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RELATIONSHIPS AMONG DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES, ORGANIZATIONAL
CULTURE, INTERPERSONAL SELF-EFFICACY AND PERCEIVED JOB
PERFORMANCE

By

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Graduate School of the University of Louisville
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for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Leadership, Foundations and Human Resource Development
University of Louisville
Louisville, Kentucky

May, 2005

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A Dissertation Approved on

April 5, 2005

by the following Dissertation Committee:

Dissertation Co-Director

Dissertation Co-Director

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents

María Elizabeth Colina de Vásquez

and

José Alfredo Vásquez Vásquez

who have given love and guidance since the day I was born.

Gracias!

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ABSTRACT

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES, ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, INTERPERSONAL SELF-EFFICACY AND PERCEIVED JOB PERFORMANCE

María D. Vásquez-Colina

April 5, 2005

The goal of this study was to investigate the relationships among demographics variables (age, sex, and ethnicity), organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived job performance of nonprofit human service workers. The 13 participating organizations provided services such as adoption assistance, adult daycare services, child care resource and referral help, children's daycare services, family counseling, children and youth mentoring, residential care for elderly, residential care for persons with disabilities, and substance abuse treatment programs. Only 607 full-time workers filled in the questionnaire. The response rate was 54%.

Findings in the present study found that self-efficacy is a major predictor of performance. This study found that to perform more effectively at the interpersonal level, nonprofit human service workers require expertise,

resources, organizational and supervisor support, self-efficacy and the opportunity to engage in interpersonal interactions on job-related matters.

Furthermore, the empirical results of this study support the two categories of job performance: task and contextual performance, and individual differences among workers. Sex and ethnicity had a disordinal interaction on self-ratings of contextual job performance.

The findings have implications for workers, managers, policymakers, and nonprofit researchers. Suggestions are also offered to improve areas such as management and communication practices, advocating, counseling, and mentoring skills, and collaborating, supporting, volunteering, and technical skills.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study deals with workers in the nonprofit sector – an increasingly important part of the workforce. Estimates of the workforce employed in nonprofit organizations range from 8% to 11% of the total number of paid employees in the United States (Independent Sector, 2002; Salamon, 1999). In other words, out of the 134 million workers receiving paychecks, at least eleven million work in the nonprofit sector. If the upper limit of the range is more accurate, an additional three and half million may be added to the number of employees on nonprofit payrolls, or 14.5 million workers.

The growth of nonprofit organizations and the number of individuals hired by the organizations have been clearly obvious in the past two decades (Najam, 2000; Ruckle, 1981, 1993; Salamon, 1999, 2001, 2002). It is estimated that nonprofit growth will continue due to the demand of the services provided by this sector and to its role in “generating the social capital that links people to their communities and to others” (Boris, 1999, p.17).

As the nonprofit sector has grown, so have research studies about the nature of these organizations. The range of the topics studied has included volunteer management, accountability, and financial issues (Stone, Hagger, &

Griffin, 2001). The topic of this current research falls in the category of human resource development, as it focuses on individual performance (Swanson, & Holton, 2001). Discussion on empirical studies regarding organizational culture, self-efficacy, and job performance is presented below.

Organizational Culture

A number of researchers have identified the organizational culture or some manifestation of culture, like climate (Jones, 1998), as having an impact on workers. Organizational culture refers to patterns of belief, symbols, rituals, values, and assumptions that evolve and are shared by the members of the organization (Pettigrew, 1979; Schein, 1992). Organizational culture influences how workers see themselves and affects their levels of involvement and commitment (Cherniss, 1991). Organizational culture has also been found to influence workers' perceptions of support given by the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Lent and Lopez (2002) highlighted the importance of studying self-efficacy within organizational cultures. For that reason, the current study examines worker interpersonal self-efficacy related to understanding and supporting individuals in need of assistance. Several gaps in the association between organizational culture and self-efficacy of the nonprofit human service workers are addressed in this study as well.

To identify gaps in organizational culture research that may need to be addressed, it would be helpful to examine a broader view of culture in organizations. Deal and Kennedy (1982) stated that people are a company's

greatest resource, and the best way to manage them is through the subtle cues of a culture. They added that a strong culture is a system of informal rules that spelled out how individuals are to behave most of the time, and that this culture enabled individuals to feel better about what they did, so they were more likely to work harder. Although for-profit organizations may also use enabling and supporting skills with customers, their focus is not to provide a human service like nonprofit organization, but to increase their profits.

In the case of a nonprofit agency, workers assist other individuals to function better with a social, economic or physical challenge. Geary (1989) found that these nonprofit workers, specifically human service workers have different roles: advocate, broker, mediator, consultant, teacher, expert, supporter, enabler, and data collector and recorder (Geary, 1989). Among these roles, the enabler role, and the supporter role were ranked as most needed. This research implies that the organizational culture of a human service agency supports strongly and values enabler and supporter skills more than other. Other skills needed refer to facilitation skills to create a dialogue among the key stakeholders to come out and recognize performance criteria, outcomes and other elements that may contribute to the effectiveness of the organization (Herman & Renz, 1998). Thus, if workers are to help and to assist other individuals, they need to show the necessary skills to assume the different roles they have.

Interpersonal Self-efficacy

To perform successfully, workers need the knowledge and the belief of being able to perform well. Nonprofit human service workers have direct person-

related jobs which means that their main task is to assist their clients physically, psychologically or socially (Dollard, Dormann, Boyd, Winefield, & Winefield, 2003). This is why perceived interpersonal self-efficacy becomes a key skill for nonprofit workers. In this study, interpersonal self-efficacy for a human service workers is defined as the perceived belief in the ability to interact, provide feedback and provide support to other workers and clients, in other words to master their interpersonal environment (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Poulin & Walter, 1993; Snyder & Morris, 1978).

A number of investigations in a variety of workplace settings have identified elements such as social support (Bhanthumnavin, 2003), leadership (Jeffreys, 2001; Ladany, Ellis, & Friedlander, 1999; Schyns, 2001), problem solving (Wolf, 1997), feedback (Earley, 1990) environment (Felfe & Schyns, 2002; Hall, 2000; Smith, 2001), and job involvement (Tudor, 1997), among others, as contributors to increase individual self-efficacy. As high levels of self-efficacy are strongly associated with high performance (Bandura, 1986), the association between interpersonal self-efficacy and perceived job performance of nonprofit workers is investigated in this study, relationships not examined in the previous studies.

Job Performance

A worker's performance on the job is highly related to both the skills of the individual worker and the interpersonal supports available within the organization. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994), for example, studied the association among task (e.g., writing a report), contextual (e.g., feedback provided by others), and

overall performance (e.g., perception of ability to successfully complete a job) in a military setting. They found that task performance and contextual performance contributed independently to overall performance.

The need to possess good interpersonal skills is essential for the optimal performance of nonprofit workers. For instance, Gallagher and Weinberg (as cited in Alvarez, Santos, & Vasquez, 2001) stated that, while for-profit users pay for the product or service, the nonprofit users pay for only a part of the cost of the service and the donors pay the rest. This implies that nonprofit organizations partly depend on the relationship with individuals such as contributors and not only clients. When surveying managers from public organizations and nonprofit organizations, Berman (1999) found that cultures of social service organizations as opposed to public organizations, encouraged a more open and frequent communication that was directed more toward excellence rather than compliance.

Another feature that has been found to be included in some job performance studies is the association between demographic variables and job performance. Bhanthumnavin (2003), for example, found gender to be correlated to performance ratings. In another study, age was found to be correlated with career commitment in human service professionals (Cherniss, 1991). Another explanatory variable that may potentially have a large effect on job performance is ethnicity. Elvira and Town (2001), for example, reported race made a difference in the job ratings received by workers from their supervisors.

Rationale for the Study

Despite the importance of interpersonal self-efficacy, there has been little attention given to observe the relationship among demographic variables, organizational culture, perceived interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived job performance within a nonprofit setting. While several studies have looked at each variable individually, or at the relationships of two of them, not many studies have been done examining the four variables together. The goal of this study was to explore the relationships among demographic variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and employee perceived job performance within the nonprofit sector. Examining all of these variables can reveal what are the most important factors in predicting job performance. This, in turn, could be useful to program managers as they plan professional development of their current employees and recruitment of new employees.

Problem Statement

With the increase in number of human service agencies and therefore their services (e.g. childcare, domestic violence, immigration issues), it becomes more important to learn more about these agencies. Human service workers find themselves how to deal with clients and situations. But they must also deal with other situations like how to get professional development while on the job (Lait & Wallace, 2002). Furthermore, human service organizations not only have an economic value, but they embed values regarding 'social justice, social welfare,

and human well-being that distinguish them from other sectors” (Gibelman, 2000, p.266), A deeper knowledge is needed on their functioning.

Most of the empirical information of organizational culture and performance has been based on studies on private business companies or public companies (Amsa, 1986; Hofstede, 2000; Schein, 1992; Glaser, 1987; Zamanou, & Glaser, 1994). Unlike other studies examining task and contextual performance (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994), the focus of this study relied on workers judgments of performance. Little research has been based on nonprofit organizational culture and job performance, especially on the nonprofit human service sector, thus the need for this study. Although organizational culture research methods were mainly qualitative in earlier times, recent authors argue that quantitative research can be done if reliable and valid quantitative measures are (Denison, 1996). Based on an extensive search of the literature, little empirical research has been conducted to explore the relationships and differences among demographic variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived employee job performance variables within the nonprofit sector. This research investigated the relationships among these variables.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study will be found in three different fields of study: the concepts of self-efficacy and performance, which has its origins in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986); performance theory (Borman &

Motowidlo, 1993); and organizational culture theory (Schein, 1992, 1990, Hofstede, 1993, 1984, 1980, Pettigrew, 1979).

Social Cognitive Theory.

Social cognitive theory highlights the importance of observing and modeling the behaviors, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others. Social cognitive theory explains human behavior in relation to continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental influences (Bandura, 1998). Bandura (1998) refers to self-efficacy as the beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute actions needed to produce given goals. When referring to the relevance of self-efficacy, he states that the motivational level, and beliefs of personal efficacy make an important contribution to the acquisition of the knowledge on which skills were founded. He adds that beliefs of personal efficacy also regulate motivation by shaping aspirations and the outcomes expected for one's efforts. Bandura (1986) also states that high self-efficacy is associated with high performance.

Performance Theory.

Performance has been defined as the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual performs over a standard period of time (Motowidlo, 2003). Borman and Motowidlo identified two types of performance: task performance and contextual performance (1993). Task performance refers to transforming raw materials into goods and providing services such as providing counseling to an alcoholic. Task performance also involves activities that service and maintain the technical part of an organization

such as supervising and planning. On the other hand, “contextual performance contributes to the organizational effectiveness through its effects on the psychological, social and organizational context of work” (Motowidlo, 2003, p. 44), such as affecting individuals, increasing individuals’ readiness to perform with valuable behaviors, and through actions that have some effect on the organization’s tangible resources, such as conserving gas and electricity in the organization.

Task and contextual performance are correlated with different personal characteristics (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). The variation in task performance will depend on individual differences in knowledge, skills, and abilities. On the contrary, individual differences in interpersonal skills and motivation will predict contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). In this study, task and contextual performance are examined.

Organizational Culture.

Organization culture scholars have tried to explain the different dimensions of the organizational life and their individuals (Schein, 1992, 1990, Hofstede, 1993, 1984, 1980, Pettigrew, 1979). In this study, organizational theory provides the underlying concepts to understand the concept of organization culture. As Schein (1992) explained, “culture is the result of a complex group learning process that was only partially influenced by leader’s behavior” (p. 5). He stated that to understand culture in an organization it must be analyzed by observing its three levels: artifacts, espoused values, and basic underlying assumptions. The artifacts are described as the visible organizational structures;

the espoused values as the strategies, goals, and philosophies; and the basic underlying assumptions as the unconscious, taken-for granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts, and feelings. In this study, the dimensions of culture will be teamwork-conflict, climate-morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, and meetings (Glaser, Zamanou, & Hacker, 1987). These dimensions represent artifacts, values and assumptions.

Lait and Wallace (2002), when researching conditions of work that affect human service workers' job stress, found that professional conditions of work relating to working relationships and client interactions were vital to fulfill service providers' expectations, while bureaucratic conditions of work that reflect role conflict and excessive role demands are particularly stressful.

The present study investigated the relationships among four sets of variables. Demographic variables were the commonly used factors of age, ethnicity, and gender. Organizational culture was measured with an instrument, the Organizational Culture (OC) scale of Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker (1987) that operationalized the construct organizational culture (Pettigrew, 1979). Interpersonal self-Efficacy was measured with an adaptation of an instrument, the Interpersonal Self-Efficacy (ISE) scale of Brouwers and Tomic (2001) that operationalized the construct self-efficacy (Bandura, 1998). Finally, Job performance was measured with and adaptation of an instrument of Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) which operationalized those authors' constructs of task performance and contextual performance. Figure 1 represents the variables of

this study: demographic variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived job performance.

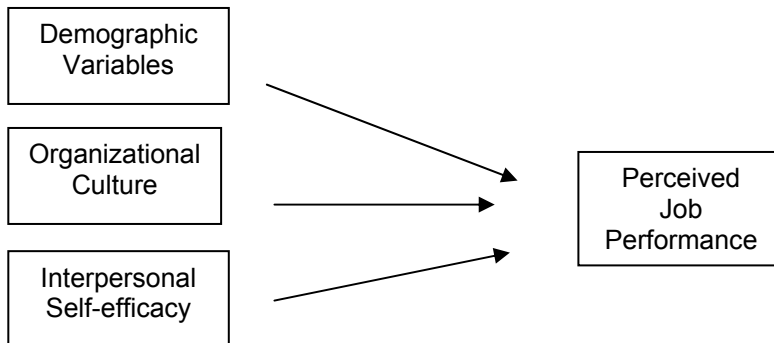


Figure 1: Variables in the Study

Purpose of Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationships and differences among demographic variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy and perceived job performance in a multioccupational sample within nonprofit human services agencies. The nonprofit human service agencies used in this study were formally constituted; non governmental; not-profit distributing; self-governing; voluntary, and beneficial to the public (Salamon, 1992).

Research questions

- What is the relationship among demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity) organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived job performance in nonprofit human service organizations?

- I. What is the relationship between the demographic variables and job performance?
 - II. Controlling for demographic variables, what is the relationship between organizational culture and job performance?
 - III. Controlling for demographic variables and organizational culture variables, what is the relationship between interpersonal self-efficacy and job performance?
- What are the differences in the perceptions of job performance based on demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity)?

In this study it is hypothesized that there will be a significant relationship among demographic variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy and job performance. It is also hypothesized that job performance beliefs will be significantly different in terms of age, gender, and ethnicity.

Assumptions

The first assumption was that the organizations in the sample would continue supporting this study by facilitating access to their full-time employees. The second assumption was that the participants would respond to the questionnaire honestly. And the third assumption was that human service organizations value highly interpersonal skills. The fourth assumption was that little empirical research has been done in human service agencies cultures and worker perceptions. Finally, the fifth assumption was that results would be generalizable to other agencies.

Limitations

A probable difficulty the researcher may have encountered in this study would be associated with determining a larger sample to make generalizations of the results possible to other organizations with the same characteristics. Another limitation was that the study used only a self-rated scale. The results obtained by the self-rated scales may have had the probability to be inflated by common method bias (Noe & Wilk, 1993). It would have been interesting to obtain supervisors' ratings on the supervisee performance to compare them with supervisees' ratings since multisource feedback instruments have proven to be good measures of objective performance (Johnson, 2001; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). However access to supervisors' ratings were not accessible to the researcher.

Significance of the Study

This study contributed with empirical data to discussions on the impact of nonprofit culture on interpersonal perceived self-efficacy of human service workers, and whether these self-efficacy beliefs contributed to their job performance.

This research was exploratory in nature and was designed to provide information to better understand the nonprofit culture and workers in several ways. As the number of nonprofit human service organizations continues to grow, this research addressed a critical gap in the literature and may have

helped employee and employers better understand the predictors of positive job performance which may have been linked to better quality community services (Drucker, 1989). The research findings may have also had implications for policy formation, supplying empirical data on multiple topics to nonprofit decision makers, where voices of frontline workers have not been traditionally considered (Gummer & Edwards, 1988).

Another contribution of the study was that it would add to the literature of nonprofit human resource development (HRD) by providing empirical accounts of workers' perceived self-efficacy and organizational culture, and its relationships to their job performance. This study addressed a gap in the research literature by examining the effects of two known predictors of job performance. The findings could assist in the design and delivery of appropriate opportunities to learn and develop necessary skills to meet workers' job demands (Desimone, Werner & Harris, 2002). The results of this study may be generalized to other organizations with similar characteristics as the ones surveyed.

The last contribution made by this study is the more specific look at the interaction of contextual performance, gender and ethnicity. Previous studies have examined the extent to which task and contextual performance differ. This study examined the relationships among demographic variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and job performance in a nonprofit human service setting, but also the manner to which task and contextual performance interact with two demographic variables.

Research Design

This was a correlational study that explored the strength and direction of the relationship between the dependent variable (job performance) and the independent variables (organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and demographic variables). It also examined differences in job performance for individuals that differed by age, ethnicity and gender. Hierarchical regression and a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were used as inferential statistics methods.

Although the nonprofit workforce is composed by full-time, part-time and volunteers, this study only included full-time employees in the sample.

Definitions

Below are presented the operational definitions that will be used in the current study.

Climate morale	It refers to the degree employees feel motivated to be efficient and productive and the degree to which employees feel respected by the organization (Glaser, et al., 1987)
Contextual Performance:	Activities due to their contribution to organizational effectiveness (Motowidlo, 2003).
Ethnicity:	It refers to the cultural and racial background of the individuals.
Human Service Organization:	It will refer to organizations providing some type of

assistance that families or neighbors once provided informally (Salomon, 1992). The sample of this study will include day-care services, adoption assistance, family counseling, residential care for elderly or physically or mentally impaired, and substance abuse treatment.

