where 1= “much worse”, 2= “somewhat worse”, 3= “neither worse nor better”, 4= “somewhat better”, and 5= “much better”. The respondents were also allowed to respond 6= “not applicable”.

The responses to this question are interesting. The majority of respondents suggested little or no contact with government agencies by answering “not applicable” to government effect on specific services. No respondent reported that government agencies had a negative effect on their disaster relief efforts (see Figure 5.3). Respondents to the survey were generally very positive about the effect of government, even though Oklahoma is a very conservative state, and residents generally do not think highly of government in general.

The interview respondents generally confirmed this finding, with a little bit of nuance. Most of the local, non-disaster related nonprofit organizations reported very little contact with government agencies. Most of these organizations obtained information from the Oklahoma VOAD, or through their involvement with Local Area Recovery Committees (LARCs). Government employees are usually involved in meetings of the VOAD and LARCs, but their participation is generally limited to information sharing or very specific government activities. VOADs and LARCs organizations are run by other nonprofit organizations or community representatives.

Government agencies were also not involved in much resource sharing with nonprofit organizations (with the exception of information). All of the nonprofits reported that financial assistance came from other nonprofit organizations or donations from businesses and individuals. It is unlikely that the positive rating for government effect on nonprofit activities is explained by resource dependency.

Figure 5.3 Government Effect on Nonprofit Relief Activities

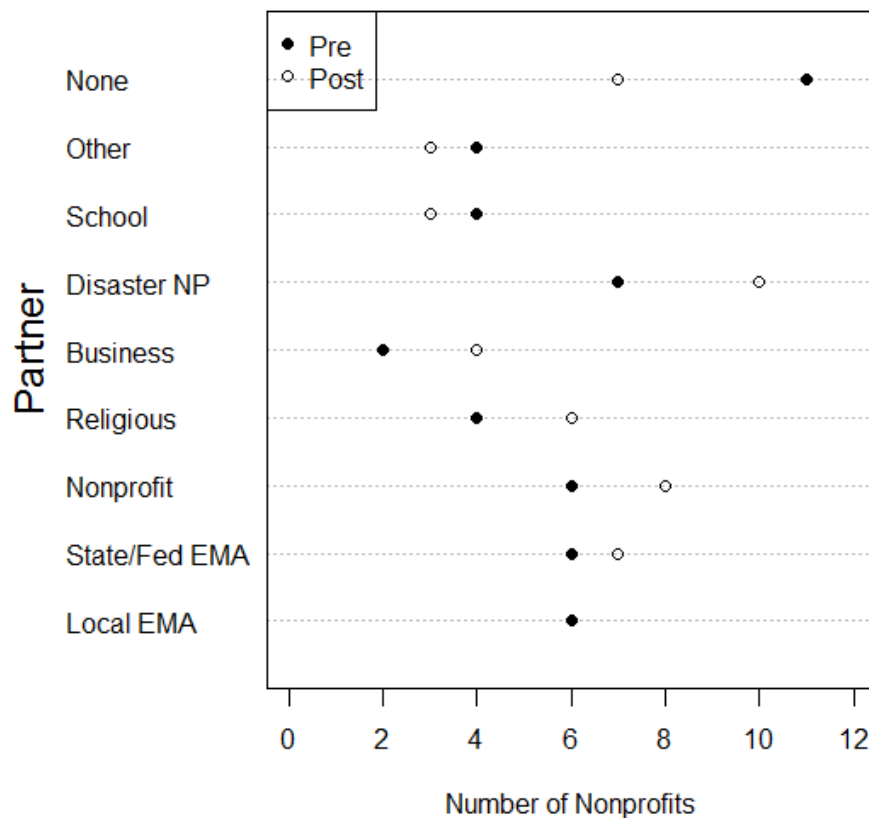


Pre-Disaster and Post-Disaster Planning Activities

Examining the disaster activities of nonprofit organizations before and after the May 2013 storms lends further insight to the issue of government involvement above,

and suggests future research questions. The survey instrument asked, “Before the May 2013 tornadoes, was your organization involved in disaster planning with any of the following organizations?” Respondents were further asked to identify organizations with which they had engaged in disaster planning since the May 2013 tornadoes. Respondents were given a list of seven potential planning partners, as well as “other” and “none” options. The responses are illustrated in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4: Nonprofit Planning Partners Before and After May 2013 Storms



Prior to the tornadoes twelve of the nonprofit organizations that responded to the survey were not involved in disaster planning. The organizations that were involved in disaster planning were fairly equally involved with government agencies and nonprofit organizations. After the storms, participation in disaster planning increased with nearly

every organization type. Nonprofit organizations did engage in disaster planning with other nonprofit organizations more than with government agencies after the tornadoes. Planning with government agencies barely increased pre-and-post disaster. This makes sense for a couple of reasons. Nonprofit organizations that engaged in pre-disaster planning are likely to be part of structured organizational planning through VOADs or COADs, which usually partner with local and state agencies to develop disaster plans. However, organizations not engaged in pre-disaster planning, but became involved after the storms are more likely to reach out to similarly situated organizations in the community (i.e. other nonprofits) that share their values and institutional cultures. Furthermore, there is likely to be prior communication and pre-existing trust between the organizations. This is a very preliminary suggestion that disaster related nonprofit organizations (i.e. VOADs, Red Cross, Salvation Army) can be a bridge between other nonprofit organizations and government agencies.

