

Evolution of Nonprofits:
Organizational Structures and Perceptions of Effectiveness within Sexual Assault and
Domestic Violence Services

by
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the structures of nonprofit victim service organizations and organizational effectiveness. Past research has rarely considered the structures of nonprofit institutions, and thus there is a lack of understanding regarding how nonprofit service organizations function, and whether not traditional concepts of effectiveness can accurately describe organizational success. Thus, there is an opportunity for further exploration regarding how this structural change impacted organizational effectiveness. This study used mixed-methodology including surveys (N=16), interviews (N=17), and comparative case studies (N=5) to examine nonprofit organizational structures and effectiveness in efforts to answer questions regarding the reality of hybrid nonprofit structures, the characteristics of these hybrid structures, and the presentation of organizational effectiveness in nonprofit service organizations. The findings revealed that a) hybrid structures are overwhelmingly the style of service nonprofits, b) externally bureaucratic structures and collective internal structures are combined to form these hybrid organizations, and c) traditional measures of organizational effectiveness as well as characteristics unique to hybrid structures are influential in determining effectiveness in nonprofit service organizations. Future research should consider what factors influence the collaboration of nonprofit service organizations and criminal justice institutions in order to best support crime victims.

Keywords: Nonprofit organizations, sexual assault, domestic violence, service organizations, organizational effectiveness

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INTRODUCTION

Nonprofit organizations are those who provide goods and services without seeking financial benefit, or, when profit is developed, these monies are used to further the operations of the organization itself and thus benefit the public at large (Minkoff & Powell, 2006). Nonprofits can vary in management styles, size, and location (Jain, 2012). Historically, researchers who have examined the structure of nonprofit organizations (particularly nonprofit service organizations) have focused on dichotomous bureaucratic or collectivist structural forms (Campbell, Baker, & Mazurek, 1998; Maier, 2011a; Maier, 2011b; O'Sullivan, 1978).

While some researchers, including Martin (1990), Riger (1994), and Ashcraft (2001) have noted in their studies that hybrid forms of nonprofit service organizations (or those that combine characteristics of bureaucratic and collectivist structures) do exist, there has not been an exploration about what these hybrid organizational forms look like and how they affect the effectiveness of service provision in nonprofit service organizations. This thesis seeks to fill this gap, by addressing what hybrid structural forms look like in domestic violence and sexual assault service nonprofit organizations and how these structures influence staff perceptions of organizational effectiveness and service provision.

Understanding the effect of nonprofit organizational structures on organizational effectiveness is important, as nonprofit organizations that provide services to victims of interpersonal violence such as rape crisis centers and domestic violence shelters are invaluable. Often these organizations are the first to provide advocacy and outreach for

victims and they are additionally able to provide services that allow for the criminal justice system to more effectively process the cases (Bennett, Riger, Schewe, Howard, & Wasco, 2004; Wasco, Campbell, Howard, Mason Staggs, Schewe, & Riger, 2004).

Popular attention addressing domestic violence, sexual assault, and sexual harassment has increased in the past two years. The occurrence of several sexual assault allegations that were addressed in the media as well as increased attention to sexual assault and harassment in Hollywood has renewed focus on acknowledging and supporting victims. In the wake of this increased attention, academics and researchers should make renewed efforts to identify prevention, intervention, and rehabilitative strategies that nonprofit service organizations can use to support victims. And while this thesis only begins to explore how the characteristics and effects of hybrid organizational structures influence nonprofit organizational effectiveness, this study opens the door for future research to consider the effect of organizational structural forms on the ability of DV/SA service nonprofits to successfully collaborate with criminal justice institutions and implement effective services.

THEORETICAL EXPLANATIONS

Organizational Theory

Historically, organizational theories have attempted to explain how structural and environmental differences may influence the development and influence of organizations. Early organizational theory began in the mid-19th century during the industrial revolution (Reed, 1996). Many credit the foundations of organizational theory to the work of Saint-Simon, who noted organizational patterns and features in the late 1700's. According to

Saint-Simon (1958), organizations provided a structure based on power and technical expertise that allowed society to be ordered rather than ‘anarchic’ (see also Reed, 1996). However, considerations of morality, culture, and politics were excluded from Saint-Simon’s theorizing as they were viewed as exogenous to bounded rationality (1958; see also Reed, 1996).

Works by Weber, Taylor, and Fayol expand on Saint-Simon’s theory of organizations and societal order by contributing explanations of rationality and division of labor. Weber, Taylor, and Fayol believed that organizations could be explained using principles of scientific management at the exclusion of human emotions and values (Weber, 1922; Taylor, 1916; Fayol, 1916). While more recent organizational theorists are not as exclusive regarding culture and human behavior, the values of early theorists such as effectiveness and efficiency are still reflected in contemporary frameworks.

To examine the classical school of thought more fully, Weber, Taylor, and Fayol’s works must be further analyzed. Taylor’s work in 1916 posited the use of scientific management to study and develop successful organizations. Scientific management argued for a method of organizational development that was ordered, rational, and utilized control to increase efficiency (Taylor, 1916; see also Reed, 1996). Fayol then developed principles of rationality which he believed necessary to develop formal and functional methods of control within organizations (1916; see also Reed, 1996). These values of rationality and efficiency were reflected in Weber’s definition of bureaucracy and his consideration of bureaucratic institutions as superior to non-bureaucratic institutions (Weber, 1922).

However, the classical school's failure to account for dynamism and instability eventually lead to the development of the neo-classical school of thought which sought to identify failures or stressors that may cause classical theory to fail (Reed, 1996). Neo-classical theorists argued that beyond formalization and rationality, organizations had to incentivize workers in order to maintain efficiency (Barnard, 1938; Merton, 1940; Simon, 1946). In this perspective, efficiency was not just related to the structure and framework of the organization, but also to the motivation of the employees (Barnard, 1938). Neo-classists additionally note that bureaucracy requires employees to conform to rules and behaviors which may decrease efficiency during times of change as the strict regulations may debilitate creativity (Merton, 1940). Additionally, Simon noted that some of the principles of organizations may conflict with one another, causing confusion and therefore decreasing productivity in classically aligned bureaucratic organizations (Simon, 1946).

The criticisms by the neoclassical school led to the development of human relations organizational school. Human relations theorists were concerned not just with the rationality of organizational theory, but also with how feelings of community and collective identity might motivate workers to perform more efficiently (Reed, 1996). The human relations school suggested that catering towards the identity of staff and regarding their higher level needs beyond material compensation would explain more about the functioning and productivity within organizations than strict formality, control, and structure (McGregor, 1957).

Structural contingency theory continued to develop the principles of human relations one step further by defining the contesting structural systems that are often present in society's organizations. Structural contingency theory differentiates between mechanical and organic forms of management, where mechanistic systems limit control, require specialization, and strict collectives and organic systems posit generalization, collective relationship, and situational orientated roles (Burns & Stalker, 1961). Theorists believed that mechanistic system characteristics and organic system characteristics often present themselves in organizations on a continuum, meaning that while an organization may be more or less mechanistic/organic the two systems present themselves interactively (Burns & Stalker, 1961; see also Reed, 1996).

Burns and Stalker continued to add to structural contingency theory by incorporating environmental effects factors. As they noted, the presence of more or less mechanistic or organic characteristics depends on environmental factors (1961). Thus, social contingency theory viewed organizations as social systems that interact and integrate individuals, wider society, and social characteristics of a given time (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Reed, 1996). In social contingency theory, organizational structures change and develop based on environmental and social forces that require the organization to adapt to change in order to maintain equilibrium and legitimacy (Burns & Stalker, 1961; Katz & Kahn, 1966; Reed, 1996).

The most recent organizational theory to be developed has been the institutional school. Institutional theorists note that organizations are influenced by external and internal pressures that are often considered norms in society (Zucker, 1987). The

pressures that organizations experience lead them to make decisions regarding their structures and procedures that may change the organization in order to maintain legitimacy and increase chances of survival (Zucker, 1987). Institutional theorists take into account two elements. First, that organizations arrange themselves based on social forms and actions and second, that organizations have formal aspects of structure that are not tied to actors or situations (Zucker, 1977; 1987). This provides theorists the ability to measure the basic organizational structure (such as being bureaucratic or collective) while also considering what characteristics and elements in society may cause these structures to develop or change completely.

This thesis primarily utilizes institutional theory when examining organizational structure and transformation. While measurements were created to classify organizations on a continuum from bureaucratic to collective, there was also a recognition of factors that may have influenced organizational change and development throughout an organizations history. By utilizing the institutional school of organizational theory, comparisons of organizational structures can be made both within and across organizations participating in the study.

Effectiveness Theory

Various attempts have been made by researchers to measure the concept of effectiveness in nonprofit organizations. Since effectiveness cannot be measured simply by looking at expense and profit ratios, more sophisticated constructions of effectiveness have needed to be developed. In this paper, effectiveness will be defined as an organization's ability to maintain viability and a connection to its purpose in an unstable

environment. Despite the fact that many organizations are required to provide effectiveness reports and measurements to ensure their survival, many scholars debate over whether or not measuring effectiveness in nonprofit organizations is ethical or the best practice regarding the importance of nonprofit services.

Herman & Renz have done extensive research and theorizing on whether or not researchers should focus on measuring nonprofit organizational effectiveness. As they note,

“...organizational effectiveness is not an objective reality; rather, effectiveness is a social construction, an achievement of organizational agents and other stakeholders in convincing each other that an organization is pursuing the right objectives in the right way” (1999, p. 109).

However, they conclude that “...effectiveness is real and real in consequences in the same way that “race” is a (socially constructed) reality with real consequences” (Herman & Renz, 1999, p. 109). Thus, Herman & Renz agree that while organizational effectiveness may not be a property of organizations in the same way that the amount of funding or number of staff members are properties, the concept of organizational effectiveness does have very real consequences for organizations based on stakeholder judgements of effectiveness (Herman & Renz, 1998, p. 27; see also Herman & Renz, 1999).

In the past, there have been copious attempts made to define and quantitatively measure effectiveness in organizations including: the goal model, the multiple constituency model, the competing values framework, the system resource approach, the

reputational approach, the internal process approach, the balanced scorecard approach, and many more. However, the majority of the approaches to study effectiveness have developed from the goal model (Forbes, 1998).

The goal model, also referred to as the purposive-rational model, assumes that organizations are designed to achieve goals and attempts to measure the extent to which defined goals are accomplished (Barnard, 1938; Etzioni, 1964; Price, 1972). The more goals an organization accomplishes, the greater the effectiveness of that organization (Forbes, 1998). However, there are a few key issues the goal model faces when applying it to non-profit organizations. First, the goals within non-profit organizations can be vague, macro-level, and difficult to measure (Herman & Renz, 2004). For example, an organization can have the goal of eliminating domestic violence. But because this goal is very macro-scaled, it is essentially impossible for an organization to achieve. Additionally, there may be conflicting goals in an organization due to stakeholders and organization staff each having different expectations of what they want to achieve (Herman & Renz, 2004).

To expand on the goal model of effectiveness, researchers have included looking at an organizations ability to secure scarce resources and survive in an unstable environment (Georgopolous & Tannenvaum, 1957; Yuchtman & Seashore, 1967). The revised theory, called the system resource approach, measures effectiveness based on an organizations ability to exploit resources from the environment using political, institutional, and economic means to sustain their functioning (Forbes, 1998).

However, when researchers began looking more critically at effectiveness theory, they started to conclude that there is both no one universal model of effectiveness and creating frameworks that assess effectiveness may be more fruitful than creating effectiveness theories (Cameron & Whetten, 1983; Herman & Renz, 1998, 1999, 2004). In response to this critique, more and more frameworks have been developed that can be used to measure organizational effectiveness, the most common being variations of the multidimensional approach. The multidimensional approach measures effectiveness using several different measures based on both the goal model and the system-resources approach (Cameron, 1982; Selden & Sowa, 2004). Additionally, the perception-based or reputational approach was developed in order to measure effectiveness based on the opinions of those using or involved with the organization itself (Jobson & Schneck, 1982).

In the current thesis, a variation in the perception-based multidimensional approach was used. The staff and service providers at various organizations were interviewed regarding their perceptions of their organization based on multiple characteristics traditionally used to measure effectiveness. While different scholars consider different things when developing measures of nonprofit organizational effectiveness, there are three main concepts that are consistently used: financial stability, goal obtainment, and social support (Herman & Renz, 1999; Iecovich, 2005; Ramadan & Borgonovi, 2015; Sowa, Selden, & Sandfort, 2004).

The concept of financial stability for nonprofit organizations includes budgeting to make funds last through a specific term, making sure the services provided by the

organization are able to continue operations, and being able to fundraise or achieve grant money (Ramadan & Borgonovi, 2015, p. 72). Organizations must also be able to achieve these factors of financial stability without sacrificing other operations. Even as organizations work to compete for and achieve funding, they cannot let their services fall to the wayside. Financial stability can be considered an external factor to organizational effectiveness, as it often requires the organization to acquire scarce and valued resources from sources outside of the organization itself (Sowa, Selden, & Sandfort, 2004, p. 713).

Goal obtainment includes not just succeeding to achieve the goals that an organization has set out to achieve, but also that an organization is able to make their goals match with social climate and expectations of the community they serve (Minkoff & Powell, 2006). Additionally, goal obtainment is dependent on organizational planning, or how an organization develops operations and procedures in order to reach the goals they consider important. Goal obtainment can be considered an internal factor of organizational effectiveness, as it requires staff members and management to coordinate in order to structure the organization appropriately (Sowa, Selden, & Sandfort, 2004, p. 713).

Lastly, social support includes an organization being able to develop a relationship with their community, an organization potentially collaborating with other community members or organizations, and the ability of an organization to satisfy those using their services. Each of these factors of social support help organizations to develop legitimacy, and thus gain a positive reputation. Social support can also increase staff morale if they perceive that their work is making a difference. And if staff morale is high,

operations of the organization are going to function smoothly and more efficiently. Social support can be considered an ecological factor of organizational effectiveness as it requires organizations to operate successfully within an environment external to that of the organization itself (Markham, Johnson, & Bonjean, 1999; Sowa, Selden, & Sandfort, 2004, p. 713).