- Human Service Worker: All individuals working in a human service organization.
- Information flow: Amount of information that an individual is given by others related to efficiency and productivity (Glaser, et al. 1987)
- Interpersonal Self-efficacy Perceived belief of worker to successfully interact, provide feedback, and provide support with other workers (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001).
- Involvement: Individual perception on if they participate in the decision-making and if their ideas are valued (Glaser, 1987).
- Job Performance: The perceived belief of total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that individual carries over a period. This perceived job performance includes task and contextual performance.

Organization Culture	The pattern of shared basic assumptions used by a given group. This pattern helps the given group to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integrations (Schein, 1992). Organizational culture will include the constructs of teamwork-conflict, climate-morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, and meetings.
Overall Performance	Perceived belief on how the worker completed the job successfully.
Supervision:	The extent to which employees are given positive or negative feedback on work performance (Glaser, et al., 1987)
Task Performance:	The activities that help transforming raw materials into goods and services.
Teamwork:	The degree to which employees perceive their work group functioning as a team where trust exists and people are treated fairly (Glaser, et al. 1987).

Conclusion

This chapter is an overview of the study. The next chapter presents an overview of the pertinent literature for the study. Next, the research methods will be discussed in Chapter Three while Chapter Four reveals the findings from the

collected data. Finally, Chapter Five discusses the results and the researcher's recommendations.

CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

Overview

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship among demographic variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived job performance of workers in participating human service organizations in metropolitan Jefferson County. Due to the increasing number of human service agencies, more information is needed to learn how these organizations function and how their workforce perform and perceive the organization.

The research questions of this study are:

- What is the relationship among demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity) organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived job performance in nonprofit human service organizations?
 - I. What is the relationship between the demographic variables and job performance?
 - II. Controlling for demographic variables, what is the relationship between organizational culture and job performance?

III. Controlling for demographic variables and organizational culture variables, what is the relationship between interpersonal self-efficacy and job performance?

- What are the differences in the perceptions of job performance based on demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity)?

To gain a deeper understanding of nonprofit human service organizations and the four variables to be observed, this chapter reviewed literature concerning the growth and relevance of nonprofit organizations and established a theoretical framework that explored self-efficacy, organizational culture, demographic variables, and perceived job performance. The first goal of this chapter was to review the literature related to the growth of nonprofit organizations and its relevance, and the social learning (Bandura, 1986), organizational, and job performance theories that would support this study. The second goal was to provide a description of organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, demographic variables, and perceived job performance empirical research. The final goal was to briefly summarize the research that describes the findings of the reviewed literature, and demographics and to provide evidence supporting the need of this study. This chapter is organized into the following main areas:

- i. Overview
- ii. The nonprofit Sector: Growth and Relevance
- iii. Theoretical framework: Concepts of self-efficacy, which has its origins in social learning theory (Bandura, 1986), organizational

culture (Hofstede, 1980, 1984, 1993; Schein, 1990, 1992, Deal and Kennedy 1982, Pettigrew, 1979), which relies on organizational theory, and job performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Gilbert, 1996; Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997; Motowidlo, 2003).

- iv. Empirical research in organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, job performance and demographic variables.
- v. Summary of organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and job performance theory and research.

The Nonprofit Sector: Growth and Relevance

Nonprofit Growth

The nonprofit sector includes a diverse array of organizations including hospitals, universities, orchestras, religious congregations, family services, children's services, neighborhood development agencies, and many other foundations which are support organizations to help to produce financial assistance for these organizations and to encourage practices of giving, volunteering, and service (Salamon, 2002).

The growth of nonprofit organizations has been more obvious in the past two decades (Najam, 2000; Ruckle, 1981, 1993; Salamon, 1999, 2001, 2002). Services provided by these organizations (i.e. social services, health care and education) have made them become more visible and important in societies around the world (Salamon & Anheier, 1997). Thus, nonprofit growth will continue due to the demand of the services provided by this sector.

Nonprofit vs. For-profit Organizations

A number of historical events have contributed to the creation of new opportunities for nonprofit and for-profit organizations to address societal problems and improve the welfare of citizens. These events include the questioning of the traditional welfare system state in western industrial countries, the vanishing of authoritarian government in various developing countries and the collapse of communism in Central Europe, and a deep unfriendliness towards the government (Young & Salamon, 2002).

Not only were opportunities created, competition for customers and services (for-profit against nonprofit) was also created. Fields that used to be dominated by nonprofits are now attracting for-profits. While competing, for-profits are experiencing significant structural advantages (Young & Salamon, 2002). For instance, for-profits are able to focus more effortlessly on the most profitable niche of a particular service market (i.e. healthcare, childcare), ignoring the populations unable to pay or at most severe risk, while nonprofit emphasis is on their mission that forces them to serve those most in need. Another difference between these two types of organizations is their access to sources of capital, such as sale of stocks. With these advantages, for-profits have expanded rapidly in a variety of traditional fields of nonprofit venture. Nevertheless, the growing presence of for-profits in various traditionally nonprofit domains has highlighted the competitive advantage and disadvantage of the nonprofits forms. Indeed, the competition has alerted nonprofits to pay more attention to issues of efficiency and effectiveness to successfully attract more customers (Young & Salamon,

2002). Further, nonprofits seem to be prioritizing ethical, moral, political and religious values in their functioning together with providing services to their founders and stakeholders whereas for-profits prioritize production values (Jeavons, 1992).

In short, to overcome evolving market challenges, nonprofits are increasingly internalizing the culture (values, assumptions and practices) and methods of market organizations and making them their own. This has resulted in changes related to internal processes, organizational structures, and ultimately the culture of the organizations (Young & Salamon, 2002). On the other hand, some for-profits seem to be more interested in looking in the eyes of their customers and community. Corporate social responsibility is the corporate initiative to care for others. Hatcher (2002) states that corporate social responsibility has four main areas of impact: “human resources (development and protection of people); community, cultural, and societal involvement and philanthropy; environmental protection, waste reduction, and sustainability; and product consumer, and service contributions and protections” (p.99). In the end, for-profits and nonprofits may result in having a similar goal, which is caring for others. However, the business practices to achieve the goal may not necessarily be the same.

Although for-profit research does not always apply to nonprofit organizations, due to their organizational and systematic differences (organizational structure, workforce, and business orientation), nonprofit

organizations have benefited from research and implemented some findings to their needs.

Perhaps a major difference between for-profits and nonprofits may be workers' roles. In the case of nonprofits, workers more often assist those with social, economic or physical challenges following their nonprofit mission and not their pursuit for profit. Geary (1989) found that these nonprofit workers, specifically human service workers, are more likely to have the following roles: advocate, broker, mediator, consultant, teacher, expert, supporter, enabler, and data collector and recorder. Among these roles, the roles of enabler and supporter were ranked to be the most needed. The enabler role that refers to assisting the client to find coping inner strengths and/or resources to produce some kind of change, whereas the supporter role, which demonstrates concern for the well being of clients, and/or provide emotional support, were ranked as most needed. Geary's research implies that the organizational culture of a human service agency strongly supports and values enabling and supporting skills. At the same time "the average nonprofit employee enjoys more pleasant non-pecuniary characteristics than the average for-profit employee. Nonprofit workers are on average less likely to find their work repetitive than do for-profit workers" (Preston, 1985, p.16)

Finally, as Kanter and Summers (1987) stated, the work of nonprofit organizations is often based on societal values which marks a deeper difference with their for-profit counterparts.

Nonprofit Research

As the nonprofit sector has grown, so have research studies about the nature of these organizations. Self-efficacy beliefs were found to be a frequently examined topic in the for-profit workplace. For instance, a number of investigations in a variety of workplace settings have identified elements such as leadership (Schyns, 2001), feedback (Earley, 1990), environment (Hall, 2000; Smith, 2001; Felfe & Schyns, 2002), training and performance (Saks, 1995), and job involvement (Tudor, 1997), among others as contributors to increase or be affected by individual self-efficacy. Yet, little research has examined these variables with nonprofit human service workers. Moreover, the association between nonprofit worker interpersonal self-efficacy and perceived job performance has not been adequately examined.

A number of other researchers have also identified the organizational culture, defined as the patterns of belief, symbols, rituals, values, and assumptions that evolve and are shared by the members of the organization (Pettigrew, 1979, Schein, 1992), or some manifestations of culture, like climate (Jones, 1998) as having an impact on workers. Organizational culture also influences how workers see themselves, affects their levels of involvement and commitment (Cherniss, 1991), and influences their perceptions of support given by the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). OC even seems to vary if the setting is different. For instance, Shields and Kiser (2003) in a study exploring violence and aggression directed toward human service workers found that there were differences between rural and urban settings. Danger and threats were

overlooked since the role of a human service worker was to help others therefore, they dismissed danger signs. Findings showed that most of the respondents were female and there were more females working in the rural areas than in the urban settings. Another difference was that individuals working in the rural areas were more likely to witness some violence compared with workers in urban settings.

Interestingly, women have traditionally dominated the nonprofit sector labor force. However, it seems that the nonprofit organizational culture might embed gender discrimination for women (Gibelman, 2000). Gibelman collected data on gender, race, job position, education, salary and years in positions through a structured questionnaire. The goal was to find out if there was a glass ceiling for women in the nonprofit area. Multiple regression analysis and *t*-tests were used to isolate the exclusive impact of these variables on salary. She found that there was a glass-ceiling phenomenon for women. There is a higher male representation in management, especially in upper management and their salaries were higher at each hierarchical level in the organization. Contrary to these findings, Preston (1985) found that women in the nonprofit sector have equal opportunities as their counterparts in the for-profit sector, and there is no female wage discrimination.

Thus, to provide assistance, advice, and support, nonprofit workers need to believe they can perform interpersonal roles well that involve interacting with others, and providing feedback to accomplish their tasks. Indeed, they need to have a high interpersonal self-efficacy. Therefore, a worker's ability to support

and enable is essential for a human service worker. If human service workers believe they are able to perform the supporting or enabling task (i.e. possess a high level of efficaciousness), there is a higher chance that their performance will be positive. Thus, worker's self-efficacy may contribute to having a better job performance (Earley, 1990; Gist, Schwoerer & Rosen, 1989; Gist, Stevens & Bavetta, 1991). In sum, interpersonal self-efficacy may be a key skill for nonprofit worker performance.

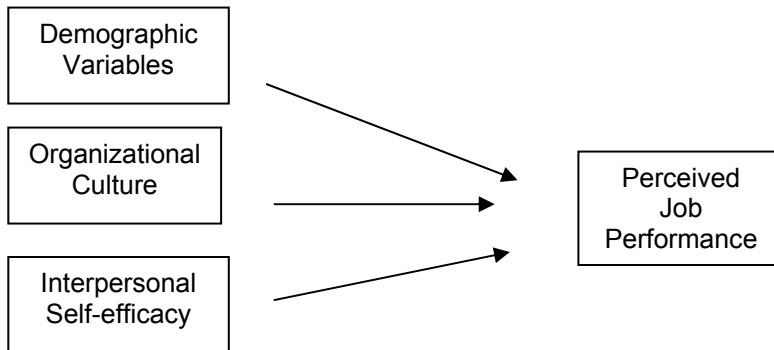


Figure 1: Theoretical Model of the Study

Therefore, due to the little information about the possible impact of organizational culture on worker performance (Cherniss, 1991; Jones, 1998; Pettigrew, 1979, Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Schein, 1992); the likely need for strong interpersonal skills among human service workers; and the demonstrated relationship between self-efficacy and perceived job performance, the goal of this study was to explore the relationships among demographic

variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and employee perceived job performance within the nonprofit sector.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study is found in three different fields of study: self-efficacy, which has its origins on social learning theory (Bandura, 1986), organizational culture (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Hofstede, 1980, 1984, 1993; Schein, 1990, 1992; Pettigrew, 1979), and job performance theory (Gilbert, 1996; Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997) (see Figure 1).

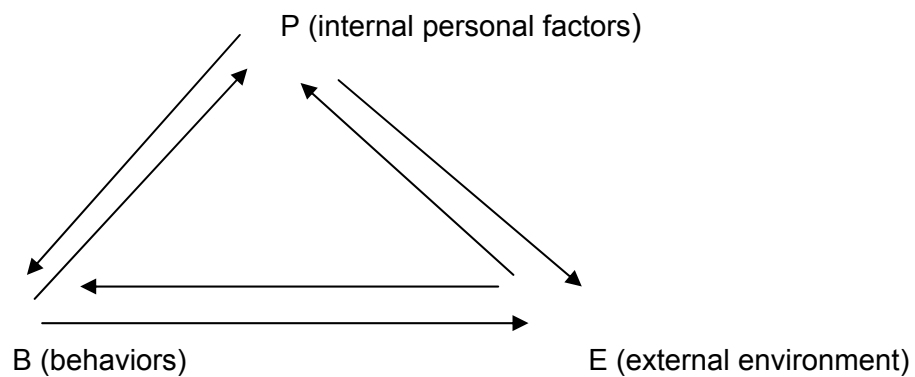


Figure 2: Triadic Reciprocal Causation

Source: Bandura, 1986

Social Learning Theory: Self-Efficacy

Social learning theory highlights the importance of observing and modeling the behaviors, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others. Social learning theory explains human behavior in relation to continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental influences, called triadic reciprocal causation (Figure 2). These three elements act as “interacting determinants that influence one another bidirectionally” (Bandura, 1998, pp.6).

Bandura (1998) referred to self-efficacy as the beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute actions needed to produce given goals. When referring to the relevance of self-efficacy, he stated:

By influencing the choice of activities and the motivational level, beliefs of personal efficacy made an important contribution to the acquisition of the knowledge on which skills are founded, it also supported efficient analytic thinking needed to search predictive knowledge from causally ambiguous environments. Beliefs of personal efficacy also regulated motivation by shaping aspirations and the outcomes expected for one’s efforts (p.35).

Bandura refers to self-efficacy as one’s beliefs in his or her capabilities to organize and execute actions needed to produce given goals. When referring to the relevance of self-efficacy, he stated that one’s motivational level and personal efficacy beliefs can make an important contribution to acquiring the knowledge needed for optimal skills. He added that personal efficacy beliefs also regulate motivation by shaping aspirations and the outcomes expected for one’s efforts. In addition to personal efficacy, Bandura examined the efficacy impact on groups. He also discussed perceived collective efficacy as “the group’s shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainments” (p. 477).

According to Bandura, efficacy beliefs as they relate to performance vary in level, strength, and generality. Each structure contains significant performance implications (see Figure 3).

Level refers to the degree of task difficulty. The tasks can go from simple demands to moderately difficult demands, or include the most tough performance demands within a particular domain of functioning. The range of perceived efficacy is measured against levels of task demands. What matters is not if the individual believes he can perform the task, but the belief that he can do it on a regular basis (Bandura, 1998). For instance, a caseworker may think he cannot only manage one adoption case well, but he might also be able to manage more than one case under pressure.

Strength refers to the persistent belief individuals have in their capabilities to overcome difficulties and obstacles. Weak perceived self-efficacy is related to discomfoting experiences, whereas strong perceived self-efficacy beliefs are related to stronger efforts to overcome challenging situations (Bandura, 1986). The stronger the self-efficacy belief, the more challenging tasks individuals will choose to perform, and the more likely they will be successful. For example, an athlete with strong self-efficacy will not pay attention to discomfoting events such as bad weather, bad shoes, and traffic to go training every day. On the contrary, he will choose to train despite these obstacles.

Level

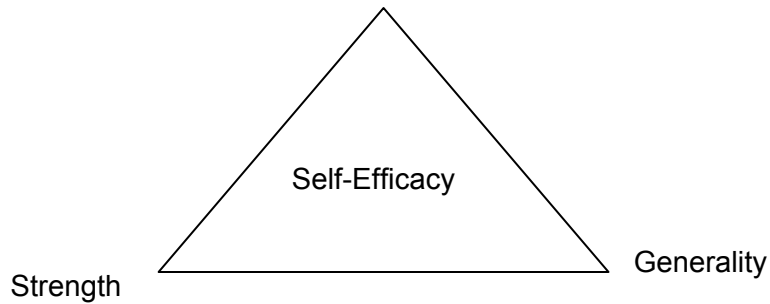


Figure 3: Sources of Variations of Self-Efficacy

Generality refers to an individual's own judgment across a wide range of activities or only in certain domains of functioning. Generality can vary in different dimensions, including the level of similarity of activities, the modalities in which capabilities are expressed (behavioral, cognitive, affective), qualitative characteristics of situations, and the characteristics of the individuals toward whom the behavior is directed (Bandura, 1998). For instance, individuals may judge themselves efficacious only in certain tasks (talking to people, writing papers, using a computer), but they might not feel as efficacious in other activities such as leading meetings or providing feedback.

Sources of Self-Efficacy

According to Bandura (1986) self-efficacy is based on four sources of information: enactive mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states (Figure 4). These sources can change self-efficacy beliefs in the individual.

