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Leading and Managing Nonprofit Organizations: Mapping the Knowledge Base of Nonprofit Management in the Human Services

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ABSTRACT

The nonprofit sector has experienced significant changes over the past five decades in relation to political, economic and social factors that have influenced the way that nonprofits finance and deliver human services. Nonprofit leadership, management and governance have changed to accommodate the environmental factors that influence the sector. This literature review reflects the evolution of the nonprofit sector in relation to developing an understanding of nonprofit organizations and the skills needed to lead, manage and govern them.

KEY WORDS: Nonprofit organizations, management and leadership, governance, partnerships

Leading and Managing Nonprofit Organizations

Introduction

The nonprofit sector has undergone enormous changes over the past thirty years in relationship to political, social, and economic environmental forces that have changed how nonprofits finance and deliver services. The skillful management and governance of nonprofit organizations has been essential for the sector to accommodate the many environmental changes that it has experienced. In order to build a strong management team that can guide a nonprofit through a changing environment, it is important to understand the nature of nonprofits, the theoretical frameworks that explain their unique characteristics, and their internal characteristics (e.g., organizational structures, processes and cultures).

Once the nature of nonprofits is clear, it is important to understand the ways to effectively govern and manage nonprofits in order to grow and deliver quality services to the community. The multiple roles and responsibilities of a nonprofit Boards of Directors are important to recognize in light of the key role that boards play in successful organizational functioning. The literature addresses the multiple challenges experienced by nonprofit boards and provides guidelines to facilitate effective governance systems. Leadership is another key element that is necessary for successful nonprofit functioning, thus it is important to gain clarity on the definition of leadership and how it is operationalized at the organizational level. Effective management is essential for the success of any nonprofit and it requires attention to management models, manager characteristics and competencies, and management strategies. Nonprofit management and leadership include the development and management of external relationships with funding sources, other organizations, the community, and the media.

To better understand the many changes that the nonprofit sector has experienced in relation to management and leadership, it is helpful to review the articles published on nonprofit management in three major journals over the past thirty years. This analysis, one of five (Schwartz & Austin, 2008a; Schwartz & Austin, 2008b; Schwartz & Austin, 2008c; Srivastava, Schwartz & Austin, 2008d) addresses the topic of nonprofit management and leadership by reviewing the literature, identifying themes, and specifying implications for research and practice. The research agenda emerging from the five analyses was developed to guide the future work of the new Mack Center on Nonprofit Management in the Human Services at the University of California, Berkeley, School of Social Welfare. In addition, this comprehensive analysis provides the foundation for a searchable database accessible to practitioners and students (see www.mackcenter.org).

Methods

This review is based on a thorough search of articles published in *Administration in Social Work* (first published in 1977), *Nonprofit Management and Leadership* (first published in 1990), and *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* (first published in 1972). These three nationally-recognized journals were selected based on their history of focusing on nonprofit management in the human services. The University of California's library internet search engine was used to identify all articles published in these three journals from their inception until 2007. In 2007 two independent raters conducted an initial sort of the total sample of 1857 abstracts to identify major categories that would facilitate the mapping of the knowledge base of nonprofit management in the human services. Once the initial sorts were completed, the categories were compared and a set of 23 categories was agreed upon.

The 23 categories were then used to sort the 1857 abstracts, resulting in a 79% inter-rater reliability. Disagreements during the sorting process were primarily a result of different interpretations and definitions associated with similar topics. For example, one researcher placed all university education abstracts into the education and training category while the other researcher placed these same abstracts in the personnel category. Once these differences were identified and discussed, full agreement was easily obtained for the remainder of the abstracts and the categorization process was completed.

The categories were then clustered into five overarching themes that are illustrated in *Figure 1*, with one of the themes being the subject of this review.

Figure 1: Mapping the Major Topics on Nonprofit Management

Leading and Managing Nonprofits	Financing and Evaluating Nonprofits	Managing Nonprofit Human Resources	Managing Different Types of Nonprofits		Managing NGOs Worldwide
Nonprofit History	Financial Management	Personnel	Research and Classification of Nonprofits		Leading and Managing NGOs
Nonprofit Organizations – Theory	Philanthropy	Workforce Diversity	Membership Associations		Financing and Evaluating NGOs
Governance	Fundraising	Workforce Education and Training	Citizen/Political Nonprofits		Managing NGO Human Resources
Leadership	Social Enterprise	Volunteers	Community Development Nonprofits		Managing Different Types of NGOs
Management	Evaluation and Information Management		Nonprofit Service Sectors		
Managing External Relations					
Marketing Nonprofit Services					
Policy, Law, and Ethics					

The five major themes are defined as:

- *Financing and Evaluating Nonprofits* includes the financial management of nonprofits, fundraising and philanthropic sources of revenue, social enterprise, accountability requirements, program evaluation, and management information systems.
- *Leading and Managing Nonprofits* includes organizational history and theory, nonprofit governance, leadership, management and managing inter-organizational relationships, including relationships with the external environment (e.g., the law, public policy, and the media).
- *Managing Human Resources* includes the management of personnel (including supervision and performance appraisal), employee wellbeing, workforce diversity, employee education and training, and volunteer workforces.
- *Managing Different Types of Nonprofits* includes articles that research and classify nonprofit organizations, explore domestic nonprofit service sectors, membership associations, community development nonprofits and citizen/political nonprofits.
- *Managing NGO's Worldwide* includes the management of nonprofits in different countries related to managing and leading nonprofits, financing and evaluating nonprofits, nonprofit human resources, and nonprofit service sectors.

The major limitations of this method include the following: 1) inter-rater reliability would have been enhanced by the involvement of additional raters, 2) the rating process could have been strengthened by reviewing the entire articles rather than relying solely on the published abstracts (a very costly and time-consuming alternative), and 3) making the assumption that the majority of articles on nonprofit management related to the human services in the US appear in

these three journals, knowing that other journals, domestic and international, publish articles on nonprofit and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs).