Taking these models into consideration, this thesis looks to examine perceptions of organizational effectiveness from all levels of employees at different structured organizations. The perspectives of directors, managers, and direct staff members will be considered. This project may also be used to help develop the question of whether or not differing structures among same type classifications of nonprofit organizations changes perceptions of organizational effectiveness. Herman & Renz (1998) found in past research that if stakeholders of organizations take into account similar characteristics and methods of judgment, perceptions of effectiveness may not differ across similarly classified organizations. Given that all organizations considered in this research are service based nonprofits, the issue of classification can be dismissed, however it will be valuable to see if structural differences within similarly classified organizations changes effectiveness perceptions.

Resource Mobilization Theory

Resource mobilization theory addresses how organizations develop strategies for survival and interact with their environments (McCarthy & Zald, 1973). Developed by McCarthy & Zald (1973) during the period of Western social movement revolution, the concepts of resource mobilization theory have been useful for researchers studying

interpersonal violence service organizations (Fried, 1994; Martin, 1990). Most specifically, resource mobilization theory has allowed researchers to connect structural changes with organizational abilities to survive in unstable environments (Fried, 1994; Martin, 1990). In essence, resource mobilization theory considers competition for scarce resources, use of advertisement and marketing, producing differentiation, issue elasticity, and the concentration of resources among the elite to explain why organizations evolve structurally (Canel, 1997; Edwards & Gillham, 2013; Jenkins, 1983; McCarthy & Zald, 1973, 1977).

McCarthy & Zald argue that resources are often concentrated and controlled by what they call the “elite”. In essence, the elite consists of individuals, organizations, and governmental entities with disposable resources (1973, p. 26). Organizations that need increased funds thus must appeal to these organizations in order to receive money. Additionally, these organizations must often compete with one another to be chosen for funding. Elites can thus influence the structure and goals of organizations by requiring organizations to adopt certain structural frameworks or programs that align with the elites own interests (Edwards & Gillham, 2013; McCarthy & Zald, 1973). While changing their structures and being aligned with these elites may allow organizations to develop more legitimacy, it may also cause them to abandon or change their goals and missions in order to appeal to those who control the scarce monetary resources (Edwards & Gillham, 2013; Jenkins, 1983).

Resource mobilization theory fits well with institutional frameworks of organization theory as well as the systems-resource approach in effectiveness theory.

Resource mobilization's explanation of resource concentration provides an explanation for structural evolution in organizations that is supported by the institutional school's considerations of environmental pressures and need for organizations to maintain legitimacy. Additionally, the competition to secure the resources held by the elites reflects the systems-resource approach's measure of organizational effectiveness. Resource mobilization was also considered and used in this research because past researchers have developed similar explanations for organizational evolution when investigating the history of victim service organizations, thus providing qualitative support to the theory (Fried, 1994; Martin, 1990).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Movement Against Gendered Violence

Researchers have estimated that approximately 12.1 million US women have been victims of rape at least once in their lives (Schafran, 1996). Additionally, the Bureau of Justice Statistics National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) data regarding sexual assault and domestic violence suggests that approximately 300,000 women were raped or assaulted in 2014, and that there were over 1 million domestic violence situations (Truman, & Langton, 2015). These numbers are widely considered to be conservative estimates however, due to the fact that reporting for sexual and domestic violence experiences is very low (Truman & Langton, 2015). For example, Langton and Sihozich (2014) estimate that among the general population, only 20% of rapes and assaults are formally reported to the police.

Addressing crimes such as rape, sexual assault, and domestic violence, as well as other forms of gendered, interpersonal violence is important, because these crimes often

cause the victim to suffer from a wide variety of negative effects. These negative effects include: increased anxiety, depression, cognitive disturbance, post-traumatic stress disorder, dissociation, somatization, sexual problems, higher rates of substance abuse, and suicidality (Briere & Jordan, 2004). The high rates of victimization experienced in the United States and the multitude of negative consequences that result from victimization make researching about these forms of victimization incredibly important.

One of the most effective ways of both protesting gendered violence as well as supporting and treating those affected by gendered violence is through nonprofit services created by grassroots feminist movements. Thus, to understand the current response to sexual assault and domestic violence, we must understand how these organizations began.

The first period that can be established in the modern fight against sexual assault and domestic violence occurred from the time of the civil war into 1883. This is the time period where Black women established the foundation for the fight against gendered violence and worked towards gaining rights and personhood in order to escape the racism and persecution they faced from the white community (Mason, 2015). In the 1890's, Black women, including Harriet Tubman, Margaret Murray Washington, Frances E.W. Harper, Mary Church Terrell, Ida B. Wells, Rosa Parks, Anna Julia Cooper, and Fannie Barrier Williams, would form Black women's clubs that would protest the treatment and assault of women after the civil war as well as speak out against lynching's (Mason, 2015). Their clubs would act as the blueprint for the women's groups and rape crisis

centers that would be established during the 1960's as white feminists also took up the mantle against sexual assault.

The second period in sexual assault history is probably the most widely recognized. It included the beginning of the feminist movement and the civil rights movement so that both white and Black feminists were involved with its creation and impact. During this time period, the majority of legislation surrounding sexual assault and domestic violence was formed and there was an increased recognition for the need of rape crisis centers and other services for victims of gendered violence (Greensite, 2009; Mason, 2015). The first rape crisis centers were established in 1972, generally in large cities with liberal populations such as Berkeley, Chicago, Boston, Philadelphia, and Washington DC, where women were most politically active (Greensite, 2009).

The creation of these centers gave women who experienced sexual and domestic violence a voice and a space where their protests could be heard and supported. At the time, rape crisis centers and women's groups were primarily grassroots activist. They did not have formal structures and very often did not even have buildings of operation (Freeman, 1973; Greensite, 2009). However, this soon started to change, as women worked to have their services presented formally to governmental agencies in order to make widespread social and political change (Greensite, 2009). Some successes resulting from this activism included the formation of Title IX, The Clery Act, and The Violence Against Women Act (Marshall, 2014).

While Title IX and The Clery Act were focused on addressing violence on college campuses, the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA) was enacted with the goal of

creating a safe environment for women regardless of their location. Ratified in 1994, the Violence Against Women Act provides a budget to increase and improve resources for victims of gendered violence and develops penalties for perpetrators (Andersen Clark, Biddle, and Martin, 2002, p. 418). Additionally, the Violence Against Women Act also created rape shield laws, which prevent offenders from using a women's past sexual activity as a defense in trial, and mandated that women are not responsible for their health care after a sexual assault (Marshall, 2014). Together with the works of feminist academics and activists, and the awareness events held by Black and white feminists alike, sexual assault was brought to popular attention with enough force that both the media and legislatures were forced to acknowledge it and work for prevention.

However, there has been recent backlash regarding the fight against domestic violence and sexual assault. This backlash has been partly due to the recent 2016 presidential election, including the reveal of past derogatory statements by candidate Donald Trump, and reported theories regarding budget cuts that may occur under the Trump administration. As presented by The Hill, and then picked up by multiple other news organizations, the Trump administration has been hypothesized to follow budget cuts as outlined by the Heritage Foundation (Bolton, 2017). Some of the cuts suggested by the Heritage Foundation include eliminating grants from the Violence Against Women Act, the Legal Services Corporation, and the Department of Justice (Bolton, 2017; see also Ravi, 2017). Nonprofit service organizations in particular have expressed concern about the threatened funding.

The quick circulation of these theorized budget cuts has caused many to fear for the future of VAWA and domestic violence and sexual assault services, and has inspired discussion and debate in the criminology field. At the 2017 American Society of Criminology conference, there were many papers and two panels exclusively created to discuss how the Trump administration may change the environment surrounding domestic violence and sexual assault including: ‘The Expanding Terrain of Violence Against Women: Feminist Perspectives on the 2016 Presidential Election and Beyond’ and ‘Policy Panel: Prospects for Criminal Justice Reform in the Trump Era- Violence Against Women Act (VAWA) Funding’.

The reactions to the statements made by Donald Trump regarding women, as well as the theorized budget cuts, by many women’s groups has resulted in a renewed level of activism. The 2017 Women’s March for equal rights and awareness for violence against women was estimated to have included approximately 5 million marchers (Chenoweth & Pressman, 2017). The #MeToo movement across social media prompted millions of women to share their experiences of sexual harassment and assault in efforts to spread awareness of gendered violence (Gilbert, 2017). Similarly, an open letter sent from the Alianza Nacional de Campesinas was published supporting women victimized in Hollywood and also acknowledging the victimization of low income women of color (Martin, 2018; Time’s Up, 2017; Time Staff, 2017). The letter prompted high powered actresses such as Shonda Rhimes, Ashley Judd, Natalie Portman, and America Ferrera to develop the Time’s Up movement, which advocates for victims of sexual assault and

workplace harassment and launched a legal defense fund to assist victims with legal support (Martin, 2018; Time's Up, 2017).

Since these movements began, there has been an influx of sexual assault accusations against high-profile individuals, including Donald Trump, Harvey Weinstein, Matt Lauer, Kevin Spacey, Sen. Al Franken, Senate nominee Roy Moore, and former Senator Ralph Shortey (for a full list see Almkhatar, Gold, & Buchanan, 2017). The movement is also affecting academia, with accusations and trials occurring at various universities across the country, most notably the recent trial against Larry Nassar, which motivated investigations and resignations at Michigan State University (Brown, 2018; Mangan, 2017; for a full timeline see Gluckman, Read, Mangan, & Quilantan, 2017). While it is too soon to see what the results of these movements and accusations will be, it is obvious that the fight against gendered violence has found renewed vigor and that nonprofit domestic violence and sexual assault service organizations and college campuses will be effected in some way by this cultural shift.

Structural Evolution of Service Organizations

Traditionally, nonprofit victim centered organizations were feminist and collective in nature. This meant that the structure of these organizations were non-hierarchical and non-bureaucratic (Martin, DiNitto, Byington, & Maxwell, 1993, p. 123; see also Ashcraft, 2001; Campbell, Baker, & Mazurek, 1998; Maier, 2011a, 2011b; Riger, 1994). Collectivist values were particularly important for early victim service organizations to maintain, as early feminists viewed bureaucratic structures as enforcing unequal power structures that were “male dominant and enforce[ed] women’s

subordination” (Ashcraft, 2001, p. 1302). As collectivist and activist organizations, these early interpersonal violence centers were able to lobby for increased rights and protections for women and victims (O’Sullivan & Carlton, 2001).

However, over time, many of these organizations evolved (Ashcraft, 2001; Campbell et al., 1998; Maier, 2011a, Maier, 2011b; Martin et al., 1993; Riger, 1994). At the end of the 1970’s feminist movement, many nonprofit service organizations began to display more traditionally bureaucratic structural characteristics. Thus, the question that must be addressed through analysis of previous literature is whether the historical shift from collective structure to bureaucratic structure among nonprofit, feminist, victim-service organizations was externally forced upon them, or if it was a conscious choice made by the organizations themselves?

Ashcraft’s research on organized dissonance would suggest that the change was externally forced onto victim service organizations, especially if they were struggling financially or needed to reach out to the “elites” for funding (2001; see also Martin, DiNitto, Byington, & Maxwell 1993; O’Sullivan, 1978; Ullman & Townsend, 2007). As Ashcraft states, “environmental pressures related to funding and community alliances eroded the radical politics of feminist nonprofits...needs for efficiency, growth, competition, and other resource dependencies spur the growth of formal hierarchy” (Ashcraft, 2001, p. 1303; see also O’Sullivan, 1978; Ranson, Hinings, & Greenwood, 1980).

Additional scholars have agreed that when rigor for creating and maintaining service organizations began to decline and community level funds became difficult to

maintain, many organizations turned towards governmental institutions for financial stability (Ashcraft, 2001; Campbell et al., 1998; Newman, 1980; Riger, 1994). In turn, these governmental funding sources included stipulations which required organizations to professionalize and/or centralize in order to receive and allocate funds, which caused many feminist organizations to shift their organizational structure (Ashcraft, 2001; Campbell et al., 1998; Newman, 1980).

However, other researchers have suggested that in some cases, the evolution may have been more conscious. Riger (1994) suggested that collectivist organizations that were successful in obtaining funding in traditional manners (such as donations), may have moved towards adapting hierarchical structures more organically. This shift may have been motivated by the decision within the organization to access a wider population of clients or provide a greater variety of services which required more staff (Riger, 1994). Due to the fact that collectivist values include equality in decision making and management, it may have become much more difficult for successful organizations to manage larger numbers of staff, programs, and a larger budget while maintaining collectivist values, thus, promoting a conscious shift to bureaucratic structures (Riger, 1994, pp. 286—288).

Unfortunately, there have historically been very few feminist, nonprofit collectivist organizations that have managed to successfully evolve in this manner, suggesting that it is much more likely that for most organizations, the structural evolution from collective to bureaucratic was an externally rather than internally motivated shift.

But how has this structural shift from collectivist to bureaucratic effected the organizations?

Effects of Structural Shifts

Bureaucratic and collectivist organizations both have the ability to create positive and negative environments. Collectivist organizations foster environments that emphasize equality of involvement and impact, value consensus, activism, decrease alienation, and allow for shared work responsibilities and personal autonomy (Bennett, Riger, Schewe, Howard, & Wasco, 2004; Jain, 2012; Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015). However, they require smaller numbers of staff with similar views and substantial time commitments. Additionally, if staff do not have shared values, collectivist organizations may experience high staff turnover and thus maintain staff who are not necessarily representative of the community they serve which could alienate victims who need the services (Rothschild-Whitt, 1979; Rothschild-Whitt & Whitt, 1986; Ullman & Townsend, 2007).

Bureaucratic organizations can allow for increased resource obtainment, the mediation of groups or individuals with different values, increased professionalism and legitimacy, the ability to expand and develop programs and resources, and organization stability (Eisenstadt, 1959; Maier, 2011a, 2011b; Minkoff & Powell, 2006). However, bureaucratic organizations may minimize or subvert their mission and goals in order to increase public accountability, they are generally less willing to participate in activism, their attention can be shifted away from service provision to funding opportunities, staff may feel more alienated or less connected to the organization, there may be constraining power structures, and there may be incongruence between management and direct service

staff due to differences in responsibilities and knowledge of procedures (Campbell et al., 1998; Minkoff & Powell, 2006; Maier, 2011a, 2011b; Ullman & Townsend, 2007).