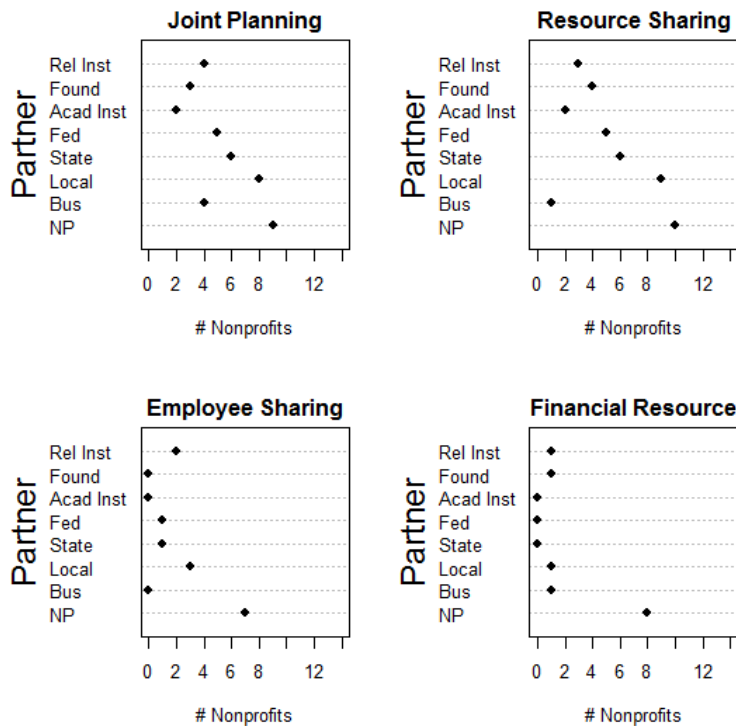
The interviews again give a more nuanced understanding of the disaster planning activities of nonprofit organizations. The majority of the respondents stated that they were not involved in disaster planning before the disaster, but after the disaster, they were either contacted by or reached out to other nonprofit organizations that helped them get involved in post-disaster activities. Three of the respondents stated that their involvement in disaster response was initiated by nudging from national nonprofit organizations with connections to their agency. Two of the organizations were provided with money from the national nonprofit organizations to provide disaster relief services. The third organization was contacted by multiple legal aid services and

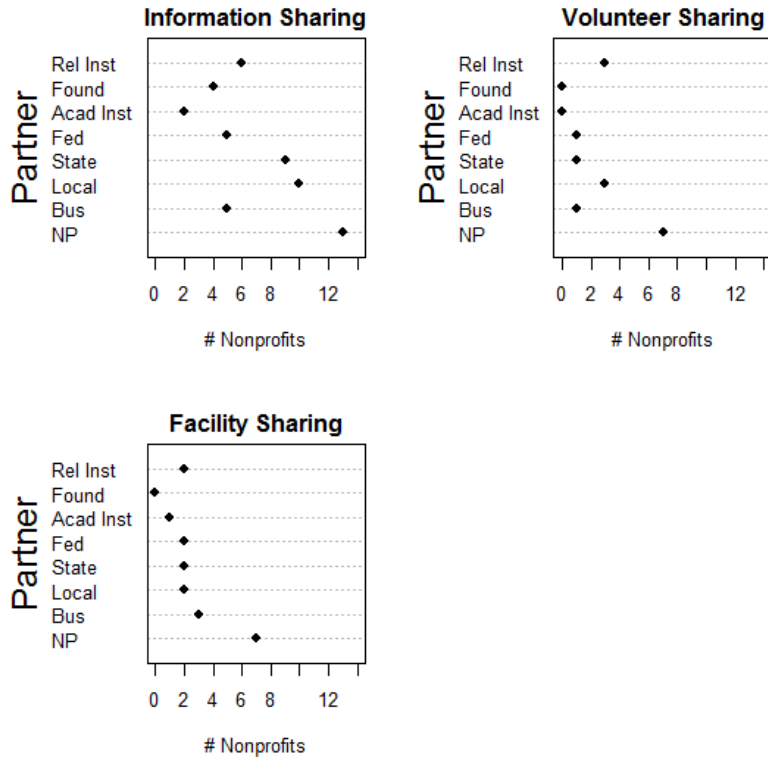
provided with advice and documents they had developed to aid disaster relief in their own state.

There were still a number of nonprofit organizations that engaged in disaster response, but did not move into disaster planning. Only one of the individuals that I interviewed indicated that their organization had not continued with disaster planning after the initial response. This individual concluded that the amount of time needed to be involved in disaster planning through regularly scheduled VOAD meetings, as well as navigating the disaster recovery committee structure, was too much for their small organization. The interviewee expressed a desire to be involved in disaster planning, because their organization had a unique volunteer and case management system to lend to the planning process; however, they did not have the resources or manpower to commit. While the other interviewees stated that their organizations were actively involved in disaster planning since the storms, and likely to continue involvement, they largely confirmed the sentiments of the prior organization. There were multiple comments that the VOAD and LARC organizations were good things to have after a disaster, but the committee and case management systems are very confusing. One respondent expressed mild frustration with having to constantly remind case workers that their organization had resources and expertise in rebuilding to offer to victims. While not concrete evidence, this suggests that some of the institutional cultures of the emergency management field-planning, coordination, structure-may not always be in line with some of the institutional cultures of the nonprofit field-innovation and flexibility.

In order to understand post disaster collaboration better, the survey asked respondents to identify partners in seven different activities; employee sharing, facility sharing, financial resource sharing, information sharing, joint planning, regularly scheduled meetings, and volunteer sharing. The results are graphically depicted in Figure 5.5. Nonprofit organizations overwhelmingly partnered with other nonprofit organizations in all seven activities. State and local government agencies were more important in the areas of information sharing, joint planning, and regularly scheduled meetings. This is likely because most organizations sought information through the Oklahoma VOAD, which jointly plans pre-and post-disaster activities with state and local government agencies, and held regularly scheduled weekly meetings after the storms in order to share information.