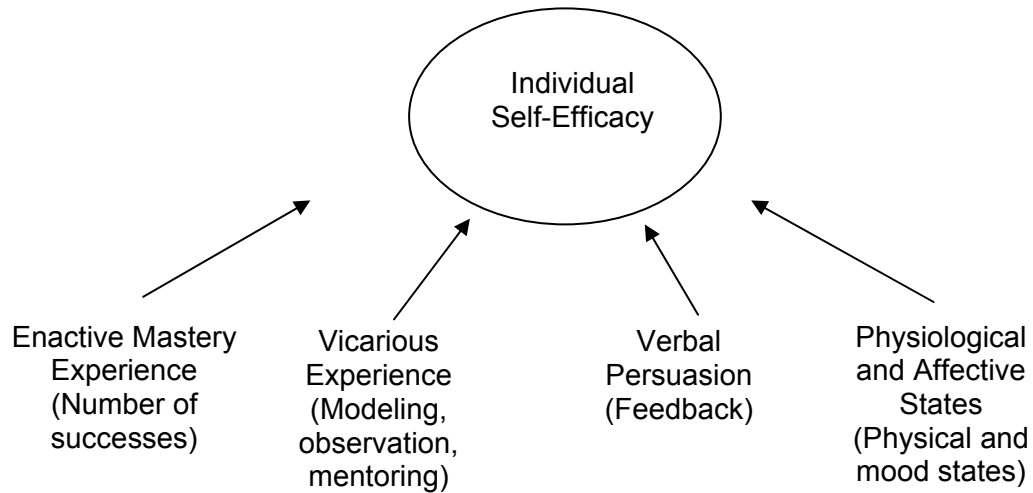


Figure 4: Sources Supporting Self-Efficacy

Enactive Mastery Experience. The first source is the most influential source of information, since it relies upon real mastery experiences. The more successes the individual has, the higher level of efficacy; conversely, the more failures an individual experiences, the lower the level of efficacy. When the individual has had repeated successes, it is more likely that failures or mistakes will affect her judgment of her own abilities. Thus, if an individual has developed an enhanced self-efficacy, it is more likely that he or she will be able to generalize this efficacy to other situations. Knowledge and strategies on certain matters will serve as tools to perform the tasks, but the individual has to also exercise control upon these knowledge and strategies consistently and persistently. For instance, if an individual tends to recall only his poorer performances, it is more likely that he will underestimate his efficacy belief. If the

individual chooses to select self-monitoring, she could improve the beliefs of self-efficacy by noting and remembering especially the successes (Bandura, 1997).

Vicarious Experience. The second source of efficacy is vicarious experience, which refers to observing and viewing the successful performances of others as examples to help raise the individual self-efficacy. Self-efficacy appraisals are more sensitive to vicarious experiences when there is a lot of uncertainty in one's capabilities. Thus, perceived self-efficacy can be raised generally, when the individual has not had much prior experience or when she observes other individuals performing. These events may help her perform more successfully. Furthermore, the lack of direct knowledge of their own capabilities will make the individual rely more on modeled indicators which allegedly have the desired competencies. For instance, a new caseworker will benefit from shadowing a senior case worker when interviewing a family who is applying for food stamps. Modeling involving effective strategies will not only help an individual's self-efficacy who has experienced events resulting into her inefficacy, but also, it may help self-assured individuals to increase their self-efficacy because they will learn better models to do things (Bandura, 1998).

Vicarious experiences could also affect self-appraisals of efficacy through the affective states aroused by comparative self-evaluation. If an individual compares herself competitively with superior performers, the comparison may provoke self-depreciation and hopelessness, whereas if there is an advantageous comparison with equally talented individuals, the product will be positive self-regulation (Bandura, 1998).

Most of the psychological modeling takes place in everyday association networks such as schools or the workplace since these are the places where interactions and observations occur (Bandura, 1997).

Verbal Persuasion. The third source of efficacy is verbal persuasion. This source will help individuals affirm that they have the abilities to perform successfully. Social persuasion by itself is not strong enough to create enduring self-efficacy, but could contribute to successful performance if the appraisal is done realistically (Bandura, 1997).

Persuasive efficacy information is frequently expressed in the evaluative feedback given to the individual performing the action. Evaluative feedback that emphasizes personal capabilities raises efficacy beliefs (Schunk, 1982 as cited in Bandura, 1997). In addition, feedback referring to improved performance because of hard effort enhances perceived efficacy less than feedback, implying progress due to natural ability. In other words, if individuals are told they have the ability because they gained it through hard work, they will show a lower sense of efficacy as opposed to telling them that progress shows they possess the ability without referring to the effort exerted. For instance, if a supervisor tells a salesperson his sales increased because he has an innate sales ability, the salesperson's self-efficacy will be higher. On the contrary, if the supervisor attributes the successful sales to the hard work and extra hours the salesperson went through, the self-efficacy will be low. Persuasive efficacy assessments are more probable to be most believable when they are only moderately beyond

what individuals can do at that time. If an individual is given unrealistic increases in efficacy, this will cause disappointing results (Bandura, 1997)

Physiological and Affective States. The fourth source of efficacy is physiological state, which refers to individuals relying “partly on information from their physiological state in judging their capabilities. Individuals read their somatic arousal in stressful situations as signs of being vulnerable to dysfunction” (Bandura, 1986, p. 401). Somatic indicators of personal efficacy usually involve physical accomplishments, health functioning, and coping with stressors. For instance, individuals performing physical activities requiring strength and stamina will probably pay attention to their pains, fatigue and physical inefficacy. Furthermore, mood states can also affect an individual’s judgment on his efficacy. For instance, if an individual has a negative mood, this will trigger thoughts of past failings, whereas a positive mood will bring about thoughts of previous accomplishments (Bandura, 1997).

Therefore, this fourth source of self-efficacy is required to enhance physical status, reduce stress levels and negative emotional proclivities, and correct misinterpretations of bodily states. (Bandura, 1997)

In sum, the four sources of self-efficacy can explain interpersonal self-efficacy in the following way. First, enactive mastery experience will highlight the importance of previous positive experiences of the individual. Older individuals may possess more previous job experiences than a younger worker. Second, vicarious experience will highlight the importance of observing, mentoring and supporting other individuals through modeling of job performances. Third, verbal

persuasion will provide the individual with the support and feedback to believe in his ability to perform well at the workplace. And fourth, physiological and affective states will stress the individual's physiological and affective conditions such as health and stress. Therefore, interpersonal self-efficacy may be explained by feedback, support and interaction with others at the workplace.

Organizational Culture

Organization theory scholars have tried to explain the different dimensions of organizational life and the individuals within it (Deal and Kennedy 1982, Hofstede, 1980, 1984, 1993; Schein, 1990, 1992, Pettigrew, 1979). This topic that has become more popular since the 1980s (Alvesson, 1990), will be one of the focii of the current study. In this study, organizational theory will provide the underlying framework for understanding the concept of organizational culture. Organizational culture influences all aspects of organizational life and can substantially provide employees with a very strong sense, belief, or understanding of how things are done in their organizations (Boxx & Odom, 1990). In addition organizational culture can provide practical information to enhance quality management in an organization (Van Donk & Sanders, 1993). This section will present a review and description of the major theoretical frameworks of organizational culture.

Pettigrew's Organizational Culture Theoretical Framework. Little research on organizational culture had been conducted before Pettigrew (1973). He stated that any organization would benefit from exploring the continuing organizational system's past, present and future. Within the setting of a private British boarding

school, he collected data through interviews, questionnaires, and archives. He constructed social dramas of the school by using critical events in the participants's minds. He argued that the analysis of these dramas would foster the study of the emergence and development of organizational cultures. For instance, he discussed how purpose, commitment, and order were generated in an organization through the feelings and actions of its founder and the mixture of beliefs, ideology, language, ritual and myth. Thus, he defined organizational culture as the objects or images representing the organizations (symbols, language, ideology, beliefs, rituals and myths). His findings added great value in understanding the creation of a new culture and in determining the process by which entrepreneurs contribute to organizational culture.

Many scholars have used Pettigrew's attempts to understand the organizational culture as an underlying foundation to investigate more deeply the organizational culture and its implications. Based on Pettigrew's ideas, Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker (1987) defined organizational culture as the shared patterns of beliefs, symbols, rituals, and myths that evolve over time and work as the glue that holds the organization together. They support the fact that if organizational cultures were created through symbol, ideology, belief, ritual, and myth, categories were needed then to establish themes and characteristics around which stories were created and beliefs developed. They also recognized the need to measure these organizational characteristics and examined six dimensions of organizational culture based on management and communication research; specifically, teamwork-conflict (Allender, 1984; Solomon, 1985),

climate-morale (Poole, 1985), information flow (Bormann, 1983; McPhee, 1985), involvement (Bacas, 1985), supervision (Harrison, 1985), and meetings (Hall, 1984; Hawley, 1984). Although these authors recognized that these dimensions were not mutually exclusive, they affirmed that they were central to any construction of organizational culture from which stories, rituals, and beliefs developed.

Consequently, Glaser et al. (1989) developed a scale called the Organizational Culture Survey (OCS), which measures the six dimensions of organizational culture: teamwork-conflict, climate-morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, and meetings. This instrument was tested through both a factor analysis and a reliability analysis. The coefficient alphas were as follows: teamwork-conflict (.87), climate-morale (.84), information flow (.82), involvement (.86), supervision (.91), and meetings (.89).

Dimensions of organizational culture (Glaser & Associates, 2003). The first dimension refers to teamwork-conflict, which is the degree that employees perceive their work group functioning as a team. It also involves the extent to which management and employees are seen to have a productive working relationship. The second dimension is climate-morale that refers to whether workers feel motivated to be efficient and productive. It also discovers the extent to which employees feel respected by people in their work group and the rest of the organization. The third dimension is information flow. It observes whether workers get enough information to be efficient and productive and if they know why changes are made. The fourth dimension is involvement. It shows if workers

feel they can participate in decisions that affect their work, and if they perceive that their ideas are asked for and valued. The fifth dimension is supervision, which refers to whether or not job requirements are made clear by the supervisor. In addition, this dimension measures whether the supervisor takes criticism well, is a good listener, delegates responsibility, and acknowledges when a job is well done. The sixth dimension is meetings. It refers to the perception of time in meetings and whether meetings are productive and trigger participants' creativity and discussion.

In the current study, this instrument was used in its original form because the organizational dimensions represented in this assessment tool are closely related to the other study variables (interpersonal self-efficacy and job performance).

Schein's Organizational Culture Theory. According to Schein (1992), "Culture is the result of a complex group learning process that was only partially influenced by leaders' behavior" (p. 5). To understand culture in an organization, he states that it has to be analyzed by observing its three levels: artifacts, espoused values, and basic underlying assumptions. The artifacts are described as the visible organizational structures; the espoused values as the strategies, goals, and philosophies; and the basic underlying assumptions as the unconscious, taken-for granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts, and feelings.

Schein formally defined organizational culture as shared assumptions within a group:

The pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that

has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (p. 12).

These assumptions are invented, discovered, or developed by a given group and they have helped the given group to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integrations (Schein, 1992).

Purposes to Study Culture. Schein (1992) states that culture could be deciphered for two purposes: to make the culture visible to their members, that is deciphering it for insiders, and to explain and write about the culture for outsiders.

In the first scenario, the researcher has to work directly with a group of insiders on a form of artifacts, values, and assumptions. This method works best where there are no major communication barriers among the members, and the main goal of the analysis is to provide insight into understanding how different cultural assumptions help or obstruct what members were trying to do, for instance, plan a long-term strategic plan.

For example, Schein (1992) reports that a computer company conducted a cultural analysis as part of a long-term planning activity focused on human resource issues. After the analysis, findings were passed and recommendations made. Schein observes that this type of analysis is possible and successful only if there is a motivated insider group who will follow the analysis.

In the second scenario, the researcher's purpose is to understand the culture sufficiently to report it to other outsiders. The analysis is done through individual and group interview data, and the testing of hypotheses based on initial

events. This approach requires continuous crosschecking of pieces of information.

Among cultural data collection methods used by Schein (1992) were: organizational structure information, myths, legends, stories, and charters, surveys and questionnaires. Overall, he suggests that to obtain accurate organizational culture information, a researcher should use more than one source of information, and could not rely exclusively on a sole quantitative instrument without going first to the organization for preliminary information. He argued that the data became a cultural artifact; for that reason, “one cannot decipher the culture from them alone” (Schein: 185). In summary, he concluded questionnaires could get information about norms or behaviors and organizational climate, but not about cultural assumptions.

In the current study, the purpose of observing organizational culture neither provides insights on how to control it or how to change it (Alvesson, 1990). It aims to provide a better understanding on what is going on within the organization and what relationship it has with the other observed variables (demographic variables, interpersonal self-efficacy and job performance). Organizational culture cannot be independent of other organizational factors and characteristics of the organization (Alvesson ,1990).

Hofstede’s Organizational Culture Theory. Hofstede (1980) defined organizational culture as the collective programming of the mind, which distinguished the members of one category of people from another. According to Hofstede, there are three levels of mental programs. The first is the universal

level, which is shared by all or almost all human races. This refers to the biological operating system including expressive behaviors such as laughing and crying. The second level is collective which is shared by individuals belonging to a certain group or category. This refers to the language and the physical distance we keep with other individuals to feel comfortable. Finally, the third level is individual, in which the level of individual personality creates a wide scope of individual behaviors within a society.

Hofstede's first research (1980) on organizational culture is based on data from a large multinational corporation. Individuals from 64 countries provided data through questionnaires. The questionnaire items came from preliminary in-depth interviews and from suggestions from international staff. Five cultural dimensions were found in this initial question developing stage (Bond & Mai, 1989; Hofstede & Bond, 1988; Hofstede, 2000).

- *Power distance (large vs. small)*. Power distance between a supervisor and a supervisee in the hierarchy is the difference between the extent to which the supervisor can determine the behavior of the supervisee and the extent to which the supervisee can determine the behavior of the supervisor.
- *Uncertainty avoidance (strong vs. weak)*. The degree to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations.
- *Individualism vs. collectivism*. Relationship between the individual and the collectivity in a society. Collectivistic communities support more

emotional dependence of members and assume more responsibility for its members.

- *Masculinity vs. femininity.* Dominant gender role patterns in the majority of traditional and modern societies; the patterns of male assertiveness and female nurturance.
- *Long-term vs. short-term orientation.* Long term orientation refers to the fostering of virtues oriented toward future rewards, while short term orientation refers to fostering virtues related to the past and present, such as respect for tradition and preservation of face and social obligations.

This cross-national research studied different units from only one organization within a country, which did not leave room for comparison among organizations. Consequently, Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv and Sanders (1990) carried out another study involving 20 units from ten organizations in one country. The organizations included private manufacturing, electronics, chemicals or consumer goods companies, service companies (banking, transport, trade), and public institutions (telecommunications, police). The first phase of the study included in-depth interviews. The second phase involved data collection from 1,295 questionnaires. This questionnaire was developed based on the cross-national study and interviews. The third phase included the use of revised questionnaires and personal interviews to collect data on the unit.

Hofstede's work contributes not only to the cross-national organizational culture literature, but by recognizing the need for comparing dimensions of

cultural practices across cultures, he develops six dimensions that may help understand how cultures are seen by individuals. Nonetheless, neither Hofstede's nor Schein's work examines in depth nonprofit settings, but private manufacturing and service companies.

Deal & Kennedy Theoretical Framework. Deal and Kennedy (1982)

identified the elements of a strong corporate culture. In their research, they found that business environment, values, heroes, the rites and rituals, and the cultural network were characteristics that would inspire loyalty and had a strong influence on their employees.

- Business environment: companies have different individual realities in the marketplace. This reality depends on the company's product, customers, technologies and competitors. To thrive in this marketplace companies should perform certain activities well, such as selling, managing of costs or providing services. This environment has the greatest influence in shaping a culture.
- Values: the basic beliefs of an organization. They define success in clear terms for the workers. These values are communicated to workers clearly and directly.
- Heroes: these individuals personify the culture's values and provide concrete role models for the workers.
- The rites and rituals: systematic and programmed routines of day-to-day life in the organization. These routines provide tangible and powerful examples of what the organization stands for.

- The cultural network: the primary and informal means of communication that carries organization values and heroic traditions.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) stated that individuals are an organization's greatest resource and the best way to manage them is through cues of culture (symbol, ideology, beliefs, ritual, and myths).

In short, the aforementioned theoretical frameworks have the commonality of defining organizational culture as the beliefs, assumptions, values and practices shared by individuals in an organization. These organizational characteristics do not function in isolations since they are part of the organizational system, but also they may affect the individuals at the organization. This study will serve to examine these organizational culture dimensions and their relationship with the individuals working at human service organizations.

Job Performance Theory

Examining and improving performance has been a current topic of interest for many researchers and practitioners. Gilbert (1996) developed a model to diagnose, prioritize and plan performance improvement initiatives. He developed general principles of engineering human competence where he defined human competence as "a function of worthy performance, which is the function of the ratio of valuable accomplishments to costly behavior" (p.18). He also described five types of systems within an organization: organization (group of departments) departments (groups of functions) functions (group of processes), processes and worker systems. The current study focuses on the worker's performance.

On the other hand, Motowidlo (2003) defined job performance “as the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time” (p.39). This definition has two important considerations. First, is the idea that performance is a property of behavior that occurs over a period. Second, is the idea that performance refers an expected value to the organization. Motowidlo develops these two ideas by explaining that behavior refers to what people do, therefore, performance is the expected organizational value of what people do.

Through a study in a military setting, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) identified two types of performance: task performance and contextual performance. These performance types were based on previous types of performance requirement research (Borman, Motowidlo, Rose, and Hanser, 1985 in Borman & Motowidlo, 1997) aimed to identify performance models necessary to have an effective unit but are outside technical proficiency.

Task performance refers to transforming raw materials into goods and services, such as providing counseling to an alcoholic, or involving activities that service and maintain the technical part by filling its supply of raw materials such as supervising and planning. On the other hand, “contextual performance contributes to the organizational effectiveness through its effects on the psychological, social and organizational context of work” (Motowidlo, 2003, p. 44). These effects include increasing individuals’ readiness to perform with valuable behavior, and performing actions that have some effect on the

organization's tangible resources, (i.e. conserving gas and electricity in the organization).

Task and contextual performance are correlated with different personal characteristics (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). The variation in task performance will depend on individual differences in knowledge, skills, and abilities.

Conversely, individual differences in interpersonal skills and motivation will predict contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). This theory states that individual differences in personality and cognitive ability, together with learning experiences, cause variability in characteristic adaptations that mediate effects of personality and cognitive ability on job performance (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). This theory is represented graphically in Figure 5.

Task knowledge, task skills, and task habits affect task performance by increasing the likelihood that people will perform behavioral episodes (e.g. writing good technical reports) that have positive contribution values, since they help an organization's technical core produce goods and services. On the other hand, contextual knowledge, skills, and habits affect contextual performance by increasing the likelihood that people will perform behavioral episodes (e.g. cooperate with other coworkers in a project) that contribute positively, since they support the social and organizational network and enhance the psychological climate in which the core is surrounded.