Among feminist, nonprofit victim-service organizations specifically, collectivist and bureaucratic structures perpetuate a variety of these positive and negative values. O'Sullivan and Carlton (2001) suggest that collectivist service organizations may be more willing to serve all types of victims and be [politically] confrontational. Additionally, other positive outcomes related to collective organizations may be increased organizational effectiveness as a result of increased employee satisfaction and motivation resulting from decentralized environments where communication is open, individual growth is valued, and innovation is encouraged (Burns & Stalker, 1961; Floyd & Wooldridge, 1992; Gold, Malhotra, & Sears, 2001; Schminke, Ambrose, & Cropanzano, 2000; Zheng, Yang, & McLean, 2010).

However, there are also negative effects related to service organizations with collective environments. For example, O'Sullivan and Carlton note that police and hospitals may be more willing to reach out to victim service organizations if they are less politically radical (2001; see also Minkoff & Powell, 2006). Thus, organizations with bureaucratic structures may be more successful in forming collaborative relationships with police officers and hospital staff (Martin et al., 1993). Additionally, Stazyk & Goerdel (2011) found that collectivist organizations, or organizations with lower levels of hierarchy, had less goal clarification and lower organizational performance.

While bureaucratic nonprofit service organizations may increase organizational performance and mediate relationships between service organizations and criminal justice

or medical institutions, other researchers have noted that some of the effects of bureaucratic structures have been detrimental to the victim-service organization's effectiveness. For example, the lack of funds available to organizations from the "elites" leads to organizations potentially competing against one another rather than supporting one another's initiatives (Maier, 2011a; Newman, 1980; Ullman & Townsend, 2007). Additionally, bureaucratic victim-service organizations sometimes take on new projects just to receive the funding attached to these projects, which may distract staff from supporting victims and focusing on organizational goals (Maier, 2011a; Ullman & Townsend, 2007).

Overall, research addressing the effects of structural shifts among feminist, nonprofit service organizations has been mixed. Some researchers have found positive effects such as improved relationships between service organizations and other institutions (Campbell, Baker, & Mazurek, 1998; Martin et al., 1993; O'Sullivan & Carlton, 2001). However, other researchers have found negative effects such as increased competition between service organizations and a decrease in focus on organization values and goals (Maier, 2011a; Ullman & Townsend, 2007). These mixed findings prompt an additional question to be asked. Have organizations developed methods for subverting the extreme differences and mixed effects of bureaucratic and collectivist organizational structures?

Mediating the Effects of Structural Shifts

Various scholars have approached this question and concluded that feminist, nonprofit service organizations may have developed some effective methods of

negotiating the shift from collectivist to bureaucratic structures, while maintaining the positive benefits associated with both models. The primary method that allowed these feminist, nonprofit service organizations to achieve these results was by creating hybrid organizational structures.

Literature on organizational structures, even nonprofit organizations, overwhelmingly focuses on either collective or bureaucratic structural models. However, some researchers have found that, realistically, the wide majority of nonprofit service organizations do not represent either of these two ideals (Ashcraft, 2001, 2006; Hyde, 2000; Martin, 1990; Minkoff, 2002). Instead, organizations tend to create structures that blend together various characteristics associated with collective and bureaucratic models, creating hybrid structural forms (Ashcraft, 2001, 2006; Hyde, 2000; Martin, 1990; Minkoff, 2002). This hybrid model allows organizations to reap the benefits of both organizational structures, while subverting the negative effects.

For example, in bureaucratic structures, face-to-face communication becomes difficult to maintain, and consensual decision making becomes precarious with the increase in voices and opinions (Riger, 1994, p. 284). However, Ashcraft (2001) found that hybrid feminist organizations often promoted “ethical communication” whereby emotional sharing and communication was valued despite the increased power differentials created by hierarchical structures. While Ashcraft does warn that this value of ethical communication can become idealistic in nature but not utilized in practice, organizations that actively work to encouraging personal check-ins with direct staff and managers, all-staff meetings, staff feedback regarding decision making, and staff

freedoms within their job positions may be able to utilize the increased efficiency of hierarchical structures while not suffering from the negative effects of power differentials and communication breakdown.

Although past research has investigated the emergence and presence of hybrid organizational forms, especially among feminist, nonprofit service organizations, there has been little to no research done regarding the relationship between hybrid structures and organizational effectiveness. Accordingly, this thesis works to achieve three goals. First, this thesis seeks to confirm the fact that the majority of feminist, nonprofit service organizations (specifically sexual assault and domestic violence service organizations) are hybrid in nature. Second, this thesis seeks to explore how bureaucratic and collectivist characters have been combined within hybrid, nonprofit service organizations to create unique forms. And third, this thesis investigates what organizational effectiveness looks like within these hybrid structures.

METHODOLOGY

The information sought in this research project were answers to the questions of why and how organizational structural differences affect perceptions of effectiveness within service non-profit organizations. To answer questions of how and why, researchers must create qualitative studies that allow for explanations by participants. Thus, the methodological paradigm of inductive reasoning tends to guide qualitative research. Strauss & Corbin's (1990) model of grounded theory presents a form of inductive reasoning that can be used in qualitative research whereby researchers develop theories or conclusions after gathering data and observations, rather than using a theory to

interpret the data. This allows for qualitative research to reduce bias of interpretation during both data gathering and data coding.

More specifically, this study primarily utilized a qualitative case study methodology. As defined by Yin (1994, p. 13):

A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

Case studies allow for researchers to use observational research or in-depth interviews to study phenomenon in which there may be limited cases or subjects (Yin, 1994; see also Campbell & Ahrnes, 1998). The multiple case study methodologies are valuable because they enhance validity and generalizability of findings by repeating the research procedures across a variety of cases (Galloway & Sheridan, 1994).

Additionally, Berg (2004, p. 260) notes that case study methodology is “an extremely useful technique for researching relationships, behaviors, attitudes, motivations, and stressors in the organizational setting”.

Because non-profit service organizations addressing sexual assault and domestic violence are limited in existence and availability, a multiple case study methodology was the most viable method that could be used for this project to study variations in organizations while also getting in-depth responses to the research question. Multiple service providers within five non-profit service organizations were interviewed so that a diverse perspective of the organizations could be developed. For example, in an individual case, an executive director, program manager, shelter staff, advocate, and

financial or grant manager may have been interviewed to develop a holistic perspective of the organization. The participants were asked questions related to their views of the organization and their experiences in the organization based on their position within the organization. These narrations were then transcribed and coded to develop measures of perceived organizational effectiveness and to provide a more nuanced view of how organizational effectiveness is developed and why it may differ based on positionality within an organization.

Qualitative methodologies are often criticized within various fields of research because there may be reliability and validity issues as well as researcher bias (Campbell & Ahrnes, 1998; see also Kazdin, 1981). Additionally, because causality cannot be determined within qualitative research, qualitative methodologies may hold less value within academic fields.

Qualitative researchers have developed guidelines and materials to help address these concerns. For example, similar to how quantitative researchers are discouraged from p-hacking by developing a research question, hypothesis, and specific plan for data analysis, qualitative researchers are encouraged to develop a tool that outlines the theories, hypotheses, and questions of interest, the information that is sought to be collected, and procedures that will be used in order to best allow for study reproduction and increase study reliability (Yin, 1982). Similarly, because external validity, or the extent to which the research can be generalized, may be limited using case study methodology, researchers are encouraged to provide detailed information about the research process and the rationale for decisions made regarding data collection (Campbell

& Ahrnes, 1998; see also Stake, 1994). Additionally, part of the external validity concern is addressed by performing a multiple case study methodology in alternative to performing a single case study (Campbell & Ahrnes, 1998).

To address concerns regarding internal validity, researchers can use multiple measures and assessment points to increase the credibility of the findings (Yin, 1981). Additionally, researchers can add observations, content analysis, and questionnaires into their research process to enhance the validity of interpretations (Campbell & Ahrnes, 1998; see also Sackmann, 1991; Banyard, 1995). Beyond interviewing the service providers at various non-profit service organizations in this study, short surveys were distributed to participants.

The Current Study

The current research employs a mixed methodology, multiple case study regarding non-profit organizational structures and staff perspectives of effectiveness. To address the research questions, invitation to participate in the study was offered to a variety of domestic violence and sexual assault service organizations in Arizona (See Appendix A). In Arizona specifically as of fall 2017, there are 95 organizations recognized by the Arizona Coalition to End Sexual Assault & Domestic Violence. After receiving Institutional Review Board approval to conduct this thesis in the fall of 2017, a faculty member who was involved with coordinating internships and grant projects at many nonprofit domestic violence and sexual assault service organizations was contacted to help facilitate introductions to the organizations. Invitations to participate in the project were sent out to a total of six organizations. Each of the organizations were chosen due to

their presenting differing organizational structures as well as their past willingness to participate in research projects.

Out of the six organizations contacted to participate in the project, five responded positively, thus providing a response rate of 83%¹. Thus, interviews were set up with several service providers and staff within each of the organizations. At the end of the study, fourteen individual interviews and one group interview had been conducted². In addition to the interviews, short surveys were also distributed to the participants in order to measure organizational structure and content analysis of the organizations website and distribution of educational materials was also conducted. Once all of the data were collected, the interview recordings were transcribed and analysis of organizational structures and perspectives of effectiveness were conducted.

As suggested by Yin (1982), a document was developed in order to keep the project on track, reduce bias, and increase study reliability. Included in this document were: the study's research question, the rationale for case selection, the rationale for the sample, and the independent and dependent variables. As the research questions were discussed earlier in the paper, only the rationales for case selection and the study sample as well as the dependent and independent variables will be discussed below.

Determining cases. Due to the nature of the research question, the organizations obtained for this study needed to represent diverse organizational structures. Accordingly, attempts were made to obtain organizations that, on the surface, presented with

¹ The sixth organization never responded to participation invitations.

² Due to time restrictions at one organization, a group interview was requested and considered more feasible.

bureaucratic and collectivist structures. These structural perceptions were developed based on a) consideration of the organizations websites and publically available information, and b) insight provided by the faculty connected to local organizations contacted for this study. Luckily, in Arizona, there is a wide variety of organizations available. Invitations to participate in the project were distributed to three bureaucratic presenting organizations and three collectivist presenting organizations. While it is unlikely that all organizations fit the characteristics of these structures perfectly, the observable differences in their structures allow for comparisons to be made. After distributing the invitations to participate in the research project, five organizations replied positively. At the end of the project three bureaucratic presenting organizations and two collectivist presenting organizations were used as cases for the project.

Samples. After determining which organizations would be serving as cases for the study, subsamples were recruited from among staff members within each organization. Ideally, all of the staff members and service providers from each organization would have been interviewed. However, due to time constraints, this was not feasible. Thus, invitations were distributed by organizational managers to any staff who were willing to volunteer to participate in the interviews without compensation. In efforts to make the sample as representative as possible, staff members from varying positions within the organization were attempted to be recruited from each organization. In the end, the total number of individual participants in the study was seventeen.

The staff and service providers who were recruited for this study held a variety of positions within the organization. Positions may have ranged from executive directors to

managers, as well as advocates, service staff, and administrators. Additional efforts were made to recruit a diverse number of staff based on the time they had worked with the organization as well age, race, and education characteristics.

Table 1: Participant roles and experience (N=17)

Name*	Position or Role**	Experience
Allison	Manager	2 years
Emily	Advocate	4 months
Jane	Director	2 years, 6 months
Shayla	Finances	11 months
Carol	Advocate	5 months
Rachael	Advocate	5 months
Camila	Manager	2 years
Michaela	Manager	10 months
Elizabeth	Director	10 years
Valarie	Advocate	1 year, 3 months
Melissa	Director	11 years
Danielle	Case Manager	5 years
Angie	Counselor	2 years
Haley	Director	16 years
Theresa	Manager	1 year, 8 months
Jasmine	Manager	3 years, 10 months
Zoe	Case Manager/Advocate	3 years

*Pseudonym

**Departmental affiliations and titles used with participants' permission. Some titles were modified to protect anonymity.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics (N=17)

Variable	Frequency
Gender	
Male	0
Female	16
Age	
18-29	6
30-49	7
50+	3
Education	
Bachelor's Degree	2
Graduate Work	5
Graduate Degree	9
Race/Ethnicity	
White	9
African American	2
Asian/Pacific Islander	2
Hispanic	3
Other	2
Position/Job Role	
Administrator	1
Direct Staff	6
Manager	5
Director	4
Experience	
Less than a year	5
1-3 years	6
3-10 years	3
10+ years	2

Measurements. Scales and questions were developed for this project in order to measure and best address the independent and dependent variables. The independent variable in this project was organizational structure which was determined using validated scale measures and some interview questions (see Appendices D & E). The dependent variable in this project was perceptions of effectiveness which was developed using the interview questions (see Appendix C).

Dependent variable. The dependent variable in this thesis is perceptions of organizational effectiveness. Organizational effectiveness was defined as staff's belief that the organization succeeded in maintaining viability and commitment to the organization's purpose (in this case providing DV/SV services). Interview questions were developed and grouped based on topics including the background and structure of the organization, membership and staff history with the organization, financing and budgeting within the organization, and environmental and goal success in the organization. These questions were modified from similar research performed by Gornick, Burt, & Pittman (1985), Jain (2012), and Smith (1999a, 1999b), and took into account traditional variables congruent with traditional effectiveness theory.

The questions in the interview included topics such as what the staff perceived their role to be within the organization, what their motivation was to work at the organization, how they perceived the historical development of the organization, what they perceived to be the goals in the organization, and how well the organization achieved those goals.

The interviews for this project lasted for approximately a half hour to an hour each, and were tape recorded and transcribed if verbal consent to do so was given by the participant (see Appendix B). All of the interviews were semi-structured and open-ended, and provided the participants opportunities to expand on topics they believed to be important and to address topics that were not originally considered by the researcher, but were perceived to be important by the participant. When expanding beyond the interview questions, participants tended to elaborate on questions regarding the importance of their

organization's work, why their organization focused on particular topics, and the status of relationships that the organization had with other service providers within the community.

When considering effectiveness as a dependent variable in the research process, Herman & Renz present a number of theses that researchers should consider when constructing their measurements, performing analysis, and presenting their findings. First, nonprofit effectiveness is always comparative, multidimensional, and a social construction (Herman & Renz, 2008, pp. 400—404; see also Herman & Renz, 1998). However, while nonprofit effectiveness is comparative, it is also not universally applicable when considering either best practices or nonprofit organizational type so it is important to consider the individual characteristics and classification of the nonprofit organizations you are performing research with (Herman & Renz, 2008, pp. 401—407).