Overview

The goal of the knowledge mapping project was the development of a series of working papers and research questions to assist with the formation of a research agenda for the Mack Center on Nonprofit Management in the Human Services. This analysis reviews the 619 article titles and article abstracts that address the theme of managing and leading nonprofits. The literature captures the sector's interest in strengthening nonprofit governance, leadership and management in order to survive and grow in an uncertain external environment. The review opens with a consideration of nonprofit history and theory, moves to a review of issues addressed in relation to nonprofit governance, leadership and management, and concludes with a examination of the literature addressing the management of external relations. A research agenda is presented for future inquiry into nonprofit management and leadership.

The Nature and History of Nonprofits

The literature addressing the history of the nonprofit sector is broad in scope, from tracing the roots of philanthropic organizations back to ancient times to focusing on 20th century nonprofits. The evolution of voluntary associations in Ancient Judea (Ross, 1974), 18th century Massachusetts (Brown, 1973), Palestine of the 1930s (Loewenberg, 1991) Medieval Europe (Ross, 1983), and the 20th century United Mine Workers Association (McMillen, 1978) are explored.

The factors that have influenced the development of voluntary associations over time are examined, including the development of philanthropic institutions (Loewenberg, 1995; Loewenberg, 1995), the connection between philanthropy and social justice (Fischer, 1995), the

relationships between the public and voluntary sectors (Loewenberg, 1992; Mohr & Guerra-Pearson, 1996), and the evolution of accountability and effectiveness issues (Fitzgibbon, 1997; Hammack, 1995; Leiby, 1991; McIlroy, 1995). Historical perspectives are offered on the social problems that inspire the development of social movements (Morris, 2002; Simpson, 1988) as well as the evolution of such social movements as communes (Conover, 1978), the poor people's movement (Stolarski, 1988), the Anabaptist movement in Europe (Cavan, 1977), feminist collectives (Bordt, 1997), and antiurbanism (Harry, 1978).

The growth of the nonprofit sector is also addressed from the historical perspective of leading and managing voluntary organizations (Knight, 1991; Selber & Austin, 1997) along with the evolution of volunteer-based agencies into professionally-led organizations (Romanofsky, 1973). Also considered is the architectural space occupied by early voluntary organizations in terms of its influence on organizational success (Guerra-Pearson, 1998).

The contemporary nonprofit sector can be understood within the context of American history (Burke, 2001; Neem, 2003) as well as the history of other countries (Archambault, 2001; Bauer, 1990; Burger & Veldheer, 2001; Gorsky & Mohan, 2001). A more recent historical perspective captures the ways in which the nonprofit human service sector was transformed in the second half of the 20th Century (Gronbjerg, 2001), particularly in relationship to losing its independence (Dobkin Hall, 1987). The roles played by social policy and religious institutions in the delivery of social services are also considered (McIntyre Hall, 1992; Weinert, 1982; Wineburg, 1993).

Understanding Nonprofit Organizations

A group of abstracts focus on generating knowledge about nonprofit organizations. These abstracts are categorized into the following three perspectives: 1) theoretical frameworks, 2) external influences, and 3) the internal structures and processes.

Theoretical Frameworks

Theories and models can be used to examine nonprofit organizations and their characteristics, especially when drawing upon concepts identified in the business and organizational behavior literature. Application of business theory (York & Henley, 1986) and network theory (Gummer, 2002) provide insights into employee job satisfaction and achievement. Other theories addressed are resource dependency (Iecovich, 2001) and institutionalism (Feeney, 1997). Economic theories are also used guide the understanding of nonprofit organizations (Marwell & McInerney, 2005; Steinberg & Gray, 1993) and the political and economic impact of the voluntary sector (Steinberg, 1993; Wagner, 1991).

Frameworks are applied to expand our understanding of nonprofits and include empowerment theory (Peterson & Speer, 2000), boundary theory (Halley, 1997), parallel bars theory (Tucker, 1980), and comparative theories (Walden, 1981). An alternative lens to examine nonprofits involves examining changing roles and relationships (Brainard & Siplon, 2004; Law & Hasenfeld, 1989). A small, but important, group of frameworks have been designed to address the unique nature and characteristics of nonprofit human service organizations (Abzug & Webb, 1999; Lohmann, 1992; Quarter & Richmond, 2001; Ryan & Washington, 1977). There is a growing interest in the lifecycle theory of nonprofit organizations (Bess, 1998; Chambre, 1997; Hasenfeld & Schmid, 1989; Koroloff & Briggs, 1996) and the influence of leadership at different stages of the lifecycle (Bailey & Grochau, 1993). One focus is on the creation stage of

organizations (Billis, 1991) and how this stage influences later stages of development (Marcus, 1988).

Theory is also used to enhance the understanding of the specific roles and relationships in nonprofit organizations (Adams, 1983; Tourigny & Miller, 1981; Vosburgh, 1988). For example, the role that nonprofits can play in policy making is considered (Bryce, 2006) as is the role that workers play in influencing organizational rules and regulations (Kurzman, 1977). Theoretical frameworks are used to assess organizational goals (Herman & Renz, 1999), tasks related to decision-making and change management (Brannon, 1985; Brescia, 2004; Ng, Kent, & Egbert, 2000; Perri, 1993; Rosenau, 2003), service outcomes (Harvey, 1998; Mano-Negrin, 2003), and the distinctive nature of faith-based organizations to secular ones (Montgomery, 1987). A general assessment of the theories used in social welfare management are reflected in an analysis of major social welfare administration texts where the author argues for the development of theories that address the distinctive nature of human services (Au, 1994).

Organizational Environment

A second group of abstracts reflect upon the organizational environment (Brown & Kalegaonkar, 2002; Capoccia, 1981; Young, 1989) and the many factors that influence organizational behavior, including culture (Blau, Heying, & Feinberg, 1996), legislation, and the economy (Jones, 2006). These factors can create both confusion (Parham, 1982) and opportunity (Te'eni & Young, 2003) for nonprofits. The environment is viewed as increasingly stringent and competitive and can affect the nonprofit sector's ability to adapt to changes in the environment (Alexander, 2000; Aviram, 1979; Aviram, 1979; Gibelman, 1990; McMurtry, Netting, & Kettner, 1991; Netting & Williams, 1997), influence their ability to maintain their mission in the face of change (Golensky & Mulder, 2006), and their ability to avoid demise (Bielefeld, 1994).