Figure 5.5: Nonprofit Activities with Other Organizations





An interesting finding from the survey results is the lack of planning with academic institutions. While we generally do not think of academic institutions when we consider disaster response, the May storms in Oklahoma affected academic institutions directly. Both the University of Oklahoma in Norman, Oklahoma (near Moore) and Oklahoma Baptist University, in Shawnee, Oklahoma, opened their student housing to provide temporary shelter to victims who lost their homes. The largest of the tornadoes, on May 21, heavily damaged two elementary schools, and killed seven students at the Plaza Towers Elementary School in Moore, Oklahoma. It is puzzling that the number of nonprofits engaging in disaster planning with academic institutions would actually decrease, though these findings may only be relevant to the unique circumstances surrounding these storms.

The Curious Case of Religious Institutions

Possibly the strangest finding from the survey results is that nonprofit organizations did not identify religious institutions (i.e. churches) in their pre-or post-planning activity, or in their partners after the storms. This finding is strange for a couple of reasons. First, Oklahoma is a highly religious state, ranking eighth in the nation in number of church congregations per 10,000 people (ASARB 2012). Second, four of the five current officers of the Oklahoma VOAD are from religious institutions (OKVOAD 2014). The limitations of the survey data are clear in this instance. Churches were very active in the response and recovery following the May 2013 storms, so why did so few organizations respond that they were working with churches?

The interviews give a much better picture of the relationship between nonprofits and religious organizations after the disasters. All of the interview respondents were asked if their organization collaborated with religious organizations after the tornadoes, and every respondent answered in the affirmative. Most of the activity was based on volunteer recruitment and training, but two of the organizations also sought help from churches in identifying victims in need.

When asked what organization(s) were central to the response and recovery effort, there was an overwhelming focus in the interviews on specific organizations; United Methodist Committee on Relief, Baptist General Convention of Oklahoma, Catholic Charities, the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, Red Cross, and United Way. These organizations are all members of the Oklahoma VOAD, and also came together a couple of months after the disasters to create the Oklahoma Disaster Recovery Project (ODRP), which provides case management, rebuilding, and volunteer services to the

five local area recovery committees operating in federally declared disaster areas. Four of the six identified central organizers are religious institutions.

While not considered a central planner by anybody interviewed, Church of the Harvest in Oklahoma City was cited repeatedly by interviewees as an organization that was positively impacting recovery efforts. Numerous other churches were spotlighted as important to the response and recovery process in news accounts, including a large Baptist church in Moore that served as a staging ground for much of the official recovery by both nonprofit organizations and official emergency response agencies.

The limited appearance of religious organizations as partners in the survey raises many questions. Is it possible that nonprofit organizations identified partners such as VOAD and ODRP as disaster related nonprofits, and did not understand that they were interacting with religious groups? I do not have the data to answer that question. I do believe that churches play a large role in emergency response even in states where congregations are not as prevalent as they are in Oklahoma. We know as little about the role of churches in disaster response as we do about non-disaster related nonprofits. This is clearly an area for additional research in the future.

Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter is a very early look at the activities and interactions of nonprofit organizations following a series of storms culminating in widespread disaster declarations in central Oklahoma. The DRC typology of organized responses has helped disaster researchers understand the various types of organizations that respond after a disaster, but research using the typology has mainly focused on emergent behavior and has not examined the relationship between the diverse fields-emergency

management and nonprofit-that collaborate to provide response and recovery services. The emergency management and nonprofit fields have very different institutional cultures that could be an impediment to successful collaboration for response and recovery. Previous work has suggested frequent contact before disasters occur –i.e. in the planning stages- could help overcome the management complications from different fields working together (Robinson and Gerber 2007). I agree with this assessment and suggest that disaster related nonprofit organizations could be the bridge between the nonprofit and emergency management fields. While my data does not address the questions head on, there are some suggestions that disaster related nonprofits were a bridge in Oklahoma City during the recovery process. Furthermore, nearly all of the nonprofit administrators I interviewed suggested they were interested in remaining part of the long term planning community through the Oklahoma VOAD or other opportunities.

Because this chapter is a preliminary look at nonprofit organizations in a very limited case (a series of tornadoes), there are a lot of questions left unanswered. The first research question suggested is; what factors influence which nonprofit organizations will participate in disaster response and recovery? Respondents to the survey used for this chapter were limited, because only members of OCNP were surveyed. I did not have access to information from all nonprofits in Oklahoma. I do not know the exact number or type of organizations that responded. I do know that not all mental health, construction focused, or animal welfare nonprofits in central Oklahoma were involved in the response. What differentiated between the organizations that did respond and those that did not? For at least two of the

organizations that participated in the interviews, there was initial pressure from a national office to participate. I believe that pressure to participate was not enough, as there was initial resistance from within each organization to participation. However, each of those organizations received a bump in financial-and consequently personnel-resources when they agreed to participate. There appears to be a balance between the purpose of the organization (i.e. Do they have relevant expertise to offer?), financial and personnel resources, and pressure to participate. Though, these are probably not the only factors.