To address these concerns, this research looks to compare effectiveness of organizations with a variety of different structural frameworks. Additionally, to address Herman & Renz concern about measures being multidimensional, the effectiveness measure includes questions about financial stability, social support, and goal attainment. To address the concern regarding practices not being generalizable to all non-profit organization types, this research specifically looks at not just service oriented non-profits, but specifically service nonprofits addressing domestic violence and sexual assault. This will allow the considerations of effectiveness to be applicable across organizations. Additionally, by using qualitative methods to address effectiveness, this research is also

able to identify and further explore any nuances that may influence effectiveness perceptions including stakeholders and staff positions.

Independent variable. The independent variable of organizational structure was defined as the configuration of activities that are characteristically enduring and persistent in an organization, which includes the way that activities are implemented (Ranson, Hinings, & Greenwood, 1980, p. 1; see also Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006). Organizational structures can be defined by characteristics known as structural frameworks, which include the strategic plans and protocols, effectiveness of control, adaptability, membership motivation, and accountability measurements used by those working in an organization (Ranson et al., 1980, p. 2; see also Aiken & Hage, 1966, 1971; Hage, 1965; Smith, 2006). The scales adapted for use in this project have been demonstrated as having high levels of reliability in past research, with Cronbach's alpha scores ranging from 0.71 – 0.90 (see Appendix E).

Thus, a table was created whereby structural characteristics of authority, formalization, standardization, centralization, recruitment, incentive, configuration, specialization, and goal adherence were measured (see Appendix D). These characteristics were chosen and defined based on past research on organizational theory as discussed earlier in the paper (Weber, 1922; see also Jain, 2012; Pugh, Hickson, Hinings, & Turner, 1968; Rothschild & Whitt, 1986). The format of the table itself was inspired by Jain (2012), who's research on practices of VNPO's utilized a similarly structured table. The format of this table was modified in order to best fit the purpose of the current research project. Additional measures of bureaucracy and collectivism were

developed based on research by Aiken & Hage developed in 1966 (see also Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015). The questions used in this research were modified into 5 point Likert-scale questions to reconfirm the choices participants made in the comparative table portion of the survey (see Appendix D & E for reliability and validity reports).

For the purposes of this study, bureaucratic and collectivist structures as well as their structural frameworks are defined and analyzed. This way, organizational structure could be measured on a continuum based on contrasting organizational characteristics. In bureaucratic organizations, power structures are organized via a hierarchy, where authority is centralized among upper divisions of management. This structure perpetuates unequal distribution of knowledge, leadership, and communication. Bureaucracies were first formally studied and defined by Max Weber in 1922. Weber perceived bureaucracies as the most rational and effective organizational structure, and cited the development and increased popularity of this model to the increase in organizational size and complexity as well as the increased focus on a capitalist economy (Weber, 1922). Child's (1973) research supports this theory of bureaucratic development, as he found that increases in organizational size increased the complexity of the structure and allowed organizations to bureaucratize and formalize (p. 179).

In collectivist organizations, power is shared equally across those involved with the organization, and authority is not held by one person, but rather by members as a whole. There is little division of labor, and communication is the characteristic that fosters decision making and development. Rothschild-Whitt studied collectivist structures in 1979 to address the characteristics that differentiated them from bureaucracies and thus

defined many of the structural frameworks as the antithesis of bureaucratic structural frameworks.

The original structural frameworks that defined bureaucracies according to Weber (1922) included:

1. An organization with a fixed and official administrative organ, structured by rules and regulations;
2. The existence of office hierarchy where lower offices are controlled and supervised by higher ones, with specific divisions of labor;
3. Office management is based on perceived written documents and follows stable, exhaustive general rules;
4. Thorough and expert training is a prerequisite for office management positions which are generally appointed positions.

Since the 1940's, other researchers have taken up the task of defining, measuring, and testing measures of bureaucracy (Eisenstadt, 1959; Hall, 1963; Pugh, Hickson, Hinings, & Turner, 1968; Rothschild & Whitt, 1986; Wallach, 1983). After reviewing the various measures developed by these researchers, nine structural frameworks were chosen and defined to be used in this research. These nine structural frameworks are: Authority, formalization, standardization, centralization, recruitment, incentive, configuration, specialization, and goal adherence. Once these definitions were established, the method of establishing these frameworks was differentiated for both bureaucratic and collectivist organizations.

Authority is defined as the distribution of power based on the structure of an organization. In a bureaucratic organization, authority will reside in an individual or a few individuals who are able to solely control an organization (i.e., board of trustees). This authority is granted based on incumbency rather than discretionary election. In alternative to the bureaucratic model, a collective organizations authority will reside with the collective, and control is shared by all members of the organization. In an ideal collective, each member would have equal levels of power and influence over organizational decisions and goals.

Formalization is defined as the extent to which rules, procedures, and instructions are written. In a bureaucracy, the rules will be fixed and universally known by all employees. Often these rules will be recorded in materials such as employee handbooks or other distributable materials which are made accessible to all employees. In collective organizations, there are minimal stipulated rules. While there may be some social norms that are followed by members of the organization, no procedures are formalized so individuals are often able to make their own decisions.

Standardization is defined as the legitimacy of procedures and rules in an organization. In a bureaucratic organization, all employees are expected to follow and agree with the rules and regulations. These rules are final and far-reaching. Additionally, the legitimacy of these rules is maintained by direct supervision so that if anyone breaks the rules they will be adequately sanctioned. In collectivist organizations, this control and legitimacy is based on personal or moral appeals. Social norms rather than formalized rules control staff member and employee behavior. These social norms are legitimized by

the tendency that most people involved with the organization have homogenous perspectives, so there is congruence on ideals and very little norm conflict.

Centralization is defined as the role based relationship forms derived from the locus of authority. Bureaucracy's locus of control is hierarchically based, meaning that relationships tend to be impersonal and role-based. The employees who have positions higher than others thus have power over those in positions beneath them. In general, relationships will only be formed within stages of the hierarchy rather than between stages. In collectivist organizations, there is no centralized control and no hierarchy which divides power. The lack of centralized control is intended to foster a community that emphasizes equality and encourages personal relationships between staff members.

Recruitment is defined by the process of hiring staff and employees in an organization. In bureaucracies, professionals are usually recruited based on their skills and experiences. Credentials are thus important to possess. The stages and processes involved in recruitment are also highly formalized and often include applications, interviews, reviews, and decisions made by those in control of the hiring process. In collectives, staff are generally taken on based on their value congruence to the organization. There tends to be little stratification based on credentials and experience, so potential members are rarely turned away from providing a service. Often times those who are recruited to a collectivist organization have some form of a relationship with those who are already members.

Incentive is defined as the characteristics that convince members and employees to work at an organization. In bureaucracies, incentive is developed and maintained

through the use of remuneration and material provision. Because an employee's goals and values rarely align with the organization and relationships tend to extend only towards accomplishing the function of the job, there is little that holds a person to a bureaucratic organization beyond the material compensation that the organization can provide. Collectives often cannot provide remuneration, so solidarity and value congruence serves to foster motivation. Employees share the same goals and working to accomplish those goals thus creates a sense of pride. Additionally, the relationships between staff encourage members to continue their interactions with the organization. If material incentives are available within a collectivist organization, they are expected to be equally distributed, and their importance come secondary to the solidarity and value motivators.

Configuration is defined as the shape of the role structure and span of control in an organization. Bureaucracies possess a hierarchical structure with an inequity of power and prestige. At the top of the hierarchy is a position with high power and control over the organization and the other staff members. The job is highly specialized and requires expertise and prestige. As the position in the hierarchy decreases, the status of the members and their respective power and influence decreases as well. Collectivist organizations generally possess structures opposite of this, with flat power and prestige and egalitarian values. Ideally, all members of a collectivist organization have equal amounts of power and play a role in determining the actions and goals of the organization.

Specialization is defined as the division of labor and duties among employees. In bureaucratic organizations, employees are expected to perform one job without the ability to take on multiple tasks. The lower position they hold in a bureaucracy, the easier their job can be performed by other members either inside or outside of the organization. In collectives, staff share work expectation and requirements and there is a demystification of processes and procedures. All staff can and often do spread their efforts across multiple factions of the organization, and very rarely to staff play an individual or specific role.

Lastly, goal adherence is defined as the extent to which an organization will adhere to missions and values. In bureaucratic organizations, organizations will not adhere to social goals or values if they risk organizational deterioration, and they are more willing to change the organizational goals to maintain longevity. In collective organizations, the social mission is always adhered to and upheld as the foundation of the organization, even if there is risk for deterioration or service limitation. While ideally the organization will be able to maintain services without risking deterioration, the chaotic environment where nonprofits exist may make adherence to the social mission difficult.

RESULTS

Organizational Structure

The first research question in this thesis asked whether or not the majority of feminist, nonprofit service organizations were hybrid in nature. Each nonprofit service organization examined in this thesis, though appearing to be either bureaucratic or collectivist at first glance, is actually quantitatively, a hybrid organization. Thus, the

answer to the first research question is that organizations are more likely to be hybrid rather than purely collectivist or bureaucratic.

Table 3: Organizational Characteristics (N=5)

Organization	Number of Participants	Organizational Structure Rating- Dimensions*	Organizational Structure Rating- Likert Measures**
Organization A	7	17.5	71.8
Organization B	2	18	80.5
Organization C	4	17.5	75.75
Organization D	3	19.5	68.5
Organization E	1	20.5	82

*Range of 9-27 with 9 being a perfect bureaucracy and 27 being a perfect collective

**Range of 21-105 with 21 being a perfect bureaucracy and 105 being a perfect collective

Organizational structure was measured in two ways, as discussed in the methods section of this thesis. First, a grid-scale was created with various structural frameworks and their associated characteristics (see Appendix D). A column was created for bureaucratic characteristics (scored as 1's), collectivist characteristics (scored as 3's), and hybrid characteristics (scored as 2's). Participants filling out the survey were asked to choose which characteristic fit best in regards to their own organization, with some choosing a combination of characteristics if needed. The chosen characteristics for each participant were added together and then each organizations participant's scores were averaged. Overwhelmingly, organizations displayed hybridized structures consisting of both bureaucratic and collectivist characteristics (see Table 2).

The second way organizational structure was measured used Likert-type questions created based on scales measuring the same structural frameworks from the first grid (see Appendix D). This method of measurement was primarily used to a) make sure the first

grid reliably measured organizational structure and b) provide more insight into how specific characteristics of the structural frameworks differed across participants. Again, the scores were added together for each participant, and then averaged to create a score for the organization, and, once again, the resulting scores showed that the organizations were structured with hybrid characteristics.

It did not appear that organization's longevity or number of staff influenced the organizations structures. Organizations had been providing services for 20-40 years, had anywhere from 5 to 60 staff, and were both independent and part of a larger agency. Despite these differences, structural ratings only differed by 3 points at the most. These results may lend support to DiMaggio & Powell's (1983) theory of organizational isomorphism which suggests that organizations may structure themselves in reaction to coercive pressures, mimetic processes, and normative processes. In essence, organizations structure themselves to reflect similar organizations in their field that are perceived to be more legitimate or successful in correspondence to external stakeholders pressures as well as normative cultural expectations (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, pp. 150—152).

Based on the fact that the basic characteristics of the nonprofits participating in this study such as size and date of establishment differed so widely, but the structural rating did not, it would appear that nonprofit service organizations are structurally similar, potentially due to organizational isomorphism. Additionally, this analysis posits that nonprofit service organizations are much more likely to be structurally hybrid in nature, rather than representing traditional dichotomous organizational structures.

Organization Structural Characteristics

The second research question approached in this paper was: how do bureaucratic and collectivist combine to form hybrid structures in these nonprofit service organizations? The organizations were asked about nine structural frameworks, some internal to the staff such as relations, incentive, and goal adherence, and some external such as rules and regulations, recruitment, and authority structures. Within most of the organizations, participants noted that their organizations external frameworks were bureaucratic while their internal frameworks were collective.

Table 4: Organizational Structure- Dimensions (N=16)

	Frequency Bureaucratic	Frequency Hybrid	Frequency Collective
Authority	11	5	0
Formalization	2	14	0
Standardization	11	5	0
Centralization	0	13	3
Recruitment	6	10	0
Incentive	0	6	10
Configuration	1	15	0
Specialization	2	14	0
Goal Adherence	0	4	12

The main structural frameworks that were considered to be bureaucratic were authority, standardization, and recruitment. Essentially, every organization had some form of hierarchical structure that included a Board of Trustees, CEO or President, directors, managers, direct staff, and administrators. This hierarchical structure meant that the social control of the organization was also formatted in a way that emphasized direct supervision of staff by those in positions of management above them. As explained by Theresa, “We really stress chain of command...If I have an issue with [direct staff], I’m

going to talk to [manager] because [manager] is [direct staff's] supervisor and we're big on respecting that.”

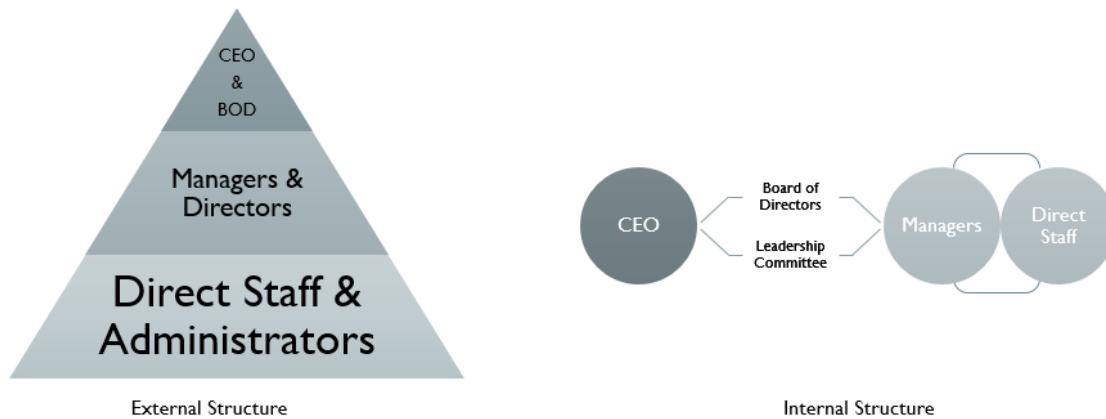
Also, potentially due to the movement for professionalism within nonprofit service organizations, the majority of participants rated recruitment as bureaucratic, meaning it was based on professionalism and credentials. While shared values were consistently noted as being important to organizational success, applicants were unlikely to be hired unless they represented organizational values *and* professional credentials. And indeed, when examining the characteristics of the participants, all held at least a Bachelor's degree and many participants had completed or were currently undertaking graduate level work.