Adaptive strategies include the capacity to be innovative and collaborate with other agencies (Mulroy & Tamburo, 2004; Shoham, Ruvio, Vigoda-Gadot, & Schwabsky, 2006).

Nonprofit response to specific changes in the environment involve discussions of the growth of the third sector (Brooks, 2002; Schmid, 2004; Wollebaek & Seize, 2002) and the increase in for-profit human service agencies (Joseph, 1983). Changes in public policies also impact nonprofits, especially in the era of welfare reform (Carnochan & Austin, 2002; Poole, 2003; Poole, Ferguson, DiNitto, & Schwab, 2002). Environment changes also include technology (Jansson, 1990) and the availability of facilities (Gronbjerg & Nagle, 1994).

Relationships in the organizational environment are another important aspect of a nonprofits capacity to survive and thrive (Schmid, 1992; Taylor & Lansley, 2000). These include the relationships between nonprofits and state and local governments (Liebschutz, 1992; Reiner, 1989), organization-community relationships (Dattalo, 1994), the role that nonprofits play as a link between government and community (Coston, Cooper, & Sundeen, 1993; Mendel, 2003), and the networking ability of organizational members (Fisher, 1983).

Competition for resources, increased accountability requirements and the impact of a growing for-profit sector are also environmental factors that are addressed in the literature (Lammers, 1990). The consideration of competition includes the specific forces that are driving the competition (Boehm, 1996), strategies for dealing with competition (Frumkin & Andre-Clark, 2000; McMurtry, Netting, & Kettner, 1991) and the impact that competition has on social movement organizations (Hall & Hall, 1996) and the United Way (Gronbjerg, Harmon, Olkkonen, & Raza, 1996). Competition exists between nonprofit and for-profit organizations (Ben-Ner & Van Hoomissen, 1990; Smith, 1993; Stoner, 1983) as well as between nonprofit and public sector organizations (Sosin, 1984).

Structures and Processes

Considerable attention is devoted to organizational structures and processes, including methods for defining and examining organizations (Rothschild & Milofsky, 2006; Stein, 1980), understanding organizational change processes (Brilliant & Young, 2004), and assessing the effectiveness of organizational structure (Kushner & Poole, 1996). The focus of analysis ranges from concepts to tasks for assessing organizational identity (Smith, 1986; Tropman, 1989; Young, 2001; Young, 2001) to examining the organization's stated mission and goals (Barthel, 1997; Christensen & Ebrahim, 2006; Yankey & Coulton, 1979), as well as roles (Gibelman & Kraft, 1996) and relationships (Zakour & Gillespie, 1998). The roles of nonprofits are compared to those of for-profits (Stoesz, 1989) and faith-based organizations (Harris, 1995). The investigation of specific service areas provide a focal point for comparison, including dependent care (Gellis, 2000), home care (Schmid & Nirel, 2004), and nursing homes (Luksetich, Edwards, & Carroll, 2000).

With respect to processes, organizational change is assessed in relationship to sustainability (Bailey, 1992), growth (Sheehan, 1999), and decline (Friesen & Frey, 1983). Several models of organizational change are identified (Coates, 1997; Resnick, 1978), including steps for assessing organizational change capacity (Brager & Holloway, 1992), identifying types of change (Durst & Newell, 2001), and the impact that change can have on stakeholders (Holloway & Brager, 1977). Specific types of change are highlighted, including the creation of alternative management approaches (Weil, 1988), the implementation of evidence-based practices (Johnson & Austin, 2006), and the goals of effectiveness and efficiency when planning change (Shoichet, 1998). A case study offers insight into the experience of change for a community-based clinic (Flipovitch, 2006).

Attention is given to the difficulties experienced when planning and implementing organizational change efforts (Billis, 1992), especially internal conflict (Hirschhorn, 1978; Maypole, 1980), staff resistance (Hernandez & Leslie, 2000), and the negative impacts of planned change (Salipante & Golden-Biddle, 1995). Innovation is viewed as a specific form of organizational change (Rothman & Lubben, 1988; Thomas, 1987), including factors that impede (Gruber, 1977) and foster innovation (Cohen, 1999), factors related to leadership styles (Shin & McClomb, 1998), and those related to and organizational culture (Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005).

Important to understanding the impact of organizational change is the involvement and/or reactions of various stakeholders that include managers (Gummer, 1984), other organizations (Martin, DiNitto, Byington, & Maxwell, 1992), and staff (Smith, 1993). For example, organizational change can influence staff attitudes about their organization (Bazemore & Liou, 1995; Perlmutter, Richan, & Weirich, 1979), their job satisfaction (McNeely, Feyerherm, & Johnson, 1986), their sense of competence (Kayser, Walker, & Demaio, 2000), job performance (Ezell, Casey, Pecora, et al., 2002), sense of involvement (Cohen & Austin, 1994; Weissman, 1982), and sense of trust and organizational commitment (Dyck, 1996; Standley, 2001).

Organizational effectiveness is examined and includes models for improving service effectiveness (Hyman, 1983; Sugarman, 1988), guidelines for addressing diversity (Fishman, 1988) and empowerment (Hardina, 2005), the nature of accountability (Lewis, 1982; Weismann, 1980; Young, Bania, & Bailey, 1996), the ability to fill service gaps (Powell, 1986), the ability to improve service delivery (Cohen, 2002; Martin, 1980; Paulson, 1984), and enhance client outcomes (Yoo, 2002). Organizations can improve their effectiveness through the use of technology (Savage, 1987), communication methods (Rai, 1994), shared knowledge (Manela & Moxley, 2002), and evaluation tools (Mor-Barak & Cherin, 1998).