An additional question is; what factors influence which organizations will stay involved in future planning activities? Kreps and Bosworth (1987) developed a continuum of organized response that fits across the DRC typology, and used that continuum to examine factors influencing length of organized response. However, their findings were across a variety of organizations participating in the same disaster. It does not help identify factors that explain why certain organizations stay involved in response and recovery longer than others. Individuals interviewed for this study consistently stated that organized response to this particular disaster would be ongoing for 18 months to 2 years or longer; however, not all of the organizations surveyed or interviewed stuck around. There are a myriad of reasons why this might be, but the interviewees suggested that financial resources, confusion over the process, personnel constraints, and time constraints are some of the reasons why organizations have gone back to their normal activities. As with the previous question about which organizations will respond, I am certain that other factors play a role in determine which organizations stay.

Finally, there needs to be additional research into the role of religious institutions in disaster response and recovery. It may be that churches should be treated the same as other non-disaster related nonprofits, but the truth is that we do not know. Do religious organizations share the values of the nonprofit field? They probably have some values in common, but even within the religious community there are different religions-which are then further divided by denominations or sects. How do churches collaborate with other nonprofit organizations in disaster response? How do they collaborate with government agencies? I suspect that their collaboration with government agencies is similar to that of nonprofit organizations, but we need more information.

Much of the research in institutional theories of organizations has focused on one field at a time. DiMaggio (1991) examined isomorphic pressures in the professional field of art museums. Ashworth, et al (2009) investigated convergence within the public sector. I am interested in how collaboration is impacted when organizations from different fields, with different institutional cultures, work together- as happens in emergency preparedness and response. This is a theoretical area that is ripe for additional research.

In addition to importance for theoretical understanding of disaster response and recovery, understanding non-disaster related nonprofit organizations has a practical application. These nonprofit organizations will respond when disasters affect their community and clients. They need to be brought into disaster planning before the emergencies happen. We know that trust and effective communication is developed through long-term relationships including information sharing, repeated interaction, and

in the case of emergency management shared training exercises. The more organizations that are involved in pre-disaster planning, the less likely there will be duplication of services, or on the other end of the spectrum, disaster victims that fall through the cracks due to poor information flow.

One of my interviewees commented that formal disaster plans are useless unless nonprofit organizations and churches are brought to the planning table as well. In order to get these organizations involved in pre-disaster planning, they must first be identified. Then they have to be convinced that disaster mitigation, planning, and response are important to their community and clients. This second step is difficult because nonprofit organizations serve the desires of the public, their clients, and board members, and the public is generally not concerned with disaster planning and mitigation (Healy and Malhotra 2009). These stakeholders will need to be convinced of the importance of mitigation and planning if we expect nonprofit organizations to take an interest and become involved.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

When this project first began, I spent some time informally discussing collaboration with leaders in the nonprofit sector. As I talked about what interested scholars about collaboration, I was surprised to learn that nonprofit leaders had similar questions. Which nonprofit organizations collaborate, and how do they choose partners? Are there differences among the nonprofit subsectors? What is the effect of collaboration on a nonprofit organization's ability to deliver services? Government agencies and foundations, facing constrained resources for distribution, are beginning to require nonprofit organizations engage in collaboration with organizations across sectors, but there is little understanding of how collaboration should be structured for different purposes or the effect it has on nonprofit organizations (Ostrower 2005). Collaboration has the potential to increase the capacity of organizations (see chapter 4), but it also has costs. Cross-sector collaboration requires multiple organizations with different values, cultures, and norms to work together to solve a problem. When these characteristics are similar, and organizations have a shared vision, collaboration can be an asset. When organizations with very different values, cultures, and norms come together to solve a problem, or if they have different visions for how to solve a problem, then collaboration can be messy.

This dissertation focuses on how nonprofit organizations collaborate with organizations in the public, private, and nonprofit sectors. I examine nonprofit collaboration both across the sector and within the substantive areas of child welfare and emergency management. This final chapter of the dissertation is meant to synthesize some of the findings from the previous chapters and provide concluding

remarks. First, I will discuss the importance of resources both in frequency of collaboration and in the effect of collaboration on organizational capacity and effectiveness. Next I will discuss my findings with regards to nonprofit-government relationships. Then I will focus on the growing interest in understanding the role of non-disaster related nonprofit organizations in response and recovery, and my findings with regards to the activities of these nonprofits after devastating storms struck central Oklahoma. Finally, I will discuss the importance of understanding nonprofit organizations as having identities in both the nonprofit sector and in professional fields that span the boundaries of all three sectors.

Resource Dependency

The collaboration literature suggests that resource dependency is a major driver of collaborative partnerships. My results confirm resource dependency to be very important in how frequently nonprofit organizations collaborate with government agencies (Chapter 3). This is not a surprising finding. Nonprofit organizations that rely heavily on government financing have multiple contracts, and would have informal and formal contact with the agencies that granted those contracts. What is interesting is that dependence on government finances is positively related to an increase in capacity and effectiveness in child welfare organizations (Chapter 4). Government contracts come with restrictions on how money can be spent and increased monitoring through performance and program evaluation requirements, which leads to more work for employees. I argued in Chapter 4 that increased responsibilities had the potential to decrease organizational capacity and effectiveness. However, my findings showed the

opposite. The financial benefits of working with government agencies outweigh the costs of increased burden for child welfare organizations.

Nonprofit organizations have always been involved in children's welfare, and before 1950 their activities were financed primarily by private donations. However, as government became involved in the regulation and oversight of child welfare, financial resources for nonprofit organizations shifted from a primary reliance on private funding to public funding. Other nonprofit subsectors are not nearly as regulated or intertwined with the government. Would nonprofit organizations similarly situated in highly regulated professional fields – such as healthcare or environmental firms – have comparable experiences with government organizations? We need further studies of nonprofit-government relationships that examine multiple fields – with differing levels of regulations – at the same time.