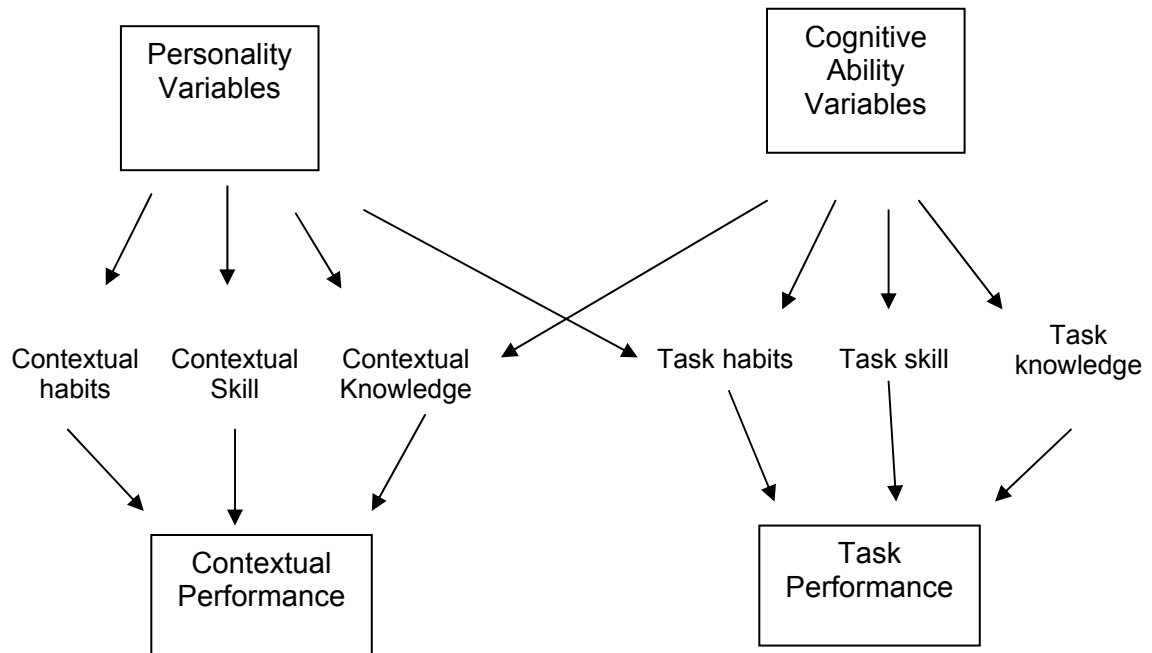


Figure 5

A theory of individual differences in task and contextual performance (Source: Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997).

Task knowledge refers to the knowledge of facts, principles, and procedures related to functions of the organization's technical core. Contextual knowledge refers to the knowledge of facts, principles, and procedures for effective action in situations that call for helping and cooperating with others, actions such as complying with organizational rules and procedures; endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives; persevering despite difficult obstacles; and volunteering. (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997).

Task skill refers to the skill using technical information, performing technical procedures, managing information, making judgments, solving

problems, and making decisions regarding core technical functions. In contrast, contextual skill refers to the skill in implementing actions to be effective for handling situations that call for assisting and coordinating with others; following organizational rules and procedures; endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives; persisting, and volunteering.

Task work habits involve patterns of responses to task situations that ease or obstruct the performance of task behaviors. These habits include individual ways of performing technical actions or using technical communication, and motivational task habits. Conversely, contextual work habits refer to patterns of responses that ease or obstruct effective performance in contextual work settings. These patterns include ways of approaching or avoiding various types of interpersonal and group situations, styles of handling conflict, and interpersonal and political styles.

Contextual Performance

Borman and Motowidlo (1997) highlight the importance of contextual activities due to their contribution to organizational effectiveness. For example, these contextual activities mold the organizational, social and psychological context that serves as a foundation for task activities and processes, since they provide the framework where workers coexist (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Contextual performance was based heavily on three previous research concepts: organizational citizenship behavior (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983), prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), and soldier effectiveness (Borman, Motowidlo, Rose & Hanser, 1985 as cited in Borman & Motowidlo,

1997). The first refers to extra-role discretionary behavior aimed to help others in the organization. The second concept refers to the behavior performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of individuals or groups to whom that behavior is directed. And the third concept refers to constructs relevant to first-tour soldiers that are important for unit effectiveness but that are not technical.

Volunteering, and helping and cooperating with others in the organization are examples of contextual activities. Based on previous research (Borman, Motowidlo, Rose, et al., 1985; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; George & Brief, 1992; Graham, 1986; Organ, 1988), Borman and Motowidlo (1997) developed a taxonomy of contextual performance that was used as a basis for the contextual performance section in the current study (Table 1).

Table 1: Taxonomy of Contextual Performance

Taxonomy of Contextual Performance
1. Persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort as necessary to complete own task activities successfully.
2. Volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of own job.
3. Helping and cooperating with others.
4. Following organizational rules and procedures.
5. Endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives.

Borman and Motowidlo (1997) found three major conclusions in their theoretical model of contextual performance. First, the relevance of contextual performance is increasingly important because:

- global competition continues increasing the effort levels required by employees,
- the concept of team-based organization becomes more popular,
- downsizing forces workers to be more adaptable and willing to show extra effort more,
- good customer service is increasingly needed.

Second, experienced supervisors weighted contextual performance as high as task performance. And third, especially in personnel selection, if contextual performance dimensions are included as selection criteria, personality predictors are more likely to be better correlates.

Task Performance

According to Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit (1997), task performance has two components. The first type involves activities that “transform raw materials into the goods and services that are the organization’s products” (p.75). “Task performance behaviors have a direct relation to the organization’s technical core either by executing its technical processes or by maintaining and servicing its technical requirements” (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994, p. 476)

For instance, in an apprenticeship program, this concept can be visualized when a worker provides technical skills to youth at risk so they will be able to get a job. The second type of task performance involves “activities that service and

maintain the technical core by replenishing its supply of raw materials; distributing its finished products; or providing important planning, coordination, supervising, or staff functions that enable it to function effectively and efficiently” (p.75). Although task performance may vary according to each specific job, this study proposes to examine tasks shared by human service workers.

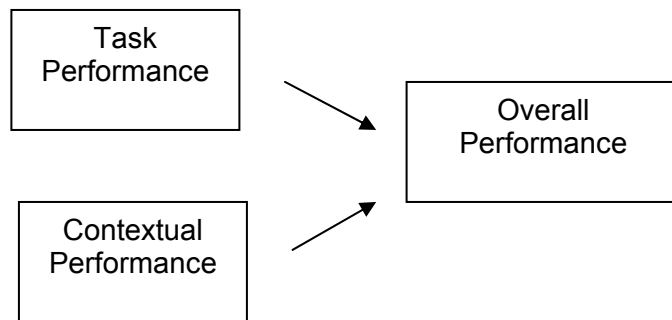


Figure 6

Job Performance Model (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996)

In this study, task, contextual and overall performance were examined. The model of performance proposed that overall performance consisted of both task and contextual performance according to previous findings in the literature (Brantley, 2000; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996)

Empirical research of demographic variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived job performance.

A search of the educational, psychological, sociological and business literature resulted in the following empirical studies. The selection criteria of these

studies were that they had to examine at least two of the research variables together (self-efficacy, organizational culture, demographic variables, and performance)

Relationship between Demographic Variables and Job Performance

Little research has been done on the relationship between demographic variables and job performance within the nonprofit sector. In a study examining the role of race, supervisor's race, and worker productivity on performance ratings for a diverse employee population, Elvira and Town (2001) collected data from 1997 personnel records on 316 salespersons. Descriptive statistics and regressions were used to analyze the data. The researchers found that performance showed that black employees receive lower ratings than white employees, and the racial differences between subordinates and supervisors lead to lower ratings for black and white subordinates. Based on previous research the present study hypothesized that ethnicity would be related to performance because race played a significant role on performance appraisals.

Elvira and Town's (2001) results imply that depending on the workers' ethnicity performance feedback may be different. Interestingly, the gender variable gender was not observed in this study. Thus, perceived performance should be observed according to differences not only based on race (Elvira, & Town, 2001), but also based on gender.

Interestingly, Gibelman (2000) investigated whether and to what extent a glass ceiling occurs for women in nonprofit human service organizations.

Through a quantitative-descriptive design, 2,020 human service employees provided data to identify the percentage of women in high-level management positions versus their number in their own organizations. There were a higher number of men at upper management whereas women were disproportionately represented at the direct-service and lower management levels. Differences in performances between males and females seem not to be the justification of this management inequity. This study not only implies different realities for women and men within the nonprofit, but also questions if performance rates are considered in the position assignment or what variables seem to influence the glass ceiling for women.

This proposition suggests that job performance differences may exist between male and female workers in the nonprofit human service sector. Males will have different job performance perceptions than females.

Regarding organizational culture and computer efficacy, Pearson, Bahmanziari, Crosby, and Conrad (2003) collected data from 352 knowledge workers to investigate the role that organizational culture may have on individual's computer self-efficacy as moderated by age and gender. They found that organizational culture had little impact on computer self-efficacy, but age and gender had a greater direct influence on individual's computer efficacy. The study suggested that older workers and females usually do not feel confident about learning abilities to perform computer applications; therefore they will require extra training and support to perform effectively.

In a study involving social worker's perception of self-efficacy, Jeffreys (2001) examined the benefits from integrating supervision into the treatment process by testing hypotheses about social worker's perceptions of self-efficacy in relation to supervisory tasks, frequency of supervision and supervisee-supervisor characteristics. Through a questionnaire, 190 field instructors responded to questions concerning demographic data, level and frequency of supervision and social worker self-efficacy. He found through a logistical regression analysis that several variables were significant in predicting higher perceptions of self-efficacy. These variables comprised supervisors and supervisees who were of the same race, weekly and bimonthly supervision on their performance, supervisors that were older than supervisees and supervisors who stress education in social work practice. Thus, there is evidence of a relationship between ethnicity self-efficacy, age and performance.

Therefore, if older workers show higher perceptions of self-efficacy, this study proposes they would have higher perceptions of job performance.

Thus, the proposed study examines the relationship between demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity) and job performance within the nonprofit human service workers, a feature not study in depth before.

Relationship between Organizational Culture Variables and Job performance

Sheridan (1992) examined the retention rates of 904 college graduates employed in six public accounting firms. Through a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), organizational culture differences among firms were

examined. Most of the variance accounted for performance and culture rather than by the exogenous control variables that justified only 2 percent of the variance ($D = .02$). Gender was the only variable that had a significant effect in the hazard model (model to explain variation in the probability of newly hired employees leaving voluntarily during seniority). Women obtained higher hazard rates than men. Findings suggested that cultural values varied among companies and that these values will influence organizational effectiveness by improving the quality of outputs or reducing labor costs. This study shows that there is a relationship between fit and performance since strong performers stayed longer than weaker performers in cultures highlighting work task values. However, this study also reveals that strong and weak performers remained longer in organizations that emphasize interpersonal relationships than in the work task culture. It seems that organizational cultures encouraging interpersonal relationships are more attractive to workers. Therefore, since one assumption of this study is that human service agencies need to foster positive relationships, this study examined the relationship between organizational culture and job performance.

Potosky and Ramakrishma (2002) examined the relationship between goal orientation and performance by observing the effects of organizational climate perceptions in this relationship and the mediating role of efficacy beliefs. Data were collected from 163 information systems professionals. Through a structural equation modeling technique the researcher found that organizational climate perceptions (perceptions on intraorganizational communication,

challenging job assignments, supportive management, and appropriate rewards) were not significantly correlated with performance ratings. This study implies that organizational climate perceptions are not related to performance, which is not consistent with the proposition of this study. However, the current study attempts to observe the relationship between organizational culture and job performance considering a different population than Potosky et al.'s study.

In addition, Amsa (1986) reported on the organizational cultures of certain textile manufacturing plants from both the public and the private sector in India. Culture was defined as the shared beliefs, values, norms and traditions within the organizations. Data were collected through observation and informal open-ended interviews to identify elements and/or dimensions of organizational culture, which were subsequently measured through structured interviews with these workers. His findings showed that these plants varied along one aspect of their work-group behavior, i.e. the rate of "loitering" among loomshed workers.

Implications of Amsa's study (1986) for organizational theory relies on the fact that the study treats culture as an organizational variable and observes its relationship to one aspect of organizational functioning. Furthermore, this study highlights that supervising style featured by task orientation with some concern for the individual lowers the rate of loitering among workers. Based on the findings, a culture embedding supervisory support may enhance the worker's behavior to the benefit of the unit and the organization.

The study conducted by Glaser et al. (1987) offered a triangulation approach to study organizational culture. They measured six dimensions of

organizational culture: teamwork conflict, climate-morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, and meetings. The sample used was 195 government employees representing every level and division in their department. The outcome of this study was the development of the organizational culture survey. Later, Zamanou and Glaser (1994) described a communication intervention program to change the culture of a governmental organization from hierarchical and authoritarian to participative and involved. Through an organizational culture survey (OCS) and interviews, participants gave their perceptions of how culture was created through communication and on organizational culture dimensions (organizational teamwork, morale, supervision, involvement, and meetings). Interview data were grouped according to the six organizational categories that corresponded to the OCS dimensions. OCS results were significantly higher at Time 2 than at Time 1. Ratings were: information flow ($t = 2.64, p < .006$); involvement ($t = 2.04, p < .04$); meetings ($t = 3.56, p < .0004$); and morale ($t = 10.19, p < .0001$). Findings suggested that organizational cultures can be changed and the change could positively impact employee morale and the service offered to customers.

Most of the empirical information of organizational culture and performance has been based on studies on private business companies or public companies (Amsa, 1986; Hofstede, 2000; Schein, 1992; Glaser, 1987; Zamanou, 1994). Little research has been based on nonprofit organizational culture and job performance, thus the need for this study. Although organizational culture research methods were mainly qualitative in earlier times, a new organizational

culture approach allows quantitative research only if comparisons rely on underlying value dimensions (Denison, 1996).

Furthermore, this study aims to include more data on the supervisory-supervisee relationship and examine if the proposed culture dimensions can fit a nonprofit organizational culture. In addition to the study of organizational culture and job performance, this study contributes to the literature by not only examining nonprofit organizational practices but also by adding to the knowledge base of the nonprofit human resource development initiatives.

Relationship between Interpersonal Self-efficacy and Job Performance

Few studies have examined interpersonal self-efficacy. For instance, interpersonal self-efficacy has been defined as the “degree to which a person has a high or low need for mastering his interpersonal environment by changing the behavior or attitudes of other persons” (Snyder & Morris, 1978, p.239), and as the perceived belief of the worker to successfully interact with coworkers, interact with supervisors, and manage their work (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Poulin & Walter, 1993) (see Figure 6). The dimensions referring to the perceived belief to successfully interact with coworkers, supervisors and manage their work, were found through previous literature reviews and empirical research.

This interpersonal self-efficacy can also be linked to Bandura’s discussion (1997) on perceived self-efficacy and its relationship to what people choose for their work, to how individuals prepare themselves to perform their job and the level of success they achieve in their daily work. Bandura refers to this

relationship as organizational functioning. For instance, a person interested in working as a family counselor will need to prepare himself/ herself with the skills and knowledge needed to be a counselor. Later, he/ she will note how well the job is done when receiving feedback or support.

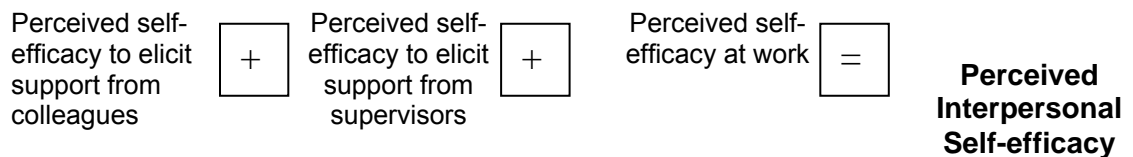


Figure 7: Beliefs Contributing to Interpersonal Self-efficacy

The following section reviews empirical work that has examined interpersonal self-efficacy dimensions (interaction, feedback, and peer/social support) and its relationship with performance. In reference to social support within an organization, Cunningham, Woodward, Shannon & MacIntosh (2002) examined factors influencing readiness for healthcare organizational change. A sample of 654 employees was surveyed. Among the workplace contributors to readiness for organizational change, social support was weakly associated to readiness for organizational change, but strongly associated with lower emotional exhaustion, implying that if the worker felt supported, her level of stress and tiredness would be lower.

Cunningham et al. (2002) found positive correlation among active jobs, active approaches to job problem solving and higher job change self-efficacy. This study also implied that job-related interpersonal relationships did not

contribute to the prediction of readiness for organizational change. Workers that felt more confident with their ability to deal with job change reported to be more ready for an organizational change.

Regarding factors contributing to self-efficacy at work, Hall (2000) identified two situational primary factors contributing to building self-efficacy in the workplace: personal and environmental. The personal factors that impact participants' self-efficacy involve self-directing or self-determining behaviors, such as utilization of learning opportunities, personal organization, peer or co-worker feedback, reflection and self-awareness, and after-work activities. Environmental factors that impact the participants' self-efficacy involve expectations of managers or supervisors, organizational structure, and organizational support for learning new skills.

Ladany et al. (1999) examined the supervisory working alliance among counselor trainees. Supervisory working alliance refers to the collaboration between trainees and the supervisor to establish a mutual understanding of job related goals and tasks. With a sample of 107 counselor trainees, respondents answered a survey assessing supervisory alliance, trainee self-efficacy, trainees' satisfaction with supervision, and a demographic questionnaire. Data analysis was done through chi-square and *t*-test analysis, correlations and multiple regressions. The authors found that the emotional bond in the supervisory alliance was significantly related to one aspect of supervision outcome-job satisfaction. Their results showed that when the emotional bond was seen as becoming stronger over time, trainees also perceived their supervisors' personal

qualities and performance more positively, further, they judged their own behavior in supervision more positively; and they were comparatively more comfortable in supervision. If the trainees perceived the emotional bond weaker over time, however, the supervisors' personal abilities and performance were perceived more negatively. Their results supported the supervisory alliance construct (Bordin 1983) suggesting that it was essential to examine the working alliance over time with bond factor purposes to have enough time to develop. In regards to trainee self-efficacy, their results showed that gains were made in self-efficacy over time due to supervisor's feedback. Moreover, peer feedback was considered in this alliance because it was part of the overall training context in which workers received different sources of feedback and learning experiences. If a supervisory alliance did not exist, the worker could improve his self-efficacy through other experiences that were vicarious or emotionally arousing or through feedback from peers or clients. Interestingly, Ladany's study shows the relationship of the supervisor-supervisee alliance, satisfaction, and trainee's self-efficacy.