In opposition to the bureaucratic external structures, many of the internal frameworks of the organizations included in the study were still collectivist in nature. The primary frameworks consistently rated as collective were centralization, incentive, and goal adherence. Collective social relations suggest that even with stratification of roles and power within the hierarchical structure of organizations, personal relations are encouraged, and the organizations support holistic communities. It was mentioned several times throughout interviews that if managers did not form respectful connections with direct staff, then tensions between direct staff and management would make it more difficult to provide quality services and reach organizational goals.

Similarly, despite all participants being provided with a salary for their work, the primary motivations for working in nonprofit service organizations was a dedication and passion for the work itself. Additionally, goal congruence is still highly valued by the

organization and staff. Overwhelmingly, managerial staff noted that they worked hard to only hire staff that they felt agreed with the goals and values of the organization and that they believed staff who did not have value congruence were less likely to have longevity in the organization. Jane explains why value congruence is so important for service organizations, “Not only are these characteristics organizational values, they’re values that we hold true to ourselves and in our personal lives... because we can’t lead people to places where we’ve never been.”

Figure 1. Organizational Structure Depiction



When examining the Likert scale questions looking at specific characteristics of the frameworks, there are additional differences in perceptions of staff who work at a managerial or directorial level versus direct service staff and administrators (see Table 5). Specifically, managers were more likely to report that their organization was under pressure from outside stakeholders, that decisions had to be referred up the chain of command before action could be taken, and to believe that they participate in joint decision making (primarily because many managers and directors were on leadership teams and committees). Alternatively, direct service staff had less perspective regarding

external stakeholders, were less likely to believe that tasks had to be referred to supervisors, and were less likely to perceive joint decision making as they didn't participate in decision-making.

Table 5: Organizational structure- Differences between managers and direct staff

	Managers Agree	Direct Staff Agree	Managers Disagree	Direct Staff Disagree
<i>We are often under pressure from outside sources.</i>	5	2	0	4
<i>People outside of our organization decide on what work we do.</i>	3	1	2	5
<i>I frequently participate in decisions on the adoption of new policies.</i>	7	1	0	4
<i>I frequently participate in decisions on the adoption of new programs.</i>	6	1	0	5
<i>There can be little action taken here until a supervisor approves a decision.</i>	4	0	4	6
<i>Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for answers.</i>	3	0	2	6

However, this disconnect did not seem to concern managerial or direct level staff, potentially due to the fact that collective social relations displaced issues that may come

from stratification as long as transparent communication was utilized. As noted by Elizabeth, “Because every decision is made at a higher level, typically our goal is to have... we truly need complete and clear transparency.” This method of communication is especially important for in organizations when they experience administrative changes, as direct level staff may not have many opportunities to provide feedback or take part in committees until the organization is more stable. When management at these organizations maintain transparent communication surrounding what decisions are being made and how it may affect staff at all levels of the organization, there tends to be more understanding about the temporary lack of ability to provide input and/or feedback, thus decreasing tensions that are associated with structural change.

Alternatively, organizations can utilize bottom-up decision making methods in order to include direct level staff in decision making despite direct staff not being present for the actual debates. Jane describes the processes well. “Even before a decision is taken before the leadership team, I like to get feedback from staff at different levels, and then even once a decision has been made, I still allow staff the opportunity to give me their concerns, because everyone has blind-spots, even the managers.”

If disconnect between staff and management has been an issue in an organization in the past, the staff who have recently been promoted to managerial positions attempt to utilize knowledge from their own experiences as direct service providers to create more effective communication methods between management and direct service staff. As Jane believes, “My expectation of the direct service staff is for them to provide quality

services to the clients, and I feel they should have the same expectations for us as supervisors.”

Based on the surveys distributed to participants as well as some qualitative feedback provided by the interviews, it would seem that organizations do their best to manage the bureaucratic structures that both provide them the best opportunities to achieve funding, maintain professionalism, and organizational stability while also maintaining the collectivist structures that allow their organizations to have dedicated staff and provide individualized services to victims seeking support and assistance. This allows the organizations as a whole to achieve viability and longevity while still maintaining the relationship and value characteristics that made traditional feminist, nonprofit service organizations unique.

Organizational Effectiveness

As discussed earlier in this thesis, there are three concepts consistently used in the literature when measuring effectiveness: financial stability, goal obtainment, and social support. Thus, when creating a content analysis form for structuring the analysis of the interviews conducted, each of these concepts were included as themes (see Appendix F). Similarly, evidence of resource mobilization theory was collected into a fourth theme. Thus, a deductive method of examination was used to consider whether or not these pre-established themes were useful in measuring organizational effectiveness in nonprofit service organizations.

In addition to these four pre-established themes, an inductive approach to content analysis was utilized to address other themes consistently represented throughout the

interviews. The themes that emerged may not have traditionally been used to measure effectiveness, but had impacts in each of the nonprofit service organizations included in this thesis. The content analysis of the seventeen interviews conducted for this thesis resulted in eight themes: financial stability, goal obtainment, social support, resource mobilization, value congruence, the state of leadership, social climate, and the evolution of the DV/SV field.

Financial stability. Budgeting is often a consistent concern in nonprofit organizations, and that concern was represented within the nonprofit organizations included in this thesis. Recently, financial stability for nonprofits has become increasingly reliant on the successful achievement of grants and other state or federal funds. Grant manager Shayla explained that this reality is in direct opposition to the traditional method of achieving financial stability in nonprofits, which stated that individual donors should represent the largest chunk of a nonprofits funds. Because of this shift towards reliance on grant money, there is increased concern among organizational staff about funding.

As various participants noted, grant funding fluctuates and can often depend on themes that grant agencies consider important in a given cycle, making it difficult to know whether or not your organization will be competitive cycle-to-cycle. Changes in funding related to housing have especially caused problems for organizations that provide transitional housing. Within the past year, some agencies have shifted their focus to homelessness, therefore DV/SV organizations may not be able to maintain their own transitional homes, or have to prove that their clients are at high enough risk of

homelessness in order to achieve transitional beds. Additionally, organizations whose specialization is in transitional housing have faced reductions in staff due to the funds lost from the fluctuation of focus among external stakeholder.

Achieving grant funding can be even more complicated to manage as different grants have stipulations or requirements that may or may not match up with values and programs that organizations offer. Organizations that provide community based services unrelated to shelter stays are especially cognizant of these difficulties. Traditionally, victims who are not placed in shelters did not have access to the other services that organizations provided such as counseling or legal assistance. Organizations who have focused on filling in this gap and providing services to any victim that needs them, regardless of whether or not they are associated with shelters. However, grants often limit the amount of days that organizations can provide services or the type of services an organization can provide. Thus, these organizations have been unable to apply for many of the grants that shelters traditionally use. In order to maintain financial stability and organizational effectiveness, these organizations have to a) receive support from an overarching agency, and b) look for innovative scholarships and financial opportunities. While some organizations have lots of success working around financial barrier, other organizations may struggle.

In order to subvert these difficulties in achieving grant funding, managing grant requirements and stipulations, and the amount of time it takes to write grants, many organizations have hired grant managers or have financial teams built into their organizational structure. This has allowed managers and directors who traditionally had

to manage grant issues the freedom to focus on direct service staff and the organizations programs themselves. This structure seems to be widely successful for the majority of organizations included in the study, however, there are potential issues.

Goal obtainment. Goal obtainment, while easier to measure within for-profit organizations, can be very difficult to utilize as a measure of organizational effectiveness in nonprofit organizations. This is due, primarily, to the fact that organizational missions and goals are often macro in scale. In three of the five organizations included in the study, for example, the mission was described by multiple staff as being, ‘to end domestic and/or sexual violence’. While this is undoubtable an incredible goal, it is unrealistic to expect that a single organization will be able to eliminate all instances of sexual and domestic violence, thus measuring goal obtainment becomes increasingly tricky. Some organizations attempt to mediate this difficulty by limiting the scope of their goal and focusing on the elimination of domestic and sexual violence in their specific city or county, but this is still a goal that is so macro-scaled that measuring it is difficult.

Additionally, the nonprofit organizations included in the study very often had multiple goals, or staff who reported conflicting organizational goals. This suggests that to measure goal obtainment in nonprofit service organizations, there needs to a) be methods for ranking or measuring multiple organizational goals or b) that organizations have difficulty expressing their goals and mission to staff. In each instance where a staff reported that the goal of their organization was something different than eliminating domestic and/or sexual violence, they reported that the goal was to provide quality services to clients and help them obtain safe independence.

This goal of providing quality services was more often expressed by direct service staff than management. Logically, this makes sense considering that direct service staff are the ones most consistently in contact with clients and that their jobs are to provide services to clients. Unlike the goal of eliminating domestic and sexual violence, the quality of services and the self-sufficiency level of clients is easier to measure. Every organization provides some sort of client feedback survey prior to the client leaving the organization or completing a specific service. These surveys are primarily used to provide progress reports to stakeholders such as the organization's Executives/Board of Directors, and similar reports are often required by grant funders in order to make sure that grant money is being utilized efficiently. However, multiple organizations have started utilizing these surveys for their own use.

Not only do feedback surveys provide staff with information that can be used to adjust services or show service effectiveness, they also can be used to make sure that services are aligned with the organizations goals and focuses. Some organizations have faced issues in the past with taking on too many services, but were able to use their surveys and client feedback to re-evaluate their programs and adjust or eliminate those that were not mission aligned. While this may reduce the number of services provided, it vastly increased the quality of the services that were kept.

Social support. Social support includes not only the organizations standing within the community, but also their ability to coordinate successfully with other service organizations and institutions that work with victims of domestic violence and sexual assault. Overwhelmingly, organizations consider coordination to be important.

Considering that all of the nonprofit service organizations in the area are working towards the same goal of helping the victim, collaboration and communication can only be positive. As noted by Emily and Michaela, coordination allows for a concentration of care, so victims do not have to navigate multiple organizations, and it additionally increase organizations ability to obtain resources or referrals from partnered organizations.

Like with financial stability, three of the five nonprofits in this thesis had official outreach advocates or philanthropic teams in their organization. The roles of these staff were to market or advertise services to the community and work to increase community engagement. Various mechanisms used to achieve advertisement or engagement include: social media presence, physical advertisements such as brochures or fliers, tabling events or awareness events, and community networking. Once again, by having departments or staff who are able to focus their attention on advertisement, marketing, and engagement, staff and managers involved in service provision are able to concentrate on clients and services which increases organization effectiveness.

The only difficult aspect of using social support as a measure of organizational effectiveness for nonprofit service organizations is the difficulty of measuring social support. None of the organizations in the study had a concrete way of interpreting their community standing. While they generally perceived that the community respected their organizations, that comparisons to other organizations increased their legitimacy, or that increases in professionalism increased community awareness of their organizations, there was no way to support these claims beyond considerations of client referrals or donation

offers. Thus, to use social support as a method of measuring organizational effectiveness, researchers either need to do their own research in the community, or organizations themselves have to come up with ways of recording social support.

Resource mobilization. There was various support found throughout these interviews for resource mobilization theory. While only one organization has faced the negative effects of competition for resources, each organization discussed the challenge of obtaining resources and there were particular methods used to make their organizations competitive for grant funding in particular.

Because grants are the primary mechanism for organizational survival, finding loopholes or innovative methods for applying grants is incredibly important. While having grant managers is one of the most effective ways organizations have been able to manage financial stability and obtain grants, there are other factors that nonprofits use to make their organizations more competitive. The most popular method that became prevalent throughout the interviews was by means of specialization. Each organization included in this interview had an element of their program or their structure that made them unique, and thus more competitive for certain grants. This may mean becoming trauma-informed, training experts, transitional housing focused, or being mobile. Additionally, organizations that are part of larger agencies can depend on their agency focus to become unique.

Being competitive for funding due to specialization means that after an organization achieves more funds, they can start to grow, which, if managed correctly, can increase the quality of services. This increase in quality will be reflected on surveys

and reports that are handed back to stakeholders and grant funders, thus making organizations even more competitive. The biggest pitfall that must be avoided during this process is becoming too competitive with other organizations. The competitiveness and focus on “being the best of the best” may alienate organizations from other nonprofit service providers. Successfully managing resources and relationships with other organizations is thus important to consider, as it can take substantial time to rebuild lost connections.

There is a fine line between being competitive enough to achieve funding from resources concentrated with grant providers or other agencies and being competitive to the point that an organization alienates community partners. Organizational effectiveness is dependent on organizational survival, and thus organization staff and managers need to find unique ways to be competitive when searing and applying for funding. Specializing is one unique method used consistently across organizations, and allows organizations to achieve funding without becoming competitive to the point that it is detrimental for organization survival.

Value congruence. Staff turnover is incredibly high in nonprofit service organizations. The job is high-impact and emotional, and staff often have to work long hours. When asked about what motivated them to continue working at their organization, or in the DV/SV field in general, the most cited reasoning participants offered was passion for the job and respect for the organization. Managers additionally noted that staff whose values and characteristics matched best with organizational values were the most likely to feel connected to both the organization as a whole, as well as other staff in

the organization. Have close relationships with other staff increased longevity, because staff were willing to form bonds with co-workers and communicate as well as receive support when they were stressed.

As mentioned earlier in the results section, part of the hybrid structure created by nonprofit service organizations is a continued dedication to the job as a whole rather than other forms of material incentive. And while salaries are important so that staff are able to support themselves while doing their work, staff are continually motivated to stay in their jobs at nonprofits because they value the same things as the organization and are passionate about the organizational mission.