Money is not the only important resource that impacts the decision to collaborate with other organizations. In Chapter 5, which focused on ad-hoc collaboration after a disaster, I found that managers at non-disaster related nonprofits believe that government aid is not as important or as available to nonprofit organizations involved in recovery activities. Nonprofit partnerships with government agencies in disaster recovery were focused more on information sharing. Non-disaster related nonprofit organizations were more likely to seek resources-financial and otherwise-from disaster related nonprofit organizations or the local VOAD. This is likely because non-disaster nonprofits do not have previous experience collaborating with emergency management agencies, but they do have previous experience and contacts with other organizations in the nonprofit sector.

Collaboration is an important management tool for nonprofit managers who are seeking additional resources (financial and other resources) and increased capacity. Nonprofit managers should build organizations that are oriented toward effective collaboration. I found some evidence that flexible, decentralized organizations are more likely to have a positive experience when collaborating with government agencies. Managers can help create a flexible culture by flattening hierarchical structures and placing an emphasis on creativity, risk-taking, and an entrepreneurial culture. Flexibility will help organizations absorb shocks from the external environment, which are nearly guaranteed when partnering with other organizations. Furthermore, a creative, entrepreneurial organizational culture may help organizations develop unique skills, services, or other resources that attract potential partners.

Government Is Not So Bad After All

The public often perceives that government agencies are inefficient, bloated hierarchies filled with red tape (Goodsell 1985). I bought into that stereotype myself when I hypothesized in Chapter 4 that increased reliance on government resources would decrease nonprofit capacity and effectiveness. Instead, I found that managers reporting increased relationships with government agencies through contracts perceived an improvement in the capacity and effectiveness of their organization. This was true even when controlling for an individual belief that a relationship with government agencies creates challenges for the organization. Relationships with government agencies may create a challenge for organizations, but those challenges are outweighed by the benefits, which may include financial resources, information resources, increased political capital, and access to new clients, among other things.

I also found that managers at non-disaster related nonprofits had a positive view of their relationships with government agencies when responding after the May 2013 Oklahoma storms. While non-disaster related nonprofit managers were less likely to collaborate with government organizations than other nonprofit organizations, data from my surveys and interviews suggested an overall positive experience with the government. In fact, interviewees were more likely to suggest frustration with confusing recovery plans developed in the nonprofit sector by organizations such as the Red Cross or the Oklahoma VOAD.

I only examined nonprofit-government relations in the context of a single state and disaster area, and this is a major weakness of this study. There are many stories of individuals and organizations frustrated with ineffective and inefficient government response to other disaster areas – Hurricanes Katrina and Sandy come immediately to mind. Future research needs to examine when non-disaster related organizations might collaborate with government instead of other nonprofit organizations, as well as the circumstances surrounding successful inclusion of non-disaster nonprofits in pre-planning activities. Our inability to predict when disasters will happen, or which organizations will respond after a disaster, makes research in emergency management difficult. Research has to be designed in advance to gather similar information over a number of different disasters so that we can compare information across time, regions, and organizations.

Emergency Management

Collaboration across-sectors for disaster response and recovery has occurred throughout history, but only recently caught the attention of public administration

scholars (Comfort and Kapucu 2006; Robinson and Gerber 2007). Emergency management leads to a different kind of collaboration. While there are formal, ongoing collaborative partnerships between government agencies and nonprofit organizations focused on disaster response, non-disaster nonprofit organizations are usually not involved in this pre-planning process. Instead, they respond to specific disasters only after they affect their community. Collaboration after disasters is usually ad-hoc, informal, and short term, and the goals and values of partnerships may not align. This can lead to distrust and miscommunication when uncertainty is already much higher than normal. This is why it is so important to identify potential partners in times of stability and begin building relationships, trust, and communication structures before organizations are engaged in unexpected and non-routine tasks after an emergency.

Developing relationships, making plans, and building trust and capacity can help a community recovery more quickly from a disaster. Nonprofit organizations that are not traditionally disaster related, but have ties to a community with a risk for frequent disaster need to be drawn into emergency planning activities. The federal government stresses the importance of community level preparedness, but it is still rather difficult to identify which organizations will be likely to respond if a community is affected by a disaster. Unfortunately it takes resources to identify potential partners and engage them in planning activities, and research has shown that voters are not usually interested in expending public resources for mitigation purposes. Local VOADs need to take the initiative to identify new community partners, engage with them, and convince them of the important role they play not only immediately following a disaster, but in all of the planning and relationship-building that occurs pre-disaster.

Using the organized response framework and neo-institutional frameworks, I argued that non-disaster related nonprofit organizations and emergency response organizations have different values, norms, and cultures (Chapter 5). When these organizations are forced together after a disaster, these differences could hamper collaborative relationships. For nonprofit organizations responding after a series of devastating storms in Oklahoma, there was a lot of confusion regarding pre-planned recovery processes. I argue that disaster related nonprofit organizations could act as a bridge between non-disaster related nonprofits and government agencies, because disaster related nonprofit organizations share values with organizations in both sectors. It is important to recognize their importance in identifying and recruiting non-disaster related organizations and drawing them into pre-disaster planning activities.

Identity, Activity, and Allies

The primary purpose of this dissertation is to examine determinants of nonprofit collaboration and how collaboration affects nonprofit organizations; however, much of the analysis relied on discussions within the nonprofit scholarly field about how we study the sector. Is there something special about the nonprofit sector – perhaps ownership or legal status – that makes nonprofit organizations different from organizations in the public or private sector? Some scholars argue that the nonprofit sector plays critical roles in society and that we can define a nonprofit culture or values – some call it “nonprofitness”. Others argue that all organizations have a degree of publicness due to sector-blurring, and that we should examine organizational behavior with public financing and regulatory structures in mind. Neo-institutional scholars that study isomorphic processes argue that we should examine organizations based on

professional fields or niche, and determine behavior based on shared professional norms and values.