Similar to the topics of change, effectiveness and efficiency are frequently examined in relation to stakeholder involvement, behaviors and attitudes. Effectiveness is influenced by an organization's ability to manage multiple stakeholder relationships (Goldberg, Cullen, & Austin, 2001; Balser & McClusky, 2005; Martin, 1987). Efforts for improved effectiveness may cause role confusion for staff (Bernard, Butler, & Eisenberg, 1979; Katan, 1984) and influence job satisfaction (Finch, 1978) and is identified as a potential issue for management (Whetten, 1977). Agency effectiveness may be influenced by organizational politics (Gummer & Edwards, 1985), managers (Schmid, 1992), and staff inclusion in decision making (Ramsdell, 1994). Organizational control and power are other factors that are identified as having potential influence on service effectiveness (Jansson & Simmons, 1984; Miller & Pruger, 1977; Rai, 1985).

Nonprofit Governance

Much of the literature on nonprofit governance focuses on defining the multiple roles of the Board of Directors. These articles address moral responsibilities (Smith, 1992), the nature of trusteeship (Abzug, 1996), board member traits (Fletcher, 1992; Kearns, 1995), role expectations and responsibilities (Herman, Renz, & Heimoviccs, 1997; Widmer, 1993), the impact that meeting agendas have on productivity (Harris, 1993; Inglis, 2000), and the influence that governance policies can have on performance and effectiveness (Nobbie & Brudney, 2003).

Board composition is an important topic in the literature, especially regarding representation from the business community (Austin, 1998), the community at large (Handy, 1995), female representation (Bradshaw, Murray, & Wolpin, 1996; Shaiko, 1997), minority participation (Widmer, 1987), and the participation of members from the community served by the organization (Austin & Woolever, 1992). Factors that can motivate board members are

considered (Inglis & Cleave, 2006; Widmer, 1985) and the impact that motivation can have on board effectiveness is examined (Taylor, Chait, & Holland, 1991).

Board operations in a variety of settings are documented and include large human service organizations (Kang & Cnann, 1995), national nonprofit organizations (Green, Madjidi, Dudley, & Gehlen, 2001), neighborhood boards (Ihrke & Johnson, 2004), and nonprofit governance of several European nonprofits (Cornforth & Simpson, 2002; de Andres-Alonso, Cruz, & Romero-Merino, 2006; Iecovich, 2004). Theoretical models are used to examine board behaviors and operations (Harris, 1994; Miller-Millensen, 2003) including a contingency model of board-executive relations (Kramer, 1985). Multiple views of nonprofit governance are described (Jeavons, 1994) and include the corporate model (Alexander & Weiner, 1998; Hodgkin, 1993).

Board member behavior and group functioning receives considerable attention in relation to a life-cycle model of board behavior (Dart, Bradshaw, Murray, & Wolpin, 1996; Wood, 1992) and board member involvement in strategy development (Brown & Iverson, 1994; Friedman & Phillips, 2004; Inglis & Alexander, 1999), fiscal planning (Carver, 1991), and fundraising (Miller, Kruger, & Gauss, 1994). Considerable support is found for the relationship between positive board functioning and organizational effectiveness (Bradshaw, Murray, & Wolpin, 1992; Brown, 2005; Callen, Klein, & Tinkelman, 2003; Green & Griesinger, 1996; Pearce & Rosener, 1985). Success relates to board involvement in policy-making and implementation (Drucker, 1990), fundraising (Plambeck, 1985; Preston & Brown, 2004), building a supportive board culture (Daley, Netting, & Angulo, 1996; Holland, Leslie, & Holzhalb, 1993), the board's ability to plan (Stone, 1991), and how these factors can influence organizational outcomes (Miller, Weiss, & McLeod, 1988).

Several board self-assessment models are described (Gill, Flynn, & Reissing, 2004; Holland, 1991; Jackson & Holland, 1998), along with methods for strengthening board performance through development and training activities and (Brudney & Nobbie, 2002; Holland & Jackson, 1998). Board accountability is emphasized for the monitoring of organizational activity and adherence to the agency's mission (Holland, 2002; Miller, 2002). Examples of ineffective boards are presented in relationship to reduced community credibility (Gibelman, Gelman & Pollack, 1997).

The relationships and power dynamics that exist between a board and its environment are examined (Iecovich, 2005; Murray, Bradshaw, & Wolpin, 1992) along with the factors that contribute to a positive board culture (Gibelman, 2004) and realistic board member expectations of their organizations (Anthony, 1991; McAdam & Gies, 1985). Boards members are key players in organizational collaborations and relationships with other governmental and non-governmental organizations (Ferguson, 2004; Harlan & Saidel, 1994; Saidel & Harlan, 1998). Furthermore, nonprofit boards are responsible for ensuring that those with less power have a voice (McCambridge, 2004) by extending their governing power to the include advisory groups and other networks outside of the board (Ben-Ner & Van Hoomissen, 1994; Brown, 2002; Saidel, 1998).

Similarly, boards need to hear the voices of an agency's staff (Bradshaw, 2002; Herman & Tulipana, 1985) and monitor the power balance between the board and its executives (Golensky, 1993; Heimovics & Herman, 1990; Leduc & Block, 1985). Boards also need the capacity to handle organizational tensions, such as board member termination (McManus, 2000), leadership transitions (Allison, 2002), and funding constraints (Froelich, 1998; Hardina, 1993).

While Boards of Directors provide overall governance for nonprofit organizations, the Executive Director is responsible for the daily operations and oversight of the agency, as well as carrying out the policies and decisions made by the Board. The Executive Director performs a leadership role both inside the agency and in its external environment. The important role that leadership can play in the nonprofit sector can influence the success of an organization.