When asked about what characteristics and values are looked for when hiring staff, managers provided incredibly similar lists that included things like: accountability, communication, emphasis on empowerment, empathy, and acknowledgment of one's own biases. Staff that had these values and characteristics were not only more likely to stay with the organization but to provide better quality services. Both quality services and longevity in an organization are related to organizational effectiveness. An organization having high turnover rates means that manager's focus is constantly on hiring, meaning that their attention is turned away from the services and organization itself. Additionally, high staff turnover means that direct service staff never reach a level of expertise and experience needed to be the most effective in service delivery. Quality services on their own are necessary for financial stability and client referrals, which increase organizational stability and effectiveness.

The state of leadership. Leadership within nonprofit service organizations emerged as one of the most important characteristics for organization effectiveness. Toxic leadership led to organizational failure, whereas positive leadership led to organizational success. As stated by Jane, “Organizational growth in general is going to be inhibited by bad leadership.” And while organizational growth and development is also influenced by other factors such as economic stability, having negative leadership is a compounding factor that may influence organizational success or failure. In organizations who have faced these issues, participants identified toxic leadership as well as other factors such as competition, scarce resources, and goal ambiguity as characteristics that influenced organizational success or failure.

If upper management and leadership is seen as being disconnected from the realities of direct level service work, there may be tensions that grow between these two groups, especially due to the stratification of power and other incongruences. A lack of communication can then inspire high rates of staff turnover and can cause relationships with other community institutions to suffer. Leadership that does not make efforts to encourage direct staff feedback or collaborative relationships can also lead to organizational disconnect regarding organizational goals. As described by Michaela, “If [leadership is in a place] where they take on too much at one time...it [may cause] core mission(s) to fall to the wayside.” Any negative effects associated with toxic leadership can take substantial time and effort to recover.

When hiring new staff after facing issues of leadership, management generally tries to be particular in hiring people who share in their organizational values and were

comfortable other program requirements and policies. Additionally, managers work to make sure their programs are aligned with organizational goals so they do not have to face requirements or financial strains associated with “taking on too much at one time”. And even if organizations may not be able to directly involve direct level staff in decision making processes, they focus on making sure that their communication is open and honest, which increases positive relationships.

Success in managing positive leadership or recovering from negative leaderships may result in organizations achieving increased funding and thus the ability to hire more staff, and the increased number of staff has increased the quality of work. The directors interviewed for this thesis believe that direct level staff are the most important members of the organization, and promote open communication, self-care and support, and additionally, managerial staff often take small caseloads as they feel it is important for staff to see them doing the same work as the advocates. These efforts to maintain traditionally collective frameworks regarding staff relationships and communication allow organizational leaders to avoid issues surrounding negative leadership strategies associated with more bureaucratized forms of social stratification.

When asking about how positive leadership can be maintained and developed, both direct level staff and managers identified open communication and respect as being key to maintaining positive inter-organizational relationships. Having open-door policies and a willingness for staff to take part in professional development increase opportunities for internal growth in organizations, and keep staff dedicated to performing their jobs as best as possible. Additionally, having manageable numbers of staff allow for highly

collective style decision making and incredibly intimate professional relationships where support structures and self-care cultivate respectful relationships.

Social climate. Although not the focus of this project, every participant discussed social climate as an influencing factor for organizational success. Participants discussed social climate in two ways: the effect it has on the organization as a whole and the effect it has on individual clients.

In terms of the organization as a whole, participants discussed how social and political issues “trickle down and can blur organizational goals” (Jane). Social and political issues not only influence funding focuses, but also frame how the organization develops their programs and presents their services. Two things DV/SV organizations are currently facing is the shift within governmental defunding housing agencies and the current presidential administration.

Shifts by housing agencies away from transitional housing and to sustainable housing to decrease homelessness have severely depleted DV/SV service resources. Shelters on their own have lost transitional housing beds, and case managers or advocates are having to spend more time and effort finding spaces for their clients to move to after their time limit in shelter has expended. While there have been projects attempting to utilize a certain number of Section 8 vouchers for shelters to provide DV/SV victims, organizations have still faced a lot of difficulty finding landlords willing to accept the vouchers themselves, if only because of the amount of bureaucracy required to process Section 8 housing requests.

Participants have also noted that clients are also individually affected by social climate as well, which can be a challenge for advocates and case workers. As multiple staff noted, there is still a lot of judgement that exists about what a victim should do and how they should react to domestic violence or sexual assault situations. Often times these judgements and stereotypes affect how well clients will respond to services and treatment, so case managers, advocates, and therapist often have to work hard to reassure clients that they are not to blame for their assault, and that their reaction to said assault is valid. Similarly, politics also influence clients. “Clients pay attention to the news, and they definitely sometimes have worries about their future and the way they’re going to be able to recover” (Danielle). Similar to organizational staff, clients are concerned about the way that social opinions can be influenced by the statements and actions of people in power, and staff noticed an increase in fear among clients after Trump won the Electoral College.

However, nonprofit staff are not completely hopeless. They celebrate the small successes, and keep in mind the way that perceptions surrounding domestic violence and sexual assault have evolved and changed in society. Haley in particular has been involved in advocacy and service provision for domestic violence and sexual assault victims since the 1970’s, and as she reminds:

“Listening to all of the things that are going on now with all of the sexual harassment stuff that’s coming to light... in the 1970’s there was no term for sexual harassment, it didn’t exist you know? So, I think a lot more has to happen...you can feel like you’re taking two steps forward and one step back...but

the way I survive is I have to keep looking forward, and acknowledging, and being mindful of the progress.”

Evolution of the advocacy community. Participants had various opinions about the evolution of different policies that may be supported or required by state actors as a result of different academic evolutions regarding domestic violence and sexual assault victimization, recovery, and advocacy. Participants noted that there can be disconnects between standards and guidelines set by the state for nonprofit service organizations, if those setting guidelines have not done direct service work themselves. Different organizations have different opinions about what requirements and standards have been positive or negative, but there was agreement that sometimes policies developed at the state level may be very different from the existing structures of organizations, and thus they can be difficult to implement. As Melissa described, “[Implementing new requirements] is almost like a culture change.”

One positive aspect of state level agencies, is the increased ability for advocacy. The majority of organizations that currently provide domestic violence and sexual assault services across the United States are not considered independent organizations, meaning that they are not part of collaborations or larger agencies. And as some participants observed, because the vast majority of U.S. service organizations are usually not independent, it can be a lot harder to participate in political movements.

While organizations are able to take part in community events like, “Take Back the Night”, they rarely partake in state or national level advocacy themselves, often due to lack of resources or time availability. Therefore, state agencies can function as

advocates on behalf of all nonprofit service organizations in their state. Similar to how hierarchical structures allow nonprofit service organizations to effectively manage finances and legitimacy, being associated with state-level agencies allows local DV/SV service organizations to support political advocacy movements and legislation while still being able to focus on services at a community level.

DISCUSSION

Each of the themes addressed here have some impact on the effectiveness of nonprofit service organizations involved in the field of domestic violence and sexual assault. As supported by the interviews with participants who participated in this thesis, traditional measures of effectiveness including financial stability, goal obtainment, social support, and resource mobilization are incredibly important for organizational commitment to purpose and viability. However, there were variables that seemed to particularly impact these nonprofit service organizations as a result of their hybrid forms that may not affect other organizations: value congruence, the state of leadership, social climate, and the evolution of the DV/SV field.

Considering the way that nonprofit service organizations create hybrid structures, value congruence and leadership are especially important. The bureaucratic external structures create a hierarchy between staff and reinforce the importance of credentials and professionalism. And while these structures are important for achieving funding and legitimacy, if staff don't have value congruence with the organization then staff turnover will increase, which will decrease the quality of services. If leadership and management to not take steps to develop respectful and supportive relationships with direct level staff, then organizational functioning and focus may be at risk. In organizations that had

struggled with organizational effectiveness in the past, participants from both identified toxic leadership as the problem, so maintaining positive leadership is imperative for organization success and effectiveness.

The relevance of the social climate and evolution themes also support the institutional school in organizational theory. Institutional theorists take social forms and environments into account when considering structural formation and transformation, and as demonstrated by the content analysis, social/political environments and the evolution and activism of the DV/SV field as a whole do have an impact on organizational structures and effectiveness. Staff and clients are both affected by social variables, and they change the way that organizations make decisions and structure their services.

Future Research

DV/SA nonprofit service organizations and the criminal justice system are very often tied together by their relationships with victims (Holtfreter & Boyd, 2006). It is thus important to consider what characteristics influence the status of the relationships between these two institutions. Past scholars have suggested that both internal and external organizational factors may play a role in developing positive or negative relationships between criminal justice officials and nonprofit advocacy staff (Martin & Powell, 1995). Historically, the relationships between criminal justice officials and nonprofit advocates has been largely negative (Gaines & Wells, 2017; Long, 2017; Payne & Thompson, 2008; Rich & Seffrin, 2013).

Some grievances often reported by researchers examining this relationship include advocates' perceptions that police officers and/or prosecutors are unnecessarily

cold or harsh with victims, use victim blaming language, and that criminal justice actors lack understanding about the realities of domestic violence and sexual assault as well as the policies necessary to successfully deal with DV and SA reports (Gaines & Wells, 2017; Long, 2017; Payne & Thompson, 2008; Rich & Seffrin, 2013). Similarly, criminal justice officials often do not understand the role and services provided by advocates, and thus may see them as interfering in their job which can cause misunderstandings regarding values and protocols (Gaines & Wells, 2017; Long, 2017; Payne & Thompson, 2008; Rich & Seffrin, 2013).

However, despite these historical issues reducing successful collaborations between criminal justice actors and advocates, there have been instances where positive relationships have been established. Gaines & Wells (2017) noted that prosecutors working sexual assault or domestic violence cases believed that advocates were useful to collaborate with as advocates were able to emotionally support the victim and talk them through the court process which allowed the prosecutors to focus on making a successful case. Long (2017) found that when advocates and police officers got along, they were more successful in challenging police officers views surrounding domestic violence and sexual assault, and helped officers empathize with the victims. Similarly, Campbell (2006) noted that when advocates were present in emergency rooms with DV and SA victims, advocates were able to keep the victim calm and collected, reduce secondary victimization, and increase the likelihood that a police report would be taken.

Past research has suggested that the successful coordination between advocates and criminal justice officials is mutually beneficial for both institutions, and that when

relationships are negative, the ability to provide victims with the best care and support is at risk. Thus, it is important to understand what characteristics and variables affect these relationships. If DV/SA service organizations are not functioning most effectively, then they are at risk for either deteriorating their relationships with the criminal justice systems or deteriorating the effectiveness of their service provision. As discussed earlier, the three major aspects of organizational effectiveness are goal attainment, financial stability, and social support. All three of these facets of organizational effectiveness may in some way influence the status of relationships between criminal justice institutions and nonprofit service organizations, potentially due to the differences in organizational structure which influences organizational goals, values, and abilities.

For example, Martin and Powell (1995) noted that staff in criminal justice organizations may treat victims more unresponsively due to their organizational structures orienting their concerns to public approval, avoidance of loss, and expediency. In other words, the structure of criminal justice institutions relying heavily on public approval and outside stakeholders creates an organizational culture focused on rules, routines, and processes that are very bureaucratically based (Martin & Powell, 1995, p. 858; see also Cole, 2016). Alternatively, as suggested by this study, nonprofit DV/SA service organizations are often hybrid organizations with their goals and values still traditionally aligned with collectivist organizational frameworks. Thus, their organizational functioning and staff values may contrast with criminal justice institutions, creating conflict.

Additionally, both criminal justice organizations and nonprofit service organizations are limited financially, with outside stakeholders providing the major amount of funds, which influences organizational functioning and ability to make the time and effort to interact with victims. The focus on expediency in the criminal justice system in addition to the lack of funding for training and appropriate numbers of staff may very well cause criminal justice actors to lack the skills and time needed to successfully interact with both victims and advocates. Advocates from nonprofit organizations, in contrast, may be largely overwhelmed by caseloads, thus making it more difficult for them to take the time to train criminal justice actors or have permanent coordinators working with police, prosecutors, and other staff.

The nonprofit service organizations participating in this project have had mixed experiences with the criminal justice system. Each is involved with the criminal justice system to some extent, although some organizations are more connected with the courts or the police than the entire institution as a whole. Similar to past research regarding perceptions of criminal justice actors and institutions by previous research, the staff at these nonprofit service organizations tend to have negative perceptions of law enforcement, or believe that law enforcement have negative views of them. As Allison stated, “They’ve [police officers] been rude and degrading, and don’t take us seriously as staff. And they have directly told victims that it was their fault they were raped... it’s like we’re in a whole ‘nother world.”

Additionally, shelters have had issues with detectives trying to force their way onto properties without warrants. Shelter staff’s relationships with law enforcement can

especially complicated, as police may need to be called to help with crisis situations (clients with homicidal or suicidal episodes or mental health breakdowns), but are generally not allowed onto the property at any other times. However, because police are called onto the scene for crisis situations, they may get the impression they are allowed on the property for any situation, regardless of whether or not they have the necessary documentation. Danielle, who has dealt with this issue multiple different times complained, “It just seems like they’re trying to push their authoritative presence around and...demand information.”

A unique characteristic of Organization D is their long-term and exceedingly positive relationship with their local police department. The law enforcement department includes two officers who are specifically trained to handle family violence cases, and the shelter advocates have built collaborative and respectful relationships with these two officers. The officers and staff members have gone to trainings together and the officers have previously visited the shelter and given clients information about the criminal justice process during support groups. By forming and maintaining these close relationships, both the police officers, advocates, and victims have benefited. Cases are often processed smoothly, and even if a case cannot be brought to trial, the officers do what they can to protect the victim.

Despite the majority of the organizations participating in this thesis reporting primarily negative experiences with law enforcement, staff still express an understanding of what may strain their relationships with the criminal justice system and expressed ways that they hoped to develop better relationships with law enforcement or the courts

system in the future. As Jane expressed, “I get it from their perspective. They have all of their own regulations, things they need to abide by, and I get that they have burnout...” A few other directors also expressed that because both advocates and officers are often overwhelmed and overworked, tempers can get short. There was a large amount of support within management at the nonprofits participating to initiate more transparent and honest communication between their organizations and law enforcement; Organization A is even looking to start a SART team.