I examined how managers at nonprofit organizations perceived their organizations place within the larger environment. There are differences in how nonprofit organizations with different purposes perceive how organizations across the public, private, and nonprofit sectors understand and influence their organization. Community improvement/development nonprofit organizations have different perceptions about how much private business and some government agencies understand the challenges that their organizations face. They further perceive differences in how much influence private business, state agencies, the federal government, and foundations have over the management of their organizations. These organizations have purposes that are uniquely nonprofit in nature. There are few public or private organizations that focus on arts, humanities, philanthropy, or capacity building. Public serving organizations and most of the organization in the “other” category have counterparts in their professional field working in either the public or private sector. This distinct “nonprofitness” of community improvement/development organizations may make them more likely to identify first as nonprofits, instead of identifying primarily with another professional field.

The differences in perceptions based on fields within the nonprofit sector led me to develop hypotheses that organizations from different fields within the nonprofit sector would seek out different collaborative partners. Descriptive analysis of differences in means suggested that there are differences in collaboration partners based on purpose. However, the multivariate analysis showed that organizational variables,

including budget and resource dependence, as well as previous experience with collaboration, were better predictors of frequency of collaboration with specific partners than professional fields.

While frequency of collaboration was not significantly different across subfields within the nonprofit sector, different substantive areas do affect types of collaborative arrangements. Collaboration in the substantive area of child welfare is much more formal than it is for disaster response and recovery operations. This is partially due to the highly regulated nature of child welfare programs. Government agencies rely on nonprofit organizations to provide a variety of services – foster care, adoption, counseling – but agencies conduct a lot of oversight. Many child welfare nonprofits have been in business for decades, and have had long term relationships with government agencies. Collaboration after a disaster is different, because relationships are ad hoc, temporary, and informal in nature. Government agencies do not generally conduct oversight on nonprofit activities, even in areas that are traditionally regulated in times of stability, like food preparation and mass sheltering. In this case, it appears that degree of publicness – as measured by regulatory pressures – may offer some insight into differences in types of collaboration.

When do we examine organizations under different frameworks? The framework that we use – whether sector specific, degree of publicness, or neo-institutional – really depends on what we are studying. The decision to collaborate with one partner rather than another may be a condition of whether a nonprofit organization identifies primarily with the nonprofit sector, or with the healthcare industry or education institutions. Choosing to examine employee motivation across the nonprofit

sector, instead of examining employees as part of a professional field (i.e. doctors, lawyers, artists, teachers) may give different results. Examining organizations across the nonprofit sector assumes that all nonprofit employees identify with the values and norms that we attribute to the sector. They may identify more heavily with the values and norms that are passed through their specific professional backgrounds and education.

Future studies could pair measures of publicness with the neo-institutional framework to determine when nonprofit employees identify with values associated with the nonprofit sector as opposed to their professional field. I suggest two potential ways to examine these relationships. First, we need large-N, sector wide studies of nonprofit organizations that include larger samples from nonprofit subsectors. This is extremely difficult to do, because managers at nonprofit organizations do not respond well to survey research. However, the weakness of most studies examining differences in nonprofit subsectors results from sample sizes that are entirely too small or focus on only one nonprofit subfield at a time. This research could be focused on a variety of different subjects including employee motivation, professionalization of organizations, use of volunteers, fundraising and philanthropy, as well as others.

Second, I propose cross-sector examinations of organizations specializing in specific substantive areas. If studies are well designed, and include large enough samples from the nonprofit, government, and private sectors, we might get a better grasp on when organizations act like nonprofits, and when they act like their counterparts in other sectors. Ideally, we could also gather data over time to examine how isomorphic pressures in specific fields affect organizations in different sectors;

however, some fields are already largely institutionalized, so long term data may not be possible to gather.

The future of nonprofit management research is bright. When compared with other fields, we still know very little about nonprofit organizations. I believe that a first step in pushing nonprofit research forward is understanding the differences between organizations in the nonprofit sector and across sectors. Should we understand differences based on ownership and legal status, or are sector-blurring and isomorphic pressures making nonprofit organizations more like their public and private counterparts? This dissertation asks some of those questions in the context of nonprofit collaboration. Future research needs to explore them in other organizational and management contexts.

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Appendix: Survey Instrument

Nonprofit Collaboration Survey

Organization Characteristics

1. What is the name of your organization? _____
 2. In a few words, how would you describe the primary purpose of your organization?
-

3. On a scale of 0 to 10, with 0=Not at all and 10 = Completely Understand, how well do you believe individuals in the following organizations *understand* the challenges that your organization faces?

Business Leaders	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Other Local Nonprofits	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
State Agencies involved in your field	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
State Legislature	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Licensing Organizations in your field	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Federal Government Agencies (HUD, DHS, etc)	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Foundations	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Board Members	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Individual Donors	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Volunteers	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Consumers/Clients	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

4. On a scale of 0 to 10, with 0=No Influence and 10 = Complete Control, how much influence do the following individuals or organizations have over the way you manage your organization?

Business Leaders	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Other Local Nonprofits	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
State Agencies involved in your field	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
State Legislature	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Licensing Organizations in your field	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Federal Government Agencies (HUD, DHS, etc)	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Foundations	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Board Members	N/A	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Influencing Management or Programs						
Nonprofits Providing Similar Services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please identify the effect this change had on your organization.