Leadership in Nonprofit Organizations

Identifying a leadership typology is a key element in the literature on nonprofit management in human service organizations (Bargal & Schmid, 1989). The self-perception of leaders can lead to furthering an understanding of the relationship between gender and career perceptions (Harrow & Mole, 2005) and the nature of leading different types of organizations, such as city planning organizations (Whitcomb & Williams, 1978), religious institutions (Nygren, Ukeritis, McClelland, & Hickman, 1994), and community health partnerships (Alexander & Comfort, 2001).

The literature seeks to define leadership competence (Wimpfheimer, 2004) and effective leadership behaviors related to creativity and insight (Kay, 1994), affective and cognitive abilities (Feeney, 1998), extroversion (Goldman & Khanweiler, 2000), interpersonal and organizational skills (Cyert, 1990), ethical reasoning (Jurkiewicz & Massey Jr., 1998; Levy, 1979; Lewis, 1987), and self-efficacy (Perlmutter, 1998). Conversely, ineffective leadership behavior involves authoritarian leadership styles that emphasize hierarchy and a task orientation (Bombyk & Chernesky, 1985), misuse of power (Block & Rosenberg, 2002), and elitist and inflexible attitudes (Stapleton, 1995). Leaders can have great influence over their organizations in relation to its organizational culture, employee satisfaction, and service quality (Ezell, Menefee, & Patti, 1989; Glisson, 1989).

The range of Executive Director leadership capacities include effectively relating to the Board of Directors (Herman & Heimovics, 1990), providing task group leadership (Toseland & Rivas, 1984), and advocating for political action (Heimovics, Herman, & Jurkiewicz, 1995). A transformational leadership style was found to be associated with successful organizational outcomes (Fisher, 2005; Jaskyte, 2004; Mary, 2005), a capacity to modify one's leadership style to accommodate changing situations (Schmid, 2006), and a decision-making style that promotes organizational effectiveness (Wernet & Austin, 1991).

Leadership change is an important topic addressed in the literature and involves the process of selecting new leaders (Golden-Biddle & Linduff, 1994), managing leadership exit (Gibelman & Gelman, 2002), transitioning to a new leader (Gilmore & Brown, 1985/6), and the process of executive entry (Austin & Gilmore, 1993). Organizations often experience difficulties during a leadership transition (Hernandez, 2001), especially when the applicant pool is insufficiently diverse or lacks qualified managerial leaders (Permuter, 2006). Organizational factors can influence the development of a leader's style and strategy (McCauley & Hughes, 1991), especially in the context of resource shortages (Adams & Perlmutter, 1995).

The literature identifies a difference between the leadership and management of nonprofit human service organizations. The same person is often responsible for both agency leadership and management; however, that is not always the case. The management of nonprofit organizations requires a certain set of skills and competencies to complete the many tasks necessary for successfully managing a human service organization.

Management in Nonprofit Organizations

The literature on nonprofit management pays considerable attention to the management of nonprofits delivering human services (Herman & Heimovics, 1989; Rapp, Hardcastle,

Rosenzweig, & Poertner, 1983; Sarri, 1982; Stone & Crittenden, 1993). In addition to the history of administration in social work (Patti, 2003), there is a continuing debate about the role of social workers in nonprofit and public social service administration and the call for new practice models (Chess, Norlin, & Jayaratne, 1987; Hopkins & Hyde, 2002; Neugeboren, 1990; Keys & Cupaiuolo, 1987; Wuenschel, 2006).

Substantial attention is given to the transferability of concepts from for-profit management to nonprofit and public sector agencies (Dart, 2004; Wortman, 1981). A more cautious view notes the substantive differences between for-profit and nonprofit/public organizations and calls for different models of management (Bush, 1992; Gardner, 1987; Martin, 1993; Page, 1980; Speckbacher, 2003; Walker, 1983).

Beyond these general management themes, the literature in this area can be divided into five subthemes: 1) organizational management models, 2) characteristics and competencies of managers, 3) management strategies in specific situations or particular types of organizations, 4) strategic planning, and 5) supervision.

Organizational Management Models

Participatory management focuses on decision-making and organizational change that involves staff at all levels of the organization, including clients (Gowdy & Freeman, 1993; Pine, Warsh, & Maluccio, 1998; Katan & Prager, 1986; Malka, 1989; Packard, 1993; Vandervelde, 1979; Weatherly, 1983). One of the most widely-known participatory management strategy focuses on ensuring the quality of services and is called Total Quality Management. Following its use in Japanese and American for-profit corporations in the 1980s, it has been adapted for use in public and nonprofit human service agencies (Berman, 1995; Boettcher, 1998; Kearns,

Krasman, & Meyer, 1994; Martin, 1993; Middleman, 1984; Smith & Doeing, 1985; Smergut, 1998).

Other management models and strategies include values-based management (Jeavons, 1992; Moore, 2000), the contingency model (Glisson, 1981), the public sector management model (Sherraden, 1985), client-centered management practices (Gowdy, Rapp, & Poertner, 1993), functional management practice (Grasso, 1993), effectiveness-oriented management (Patti, 1985), management focused on worker quality of life (Gowdy, 1987), and management based on the Management by Objectives (MBO) approach (Bloom, 1978; Granvold, 1978; Raider, 1977).

Manager Competencies and Characteristics

The impact of management styles can be substantial in such areas as employee job satisfaction and service effectiveness (Grasso, 1994), organizational culture (Latting, Beck, Slack, Tetrick, Jones, Etchegaray, & Da Silva, 2004), relationships between board members and staff (Hall, 1990), and managing staff conflicts (Temkin & Cummings, 1986). An approach to identifying and developing managerial competencies relates to the empirical identification of managerial roles (Menefee, 1998; Menefee & Thompsom, 1994) and their implications (Patti, 1977), interpersonal skill development (Wolk, Way, & Bleeke, 1982), negotiation skills (Holloway & Brager, 1985; Poppo, 1984), and information management skills (Garner, 1987). Using a repertoire of management competencies is supported (Lewis, 1977; Weiner, 1984).