The evidence presented here regarding nonprofit service organizational structures, effectiveness, and relationships with the criminal justice system is very preliminary. The primary focus of this thesis was not on relationships between nonprofit service organizations and the criminal justice system. However, the topic was brought up often in interviews, especially when discussing community collaborations and successes or struggles of maintaining social support. And while it would make sense that organizational structures and effectiveness may influence the stability of these relationships, the processes are all hypothetical at this point in time. However, the more researchers understand the history, reality, and effect of organizational structures on organizational effectiveness within nonprofit service organizations, policy and suggestions can be provided to better support the nonprofit organizations and their relationships with other community institutions, including the criminal justice system.

As discussed earlier in the thesis, research has suggested that criminal justice systems may be more willing to form collaborative relationships with bureaucratically

structured nonprofits (Martin et al., 1993; Minkoff & Powell, 2006; O'Sullivan & Carlton, 2001). However, one of the conclusions of this thesis was that while nonprofit service organizations are likely to be externally bureaucratic, their internal structures are still primarily collective in nature. Thus, future research should pay attention as to whether or not this is one of the issues causing dissonance between law enforcement and organizational staff.

Time should also be spent examining positive relationships and collaborations in order to determine what methods were used with those law enforcement departments and nonprofit organizations. If the practices used to establish and maintain these positive relationships are easily implemented, it would be beneficial for this information to be provided to other nonprofit organizations. Additionally, while previous research has suggested that successful collaborations between nonprofit organizations and the criminal justice system are beneficial for both institutions as well as for victims (Campbell, 2006; Gaines & Wells, 2017; Long, 2017), more studies should continue to study the effect that positive collaborations have on victim's success of recovery and criminal justice success.

It is apparent that when nonprofit service organizations are most effective (i.e., financially stable, goal focused, socially supported, with passionate staff and positive leadership), the better they will be able to coordinate with criminal justice institutions. Additionally, these positive relationships would both increase support for victims, and potentially even increase victim's success within the criminal justice system. Thus, while this current project only focuses on the influences of organizational structure on organizational effectiveness in nonprofit SA/DV organizations, it opens the door for

future research regarding positive and successful coordination between nonprofit service organizations and the criminal justice system.

CONCLUSIONS

As intended, this thesis has addressed three research questions and attempted to further expand researchers understanding of the nonprofit organizations serving victims of domestic violence and sexual assault. First, this thesis asked whether or not the majority of feminist, nonprofit service organizations were hybrid in nature. The hypothesis that they were likely to be hybrid in nature was abundantly confirmed, with all five of the organizations participating in this thesis representing hybrid structural characteristics. Second, this thesis asked how bureaucratic and collectivist characteristics have been combined to form hybrid organizations. After reviewing the surveys used to measure organizational structure, it appears that hybrid, nonprofit service organizations use bureaucratic characteristics to create their external structures, but internally, maintain collectivist characteristics.

Lastly, this thesis aimed to investigate what organizational effectiveness looked like in hybrid nonprofits. The content analysis of interviews conducted with participants from all five organizations participating in this project suggest that not only are traditional measures of organizational effectiveness predictive of hybrid, nonprofit effectiveness, but that characteristics related to unique hybrid structures and the social environment are influential in determining effectiveness as well. In the future, research should continue to investigate the properties associated with hybrid nonprofit

organizations, as well as how these characteristics influence relationships with criminal justice institutions.

It is important to be mindful of the limitations associated with this thesis project. Time restrictions limit the ability to gather larger amounts of data by performing more interviews or connecting with more nonprofit organizations. Additionally, because nonprofit service organizations tend to be underfunded with large caseloads, it is difficult to both get connected to the organizations in general and take an hour of staff's time away from their work. In the future, the work begun here can be expanded by continuing to perform interviews with more staff at more organizations.

It may also be important in the future to make efforts to interview or survey victims who have used the services provided by nonprofit services. Part of organizational effectiveness is the quality of service provision, but service quality cannot be measured without input from those using services. However, because victims are a vulnerable population, it can be difficult to get approval to interview them as well as access to victims willing to be interviewed in general. But because their perspective is so valuable, efforts should be made in the future to reach this population, even if just through surveys.

Although every effort was made to maintain validity and reliability to the highest degree possible, this thesis faces the same challenges of all qualitative research projects. In order to reduce the effects of these challenges, multiple measures were used for the qualitative portion of this project to reduce internal validity concerns, and multiple case studies rather than an individual case study to increase external validity. To address reliability issues, documents were formed early on to keep the project focused, and

detailed rationale was provided for each decision made throughout the data gathering and analysis process.

Lastly, due to the combined challenge of time restraints and nature of qualitative research, the sample size for this thesis was relatively small, and although there was great diversity in the sample, generalizability must be considered. In general, because this research was conducted in a particular geographic region where state regulations addressing nonprofit service organizations may be different than in other states, the data is not nationally representative. Similarly, while the characteristics of the organizations included in the study were diverse, caution must be made before applying the results from this thesis even to other organizations in Arizona. The fact that there was a high amount of similarities in organizational structure and effectiveness does support the idea that there may be congruence between organizations in the Arizona and elsewhere in Southwestern United States, but generalizability would benefit by further research being conducted with more diverse samples of both organizations and staff.

Performing research regarding sexual assault and domestic violence, as well as the organizations that provide services to victims, is especially important at this current time. Socio-political environments have brought public attention back to the prevalence of gendered interpersonal violence and the negative effects it has on victims. As stated earlier, it is too early to truly see the effects that this cultural shift will have on both state and federal policy, but researchers must be observant and cognizant of the ways that current events will affect nonprofit service organizations as well as the actions and attitudes of victims and survivors.

Increasing public support for victims and open accusations against perpetrators may give past and future victims more empowerment. Additionally, the mass publicity of high profile trials may increase victim's confidence in the criminal justice system. Therefore it is incredibly important that the criminal justice system as a whole considers how they treat domestic violence and sexual assault cases and victims. Improving relationships with nonprofit service organizations may help the criminal justice system implement better policies and practices for interacting with victims and handling cases (Hickman & Simpson, 2003; Murphy & Barkworth). Collaborative relationships can only benefit both nonprofit organizations, the criminal justice system, and victims who have need of both services. Thus, criminologists and researchers in other disciplines should be aware of the many valuable projects that may be especially relevant to examine organizational relationships, processes, and policies.

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APPENDIX A
RECRUITMENT EMAIL TO ORGANIZATIONS

Hello _____,

My name is Megan Verhagen and I am a Criminology and Criminal Justice Master's student at Arizona State University. For the completion of my degree I am working on developing a Master's thesis regarding the structures of organizations that provide services and shelters for victims of interpersonal violence. In particular, I am analyzing how differences in organization management and structural frameworks affect staff perceptions of effective service provision. As a staff member at _____, your participation in this project could be especially valuable. If you are willing, I would love to meet with you and ask some questions regarding your experiences at _____. I will not be asking you about specific cases regarding the people that you serve, rather I am interested in what you do in the organization and how you interact with others around you.

If you agree to participate in this project, I will ask you to complete a short survey regarding the structure and activities of your organization as well as an interview where I will ask you questions about your experience as a staff member at _____. The entire process should take between 45 minutes to an hour and a half, however as a researcher, I will work around your schedule and availability. Your participation in this research project is entirely voluntary, and you will be able to stop participation at any time or skip questions you would prefer not to answer. No personal identifying information is being collected, and all materials collected from this study will be stored in a secure and password protected flash drive.

This study has received preliminary approval by the Arizona State University Institutional Review Board, and is expected to receive full approval once the final sample size has been determined. Your participation in this study will be extremely helpful in continuing to develop the literature addressing and showing empirical support for domestic violence, sexual assault, and other victimization service organizations. While you will not receive any form of reimbursement for your participation in this project, I would be happy to provide you with a copy of the finished paper developed from this project and provide you with the details regarding when this research will be verbally disseminated and defended.

If you have any questions you can contact me at meverhag@asu.edu or at (920)-***-****. I look forward to potentially working with you and your organization in the future.

Sincerely,

Megan Verhagen
Arizona State University
Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice (M.S.)
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(920)-***-****

APPENDIX B
VERBAL CONSENT FORM

Verbal Consent to Participate in ASU Approved Research

Title: Victim's Services: Organizational Structure and Effectiveness

Today I will be conducting an interview and short survey investigating how various organization structural characteristics influence the effectiveness of non-profit victim's services. This interview will last anywhere from a half an hour to an hour (or more) depending on your availability, and the survey should not take more than five minutes to complete.

I will be asking you questions about the services you provide to victims of sexual assault, domestic violence, and/or other crimes, how you perceive the characteristics and goals of your organization, questions about the budget and/or funding acquisition if they apply, and your perceptions of the effectiveness of your organization. If consent is provided, this interview will be recorded to be transcribed at a later date. After transcriptions occur, all audio files will be deleted, and prior to transcription they will be saved to a password protected device.

I will maintain your confidentiality as a participant during research dissemination at all times. Due to the fact that this research focuses on your professional career and/or your organization as a whole, and that the research is not sensitive, there is little risk of your being identified or harmed by this research.

This study has been reviewed and approved by the Arizona State University Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB has determined that this study meets the ethical obligations required by federal law and University policies. If you feel uncomfortable answering any of the questions, please let me know and we will stop the interview.

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Know that by participating in this interview you are agreeing to participate in the research project entitled, **Victim's Services: Organizational Structure and Effectiveness.**

APPENDIX C
INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Pre-Interview Questions:

I am now going to ask you to fill out a few questions regarding your organization. Please respond to the question to your best ability, however, if you do not know the answer you may respond N/A. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask the researcher for clarification.

1. Where is your organization/program based?
 - a. Court-based program
 - b. Law enforcement-based program
 - c. Prosecutor-based program
 - d. Non-profit program
 - e. Other: _____
2. What types of clients do you serve?
 - a. All crime victims
 - b. Domestic assault victims only
 - c. Sexual assault victims only
 - d. Domestic violence and sexual assault victims
 - e. Other: _____
3. How many years has your program been in existence? _____
4. What do you consider the core program(s) of your organization?

5. Have the number of programs provided by your organization increased in the past ten years?

Yes No

6. At which stage do you provide services?
 - a. Only during the crisis period

- b. From the time of the police report until the case goes to the prosecutor or is cleared
- c. From the time of the police report until the disposition of the case in court
- d. From the time the case is filed by the prosecutor until the disposition of the case
- e. From the beginning to the end, (i.e., from the time of the victim's crisis period until recovery)

7. On average, how many people does your organization serve per month?

8. On average, how many people do you, individually, serve per month? -

9. Have you ever had to turn clients away due to a lack of resources?

Yes No

a. If so, how often would you estimate this occurs? _____ -

10. If clients ask for resources you do not have, how do you address this issue?

- a. Provide alternative resources
- b. Give information about other organizations
- c. Tell them you can't help them
- d. Assist in accessing community resources
- e. Other: _____

11. Do you coordinate with other service providers?

Yes No

a. If so, which organizations?

- i. Law enforcement
- ii. DA's office

- iii. Medical services
- iv. Counseling agencies
- v. Religious organizations
- vi. Other victim service providers
- vii. Other: _____

12. How do you advertise or market your services?

- a. Local newspaper
- b. Website
- c. Community events
- d. Churches
- e. Connection with law enforcement
- f. Direct education and advocacy
- g. Other: _____

13. Does your organization measure the success of your programs?

Yes No

- a. If so, how? _____

14. Does your organization conduct your own evaluations of client satisfaction?

Yes No

- a. If not, why?

—

15. Is your organization able to serve:

- a. LGBTQ victims
- b. Immigrant victims
- c. Senior/elderly victims
- d. Hispanic victims
- e. Native American victims
- f. African American victims

- g. Asian victims
- h. Cognitively disabled victims
- i. Physically disabled victims
- j. Male victims
- k. Female victims
- l. Child victims
- m. Diverse religious groups (i.e.: Muslim, Jewish, Mormon, etc.)

16. Do you provide any specific services for these groups?

Yes No

a. If so, what service are these?

INTERVIEW

I am now going to ask you a few questions about your organization, your experiences since you became involved with the organization, and your perceptions about things that occur within and outside of your organization. Please answer as honestly as possible. Some questions may only require a short answer (i.e.: a single word answer), however, other questions may require more in-depth answers, and, the researcher may prompt you to expand on your response. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask the researcher for clarification, and if you prefer not to answer a question you are not required to.

Background/Structure

1. What is your role in the organization? (i.e.: administrator, volunteer, staff member, specialist provider)

Administrator volunteer staff specialist
 manager

Other: _____

2. Are you paid (with material compensation) for your work in the organization?

Yes No

a. Are other staff paid for their work?

Yes No

3. Why do you work for this organization? What is your motivation?

4. How long have you been with the organization?

5. In your own words, what is the purpose or mission of the organization?

a. Has the mission changed since you've joined the organization?

Yes No

i. If yes, do you view this change as positive?

6. Is there someone who leads the organization and makes the majority of decisions such as a president, chair, or board of trustees?

President chair manager executive board

BOT

a. If yes, please describe the role of the leader?

b. If no, please describe how management at your organization is structured?

7. How are decisions and information distributed to members of the organization?

(i.e.: meeting attendance, newsletter, email, word of mouth)

Meetings Newsletter Email Word of Mouth

a. Is technology utilized for meetings and/or for communication outside of meetings?

Yes No

Phone Skype/FaceTime Facebook

Other: _____

8. How often does your organization have meetings?

a. Can you provide meeting minutes or agendas for this project?

Yes No

9. What sort of decisions are made during these meetings (i.e.: how money is spent, what projects to take on, etc.)

Budget Projects Goals Achieved Events
Client Satisfaction Program Issues
Other: _____

10. How efficient is the follow through for decisions once they are made? (i.e., how long does it take for action to be taken?)

11. Do all members of the organization have an opportunity to be involved in decision making processes in the organization?

Yes No

- a. If yes, how is equal opportunity ensured?
- b. If no, is this a concern for members?

12. Is power shared in the organization?

Yes No

- a. If yes, how?
- b. Are some members considered experts and/or more powerful than others?

Yes No

13. Do some members have greater influence in the organization?

Yes No

- a. If yes, how do they gain influence?

Expertise Training Experience/Tenure

Other: _____

- i. Do you feel that this power imbalance a concern for other members of the organization?

Yes No

- b. If no, what measures have ensured that all members have similar levels of influence?