	Very Negative	Somewhat Negative	No Effect	Somewhat Positive	Very Positive	N/A
Government Financial Support	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Services Demanded	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Individual Giving	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Corporate/Foundation Grants	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
For Profit Businesses Providing Similar Services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Government Influence Over Organizational Operations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Competition with Other Organizations Over Funding	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Large Donors or Corporations Influencing Management or Programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nonprofits Providing Similar Services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

8. If your organization stopped receiving government funds, how would this affect daily operations?

(Please select one)

- The organization does not receive government funds
- It would have no impact on my organization
- The organization would have to substantially cut its services and capacity
- The organization's scope and mission would change significantly
- The organization would have to be shut down

9. If your organization stopped receiving corporate/foundation funds, how would this affect daily operations?

(Please select one)

- The organization does not receive government funds
- It would have no impact on my organization
- The organization would have to substantially cut its services and capacity
- The organization's scope and mission would change significantly
- The organization would have to be shut down

10. Approximately, what was the total annual operating budget revenues for your organization in the last fiscal year?

- Less than \$100,000
- \$100,000 - \$499,999
- \$500,000 - \$999,999
- \$1 million - \$4,999,999 million
- \$5 million - \$9,999,999 million
- Greater than \$10 million

11. What percentage of your organization's funding did you receive from the following sources in the last fiscal year?

Percentage from Corporate Donors:
Percentage from Federal/State:
Percentage from Foundations/Grants:
Percentage from Individual Donors:
Percentage from United Way:
Percentage from Other Donors:
Percentage from Earned Income:
Percentage from Other (please explain):

12. What year was your organization incorporated? _____

13. Approximately, how many full time employees does your organization currently employ? This does not need to be an exact number. _____

14. Approximately, how many part time employees does your organization currently employ? This does not need to be an exact number. _____

15. Please indicate how frequently your organization does the following in providing services and programs:

	Never	Occasionally	Frequently	Usually
Uses volunteers to help your organization operate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Receives private fees-for-services (e.g., client-paid services or insurance reimbursed services)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Outsources one or more of your services to other agencies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Strategically markets your organization to attract <i>employees</i>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Engages in entrepreneurial activities to generate earned income	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Uses cause-related marketing alliances with businesses to market an image, product, or service for mutual benefit	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

16. Please indicate how frequently your organization collaborates or partners with the following:

	Never	Yearly	Quarterly	Monthly	Weekly
Nonprofits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Businesses	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Local Government Agencies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
State Agencies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Federal Government Agencies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Colleges/Schools	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Foundations (i.e. AHA, UW)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Religious Institutions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The following question is intended to gather information on prevailing beliefs about collaboration and partnerships in the nonprofit community.

17. On a scale of 1 to 10, please rate your agreement with the following statements. 1 equals do not agree and 10 equals completely agree.

Statement	Level of Agreement
I am better able to solve problems when I am allowed to solve the problem alone.	
<u>Government agencies</u> should not require nonprofit organizations to collaborate with other nonprofit organizations as a condition for funding.	
<u>Private foundations</u> should not require nonprofit organizations to collaborate with other nonprofit organizations as a condition for funding.	
Collaboration is just a buzzword or trend that will eventually fall out of popularity.	
In the past, collaboration with other <i>nonprofit organizations</i> has helped our organization meet its objectives.	
In the past, collaboration with <i>businesses</i> has helped our organization meet its objectives.	
In the past, collaboration with <i>government agencies</i> has helped our organization meet its objectives.	
Collaboration is an important tool for nonprofit organizations to use to meet current and future challenges.	
Nonprofit organizations are important partners in improving economic development.	
Private businesses are important partners in	

improving the condition of the underprivileged.	
Collaboration helps us do more with less money.	
Collaboration often results in the loss of control over the organization's mission.	
Collaboration opens the organization to new financial liabilities.	

Collaboration

The next two questions are meant to understand the effect that collaboration and partnership has on your nonprofit organization.

18. Thinking specifically about your organization's partnerships with **nonprofit agencies**, what effect has this partnership had on the following areas of your organization?

	It's made it much worse	It's made it somewhat worse	It's made it neither better or worse	It's made it somewhat better	It's made it much better
Organization transparency (i.e., openness, communication, & accountability)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ability to respond to community needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Amount of paperwork	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Outside oversight and monitoring	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Accountability to clients	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Relationship with other nonprofits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Overall financial outlook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Development of new programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Development of long-standing programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ability to serve clients well	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ability to meet key organization performance outcomes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

19. Thinking specifically about your organization's partnerships with **government agencies**, what effect has this partnership had on the following areas of your organization?

	It's made it much worse	It's made it somewhat worse	It's made it neither better or worse	It's made it somewhat better	It's made it much better
Organization transparency (i.e., openness, communication, & accountability)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ability to respond to community needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Amount of paperwork	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Outside oversight and monitoring	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Accountability to clients	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Relationship with other nonprofits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Overall financial outlook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Development of new programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Development of long-standing programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ability to serve clients well	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ability to meet key organization performance outcomes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The next two questions are meant to understand fluctuations in 2013 fundraising.

20. How good has your end of year giving been to date?

- Much less than expected
- Somewhat less than expected
- About what we expected
- Somewhat more than expected
- Much more than expected

21. In your opinion, what was the effect of May 2013 disaster related giving on your end of year fundraising?

- Very Negative
- Somewhat Negative
- No Effect
- Somewhat Positive
- Very Positive

Tornado Collaboration

The next section of this survey concerns the tornadoes that affected Oklahoma in May 2013. We would like some information regarding your involvement with tornado recovery and/or your involvement with other organizations involved in tornado recovery efforts.