The role of the Executive Director is examined in relation to its characteristics and responsibilities in nonprofit and public social service agencies, mental health agencies, and corrections agencies (Meinert, Ginsberg, & Keys, 1993). The development of nonprofit managers emphasizes leadership capacities (Austin, 1989), the ability to manage external

organizational relations (Carlton, 1987; Perlmutter, 1985/86; & Schmid, 2004), develop an understanding an organization's history (Barbeau & Lohmann, 1992), engage in one's own performance appraisal (Tropman & Shaefer, 2004; Wiehe, 1984), and develop an understanding of the dynamics of executive exit (Austin & Gilmore, 1993; Issa & Herman, 1986).

The literature reviewed also considers middle managers, especially as they move from front-line staff to middle management (Holloway, 1980; Patti & Austin, 1977; Patti, Diedreck, Olson, & Crowell, 1979; Patti, Diedreck, Olson, & Crowell, 1979; Perlmutter, 1983) and the process of "managing up," by middle managers in their relationship to executive managers (Austin, 1988). The transition to middle management involves such variations as maintaining part-time clinical practice in addition to management responsibilities (Chess, Norlin, & Jayaratne, 1984) and finding ways to manage intra-professional rivalry between clinicians and administrators (Gummer, 1987; Pawlak & Bays, 1988).

Other topics related to manager characteristics and concerns include managerial autonomy and accountability (Bogart, 1995; Kruzich, 2005; Schnit, 1978), managerial stress and burnout (Harvey & Raider, 1984; Regehr, Chau, Leslie, & Howe, 2002), and managerial shyness (Austin & Martin, 1996).

Situational Factors Impacting Management

The need for organizational change can significantly influence one's managerial style (Poole, Ferguson, & Schwab, 2005; York, 1977) and approach to building internal support for organizational change (DuBrow, Wocher, & Austin, 2001; Feinstein, 1985; Norman & Keys, 1992), as well as promoting innovation (Keys, 1988; Tropman, 1989). Similarly, in times of organizational decline, different managerial approaches are needed and some situations call for the development of techniques to deal with and learn from mistakes (Eaton, 1980).

Management strategies are influenced by organizational structures such as decentralized service delivery systems (Grossman & Rangan, 2001; Martinez-Brawley & Delevan, 1993; Stewart, 1981), alternative organizational structures (Powell, 1986) and collaboratives (Gil de Gibaja, 2001; Gilmore, 1979) and the infusion of technology and new approaches to service delivery (Dattalo, 1997; Luse, 1980; Rapp & Poertner, 1978; Turem, 1986).

Strategic Planning

Strategic planning is an important dimension of nonprofit management (Bigelow, Stone, & Arndt, 1996; Menefee, 1997; Meyer-Emerick & Momen, 2003; Steiner, Gross, Ruffolo, & Murray, 1994; Wolch & Rocha, 1993). Strategic planning is used for achieving structural change (Vogel & Patterson, 1986), for maintaining high quality services during periods of rapid organizational growth (Sheehan, 1999), for addressing the needs of different types of nonprofits (Jansson & Taylor 1978; Siciliano, 1997; Stone, 1989), and as a method for responding to external funders or stakeholders (Webster & Wylie, 1988).

The literature reflects different models of strategic planning (Edwards & Eadie, 1994; Lauffer, 1986; Roller, 1996; Van Breda, 2000), including SWOT analysis (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) (Kearns, 1992), a program evaluation model emphasizing “mission, money, and merit” (Krug & Weinberg, 2004), goal identification (Gillespie, 1977), and a model for use in different types of organizations (small and externally controlled) Mara, 2000; Maranville, 1999).

In addition to managing the internal processes of a nonprofit, nonprofit managers and leaders are responsible for developing and supporting the agency’s relationships with other organizations, its constituents, and the community at large.

Managing External Relations

Considerable attention is given to the managerial responsibility of managing external relationships. These relationships include relationships with other organizations, public-private partnerships, communications and marketing. The subtheme also explores relationships with environmental entities that influence nonprofits such as public policy, the law, and professional ethical codes.

Inter-Organizational Relations

The topic of inter-organizational relationships has received considerable attention, especially by funders seeking to support integrated services. Factors influencing the predisposition of nonprofits to collaborate are linked with opportunities and capacities (Foster & Meinhard, 2002; Merrit & Neugeborn, 1990; Mulford & Mulford, 1980; Snavely & Tracy, 2002; Takahashi & Smutny, 2002; York & Zychlinski, 1996). Strategies and processes for initiating successful collaborations with other nonprofits are introduced (Beatrice, 1990; Cherin, 2000; Flaherty & Martin, 1978; Frumkin, 1978; Gibelman & Demone, 1990; Reilly, 2001; Wimpfheimer, Bloom, & Kramer, 1990).

Inter-organizational relations are the foundation for effective service coordination, especially in relationship to improving client outcomes and responding to resource constraints (Glisson, 1994; Glisson & James, 1992; Harbert, Finnegan, & Tyler, 1997; Mulroy & Shay, 1998; Woodard, 1994). Financial and political pressures to develop service networks are other factors related to service coordination in addition to cause-based partnerships developed to meet community needs (Guo & Acar, 2005; Parker & Selsky, 2004; Provan, Isett, & Milward, 2004).

There is considerable interest in evaluating organizational collaborations (Gilbert & Specht, 1977; Jaskyte & Minhong Lee, 2006; Mulford, 1981; Kurtz, 1998; Libby & Austin,

2002; O’Looney, 1994; Vosburgh, 1983; Wardell, 1988; Woodard, 1995) and identifying frameworks for collaboration (Hassett & Austin, 1997; Urwin & Haynes, 1998; Zippay & Bluestone, 1990). The challenges and strategies associated with service coordination and collaboration are central features of nonprofit management (Anderson, 2001; Gidron & Hasenfeld, 1994; Mulroy, 2003; O’Looney, 1997; Snaveley & Tracy, 2000; Walden, Hammer, & Kurland, 1990).