Membership

14. Could you estimate the number of members in the organization?

15. What are roles currently a part of your organization (board members, organizers, volunteer, specialists, administrators, etc...)

Board Members Managers Staff Volunteers
Specialists Administrators
Other: _____

16. Has the number of members/staff in your organization increased or decreased in the past five years?

Increased Decreased

- a. Do you consider these changes in membership to be positive or negative?

Positive Negative

- b. Why?

17. How are new members/staff recruited?

Application Word of Mouth Independent Approach
Internship

Other: _____

18. Is there a requirement process for hiring such as skills, experience criteria, application, oath, fees, etc.)?

Yes No

What are the requirements:

19. Do new members receive training?

Yes No

20. Is training repeated regularly across members/staff?

Yes No

a. If yes, how often is training undertaken?

b. If no, why is training not a priority?

21. Do you believe that having diverse staff (i.e.: gender diversity, racial/ethnic diversity, religious diversity) is an important characteristic for your organization?

Yes No

a. Why?

22. In your opinion, are the members of your organization diverse?

Yes No

a. If so, in which ways do they represent diversity?

b. If not, do you perceive a specific reason why this is not so?

23. Do you believe your members/staff are representative of the population you serve (i.e.: gender representative, racial/ethnically representative, socioeconomically representative)?

Yes No

a. Do you think this diversity affects your work and outreach?

Yes No

24. In your estimate, what is the current workload in hours per week for the staff in your organization?

a. Does this workload differ depending on the role the staff/volunteer fills in your organization?

b. Is this workload detrimental to the functioning of your organization?

Yes No

i. Why do you think so?

c. Has the workload increased or decreased in the past five years?

Increased Decreased

Budget

25. Who manages the budget in your organization?

Board of Directors Executive Board Managers
Collective

Other: _____

a. Do you believe that this person/group makes effective decisions about funding/budgeting?

Yes No

26. What is your main source of funding in the organization?

STOP grants VAWA grants Other Grants Donation
Local Government Funding

Other: _____

27. How stable is this source of funding?

Stable Moderately Stable Unstable

28. Are you able to secure necessary resources prior to needing them?

Yes No

a. If yes, are these resources then distributed with considerations for future events?

b. If no, how do you obtain resources in an emergency situation?

29. How much time is spent, on average, obtaining resources/funding per month?

a. Do you believe that this time inhibits your organization's functioning?

Yes No

- i. If yes, in which ways?
- ii. If no, why not or what processes do you believe make the time management successful?

30. Has your organization accepted funding with conditions attached to it?

Yes No

- a. If yes, what type of conditions were they?

Required Programs Mission Evolution Evaluation Assessment

Other: _____

- b. Were these conditions a concern for your organization?

Yes No

- i. How were these conditions managed?
- ii. Did they take time away from achieving the mission/goal of your organization?

Yes No

Environment/Effectiveness

31. Has your organization partnered with other organizations on projects?

Yes No

- a. If yes, how did this partnership go? Was it a positive or negative experience?

Positive Negative

- b. If no, would you want to coordinate with other services in the future?

Yes No

32. In your estimate, how is your organization regarded in the community?

33. Do you believe that your organization has increased education within your community about victimization and victims' rights?

Yes No

a. Why?

34. Do you believe that your organization has increased awareness about victimization and victims' rights?

Yes No

a. Why?

35. Do you believe that you provide greater empowerment for the consumers you serve?

Yes No

a. Why?

36. Do you believe that your organization has increased the types and qualities of services provided to victims?

Yes No

a. If yes, do you believe that you provide culturally appropriate services to consumers?

b. If yes, do you believe that you make efforts to reach underserved populations?

c. If no, what factors may have inhibited this?

37. Have there been any large scale changes in your organization since you have been with the organization?

Yes No

a. If yes, how have these changes effected the organization?

b. If no, do you perceive changes occurring in the future?

38. What factors or events have inhibited your organization from growing/providing services in the past?
- a. What methods have you taken from this experience that you may be able to apply to future challenges?
39. Is there anything else about your organization you would like to discuss with me that we have not covered in this interview?

APPENDIX D
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Survey: Organizational Structure

For this portion of the survey, a grid is provided which lists a series of 7 characteristics related to organizational structure. Please read through each of the three options provided for the seven characteristics and pick the one which aligns most closely with your organization. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask the researcher for clarification.

Dimension	1	2	3
<i>Authority</i>	Authority resides in individuals or a board of trustees by virtue of incumbency; hierarchical structure	There is a democratic process which elects officials, but authority resides in the whole membership	Authority resides with the collective as a whole; flat structure
<i>Formalization (Rules)</i>	There is a formalization of fixed and universal rules	Rules are used as guidelines, but are flexible to change and evolution	There are minimal stipulated rules, so individuals often make decisions
<i>Standardization (Social control)</i>	The organization has direct supervision.	Actions are often controlled by high internal social cohesion and a goal for solidarity.	Actions are controlled by a personal or moral appeal; most staff hold the same beliefs.
<i>Centralization (Social relations)</i>	The ideal relationship between staff is one of impersonality. Relationships are often role based.	The organization creates and maintains a sense of community, but relationships may be stronger/weaker based on roles.	The organization has an ideal of a holistic community with many personal relationships
<i>Recruitment</i>	Employment is based on professionalism and credentials.	The organization recruits peers with common interests, but may also look for specialists.	Employment is based on hiring peers with shared social-political values.

<i>Incentive</i>	The organization provides remunerative or material incentives.	Material incentives, if they exist, are secondary to other (social) incentives.	The organization is driven by social mission rather than material incentives.
<i>Configuration (Social stratification)</i>	There is an inequality of prestige, privilege, and power; hierarchy.	Other members are peers, not superiors, and there is a high level of participation/mobilization	The organization is egalitarian.
<i>Specialization (Differentiation)</i>	The organization has a maximum division of labor.	Tasks are shared as needed, but experts may be more suited to some jobs than other staff/volunteers	There is minimal division of labor, and tasks are very rarely specialized to specific staff/volunteers.
<i>Goal Adherence (Primary goal)</i>	The organization is a means to an end; it promotes an efficient standardization in productivity of services.	The organization strives to meet individual needs, but not at risk of organization deterioration.	The organization strives to meet individual needs; human development or service provision is the goal.

Survey: Likert Scale Questions

In this section, please read the questions carefully and pick the response that best matches your experience within your organization. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask the researcher for clarification.

1. We are often under pressure from outside sources

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

2. People outside of our organization decide on what work we do

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

3. It is easy to explain the goals of this organization to outsiders

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

4. This organization's mission is clear to everyone who works here

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

5. People here feel they are being watched to see if they obey all the rules

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

6. One thing employees like in this organization is the variety of work

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

7. Employees are periodically evaluated to see how well they are doing in this organization

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

8. We are to follow strict rules, regulations, and procedures at all times in this organization

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

9. I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

10. I have to be innovative when performing my duties

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

11. Joint decision making takes place in this organization

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

12. Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

13. There can be little action taken here until a supervisor approves a decision

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

14. I have to work under vague directives or orders

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

15. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

16. Management does not trust me to get my work done on my own

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

17. I have a great deal of influence on how I do my job

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

18. My position often requires me to 'think outside of the box'

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

19. Generally, I am allowed to work independently in my job in this organization

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

20. I frequently participate in decisions on the adoption of new policies

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

21. I frequently participate in decisions on the adoption of new programs

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree N/A

Demographic Questions:

17. What is your gender?

- a. Male
- b. Female
- c. Other

18. What is your age?

- a. 18-29 years
- b. 30-49 years
- c. 50-64 years
- d. 65 years or older

19. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- a. Some high school
- b. High school graduate
- c. Some college
- d. Trade/technical/vocational training
- e. College graduate
- f. Some post-graduate work
- g. Post graduate degree

20. What is your race/ethnicity?

- a. White
- b. African-American
- c. Asian/Pacific Islander
- d. Hispanic/Latinx
- e. Native American
- f. Other: _____

APPENDIX E
DETAILED SURVEY RESULTS

Organizational Structure as Measured by Dimensions

	Definitions or Questions	Organization is Bureaucratic	Organization is Hybrid	Organization is Collective
Authority	The distribution of power based on the structure of an organization.	11	5	0
Formalization	The extent to which rules, procedures, and instructions are written.	2	14	0
Standardization	The legitimacy of procedures and rules in an organization.	11	5	0
Centralization	The role based relationship forms derived from the locus of authority.	0	13	3
Recruitment	The process of hiring staff and employees in an organization.	6	10	0
Incentive	The characteristics that convince members and employees to work at an organization.	0	6	10
Configuration	The shape of the role structure and span of control in an organization.	1	15	0
Specialization	The division of labor and duties among employees. In bureaucratic organizations, employees are expected to perform one job without the ability to take on multiple tasks.	2	14	0
Goal Adherence	The extent to which an organization will adhere to missions and values.	0	4	12

Organizational Structure as Measured by Characteristics

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
External Control	We are often under pressure from outside sources.	1	6	3	4	0

	People outside our organization decide on what work we do.	0	4	5	5	2
Goal Ambiguity	It is easy to explain the goals of this organization to outsiders.	8	7	0	0	0
	The organization's mission is clear to everyone who works here.	5	10	0	0	0
Rule Observation	People here feel they are being watched to see if they obey all the rules.	0	1	1	10	3
	Employees are periodically evaluated to see how well they are doing in this organization.	5	9	1	0	0
	We are to follow strict rules, regulations, and procedures at all times in this organization.	0	8	2	5	0
Role Conflict/Ambiguity	I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.	4	9	2	0	0
	I have to work under vague directives or orders.	0	2	1	10	2
	I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	0	2	3	9	1

Centralization	Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.	0	3	5	6	2
	There can be little action taken here until a supervisor approves a decision.	0	4	2	8	2
Work Autonomy	Management does not trust me to get my work done on my own.	0	0	2	5	8
	I have a great deal of influence on how I do my job.	5	10	0	0	0
	My position often require me to 'think outside of the box'.	6	6	3	0	0
	I have to be innovative when performing my duties.	8	6	0	1	0
	Generally, I am allowed to work independently in my job in this organization.	7	6	1	1	0
Participation	I frequently participate in decisions on the adoption of new policies.	3	5	2	4	0
	Joint decision making takes place at this organization.	2	9	3	1	0
	I frequently participate in decisions on the adoption of new programs.	3	4	2	5	0

APPENDIX F

DETAILED VALIDITY/RELIABILITY TABLE

Question	Measurement Concept	Evidence for Validity	Cronbach's Alpha/Pearson Correlation Coefficient
We are often under pressure from outside sources.	External Control	Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015; Rogers & Molnar, 1976	CA: 0.73
People outside our organization decide on what work we do.	External Control	Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015; Rogers & Molnar, 1976	CA: 0.73
It is easy to explain the goals of this organization to outsiders.	Goal Ambiguity	Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015; Pandey & Rainey, 2006; Rainey, 1983	CA: 0.90
The organization's mission is clear to everyone who works here.	Goal Ambiguity	Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015; Pandey & Rainey, 2006; Rainey, 1983	CA: 0.90
People here feel they are being watched to see if they obey all the rules.	Rule Observation	Hall, 1963; Aiken & Hage, 1966; Hage & Aiken, 1967	PC: 0.88
Employees are periodically evaluated to see how well they are doing in this organization.	Rule Observation	Hall, 1963; Aiken & Hage, 1966; Hage & Aiken, 1967	PC: 0.88
We are to follow strict rules, regulations, and procedures at all times in this organization.	Rule Observation	Hall, 1963; Aiken & Hage, 1966; Hage & Aiken, 1967	PC: 0.88
I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.	Role Conflict/Ambiguity	Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015; Rizzo, House, & McEachern, 1970; Rogers & Molnar, 1976	CA: 0.82
I have to work under vague directives or orders.	Role Conflict/Ambiguity	Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015; Rizzo, House, & McEachern, 1970;	CA: 0.82

		Rogers & Molnar, 1976	
I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	Role Conflict/Ambiguity	Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015; Rizzo, House, & McEachern, 1970; Rogers & Molnar, 1976	CA: 0.82
Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.	Centralization	Aiken & Hage, 1966; Hall, 1963; Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015	CA: 0.71
There can be little action taken here until a supervisor approves a decision.	Centralization	Aiken & Hage, 1966; Hall, 1963; Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015	CA: 0.71
Management does not trust me to get my work done on my own.	Work autonomy	Breaugh, 1989; Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015	CA: 0.89
I have a great deal of influence on how I do my job.	Work autonomy	Breaugh, 1989; Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015	CA: 0.89
My position often require me to 'think outside of the box'.	Work autonomy	Breaugh, 1989; Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015	CA: 0.89
I have to be innovative when performing my duties.	Work autonomy	Breaugh, 1989; Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015	CA: 0.89
Generally, I am allowed to work independently in my job in this organization.	Work autonomy	Breaugh, 1989; Peng, Pandey, & Pandey, 2015	CA: 0.89
I frequently participate in decisions on the adoption of new policies.	Participation	Hall, 1963; Aiken & Hage, 1966; Hage & Aiken, 1967	PC: 0.90
Joint decision making takes place at this organization.	Participation	Hall, 1963; Aiken & Hage, 1966; Hage & Aiken, 1967	PC: 0.90
I frequently participate in decisions on the adoption of new programs.	Participation	Hall, 1963; Aiken & Hage, 1966; Hage & Aiken, 1967	PC: 0.90

APPENDIX G

CONTENT ANALYSIS FORM

Theme	Notes
Financial Stability (Budgeting)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Budgeting to make funds last - Budgeting with consideration for the future - Organization can continue operations - Achieve grant money - Time taken from staff due to grants/funding <p>Financial stability achieved without sacrificing operations</p>
Goal Obtainment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Achieving goals and organizational mission - Goals match with social climate - Procedures to reach goals - Staff knowledge of organizational mission and goals
Social Support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Develop a relationship with the community - Collaborate with other organizations - Positive reputation/legitimacy
Resource Mobilization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strategic planning and/or strategies for funding - Methods to make organization competitive - Use of advertisement and marketing - Product differentiation - Concentration of resources among the elite
Other Themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Other commonly occurring themes - Differences between direct staff and management? - Decision making and power differentials? - Social climate and current events?
Organizations & The Criminal Justice System	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How does organization interact with criminal justice system - Does the organization consider relationships positive or negative - What have they done to either maintain or attempt to create positive relationships