However, Ladany's study (1999) does not include elements outside the alliance such as organizational culture that could affect how this alliance is built. In the discussion of interpersonal self-efficacy, interaction, peer support and feedback play a role in the acquisition of self-efficacy. Although performance ratings are not shown in this study, outcomes of the supervisor-supervisee alliance are implied by such things as a better counseling skills and performance.

In a study investigating self-efficacy and workplace stress perceptions, Tudor (1997) found a significant relationship between self-efficacy and the stressors of role conflict and work frustration, and the strains of work anger and work anxiety. He found that self-efficacy buffered the relationship between the stressor of communication climate and the tension of organizational commitment. His findings suggested that self-efficacy was among the self-beliefs that could help deal with the direct causes of workplace stress perceptions. The instrument used to measure self-efficacy was a scale developed by Riggs, Warka, Babasa, Betancourt, and Hooker (1994) for job-related applications. In this study, the stated advantage of these scales was that it was applicable to many different environments. The use of general scales of self- efficacy increased its research comparability and allowed their use on many different jobs without creating task-specific measures.

These self-efficacy and outcome expectancy scales for job-related applications (Riggs et al., 1994) measured beliefs across varied job types which was reported to enhance research not only by ending the need to develop task-specific measures, but also by increasing the comparability of results across job types. These scales measured personal efficacy (PE), personal outcome expectancy (POE), collective efficacy (CE), and collective outcome expectancy (COE). This contradicts Bandura's position (1997) that efficacy beliefs should be measured in relation to particularized judgments of capability that may differ across activities since personal efficacy is a multifaceted phenomenon.

Tudor's research (1997) suggests a link between workplace specific perceptions and self-efficacy beliefs with a sample of manufacturing workers. Data were collected through a self-report survey. Data were analyzed through descriptive statistics and hierarchical regressions. Among the findings were the significant relationships between self-efficacy and the stressors of role conflict and work frustration, and the stress of work anger and work anxiety. Furthermore, significant relationships were found between the work locus of control and all the work stressors and strains. Interestingly, self-efficacy was found to buffer the relationship between the stressor of communication climate and the strain of organizational commitment. However, a more comprehensive approach might be to examine the workplace characteristics in the form of organizational culture and its relationship with more specific self-efficacy beliefs, such as interpersonal self-efficacy, to examine the link and potential impact between the organization and a specific individual's self-efficacy instead of a more general self-efficacy belief referring to a number of skills (Bandura, 1999).

Other studies found a relationship between performance and feedback (Earley, 1990), and performance and interpersonal characteristics (Conway, 1999; Wright, 2000). Feedback is related to one of the efficacy's sources, verbal persuasion which helps affirming to the individual that they have the abilities to perform successfully (Bandura, 1997). Feedback, especially feedback source and feedback specificity, were found to be related to overall performance. Feedback source refers to where the feedback came from. The source could be the organization, supervisor, peers, task, self-generated. The findings suggested

that the individual had to trust the feedback source in order to consider the feedback and thereby could affect performance (Earley, 1990). On the other hand, feedback specificity referred to the provision of specific feedback rather than general feedback. He also found that feedback sign (positive or negative) was found to indirectly effect performance through the mediating effect of worker's self-efficacy expectations. In regards to performance and interpersonal facilitation, Conway (1999) found that interpersonal facilitation did not contribute to task performance, but to contextual performance. Interpersonal facilitation was defined as having interpersonally oriented behaviors that contribute to organizational goals (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Wright (2000) found that commitment had a significant relationship with contextual performance dimensions (e.g. interpersonal citizenship, loyalty).

Many researchers have found that job performance is not unidimensional (Hattrup, O'Connell, & Wingate, 1998; Hunthausen, 2000; Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit, 1997). At least two performance dimensions have been recognized: task performance and contextual performance.

In a study to test the usefulness of the distinction between task performance and contextual performance, Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) asked supervisors to rate 421 US Air Force mechanics on their task performance, contextual performance and overall performance. The multiple correlation between overall performance as the dependent variable and task performance and contextual performance was .54, ($p < .01$). Hierarchical regressions showed that task performance explains 13%, ($p < .01$) of the

variance in overall performance whereas contextual performance explains 11%, ($p < .01$). They found that task performance and contextual performance contribute independently to overall performance. Other findings also revealed that experience is more highly correlated with task performance than with contextual performance, and personality variables are more highly correlated with contextual performance than with task performance.

These findings supported further performance research. Personality variables referring to contextual knowledge, contextual skills, and contextual habits (Avis, 2001; Goodman, 1995; Hunthausen, 2003; Mohammed, Mathieu & Bartlett, 2002; Norris, 2002; Riddle, 2000; Van Scotter, & Motowidlo, 1996), has been found to be a better predictor of contextual performance than a predictor of task performance. Conversely, self-efficacy was found to have a significant positive relationship with task performance (Norris, 2002; Pietsch, Walker, & Chapman, 2003, Robertson, & Sadri, 1993).

Summary on Organizational Culture, Interpersonal Self-efficacy, Job Performance and Demographic Variables

Findings in the above-mentioned studies imply gaps in research. Among the gaps are the need to expand the performance domain to include behaviors, values, and beliefs outside job performance (Goodman, 1995, Mohammed, Mathieu and Barlett, 2002); the need to investigate more the relationship between contextual and task performance in organizations (Hattrup et al., 1998), especially in nonprofit organizations; and the need to conduct more research in

nonprofit organizational settings (Mohammed et al., 2002). Performance was also linked to organizational characteristics, which suggests the need to examine organizational culture and job performance. Climate characteristics had significant positive relationships with supervisor and team commitment (Wright, 2000), while perceptions of organizational culture had an impact on the likelihood of engaging in contextual performance, but little effect on overall job performance (Goodman, 1995).

In the above-mentioned studies, an element that needs to be explored more is the relationship among self-efficacy, job performance, specifically in the nonprofit sector, and organizational culture, a feature recognized by Bandura (1998) by saying that the social environment plays an important role in the individual. Therefore, this study examined interpersonal self-efficacy, which refers to the belief by a person that she/he could successfully interact and provide feedback. Self-efficacy beliefs can be high or low.

In light of these aforementioned findings this proposed research study examined the relationship among demographic variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and job performance of human service workers because the research evidence suggests that self-efficacy as well as demographic variables might be positively related to performance and that the organization itself may affect this efficacy belief.

This chapter has presented a literature review supporting the purpose of this study. It presented the theoretical framework that this study is based on, and empirical research discussing the variables to be explored (demographic

variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived job performance). The next chapter describes the methods that were used in this study.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This study examined the relationships and differences among organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, demographic variables, and perceived job performance within nonprofit human services agencies. There were thirteen organizations participating in this study, all of them were nonprofit human service organizations.

This chapter provides a general perspective of the study; describes the research context, the participants, the variables, the measures, the procedures, the data analysis, and a summary. This quantitative study used both descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze the data. Both univariate and multivariate analytic techniques were used to respond the following research questions:

- What is the relationship among demographic variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived job performance in nonprofit human service organizations?
 - I. What is the relationship between the demographic variables and job performance?
 - II. Controlling for demographic variables, what is the relationship between organizational culture and job performance?

- III. Controlling for demographic variables and organizational culture variables, what is the relationship between interpersonal self-efficacy and job performance?
- What are the differences in the perceptions of job performance based on demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity)?

Sampling Plan

The General Perspective

As a quantitative study, this research aimed, first, to examine through correlational analyses the strength and direction of relationships among the research variables. Second, through hierarchical multiple regression analysis, the *unique* relationships among perceived employee job performance (dependent variable), interpersonal self-efficacy, organizational culture, and the demographic variables (predictors) will be explored. Third, through a factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), the research variable means were compared by demographic group (e.g., minority vs. non-minority).

Research Context

Due to the increasing number of human service agencies a need exists to learn more about these agencies. Human service workers must perform at different levels with clients and co-workers and at different settings in their organizations. This study takes place in a southern state and focuses on a county with the largest nonprofit human service agencies within that state. According to the National Center for Charitable Statistics and Foundation Center

(2003), that particular county has the largest number of nonprofit agencies (N=761). Out of this number, human services agencies have the highest number (N=90) among the other types of nonprofit organizations (e.g. environmental, education, health). A number of human service agencies were invited to participate in this research study. The list of names were found in a directory of nonprofit agencies. Thirteen human service agencies agreed to participate in this research study.

The data collection phase was from May to June 2004. The questionnaires were filled out individually by the research participants in each participating agency. The data was analyzed in Louisville, KY.

The names of the 13 agencies were kept confidential, a detailed description of the organizational context is presented below.

Organization 1 is a human service organization that facilitates the achievement of economic self-reliance through activities such as preparation for job interviews, and education programs for youth. It is committed to assisting disadvantaged groups so they can benefit from the opportunities that exist in the community's burgeoning economy to gain and increase their economic self-sufficiency. This organization has 54 full-time workers.

Organization 2 is a private human service organization that advocates for persons with mental retardation. Some examples of their activities are intervention with or on behalf of individuals with mental retardation and/or their families that seek solutions to their individual needs or need assistance with

indifferent systems within the community. This organization has 14 full-time workers.

Organization 3 is a human service organization that provides service for people in need, advocates for justice in social structures. Some of the services provided include immigration services (i.e. legal assistance to low and moderate income immigrants), immigration and refugee services (i.e. job placement), and adoption services. This organization counts 48 full-time workers.

Organization 4 is a human service organization that facilitates and enhances the positive development of youth through volunteer friendships, mentoring, and outreach services. This organization has 14 full-time workers.

Organization 5 is a nonprofit organization that provides resettlement services to refugees. This agency promotes programs of community integration and self-sufficiency. This organization has 13 full-time workers.

Organization 6 is a human service agency that provides quality child care and development programs, and before and after-school programs. An example of the services is the summer program for infants, toddlers, pre-school and school-age children. This organization has 28 full-time workers.

Organization 7 is a private, non-profit organization dedicated to providing therapy for area children who have cerebral palsy, spina bifida, seizure disorders, traumatic head injury, Down's Syndrome and other developmental disabilities. Among the services offered are medical consultations, physical therapy, and speech/language therapy. This organization has 22 full-time workers.

Organization 8 is a human service organization that supports more than 100 health and human service agencies serving residents of Bullitt, Jefferson, Oldham and Shelby counties in Kentucky and Clark, Floyd and Harrison counties in Indiana. This organization offers referral services for daycare, family violence, and senior services, for instance. This organization has 55 full-time workers.

Organization 9 is a human service organization that serves, and provides the skills and opportunities by which vulnerable children, youth and their families may improve their lives. Among these opportunities is a service for pregnant and parenting teens that provides information such as prenatal care, education, and counseling. This organization has 130 full-time workers.

Organization 10 is a human service organization that advocates for the well-being of children in child care and assists their parents, and the providers who care for their children, in creating quality child care. Services may include workshops about Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS), for instance. This organization counts 94 full-time workers.

Organizations 11 is a human service organization that advocates and assist women and families that have faced domestic violence or sexual assault and economic challenges. Some of the programs include economic success programs and professional development training. This organization has 90 full-time workers.

Organization 12 is a private, non-profit agency that has assumed life-long responsibility for dozens of individuals with mental retardation. Some of the

services provided are recruitment and support of new homes, assistance in personal crises and daily living problems. This organization has 31 full-time workers.

Organization 13 is the largest national human service organization dedicated to advancing Alzheimer's disease research and helping those affected by the disease. It also provides education and support for people diagnosed with the condition, their families, and caregivers. This program helps in the identification of and safe, timely return of individuals with Alzheimer's who wander and become lost. This organization has 14 workers.

Table 2 shows the number of persons employed in each agency.

Table 2

Organizational Context

Agencies	Population
1	54
2	14
3	48
4	14
5	13
6	28
7	22
8	55
9	130
10	94
11	90
12	31
13	14
TOTAL	607

Research Participants

The population of this study consisted of employees in all listed 501(c) (3) nonprofit organizations in the identified area that are human service agencies and have their headquarters in the Jefferson County area. Some agencies might have also been serving other counties and states.

It was a convenience sample. After contacting a number of human service agencies through telephone calls, emails, and face-to-face meetings, 13 agencies verbally agreed to participate, and assist in the distribution of the questionnaire among all their full-time workers. Therefore 607 full-time employees that were in managerial and nonmanagerial positions composed the potential sample.

Participation was voluntary and anonymous. The questionnaire packet was sent to each human resource director or contact person in each agency that agreed to participate. Then each packet was distributed among the full-time workers during staff meetings or left in their mailboxes.

Data Gathering

Each questionnaire was distributed then among individuals working at those agencies. After reviewing research studies within the human service area, two job levels were identified: workers who provide direct human services to clients, and a manager to whom the members of a group are directly responsible (Glisson & Durick, 1988). These two levels refer to frontline workers and middle management. In another study within the nonprofit sector, the job levels were: social workers, psychologists, youth workers, community support workers,

financial workers, administrative staff, project staff, and managers (Dollard, Winefield, Winefield, & De Honge, 2000). Therefore, for the purposes of this study, preliminary job levels were classified as management, frontline workers, and clerical staff.

These three job levels classifications were shared with 15 human resource director/manager (in nonprofit agencies) for feedback via email or phone calls. Their feedback suggested adding more levels to this preliminary list. The consensus was that every full time worker should be included. After evaluating the results, the following levels were created:

1. Upper management,
2. Middle management,
3. Frontline workers: (staff dealing directly with clients)
4. Clerical staff
5. Marketing, PR and Fundraising
6. Internal/ External Support (staff that works with internal customers such as HR, IT, and accounting, and external customers such as the community)

To increase the response rate to the questionnaire, each agency was assigned a code to check if all agencies were being represented in the sample. After two weeks it was necessary to do a second mailing of the questionnaires (Babbie, 1998). Instructions in the second mailing stated clearly that the participant should disregard the questionnaire if he had already completed and submitted it.

The questionnaire instructions asked the respondents to rate their perceptions of interpersonal self-efficacy, organizational culture and perceived job performance, and to fill out relevant demographic or background information.

Variables

The study determined the degree of the relationships among the demographic variables (e.g. age, gender, ethnicity), organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived job performance. The independent variables in this study were interpersonal self-efficacy, organizational culture, and the demographics, while the dependent variables were the three types of perceived job performance (task, contextual, and overall)

Measures

The proposed questionnaire, the Human Service Worker Questionnaire (HSWQ), (see Appendix 5) contained a short version of a subject consent form (see Appendix 1), instructions on how to respond to the questionnaire and how to return it to the researcher, and a short list of operational definitions. The questionnaire had four parts.

First, interpersonal self-efficacy was measured using a modified version of the Teacher Interpersonal Self-Efficacy Scale (TIES; Brouwers & Tomic, 2001). Second, organizational culture was measured using the Organizational Culture Survey (OCS; Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker, 1987). Third, the three types of perceived job performance were measured by using adapted items on task and

contextual performance originally developed by Motowidlo and Van Scotter (PJP; 1994). A generalized adapted version was developed for task and contextual performance because the sample was formed by managerial and nonmanagerial positions. Thus, all individuals completed the same instrument. And fourth, the demographic information section asked for gender, education level, job level, age, ethnicity, and job experience information. The HSWQ was validated through subject matter experts than provided feedback on the content and appropriateness of the instrument, and through a pilot study to check it was appropriate to the human service context.

The HSWQ instructions asked the respondents to rate their perceptions of interpersonal self-efficacy, organizational culture, job performance, and to complete the demographic information sheet.

Table 3 shows which questions corresponded to each variable. Each part of the questionnaire is detailed below.

Table 3

Matching of Questions with Variables in HSWQ

Variables	Questions
Organizational Culture (I)*	1-31
Interpersonal Self-efficacy (I)*	21-48
Demographics (I) *	61-69
Perceived Job Performance (DV)**	49-60

***I = INDEPENDENT VARIABLE**

****DV = DEPENDENT VARIABLE**

Interpersonal Self-Efficacy (ISE) Scale

Brouwers and Tomic (2001) developed the teacher interpersonal self-efficacy scale, which aims to assess three subscales: perceived self-efficacy in classroom management, perceived self-efficacy to elicit support from colleagues, and perceived self-efficacy to elicit support from principal.

Brouwers and Tomic (2001) developed a scale of teacher interpersonal self-efficacy. Data were collected from $n = 832$ subjects and were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis. The data were divided into a calibration sample and a validation sample. Results from calibration sample were used to guide the construction of factors in the validation sample. It was found that the data supported a three factor model of teacher interpersonal self-efficacy. For both samples, two commonly accepted fit indices, the Tucker-Lewis index and the normed comparative fit index, exceeded the recommended criterion of .90 (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980). Factors obtained were: (a) perceived self-efficacy in classroom management, (b) perceived self-efficacy in eliciting support from colleagues, and (c) perceived self-efficacy in eliciting support from principals. For all factors, factor parameter estimates on the items (similar to factor loadings) exceeded .45.

In Brouwers and Tomic's study (2001), these three subscales yielded coefficient alphas in excess of .90. Perceived self-efficacy in classroom management had an alpha coefficient of .91; perceived self-efficacy in eliciting support from colleagues yielded .90, and perceived self-efficacy in eliciting

support from principals yielded .94. For the purposes of this study, the semantics of the three scale items were slightly changed to *perceived self-efficacy at work*, *perceived self-efficacy to elicit support from colleagues*, and *perceived self-efficacy to elicit support from supervisors*. Items 4, 10, 13, 17, 18, 21, and 24 of the original scale were removed since they did not fit this study setting, they referred specifically to class management activities and specific teacher activities.