The implications of cross-sectional collaborations between nonprofit organizations, businesses and/or governmental entities also receive attention (Austin, 2000; Caers, DuBois, Jegers, De Gieter, Schepers, & Pepermans, 2006; Gummer & Driben, 1977; Hunter, 1993; Lewis, 1998; O’Regan & Oster, 2000; Redekop, 1986). For example, partnerships between universities and nonprofit organizations focus on the research and challenges associated with academic-practitioner collaboration (Benson, Harkavy, & Puckett, 2000; Born, Petchers, Wedel, Benton, & Wodarski, 1990; Gamm, 1981; Macduff & Netting, 2000).

The relationships that national nonprofit organizations have with their local affiliates and how these relationships influence both sites are explored (Elkin & McLean, 1976; Oster, 1992). Also considered is the preparation that nonprofit managers require to successfully navigate and build inter-organizational collaboration (Weiner, 1990). The ways in which inter-organizational dynamics can influence service delivery at the street level (Weaver, 2000) and how decisions made by partnering organizations can influence decision-making in nonprofits (Bielefeld & Scotch, 1998; Stone, 2000) are identified. The use outside facilitators is a suggested strategy to assist with the development of successful collaborative relationships (Connor & Kadel-Taras, 1999).

Coalitions and cooperatives between nonprofits receive limited attention in the literature. Common patterns of exchange relationships and the necessity for establishing a central leader or group when building coalitions are considered (Roberts-DeGennaro, 1987) and two coalitions are evaluated (Kaplan, 1986; Koch & Johnson, 1997). The development of cooperatives as an alternative organizational structure for nonprofit service delivery is introduced (Soifer & Resnick, 1993).

Finally, a number of authors consider mergers and acquisitions among nonprofit organizations. The motivations behind merger decisions are explored (Singer & Yankey, 1991) and a number of common problems experienced during mergers are identified (Giffords & Dina, 2003; O'Brien & Collier, 1991; Schmid, 1995; Teram & Igra, 2005). The outcomes of several mergers are considered retrospectively (Golensky & DeRuiter, 2002; Golensky & DeRuiter, 1999). Acquisitions differ from mergers because one organization has more power than the other, thereby creating a different set of challenges (Wernet & Jones, 1992).

Inter-organizational collaborations also include the partnering arrangements that federal, state and local governments have with nonprofit organizations for the delivery of human services. This form of relationship, generally involving purchase-of-service arrangements, is distinctive and therefore addressed as a separate sub-category of inter-organizational relations.

Public-Private Partnerships

A central focus of the literature on inter-organizational relationships involves public organizations in partnership with nonprofit agencies to deliver human services, especially in the area of devolving governmental authority from the federal to state to local levels and privatization (Alexander, 1999; Alexander, Nank & Stivers, 1999; Austin, 2003; Brudney, 1987; Netting, McMurtry, Kettner, & Jones-McClintic, 1990; Reisch & Sommerfeld, 2003).

Several conceptual frameworks and models have been developed to expand our understanding of contracting and the process of forming public-private partnerships (Abzug & Turnheim, 1998; Cho & Gillespie, 2006; Coston, 1998; Gronbjerg, 1987; Kettner & Martin, 1990; Najam, 2000; Salamon, 1987; Young, 2000). These relationships have a particular impact on the administrative practices of nonprofits and service delivery depending on geographic areas and service sectors (Akingbola, 2004; Austin, 1983; Ghere, 1981; Krashinsky, 1990; Longoria, 1999; McBeath & Meezan, 2006; Wolpert, 1989 Zullo, 2006).

The partnering arrangements between government and nonprofits (Brudney, 1987; Peat & Costley, 2001), as well as between government and for-profit agencies (Kettner & Martin, 1988) can create multiple challenges (Brown & Troutt, 2004; Shaw, 2003). Contracting relationships can diminish the independence, autonomy and distinctiveness associated with the nonprofit sector (Ferris, 1993; Hasenfeld & Powell, 2004; Hassel, 1997; Malka, 1990; McCready & Rahnb, 1986; Ostrander, 1989; Saidel, 1989; Salamon, 1989). The multiple challenges include delays in payment (Grossman, 1992), control of the partnerships (Alexander, Comfort, & Weiner, 1998), responding to accountability requirements (Kettner & Martin, 1985; Poertner & Rapp, 1985; Walden, 2006), ethical practice issues (Lewis, 1989; Reichert, 1977), and the impact of contracting on philanthropy (Horne, Johnson, & Van Slyke, 2005).

In seeking to develop relationships with other organizations and funders, nonprofits must develop strategies to market themselves to other agencies interested in partnering. Nonprofits often incorporate marketing tools developed by other sectors to build marketing strategies to communicate their messages both locally and globally.

Marketing Nonprofit Services

The environment of financial insecurity and competition for funding has increased the interest of nonprofits in the development of strategies to market their services to potential funders and collaborators (Bonner & George, 1988; Chisnall, 1979; Gerkins, 1985; Holmes & Riecken, 1980; Kaye, 1994; Segal, 1991; Stoner, 1986). Marketing nonprofit services to multiple constituents includes potential service users and the general public, especially in relationship to the needs of vulnerable populations (Boehm, 2003; Brawley, 1985/86; Dudley, 1989; Gibelman, 2004; Martens, 1996; McClellan & Rebello-Rao, 1999; Schneider & Sharon, 1982). The internet is a new tool for disseminating information about nonprofits locally and globally (Elliott, Katsioloudes, & Weldon, 1998; Schneider, 2003).

Nonprofit managers also develop and monitor relationships with policy makers and legal enforcers. These relationships provide a platform for involvement in the development and implementation of public policy and help to ensure compliance with federal and state laws. Monitoring the observance of standards and ethics set by professional associations is another relationship that is taken into consideration.

Policy, Law, and Ethics

The relationship between public policy and human service nonprofits received considerable attention during the 1980s when President Ronald Reagan initiated a series of funding revisions and budget cuts. These changes altered the financing of publicly-funded nonprofit human services, especially in relationship to Title XX of the Social Security Act, welfare reform, and devolution of authority to state governments (Coble, 1999; Dowling, 1982; Garfinkel, 1982; Gruber, 1983; Hasenfeld, 2000; Lens & Pollack, 1999; Morrison, 1985; Richter & Ozawa, 1983).