If you were not involved in recovery efforts, then you will be taken to the next section of the survey.

If you were involved in recovery efforts, in any way, your answers to these questions will help us better understand how to help nonprofit organizations - both disaster centered and not disaster centered- provide better services after all types of disasters.

22. Was your organization involved in any form of disaster relief or recovery as they related to the May 2013 tornadoes in central Oklahoma? Relief and recovery could include a number of activities involving fundraising, sheltering, first aid, or clean up aimed at employees, clients, or the community at large.

- Yes
- No

23. Please indicate all of the activities that your organization was involved in as they related to the May 2013 tornadoes in central Oklahoma.

Activity	Yes	No
Mass sheltering – or assistance to a group who provided sheltering services.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeding – or assistance to a group who provided mass feeding services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
First aid or any emergency medical assistance services, such as transportation to medical care or treatment facilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Victim services, such as providing information about possible victims to family members	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Clean up services, such as cleaning debris from disaster sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Recruit volunteers for disaster related activities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Disaster related fundraising	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spiritual care	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Crisis counseling	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other mental health services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Assistance services, specifically related to the needs of people with disabilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

24. Is disaster response a core mission of your organization?

- Yes
- No

25. Before the May 2013 tornadoes, was your organization involved in disaster planning with any of the following organizations?

- Local Professional Emergency Response Agencies (i.e. Fire Departments, Police Departments, EMTs, Local Emergency Management Agencies)
- State or Federal Emergency Response Agencies (i.e. FEMA or other Departments of Emergency Management)
- Disaster Related Nonprofit Organizations (i.e. Red Cross, Salvation Army)
- Nonprofit Organizations Not Specifically Focused on Disasters
- Religious Organizations (i.e. Churches)
- Private Businesses
- Schools
- Other
- None of the Above

26. Since the May 2013 tornadoes, was your organization involved in disaster planning with any of the following organizations?

- Local Professional Emergency Response Agencies (i.e. Fire Departments, Police Departments, EMTs, Local Emergency Management Agencies)
- State or Federal Emergency Response Agencies (i.e. FEMA or other Departments of Emergency Management)
- Disaster Related Nonprofit Organizations (i.e. Red Cross, Salvation Army)
- Nonprofit Organizations Not Specifically Focused on Disasters
- Religious Organizations (i.e. Churches)
- Private Businesses
- Schools
- Other
- None of the Above

27. What your organization affected by the May 2013 tornadoes in any of the following ways?

	Yes	No
Organization facilities unavailable for any period of time	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Employees unavailable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Volunteers unavailable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Clients unavailable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The following question is meant to gather information about how nonprofit organizations worked across sectors in disaster recovery following the May 2013 tornadoes.

28. The table below lists several types of organizations. Please indicate all of the ways that your nonprofit partnered with each of the organizations listed below in response to the May 2013 tornadoes.

	Nonprofit Organizations	Private Businesses	Local Government Agencies	State Government Agencies	Federal Government Agencies	Academic Institutions	Foundations	Religious Institutions
Joint Planning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Regularly Scheduled Meetings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Employee Sharing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Volunteer Sharing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Financial Resource Sharing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facility Sharing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Information Sharing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Not Applicable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

29. Did you receive funding specifically for May 2013 tornado recovery from any of the following sources?

	Yes	No
Corporate Donors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Federal Government (i.e. FEMA)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
State or Local Government	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Individual Donors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
United Way	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Red Cross	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other Disaster Nonprofit Organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Foundations/Grants	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

30. Thinking specifically about the May 2013 Central Oklahoma tornadoes, how did government agencies involved in disaster recovery affect the following disaster relief activities of your organization?

	It's made it much worse	It's made it somewhat worse	It's made it neither better or worse	It's made it somewhat better	It's made it much better
Mass sheltering – or assistance to a group who provided sheltering services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeding – or assistance to a group who provided mass feeding services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
First aid or any emergency medical assistance services, such as transportation to medical care or treatment facilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Victim services, such as providing information about possible victims to family members	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Clean up services, such as cleaning debris from disaster sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ability to recruit volunteers for disaster related activities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Overall disaster related fundraising	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

31. Have your donations or other related revenue sources been sufficient to meet the financial demands placed on your organization to provide relief or recovery assistance related to the May 2013 tornadoes?

- Yes
- No
- Don't Know/Not Sure

General Demographic Questions

The next few questions concern some basic background information about you. Recall that your responses are confidential, and our analyses will not reveal any individual's responses.

32. How many years have you been at your current nonprofit in any capacity?

33. Is your current position a paid or unpaid position?
- Paid
 - Unpaid
34. Is your current position part-time or full-time?
- Part-time
 - Full-time
35. Does your current position include supervisory authority?
- Yes
 - No
36. How long have you worked in nonprofits in general? _____
37. Do you have previous experience in the private sector?
- Yes
 - No
38. What is your highest level of education received?
- High School Diploma
 - Some College
 - BA or BS degree
 - Master's degree
 - Doctorate or Professional degree
39. Does your nonprofit organization have a religious affiliation?
- Yes
 - No
40. Is your nonprofit organization tied to a specific religious organization?
- Yes
 - No

41. On a scale of 0 to 10, how much influence does this religious organization have over your nonprofit's operations? 0=no influence and 10=very influential

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

42. Thank you so much for participating in this survey. At this time, we would like to provide you the opportunity to add any further comments that you have about collaboration.