In this study, the interpersonal self-efficacy items were reflected in questions 32-48 in the Human Service Worker Questionnaire (See Table 4 for sample items). This current interpersonal self-efficacy scale has a broader response scale to make it more sensitive and reliable. According to Bandura (2001), individuals tend to avoid the extreme positions on a Likert scale. Therefore, a four-point Likert scale would be reduced to only two points, for instance. The response categories for the self-efficacy scale in this study were from *Cannot do at all* to *Certain can do* (0-100).

Organizational Culture Survey (OCS)

The Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker OCS scale was used to measure six dimensions of organizational culture: teamwork-conflict, climate-morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, and meetings (Glaser, Zamanou, & Hacker, 1987).

The OCS was developed using statistical item analysis and exploratory factor analysis. A sample of $n = 164$ subjects was administered the OCS and the results factor analyzed. Principal components analysis was followed by varimax rotation of factors that had an eigenvalue greater than 1.0. The authors reported

that six factors emerged that corresponded to the scales that had been hypothesized to exist in the construct organizational culture. Only items that had loadings of at least .56 on a factor were retained on the questionnaire. This assured that scales contained the items that were most central to each of the dimensions of organizational culture. For example, eight items loaded on the Supervision scale (loadings ranging from .64 to .82) and six items related to the Involvement scale (loadings ranging from .56 to .81). The factor analysis provided validity evidence for the construct organizational culture.

The coefficient alphas were as follows: teamwork-conflict (.87), climate-morale (.84), information flow (.82), involvement (.86), supervision (.91), and meetings (.89). This instrument was used in its original form.

Table 4

Sample Items for Interpersonal Self-efficacy

<p>In the column <u>Confidence</u> rate how sure you are that you can perform the tasks described below in questions 32 to 48. Write a number from 0 to 100 on each blank line.</p>										
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot do at all					Moderately certain can do it					Certain can do
										Confidence (0-100)
32. Respond adequately to coworkers.										_____
33. Manage your work well										_____
34. Take adequate measures necessary to keep your job running efficiently.										_____
35. Redirect a co-worker that disrupts you quickly.										_____
36. Get through to most difficult workers.										_____
37. Make your expectations clear to co-workers.										_____
38. Communicate to your coworkers that you are serious about your job.										_____

Table 5

Sample Items for Organizational Culture

1. People I work with are direct and honest with each other.
2. People I work with accept criticism without becoming defensive.
3. People I work with function as a team.
4. People I work with constructively confront problems.
5. People I work with are good listeners.
6. Meetings tap the creative potential of the people present.

In this study, the organizational culture items were reflected in questions 1-31 in the Human Service Worker Questionnaire (See Table 5 for sample items). The organizational culture items used a Likert scale: 1 (*strongly disagree*); 2 (*Disagree*); 3 (*Undecided*); 4 (*Agree*); and 5 (*Strongly Agree*).

Perceived Job Performance (PJP)

The performance rating scale proposed for use in this study was based on the themes found in the nonprofit sector literature review. Perceived job performance were measured through 12 items designed to measure task, contextual performance, and overall performance for a human service worker.

This self-rated scale was built upon Motowidlo and Van Scotter's research (1994). Task performance was measured with five items that describe general tasks performed by a human service worker. Contextual performance was also

measured with five items that describe general activities that match the dimensions of contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). For both types of performance, participants rated themselves on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all likely*); 2 (*somewhat likely*); 3 (*likely*); 4 (*very likely*); and 5 (*extremely likely*). These items are represented in items 49 to 59 (See Table 6 for sample items). The job performance items used a Likert scale: 1 (*not at all likely*); 2 (*somewhat likely*); 3 (*likely*); 4 (*very likely*); and 5 (*extremely likely*). Finally, overall performance was measured with a single question (item 60). It used a Likert scale from 1 to 5 (*Do not meet standards for job performance to exceed standards for job performance*).

Table 6

Sample Items for Perceived Job Performance

49. Use problem solving skills
50. Perform administrative tasks
51. Have a good overall technical performance
52. Plan your work
53. Organize your work
54. Cooperate with others in a team

The self-rated scale of job performance was sent to a group of subject matter experts representing different job levels within the human service sector to validate whether the twelve items were relevant to their positions.

Permission to use the Interpersonal Self-efficacy Scale, Organizational Culture Survey, and Performance scales were granted by the authors.

Demographic Variables

Based on the literature reviewed, the demographic variables that will be considered in this study are gender (Gibelman, 2000; McNeely, 1983), level of education (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Gibelman, 2000; Wolf, 1997), job level (Conway, 1999; MacKenzie 1991; Vinokur-Kaplan, 1996), age (Cherniss, 1991; Gibelman, 2000), ethnicity (Elvira & Town, 2001), and job experience (Bandura, 1986). These items are 61 through 69. The demographic variable items used a descriptive format (See Table 7 for sample items).

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

Validity

The HSWQ content was validated first through subject matter experts (SMEs) who were selected based on their experience in nonprofit human service agencies and were representative of the different job levels (e.g. management, frontline workers, and clerical staff), and on their experience in scale development and measurement of self-efficacy.

The questionnaire was sent by e-mail to each SME for approval before it is utilized in the pilot study. The questionnaire was accompanied with detailed instructions on how to analyze each item in the questionnaire (Appendix 2). Specifically, they were asked to provide feedback on the content validity of the questionnaire for a human service sample. Feedback was oral and written. Once

their feedback was received, suggestions were revised and included in the instrument. Later, the revised measures were validated through a pilot study.

Table 7

Sample Items for Demographic Variables

<p>60. What is your job level? Check one.</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 1. Upper Management</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 2. Middle Management</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 3. Front line workers (case manager/field workers/ other)</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 4. Front line workers (clerical staff)</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 5. Marketing and Public Relations</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 6. Internal/ External Support: works with internal customers such as Human resources (HR), Instructional Technology (IT), and external customer such as community.</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 7. Other (Please specify)_____</p> <p>61. How much job experience related in your current position do you have? _____ (years)</p>
--

Reliability

The instrument was piloted using the same criterion sample that was used to select the study sample. Therefore, a small sample of every participating agency was drawn as pilot study participants. The contact person of each organization was asked to select randomly a small number of workers to fill out the questionnaire. The pilot study aimed to gain additional feedback on the questionnaire.

Members of the pilot sample were asked to provide feedback on item instructions and clarity, and they were asked to time themselves when responding to the questionnaire (Appendix 3). The estimated time to complete

the survey is 15-20 minutes. Once the pilot study was completed, the principal study was carried out.

Procedures

This study was designed to be an exploratory quantitative study. In carrying out the research design, several specific procedures were used (Table 8).

Literature review of relevant empirical research: Overall, more than 50 studies were reviewed for this research. A thorough analysis of each empirical study was done, identifying the goal, variables in study, sample, method and analysis, results, and limitations and recommendations for future research.

The study proposal was submitted for approval to the Human Studies Committee of the University of Louisville before being carried out. Once authorization was granted, the study instrument was sent to a panel of SMEs for review and approval. After their review, a pilot study took place. Data from the pilot study were be entered and analyzed for review purposes. Finally, the main study was carried out. The questionnaires were delivered by hand to each participating agency's human resource contact person, who coordinated the distribution of the questionnaires to all full-time workers. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a self-addressed stamped envelope (SASE) to ensure anonymity. Each questionnaire was assigned a code to check on response rates of participating agencies. After two weeks, a reminder, and another 607 questionnaires and SASEs were sent. Participation in the study was voluntary

and anonymous. The main study lasted roughly a month. All communications between the participating agencies and the researcher were done via e-mail or by phone. Communication with the respondents happened during the duration of the study as follows:

Week 1: A pre-notification letter (see appendix 4) was sent to full-time workers in each of the participating organizations. This letter aimed to inform the selected participants about the forthcoming research study and to make them aware of their potential contribution.

Following the pre-notification letter, the researcher sent another letter to the entire targeted population, through the contact person, asking them to complete the questionnaires. This letter provided more details about the purpose of the study; include an informed subject consent form; the researcher's contact information; and the questionnaire. Upon receipt of the questionnaire, they filled out the questionnaire and returned it via regular mail.

Week 2 and 3: One reminder letter and questionnaire were sent to increase the response rate. The reminder letter asked the participants to complete the questionnaire only if it has not been filled before.

Week 4: At the end of the fourth week, data collection was completed. A letter was sent to the respondents, thanking them for their participation in the study (appendix 8). This email included the researcher's e-mail should they wish to receive the results of the study. This procedure is illustrated in Table 8 below.

Table 8

Procedure Timeline

Activity	Dates	Appendix
Human Studies Committee Review	April	1
SME survey review	April	2
Pilot group review	May	3
Pre-notification	1 st week	4
Main study	1 st week	
Reminder	End 2 nd week	5
Thank you note	End 4 th week	6
End of data collection	End 4 th week	

Data Analysis

A quantitative approach was used to collect and analyze data. Data analysis included three procedures: First, data were entered to a data file using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Next, the researcher reported descriptive statistics such as means, percentages, median, graphs or figures to provide a representation of the data (Shavelson, 1996). Finally, the data were analyzed using inferential statistics to provide answers to the research questions that may be true for the population in study (Shavelson, 1996).

Findings are discussed in the next chapters.

This study was a two-step design correlational design in order to understand the patterns of relationships among the three variables of study.

Data for each variable were collected through the questionnaire sent to each participant. The analysis of data was done through appropriate statistical test.

The first research question addressed the relationship among demographic variables, interpersonal self-efficacy, organizational culture, and perceived job performance. To answer this question, correlations were used. Further, through hierarchical multiple regression analyses, the researcher analyzed the unique relationships among the perceived task and contextual job performance (dependent variable), and demographic variables, interpersonal self-efficacy and organizational culture (predictors). Guided by theory and research, the variables were entered in the regression equation in a specific order (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 1996). The demographic variables were entered first as a block; then interpersonal self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986); and finally organization culture to predict the dependent variable. For this reason, a hierarchical regression was used. The outcome of this analysis was a multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) that represented the degree of relationship between the independent variables and the continuous dependent variable.

The second research question investigated if there were any differences in perceived job performance based on the demographic variables (gender, age, and ethnicity). A factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was run to compare the means of several demographically defined groups (e.g., minority vs.

non-minority). In this test, the dependent variables were task job performance and contextual job performance.

Table 9 presents which questions correspond to each variable and what statistical procedures were used. Survey items are also identified for each research question.

Table 9

Matching of questions with statistical procedures

<u>Questions</u>	<u>Variables</u>	<u>Survey Items</u>	<u>Statistical Procedures</u>
What is the relationship among demographic variables, interpersonal self-efficacy, organizational culture, and perceived job performance?	Predictor Variables: demographic variables, interpersonal self-efficacy, organizational culture DV: Perceived Job Performance	1-69	Hierarchical Regression
Are there any differences in perceived job performance based on the demographic variables (gender, level of education, job level, age, ethnicity, and job experience)?	IVs: Demographic variables DV: Perceived Job Performance	61-69 49-60	Descriptive Statistics MANOVA

Summary

This study used a nonprofit human service sample. Univariate and multivariate statistics were employed to answer the research questions. This chapter has described the methods that were used in this study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The current study examined the relationships and differences among organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived employee job performance variables within the nonprofit sector. The participants in this research study were human service professionals employed by nonprofit organizations. The questionnaires used in this study measured: (a) demographic characteristics of nonprofit human service workers, (b) perceptions of organizational culture, (c) perceptions of interpersonal self-efficacy, and (d) perceptions of job performance. The items in the demographic section derived from the literature and were later validated by a pilot study. Items on the Interpersonal Self-Efficacy Scale were adapted from an instrument reported by Brouwers and Tomic (2001). Job Performance items were adapted from research reported by Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) and Borman and Motowidlo (1993). Finally, Organizational Culture items conformed to the Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker scale (1987).

This chapter includes the results of the study obtained through the quantitative analyses of the questionnaire data. The independent variables were demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity), organizational culture, and

interpersonal self-efficacy. The dependent variable was job performance. The two main statistical procedures were hierarchical regression and a factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Data analysis was performed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

The two research questions that guided this study were:

- What is the relationship among demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity) organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived job performance in nonprofit human service organizations?
 - I. What is the relationship between the demographic variables and job performance?
 - II. Controlling for demographic variables, what is the relationship between organizational culture and job performance?
 - III. Controlling for demographic variables and organizational culture variables, what is the relationship between interpersonal self-efficacy and job performance?
- What are the differences in the perceptions of job performance based on demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity)?

Results are presented that pertain to: (a) results of the pilot study, and (b) result of the main study. Information presented includes descriptive statistics of the sample and demographic variables, reliability statistics for each scale, description of data analysis for research question one, and description of data analysis for research question two. The discussion and implications of these results are presented in Chapter 5.

Results of the Pilot Study

Response Rate

The pilot study was conducted in the 13 participating organizations. The contact person of each organization was asked to select at random 10% of their full-time staff. Therefore there were 79 potential respondents for the pilot study. At the end, the total pilot sample size was 48. To increase the pilot response rate, the contact person sent a reminder email to the pilot group. On average, the pilot group took 10 minutes to fill in the questionnaire.

Data were collected using the Human Service Worker Questionnaire (HSWQ). The respondents had two weeks to send back the questionnaire, but the researcher extended the deadline due to a request by the organizations. The reason was a city event that interfered with employee work schedules. The time extension increased the response rate.

The responses emerging from the pilot study added value to the study and helped to refine and clarify the instrument. Changes to the questionnaire were made from the pilot study and the subject matter comments. Pilot respondents' feedback included clarification of some items. For instance, item 66 (item 68 after the editing) asked respondents to identify if the agency served rural or urban areas, some pilot respondents chose both options. Therefore, the word *mainly* was added to the statement and the option of *mixed areas* was offered. This modification allowed respondents to choose only one option.

Validity and Reliability

Instrument Validity

The HSWQ content was validated first through subject matter experts (SMEs) who were selected based on their experience in nonprofit human service agencies and will be representative of the different job levels (e.g. management, frontline workers, and clerical staff).

The questionnaire was attached to an e-mail message to each SME for approval before it was used in the pilot study. The questionnaire was accompanied with detailed instructions on how to analyze each item in the questionnaire. Some of SMEs responded by email, attaching the edited questionnaire; others called and gave their feedback. Overall, they indicated the survey was well organized and they believed it had face validity and construct validity. SME feedback was incorporated in the questionnaire.

Among SME comments were several on how to improve appearance of the instrument. For instance, in terms of formatting, comments referred to using the same format and font along the whole questionnaire, keeping the column headings at right centered. Another group of suggestions involved rewording some of the statements for clarity. Some of the suggestions were as follows: In the instructions of Part III instead of having a statement like '*In comparison to other individuals in your organization*' change to "*In relation to your coworkers*". Also, item 64 used the word '*gender*', the suggestion was to replace with the word *gender* to avoid more options. Item 65 asked, '*what is your ethnicity*', the suggestion was to make it an open-ended question since there were more

categories due to the new demographic trends (Stephan & Stephan, 2000).

Overall, most of the SME feedback was incorporated in the revised version of the questionnaire before sending it out to the pilot sample.

Instrument Reliability

The purpose of the reliability analyses was to determine if items in each scale were measuring the same construct (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). As can be seen in Table 10, the scales in the questionnaire had relatively high internal consistency reliability coefficients. Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from .78 to .95.

Table 10

Reliability Statistics for Four Scales

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Organizational Culture (OC)	.95	31
Interpersonal Self-efficacy (ISE)	.83	17
Job Performance (JP) (with item 60)	.80	12
Job Performance (JP) (without 60)	.78	11

Results of the Main Study

Summary of Characteristics of the Sample

After the pilot study, the questionnaire was sent to the potential respondents in the 13 organizations. Overall, 607 questionnaires were mailed to 13 nonprofit human service agencies. Out of this number, 160 questionnaires were returned in the first mailing and 166 questionnaires were returned after a second mailing, resulting in 326 total, a response rate of 54%. Table 11 shows number of respondents from each agency after the first mailing and the second mailing.

Table 11

Study Response Rate by Agency

Agencies	Population	First Mailing	Second Mailing	% per agency
1	54	6	18	33
2	14	5	11	79
3	48	24	37	77
4	14	6	13	93
5	13	4	7	54
6	28	0	4	14
7	22	14	16	73
8	55	16	18	33
9	130	29	57	44
10	94	37	59	63
11	90	14	47	52
12	31	5	19	61
13	14	10	13	93
TOTAL	607	160	326	

Demographic variables measured on the respondents included gender, age, and ethnicity. Additionally, information was obtained on level of education, years of work experience, and type of organization for the whole sample and by gender (See Appendix 7). White females seemed to have more years of education than African American females while African American males had more years of education than white males.

Table 12 summarizes the characteristics of the sample by gender. Most respondents were women. Out of the 326 respondents, 255 (78%) were female.

Table 12

Distribution of Respondents by Gender.

Gender	<i>n</i>	%
Female	255	78
Male	49	15
Missing	22	7

Table 13 summarizes the characteristics of the sample by ethnicity. Out of the 326 respondents, 209 (64%) were white/Caucasian, 48 (15%) were African American, and 69 (21%) individuals either did not identify their ethnicity or selected a unique label for their ethnicity (e.g., NA, multi, Asian, Baptist, Hispanic).

Table 14 summarizes the characteristics of the sample by age group. Each individual entered their exact chronological age. After data analyses, four

categories were created. Respondents were relatively evenly spread among four age categories.

Table 13

Distribution of Respondents by Ethnicity (Using Three Categories)

Ethnicity	<i>n</i>	%
African-American	48	15
White/Caucasian	209	64
Other/Missing	69	21

Table 14

Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age	<i>n</i>	%
51-66	74	23
41-50	71	22
31-40	68	21
21-30	82	25
Missing	31	10

Table 15 presents the distribution of respondents by level of education. Most of the respondents had completed graduate studies (42%) or had completed an undergraduate degree (26%).