The implementation of social policy can create many challenges for the nonprofit human service sector, especially the interaction between political ideologies and their potential impact on service delivery and professional ethics (Flynn, 1979; Lawry, 1995; Levy, 1983; Malloy & Agarwal, 2001; Morris, 1982; O'Neill, 1992; Rosenbraub, 1991; Salamon, 1993; Stein, 1978). In this context, political advocacy becomes an important in times of ideological change and the need to lobby for legislation that can improve services (Granger & Moynihan, 1987; Patti, 1984; Petr, 1991; Richan, 1983; Sarkisian & Portwood, 2003).

There are also multiple legal issues that affect the nonprofit sector in relationship to liability and accountability for service delivery (Chisolm, 1995; Collin, 1987; Lee, 2004; Martinez, 2003; Reamer, 1993; Siciliano & Spiro, 1992). The legal strategies relate to risk management, worker rights, personnel management, and litigation as a form of advocacy (Cole, 1994; Lynch & Versen, 2003; Wimpfheimer, Klein, & Kramer, 1993; Zalkind, 1993).

The nonprofit status of human service organizations involves tax exemption and relations with the Internal Revenue Service (Froelich, 1997; Gjems-Onstad, 1990; Grimm, 1999). In addition, tax incentives for corporate and individual charitable giving can have a significant impact on nonprofit finance (Partha, Wilhelm, Rooney, & Brown, 2003; Rooney & Tempel, 2001; Webb, 1996; Webb, 1994).

Research to Inform Practice

The literature cited in this review addresses the nature of nonprofit organizations as well as their governance, leadership and management. Conceptual frameworks to acquire an understanding of nonprofit organizations represent a common theme, especially the relationships inside and outside nonprofits as well as methods to govern and manage them. This section includes a brief summary and selected research questions to guide future inquiry.

Organizational Theory for Nonprofits:

Most theoretical frameworks are taken from other disciplines and sectors and applied to the nonprofit sector. Only a few authors develop and present frameworks that address the unique nature of nonprofit human service organizations. It is clear that future inquiry needs to focus on the development of additional theoretical frameworks that explain nonprofit organizations, especially the sector's unique connection with its turbulent external environment. Future research is needed on the changing identities of nonprofit organizations and their capacities to change in order to meet new needs and demands. Similarly, new frameworks and models are needed to understand the complex processes of managing change and growth. Inquiry into the following questions can help inform future research and practice:

- What theoretical frameworks best explain the unique characteristics of nonprofit human service organizations?
- What strategies can nonprofit leaders use to most effectively facilitate organizational growth and change?

Nonprofit Governance:

While there are multiple responsibilities and roles for nonprofit Boards of Directors, promising areas for future research relate to board composition, operations, and behaviors. New theoretical models are needed to examine relationships within boards, executives, and the community. New approaches for assessing board effectiveness are needed, especially identifying ways to help nonprofit boards to become more effective and supportive of the organization's mission. Inquiry into the following questions can help inform future research and practice:

- What competencies, qualities, and skills are needed by nonprofit Boards of Directors to effectively govern an organization?
- What are the most effective board assessment strategies and how can the results of these assessments help facilitate organizational growth and development?

Nonprofit Leadership and Management

Considerable attention is given to the leadership and management of nonprofit organizations including the nature of effective leadership, leadership duties and styles, and how a change in leadership can influence the organization. A number of management concepts and frameworks are taken from other disciplines and applied to nonprofit organizations. It is clear that more research is needed to develop management models that capture the uniqueness of the nonprofit human service organizations.

Also addressed are the characteristics and competencies of nonprofit managers and their management of difficult situations. Special attention is given to the processes and challenges of strategic planning. Inquiry into the following questions can help inform future research and practice:

- Given the frameworks used to explain nonprofit leadership and management, what additional concepts and skills need to be included in these frameworks?
- How do nonprofit managers and leaders use the results of strategic planning to guide organizational decision-making, growth, and change?

External Relations

The management of external relationships is widely addressed in the literature and continues to provide major challenges for nonprofit managers; therefore, more research is needed. Several inter-organizational relations themes are identified a warranting attention (e.g.,

collaborations and strategies for development successful partnerships, policy changes impacting public-private partnerships, and legal issues related to tax exemption and ethics). The following research questions could generate knowledge to inform future research and practice:

- What management strategies have nonprofits used over the past 30 years to successfully adapt to a changing environment, especially in relationship to the development of collaborative partnerships with other nonprofits, the government, and for-profit agencies?
- In what ways do nonprofit leaders position themselves to influence public policy development and implementation, individually or in coalition, with their community partners?

Conclusion

This analysis presents findings from a larger study that sought to map the knowledge base of nonprofit management. While the overall project reviewed and categorized **1981?** article abstracts published over thirty years in three of the most prominent journals on nonprofit management in the United States, this analysis focused on only **619** abstracts related to leading and managing nonprofit organizations. Considerable attention is given to theories that explain nonprofit organization behavior, inter-organizational relationships, and how nonprofit organizations effectively adapt to meet changing needs and environmental forces. In addition to describing theories, the literature reflects much interest in the governance, leadership, and management of nonprofit organizations.

The managerial leadership and lay governance of nonprofit organizations continue to need more research attention. Inquiry into the following research questions could generate knowledge that could inform research and practice:

1. What management strategies have nonprofit human service organizations used over the past thirty years to successfully adapt to the changing organizational environment?
2. In what ways does the Board of Directors help guide the success of a nonprofit organization, support and assess the Executive Director, and engage annually in its own self-assessment?
3. If one were to develop a theory of nonprofit human service management, what leadership and management concepts should be included, as well as related skills and tools needed to achieve organizational growth and stability?
4. How has increased partnering and collaborating influenced the management of nonprofits and the delivery of human services?

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