Table 15

Distribution of Respondents by Level of Education

Education	<i>n</i>	%
Graduate	138	42
Undergraduate	84	26
High School	57	18
Other	31	10
Missing	16	5

Table 16 presents the distribution of respondents by years of job experience. Most of the respondents had 0 to 5 years of job experience (32%). However, relatively large percentages of respondents had 5.1 to 10 years or 10.1-20 years.

Table 17 presents the distribution of respondents by job level. Most of the respondents were front line workers (43%). However, a substantial percentage (21%) fell in the category of middle management.

Table 16

Distribution of Respondents by Years of Work Experience

Years of Work Experience	<i>n</i>	%
30.1-48	13	4
20.1-30	56	17
10.1-20	63	19
5.1-10	69	21
0-5	103	32
Missing	22	7

Summary of Reliability Scales for Each Scale

Internal consistency reliability coefficients were calculated for three of the sections of the Human Service Worker Questionnaire (HSWQ): Organizational Culture, Interpersonal Self-efficacy, and Job Performance. In addition, reliability coefficients were calculated for the two subscales of job performance: task performance and contextual performance. Coefficient alpha is extensively used in empirical research to estimate the reliability of a test consisting of parallel items. As can be seen in Table 18, reliabilities were above the minimum level (.70) considered acceptable for research (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Table 17

Distribution of Respondents by Job Level

Job Level	<i>n</i>	%
Upper management	39	12
Middle management	69	21
Front line workers	139	43
Clerical staff	36	11
Marketing	3	1
Internal/external	13	4
Other	12	4
Missing	15	5

Table 18

Reliability Statistics for Five Scales

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Organizational Culture (OC)	.93	31
Interpersonal Self-efficacy (ISE)	.91	17
Job Performance (JP)	.88	12
Task Performance (TP)	.76	5
Contextual Performance (CP)	.84	6

Although for the purpose of this study, organizational culture and interpersonal self-efficacy were observed as just two independent variables, Cronbach's alphas for the OC subscales were calculated as follows, .87 for the team-work dimension, .93 for climate-morale, .80 for information flow, .90 for involvement, .91 for supervision, and .48 for meetings. The researcher found that one item in the last dimension had a standard deviation of 4.44. This could explain the low reliability score in this dimension. Also, Cronbach's alphas for the self-efficacy subscales were calculated as follows: .78 for interpersonal self-efficacy at work, .86 for interpersonal self-efficacy eliciting support from coworkers, .95 for interpersonal self-efficacy eliciting support from supervisors (See Appendix 8).

Research Question One

The first research question examined the relationship among demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity), organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and job performance. For the analyses addressing this question, ethnicity was dichotomized into: (a) African American and (b) White/Caucasian.

A series of hierarchical regression analyses were completed in this study by regressing the job performance scale of the Human Service Worker Questionnaire on demographic variables, organizational culture, and interpersonal self-efficacy. These analyses were completed to examine the extent to which the combinations of demographic variables, organizational

culture (OC) and interpersonal self-efficacy (ISE) accounted for variation in job performance (JP).

The demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity) were entered first; then organization culture; and finally interpersonal self-efficacy to predict the dependent variable. The outcome of this analysis was a multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) that represented the degree of relationship between the independent variables and the continuous dependent variable. This hierarchical model yielded a R^2 and the partial coefficients of each variable at the point at which it was added to the equation. Examination of the plots of the data and residual statistics showed that the assumptions of linearity, homoscedasticity, no autocorrelation, and no multicollinearity were not violated.

The first hierarchical regression analysis used the items of the job performance scale including task, contextual and overall performance. Table 19 shows the regression model summary. With just ethnicity, gender, age in the equation, 8% of the variance was predicted. Adding organizational culture increased the variance accounted from 8% to 13%. Finally, interpersonal self-efficacy explained 14% of the variance in job performance. As it can be seen in Table 19, the beta coefficients at the last step give the relative importance of the predictor variables. Self-efficacy ($\beta = .46$) was by far the strongest predictor variable. Controlling for the other variables in the equation, the higher the self-efficacy of the respondents, the higher the self-ratings of job performance. After entering interpersonal self-efficacy, organizational culture had no effect on job performance ($\beta = -.03$).

Table 19

*Hierarchical Regression Model Summary: Job Performance
(Task, Contextual, Overall) Predicted by Five Variables*

Step and Predictor Variable	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.08	.07*	
Ethnicity			.18**
Gender			-.19**
Age			.15**
Step 2	.13	.12*	
Ethnicity			.14**
Gender			-.18**
Age			.09**
Organization Culture			.23**
Step 3	.28	.26**	
Ethnicity			.17**
Gender			-.15**
Age			.09
Organizational Culture			-.03
Self-Efficacy			.46**

Note. Adjusted R^2 for Step 3 was .26.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$

Another hierarchical regression analysis was performed without including overall job performance (item 60). As can be seen in Table 20, this analysis showed similar results. Again, self-efficacy incremented the variance a significant amount and organizational culture was not a significant predictor.

Table 20

*Regression Model Summary: Job Performance (Task, Contextual) Predictor
by Five Variables*

Step	R^2	ΔR^2
1	.08	.07*
2	.13	.12*
3	.28	.25

Note. Step 1 had Ethnicity, Gender and Age as predictors. At step 2, organizational culture was added. At step 3, interpersonal self-efficacy was added.

Research Question Two

The second research question investigated if there were any differences in perceived job performance based on the demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity). A factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to compare the means of several demographically defined groups (age, gender and ethnicity). The subscales of job performance (task and contextual performance) were the dependent variables.

Table 21

*Multivariate Analysis Variance for Gender, Ethnicity, Age and Interactions
Related to Task Performance and Contextual Performance*

Source	<i>df</i> (hypothesis, error)	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	2, 234	1.09	.34
Ethnicity	2, 234	1.16	.32
Age	6, 468	1.95	.07
Gender X Ethnicity	2, 234	4.79	.01
Gender X Age	6, 468	1.34	.23
Ethnicity X Age	6, 468	1.91	.08
Gender X Ethnicity X Age	6, 648	0.83	.54

Note. *F* Ratios were derived from Wilks' lambda statistics.

Table 21 shows results of MANOVA. For the purpose of this analysis two of the variables were defined as follows.

Ethnicity was dichotomized: (a) African American, (b) White/Caucasian. Age was divided into four categories: (a) 21-30 years, (b) 31-40 years, (c) 41-50 years, (d) 51-66 years (no subject was older than 66).

As can be seen in Table 21, only one source of variance was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a gender by ethnicity interaction effect ($p = .01$). To

follow up this effect, univariate ANOVA results were examined to determine whether the interaction existed for each of the dependent variables.

Table 22 shows results of two ANOVA. The gender by ethnicity interaction was significant ($p < .05$) for only one dependent variable: Contextual Job Performance. Simple effects analyses were performed to examine this interaction. This involved testing the difference between (a) African American females and white females, and (b) African American males and white males. For females, white respondents exceeded African American respondents ($M = 4.34$ vs. $M = 4.01$), $F(1, 235) = 12.36$, $p < .01$. However, for males, ethnicity operated in a different way. For males, African American respondents exceeded white respondents ($M = 4.22$ vs. $M = 3.77$), $F(1, 235) = 6.98$, $p < .01$ (See Appendix 9). Thus, a disordinal interaction existed between gender and ethnicity, on contextual job performance. The highest mean values on the latter variable occurred for white females and African American males.

An additional hierarchical regression analysis was performed with task performance, contextual performance and overall performance. Task performance was entered first; and then contextual performance to predict the dependent variable. The outcome of this analysis was a multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) that represented the degree of relationship between task and contextual performance and the continuous dependent variable. Examination of the plots of the data and residual statistics showed that the assumptions of linearity, homoscedasticity, no autocorrelation, and no multicollinearity were not violated.

Table 22

Analysis of Variance for Gender by ethnicity Interaction Effects on Two Job Performance Variables.

Source	Dependent Variables	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender by Ethnicity	Task Performance	1, 235	2.26	.13
	Contextual Performance	1, 235	9.34	<.01

This hierarchical regression analysis used the single item of the overall job performance scale as the dependent variable. Table 23 shows the regression model summary. With just task performance in the equation, 10% of the variance was predicted. Adding contextual performance increased the variance accounted for from 10% to 14%. As it can be seen in Table 14, the beta coefficients at the final step give the relative importance of the predictor variable. Contextual performance ($\beta = .27$) was by far the strongest predictor variable. When the hierarchical regression was repeated entering first contextual performance results were almost the same (see Table 24). These results support the hypothesis that task performance and contextual performance contribute independently to the prediction of overall job performance.

Table 23

Hierarchical Regression Model Summary: Overall Job Performance Predicted by Two Variables: Task Performance Entered First

Step and Predictor Variable	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.10	.10**	
Task Performance			.32**
Step 2	.14	.14**	
Task Performance			.14**
Contextual Performance			.27*

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$

Table 24

Hierarchical Regression Model Summary: Overall Job Performance Predicted by Two Variables: Contextual Performance Entered First

Step and Predictor Variable	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.13	.13**	
Contextual Performance			.36**
Step 2	.14	.14**	
Contextual Performance			.27**
Task Performance			.14*

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present the results of the statistical tests for this study in the form of descriptive statistics, reliability coefficients and statistics to answer question 1 and 2.

In this study, there was a 54% of response rate, and most of the respondents were white females. The reliability coefficients for the scale that were derived from the questionnaire were above the minimum acceptable level (.70).

Research question one examined the relationship among demographics variables (age, gender, and ethnicity), organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and job performance. For this question, ethnicity was dichotomized into: (a) African American and (b) white/Caucasian. The regression analyses showed that demographic variables were a significant predictor of job performance. Interpersonal self-efficacy was a relatively strong predictor of job performance. The predictor of organizational culture did not add significant variance to the prediction of job performance.

The second research question examined differences in perceived job performance based on the demographic variables (gender, age, and ethnicity). The results from the factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) showed only that one source of variance was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a gender by ethnicity interaction effect ($p = .01$). The univariate ANOVA results showed that the gender by ethnicity interaction was significant ($p < .05$) for

only one dependent variable: Contextual Job Performance. The highest means on job performance occurred for white females and African American males.

This study is significant since partial support was found for the two research questions. Moreover, the results presented above indicated clearly that the nonprofit human service workers in this study experienced greatest job performance beliefs when their interpersonal self-efficacy ratings were high. A more detailed discussion of the findings is presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUMMARY

Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the current study obtained through the quantitative analyses of the questionnaire data. The two research questions that guided this study were as follows. The first question intended to investigate the relationship among demographic variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived job performance in nonprofit human service organizations. The second question investigated the differences in the perceptions of job performance based on demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity) among nonprofit human service workers.

Chapter Five is structured to interpret the findings by analyzing, and drawing conclusions. The findings have several implications for different nonprofit stakeholders such as decision makers, management, staff, practitioners, and educators. Recommendations and implications for practice and future research concerning nonprofit human resource development are made.

The following sections are summarized below: statement of the problem, review of the method, summary of the results, and discussion of the results according to the two research questions, limitations, significance of the study, suggestions for additional research and summary.

Statement of the Problem

With the increase in number of human service agencies and therefore their services (i.e. childcare, domestic violence, immigration issues), a need to learn more about these agencies appears. Thus, there appears to be a compelling need appears to learn more about these agencies, especially nonprofit human service organizations because it seems that their workforce has increased noticeably in the past three decades (Smith, 2002). Based on an extensive search of the literature, little empirical research has been conducted to explore the relationships and differences among organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and perceived employee job performance variables within the nonprofit sector. This research investigated the relationships among these variables.

Review of the Method

This study used a nonprofit human service sample. The participants in this research study were nonprofit human service professionals. The independent variables were demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity), organizational culture, and interpersonal self-efficacy. The dependent variable was job performance. There were also other demographic variables included such as level of education, work experience, and job level. The two main statistical procedures were hierarchical regression and a factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Questionnaires were sent to each participating agency to

be distributed among full-time workers. Data from returned questionnaires were entered and analyzed.

Summary of the Results

Out of the 607 questionnaires that were sent, 326 were returned, yielding a 54% response rate. Results showed that 78% of the sample as female, and 15% was male. These findings are supported by the literature that says that there are more females than males in nonprofit organizations (Preston, 1985). There were also more African American females than African American males.

A hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the theoretical model and to determine whether the relations among the predictors specified in the model were supported. Because the goal of the study was to find out the variance in job performance accounted for by organizational culture and interpersonal self-efficacy independent of the influence of demographic variables, the demographic variables were entered first. Results for question one showed that the regression effect for the demographic variables were statistically significant (ethnicity and gender). Further, when the interpersonal self-efficacy (ISE) variable was added, ISE became a statistically significant predictor of the dependent variable (job performance) as well. Conversely, the predictor of organizational culture (OC) did not add any incremental variance to the equation.

Results for the second research question showed only that one source of variance was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a gender by ethnicity interaction effect ($p = .01$). The univariate ANOVA results demonstrated that the gender by ethnicity interaction was statistically significant ($p < .05$) for only one dependent variable: Contextual Job Performance. The results of this study illustrate the positive interaction of gender by ethnicity. Since the interaction was only with contextual performance, these findings support the notion that characteristics associated with task performance might be different from characteristics associated with contextual performance (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). The practical significance of these findings is discussed in this chapter.

Measures Used. The questionnaire was the Human Service Worker Questionnaire (HSWQ). The questionnaire had four parts. First, interpersonal self-efficacy was measured using a modified version of the Teacher Interpersonal Self-Efficacy Scale (TIES; Brouwers & Tomic, 2001). Second, organizational culture was measured using the Organizational Culture Survey (OCS; Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker, 1987). Third, the three types of perceived job performance were measured by using adapted items on task and contextual performance originally developed by Motowidlo and Van Scotter (PJP; 1994). Fourth, the demographic information section asked for gender, education level, job level, age, ethnicity, and job experience information. Reliability coefficients were calculated, ranging from .76 to .93 for the scales measuring self-efficacy, organizational culture, and job performance.

In the Organizational Culture section (Glaser et al., 1987), the reliability coefficients were similar to the ones obtained by previous researchers (Glaser, et al., 1987; Pearson et al., 2002). There was only one discrepancy with one of the dimensions (Appendix 1). Surprisingly, one item in the last dimension had a standard deviation of 4.44. This could explain the low reliability score in this dimension. Possible explanations can be the type of language used in the item, “meetings tap the creative potential of the people” that could have caused confusion or misunderstanding among the respondents. Another explanation refers to the possible relevance of the question to the workers’ responsibilities. Follow-up studies could explore OC dimensions in alternative settings such as nonprofit and for-profit workers. The results could be contrasted since the original OC survey has been mainly used with for-profit organizations. Overall, the OC survey was found to be valid and reliable in the current study.

In the Interpersonal Self-Efficacy section (adapted from Brouwers and Tomic, 2001), the three subscales yielded coefficient alphas in excess of .70. Perceived self-efficacy at work had an alpha coefficient of .78; perceived self-efficacy in eliciting support from colleagues yielded .86, and perceived self-efficacy in eliciting support from principals yielded .95. For future research, another revised version of interpersonal self-efficacy for nonprofit human service workers is recommended since the original scale was developed for teachers.

In the Perceived Job Performance section, the performance rating scale used in this study was based on the themes found in the nonprofit sector literature review and upon Motowidlo and Van Scotter’s research (1994). Task

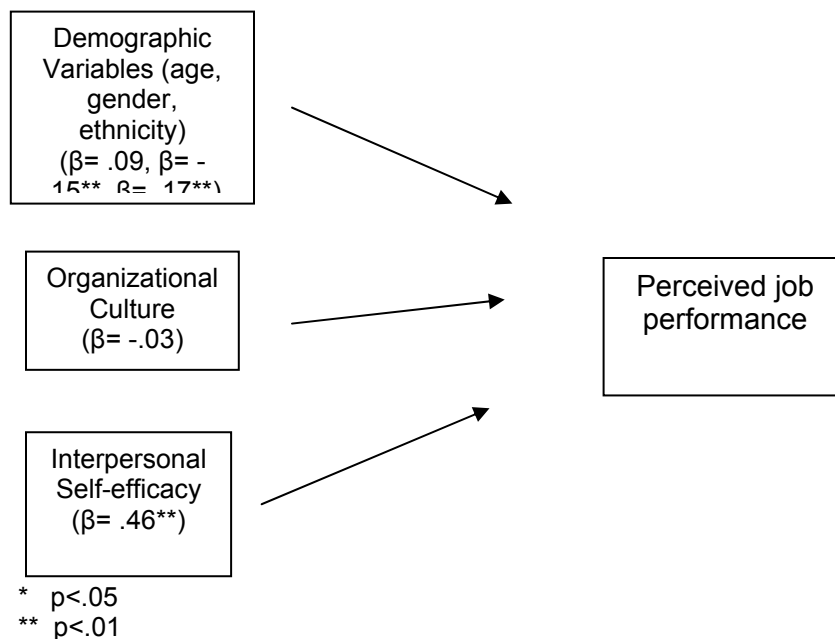
performance was measured with five items that describe general tasks performed by a human service worker. Contextual performance was also measured with five items that describe general activities that match the dimensions of contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Reliability coefficients for both task and contextual performance were calculated. An explanation of why the reliability coefficients for task and contextual study in the current study were lower than Motowidlo and Van Scotter's scale (1994) might be due to utilizing an adapted version of the scale designed to meet the specific needs of the current study. For future research, a more in-depth version for nonprofit human service workers performance scales is recommended.

Research Question One: Demographic Variables, Organizational Culture, Interpersonal Self-efficacy and Job Performance

The first research question determined the relationship among demographic variables, interpersonal self-efficacy (ISE), organizational culture (OC) and job performance (JP) in nonprofit human service organizations. In the hierarchical regression analyses, demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity) were entered first. With just age, gender, and ethnicity in the equation, 8% of the variance was predicted. Adding organizational culture added from increased the variance accounted from 8% to 13%. Finally, interpersonal self-efficacy added an additional 14% of the variance as illustrated in Figure 1. Overall, the findings of the current study partially support prior research, which is discussed below.

Considering the number of workers that are employed in nonprofit organizations, the increasingly diverse workforce, and the existing research on demographics and performance (Elvira & Town, 2001; Gibelman, 2000; Sheridan, 1992), the goal of this study was to examine workers' demographics and their perceptions on organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy and job performance. According to Preston (1985) women make up from 61% to 72% of the total nonprofit workforce. These number contrasts their for-profit counterparts (31% to 37%). An explanation of this high number in the nonprofit areas is that this sector provides more attractive job opportunities to females since they offer more non-monetary incentives to balance the lower salaries. This study supports previous research regarding the higher number of females in nonprofit organization.

Figure 1: Theoretical Model of the Study



The second variable entered was organizational culture. This construct had to do with perceptions on six different dimensions: teamwork-conflict, climate-morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, and meetings (Glaser, Zamanou, & Hacker, 1987). In the current study, the variable of organizational culture added the least variance to the regression equation.

Finally, interpersonal self-efficacy was added and proved to be the strongest predictor for job performance. The unique effects analysis suggested that interpersonal self-efficacy explains more variance in job performance ($R^2 = .28$) than the demographic variables and organizational culture. Considering that human service agencies have a heterogeneous group of human service clients, management and workers should show more diverse work approaches to reach their populations (McNeely, 1983). The lack of appropriate skills to respond to their clients may hinder workers to perform effectively. Self-efficacy has been found to be a strong predictor of job performance. Findings of this study suggest the need to support the development of interpersonal self-efficacy to strengthen worker's job performance.

Findings of this study contribute to the understanding of nonprofit human service worker's job performance. Although the theoretical model was not supported wholly, the study results suggest that both demographics and interpersonal self-efficacy have a statistically significant, unique influence on job performance.

Implications and Recommendations

Although research has shown that perceptions of OC could “provide a basis for improving processes and enhancing outcomes such as customer service and return on investment” (Muldrow, Buckley & Schay, 2002. p.341), the results of the current study can be interpreted as suggesting that organizational culture is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for excellence in job performance, nor does organizational culture foster negative perceptions of job performance. Nevertheless, previous research has shown that if workers know more about their organizational culture, this knowledge will guide their behavior towards performing well.

Therefore, although OC added the least variance in this study, it might be still important to consider this variable and its impact on organizational information, worker interactions, and performance within the nonprofit human service organizations, since research in this particular setting has shown that support at work was a very significant aspect of the psychological environment linked to strain (Dollard, Winefield & Winefield, 2000). Previous research may help explain why organizational culture was the weakest predictor of job performance. Janz and Prasarnphanich (2003) suggested that cooperative learning could have a stronger influence on work satisfaction than on work performance. An extension of the finding on cooperative learning is that two of the dimensions of organizational culture in the present study include information flow and information on meetings. These two dimensions may imply that workers share and exchange information and practices and collaborate more. Therefore

the study of Janz and Prasarnphanich (2003) implies that shared information and learning may become a better predictor of work satisfaction than of job performance. The findings of this study are supported by research employing a structural equation modeling technique demonstrating that organizational climate perceptions (perceptions on intraorganizational communication, challenging job assignments, supportive management, and appropriate rewards) were not significantly correlated with performance ratings (Potosky & Ramakrishna, 2002). The fact that participants in the present study represented different organizations may have also influenced the relationship between organizational culture and job performance, since research has found that organizational culture may influence the relative importance of task and contextual performance if participants belong to a single organization (Johnson, 2001).

For the third variable entered, ISE, the findings of this study are comparable to other research that showed that self-efficacy beliefs correlate with performance scores (Robertson & Sadri, 1993). Although the results of the current study concerning ISE and job performance showed a significant relationship, causality has not been tested or found. In this study, interpersonal self-efficacy added the most variance to the equation. Consistent with self-efficacy theory, this study supports the theory in terms that self-efficacy is associated with successful performance in different settings (Noe & Wilk, 1993) and that self-efficacy affects performance (Bandura, 1986). Thus if ISE is strong, then job performance perceptions should also be strong. While there may be different individual characteristics related to the development of efficacy beliefs

(Potosky & Ramakrishna, 2002) it is important to recognize Bandura's ideas (1977) regarding the sources of information of self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy can be strengthened through the use of the four sources of information (Bandura, 1986): enactive/ mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states. These four sources of self-efficacy can explain ISE in the following way. First, enactive mastery experience highlights the importance of previous positive experiences of the individual, this source is considered to be the most important (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Older individuals may possess more previous job experiences than a younger worker. Second, vicarious experience highlights the importance of observing, mentoring and supporting other individuals through modeling of job performances. Third, verbal persuasion provides the individual with the support and feedback to believe in his/ her ability to perform well at the workplace. And fourth, physiological and affective states deal with the individual's conditions such as health and stress. Another interesting finding is that the level of interaction of an individual with coworkers and supervisors may influence in obtaining a higher interpersonal self-efficacy through vicarious experiences and verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1997), which affect their affect self-appraisals. Therefore, interpersonal self-efficacy may be explained by how much job experience the individual has, feedback, support and interaction with others at the workplace, and an individual's belief in his/her capability to perform a task (Wolf, 1997).

Based upon the results of this study, the original theoretical model of this study has various implications for future practices in nonprofit human service

organizations. This study examined relationships among demographic variables, interpersonal self-efficacy and organizational culture, and job performance in nonprofit human service organizations. By broadening the context within which job performance is studied, it is possible to begin to understand better the possible relations between workers self-efficacy perceptions and organizational culture variables. Further, considering the strong relationship found in this study between self-efficacy and job performance and under the belief that the higher the self-efficacy the higher rates in job performance, the following recommendations for practice are offered.

Recommendation 1. To continue supporting the relationship between self-efficacy and job performance, attempt to enhance the source of information of self-efficacy, thus, provide more opportunities to structure work so that individuals work in groups and teams and interact with others with a common goal. Allowing workers to get involved with projects is a means to have a productive working relationship with not just coworkers, but also management. This practice can foster a more positive work atmosphere through feedback and opportunities to involve workers. This has important implications for preventing professional secrecy and departmental conflicts. A clear, well-communicated practice of teamwork and groups can help to develop a sense of involvement, camaraderie, and tolerance. Some research warns about the potential destructive nature of teamwork, but it also acknowledges the contribution to create a positive working atmosphere (Thompson, Stradling, Murphy, & O'Neill, 1996).

Recommendation 2. Implement formal and informal practices to acknowledge individuals' potential, work and contribution within the organization. Based on self-efficacy sources such as enactive and vicarious experiences, recognizing individuals' abilities and skills to succeed might yield a stronger self-efficacy and a stronger job performance belief. Individuals may feel more confident and have the belief they can be more respected in their work group and the rest of the organization, as well as have the feeling they are involved in decisions affecting their work. The closer they feel to the organization, the more likely that workers will contribute strongly and get enthusiastic about a shared vision and beliefs (Wilson, 2000). This might result in workers having higher levels of organizational support and acknowledgement (Janz & Prasarnphanich, 2003)

Recommendation 3. Provide adequate channels of communication for information relevant to individuals' work that meet the needs of the workers at different job levels to strengthen vicarious and verbal sources of workers' self-efficacy. Workers need to know how to be efficient and productive, and why changes are made. Offering clear and relevant pieces of information regarding an individual's job and their relationship and impact on other jobs will supply the necessary tools to function more effectively within the organization. Research has shown that workers enjoy meeting other workers from different departments because it helps them understand better what others do and that they may share the same challenges. This provides a broader perspective within the organization (Sobo & Sadler, 2002).

Recommendation 4: Organize positive professional development activities including practices to increase the interpersonal self-efficacy available for all nonprofit human service workers. The current research found that interpersonal self-efficacy was highly correlated with job performance. Thus, one implication of this is the interpersonal skills may be likely to prove more useful for the performance of nonprofit human service workers than the knowledge of other organizational factors such as meetings and information flow. Previous research has found that interpersonal skills such as facilitation are the most needed in a human service setting (Geary, 1989). Consequently, professional development activities may also be tailored to increase practice within facilitation opportunities and interacting with other workers on job-related issues. Self-efficacy measures after professional development activities could be an early sign of later performance improvement (Robertson & Sadri, 1993).

Recommendation 5: Promote a work climate where workers and supervisors feel comfortable working and communicating among themselves. Moreover, management could promote teamwork and organizational support that could enhance workers' efficacy beliefs (Pearson et al., 2003). Research has shown that a culture embedding supervisory support may enhance the worker's behavior to the benefit of the unit and the organization (Amsa, 1986).

Recommendation 6: Introduce or revamp mentoring programs not only for new workers but also workers with tenure. Examine human resource practices in nonprofit human service organizations to check what mentoring and peer support programs exist. It is recommended to give the opportunity to be a mentor and to

be mentored, and if permissible, to take turns to participate in the mentoring program. ISE beliefs can be strengthened by reinforcing the four sources of self-efficacy (enactive mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states). This may also allow strengthening workers' perceptions on interacting with coworkers and supervisors.

Interpersonal self-efficacy can also be linked to Bandura's discussion (1997) on perceived self-efficacy and its relationship to what people choose for their work, to how individuals prepare themselves to perform their job and the level of success they achieve in their daily work. Bandura refers to this relationship as organizational functioning. For instance, a person interested in working as a family counselor will need to prepare himself/ herself with the skills and knowledge needed to be a counselor. Later, he/ she will note how well the job is done when receiving feedback or support.

At the same time, findings of this study are consistent with Bandura's triadic reciprocal causation model (Bandura, 1998). The theoretical model of this study confirms the interaction among the elements of interpersonal factors, behaviors, and external environment.

Research Question Two: Differences on performances according to Demographic Variables

The second research question investigated the differences in the perceptions of job performance based on demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity) among nonprofit human service workers. The hypothesis was that

these demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity) would have significant relationships with perceived job performance.

A factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to compare the means of several demographically defined groups (age, gender and ethnicity). The subscales of job performance (task and contextual performance) were the dependent variables.

Only one source of variance was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a gender by ethnicity interaction effect ($p = .01$). The hypothesis was partially supported since only one significant relationship was found with job performance. The gender by ethnicity interaction was significant ($p < .05$) for only one dependent variable: Contextual job performance.

Findings in research question two fall into two topics. The first is the relationship between gender and ethnicity, and contextual performance; and the second consideration is the differentiation between task and contextual performance.

Other researchers have highlighted differences between task and contextual performance (Hattrup, O'Connell, Wingate, 1998). In the current study, results provided support for belief that task and contextual performance reveal different aspects of performance and that are predicted differently by individual differences, in this case differences in ethnicity and gender; and that task and contextual performance contribute independently to overall performance.

For females, white respondents exceeded African American respondents ($M = 4.34$ vs. $M = 4.01$), $F(1, 235) = 12.36, p < .01$. However, for males, ethnicity operated in a different way. For males, African American respondents exceeded white respondents ($M = 4.22$ vs. $M = 3.77$), $F(1, 235) = 6.98, p < .01$. Thus, a disordinal interaction existed between gender and ethnicity, on contextual job performance. The highest mean values on the latter variable occurred for white females and African American males.

Concerning the three types of performance, findings of this study support previous research (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). The hierarchical regressions showed that task performance explains 10% ($p < .01$) of the variance in overall performance, whereas contextual performance explains 14% ($p < .01$). Therefore, task performance and contextual performance contribute independently to overall performance.

Implications and Recommendations

The findings for this research question converge to suggest several implications. First, factors such as education and previous experience might have contributed to yield difference perceptions of performance. Research has shown that males usually have more years of education and that may result in a higher perception of performance (Preston, 1985). Although level of education for males and females was almost the same in the present study, results cannot be generalized, since the sample was unbalanced (more females) (See Appendix 7). On the other hand concerning ethnicity, gender and level of education, it may be that in the nonprofit areas, African American males have more years of

education than white males. For that reason, they may have been felt more confident in their job performance perceptions. White females had more years of education than African American females in this study. Again, caution is warranted due to the difference in number in gender and ethnicity. Further research will be needed to examine this area.

Second, little research has been done on the relationship between gender and ethnicity, and job performance within the nonprofit sector. Perhaps the most relevant finding for research question two is the fact that there was a disordinal interaction between the effect of gender and ethnicity on contextual performance.

Previous research has shown that gender and ethnicity are reacted to job performance. For instance, ethnicity was correlated with performance in the sense that black employees received lower ratings from white supervisors, and white employees received lower performance ratings from black supervisors (Elvira & Town, 2001). On the other hand, Gibelman (2000) found that African American females seem to experience bigger challenges than white females in the human service sector while “men were disproportionately represented at (...) upper management” (p. 263), women were disproportionately overrepresented in direct serviced positions and lower management. Gibelman added that performance ratings were rarely used for promotion in those organizations.

In an attempt to understand the findings of the current study, it is necessary to take a closer look at contextual performance since it is quite broad and includes interpersonal elements such as maintaining good working relationships; motivational elements such as looking for challenging tasks

(Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994); and organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., being courteous). Previous research examined components of contextual performance and personality and gender and ethnicity (Alonso, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). For example, Podsakoff et al. found that organizational citizenship behaviors (one of the underlying concepts of contextual performance) were not related to gender. Some of these behaviors were *helping* and *showing courtesy*. Their research contradicted earlier research that implied that they should be related (Kidder & McLean, 1993) because those behaviors were more associated with females than males (Davis, 1983). Future studies could examine the relationship between gender and ethnicity and the components of contextual performance in different settings.

Interestingly, Borman, White and Dorsey (1995) found that their results “particularly for the supervisor model, along with recent research concluding definitively that race and gender have minimal effects on performance ratings” (p.175). Supervisors ratings seemed not to be influenced by the gender or race of the worker.

Contextual performance is relevant because individuals contribute to “organizational effectiveness in ways that go beyond the activities that comprise their jobs” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p.71). Nevertheless, a stated drawback on relying exclusively on contextual performance is that workers cannot be required to do more than their job requirements and the expectations of doing more could hurt the work environment. If organizations expect workers to be successful on following organizational rules and procedures and supporting

objectives, there is little room for creativity and “healthy dissent” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p.95).

This proposition suggests that job performance differences may exist between male and female workers in the nonprofit human service sector. Males may have different job performance perceptions than females. The current study provides evidence that perceived contextual performance was related to the particular gender and ethnicity of the rater. For instance, white women had a higher contextual performance rating than African American women.

For future research, differences in perceptions of job performance among groups (African American females vs. white females; African American females vs. African American males; white females vs. African American females; and white females vs. white males) may also be measured. Different theoretical explanations could assist and further the understanding of the current findings. For instance, previous research found that beliefs about competence were important predictors of self-esteem for all ethnicity by gender groups (Tashakkori, 1993). Differences and similarities between males and females within two racial groups were found. Therefore, the differences dissuaded the usage of just ethnicity as a differentiating factor in research of self-perception. Thus, findings of the current study may suggest the need to reexamine differences and similarities in interpersonal self-efficacy together with gender and ethnicity. Likewise, factors that affect performance can be also analyzed by social identity theory. For instance, social identity refers to the individuals' beliefs that “derive from his knowledge of his membership of a group together with the value and the

emotional significance attached to the membership” (Tajfel, 1978, p.63).

Research has been found that identification is positively related to self-reports of contextual performance (Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 1999; Van Knippenberg, 2000). Therefore, the findings of the current study may also suggest the examination of social identity groups within the nonprofit human service sector to have a better grasp of how these groups see themselves and how these views affect their performance.

On the other hand, the results of the different perceptions of performance among groups support the theory of individual differences in task and contextual performance as stated by Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit (1997). They claimed that knowledge, skills, and habits determine workers’ behaviors in task performance and that they are different from those that determine contextual performance. For that reason, it is necessary to differentiate task from contextual performance. Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit (1997) stated the following:

Cognitive ability affects task performance through its effects on task knowledge, skills, and habits and it may also affect contextual performance through its effects on contextual knowledge, skills, and habits.... One personality trait in particular, conscientiousness, may also affect task performance through its effects on task habits. In turn, task knowledge, task skills, and task habits directly account for individual differences in task performance whereas contextual knowledge, contextual skills, and contextual habits directly account for individual differences in contextual performance (p.82).

Task and contextual performance are correlated with different personal characteristics (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). The variation in task performance will depend on individual differences in knowledge, skills, and abilities. On the contrary, individual differences in interpersonal skills and motivation will predict contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). In this study, task and contextual performance were examined and found that they contributed independently to overall performance.

Borman and Motowidlo (1997) point to three important differences between task and contextual performance. First, task activities differ significantly across jobs whereas contextual activities are likely to be more similar across jobs. Second, contextual activities are less likely than task activities to be role-prescribed. And third, if factors of contextual performance are included as personnel selection criteria, there is evidence that personality may predict the contextual section of the overall performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Findings of the current study may suggest taking a closer look at the personality traits of each group, since personality variables can be more correlated with contextual performance than with task performance.

The results of this study have important implications for theory and practice in performance assessment and workforce professional development. As stated earlier, little empirical research has been carried out to examine interactions between gender and ethnicity on task and contextual performance. This study represents an important contribution in providing further evidence of a distinction between task and contextual performance among nonprofit human

service workers. This study is also unique in its findings of a disordinal interaction between gender and ethnicity on perceptions of contextual job performance.

Upon the findings and implications of the present study in research question two, the following recommendations for practice are offered.

Recommendation 1. Provide training practices towards the necessary skills to achieve successfully both task and contextual performance. Task performance will vary according to jobs, therefore a more diversified professional development attempt will be needed. Contextual performance includes more generalizable characteristics such as cooperating with coworkers, volunteering, and following organizational procedures. Caution is needed to not dampen creativity by encouraging individuals to bring new ideas to the discussion table (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Professional development practices could be tailored to build worker's confidence and ability to handle possible threats, take appropriate action, and open communication between workers and supervisors to discuss incidents. These implications refer to worker training to address both task and interpersonal specific skills.

Recommendation 2: Plan activities within groups (same ethnicity and gender) and teams, and organizational units, taking into consideration the diverse pool of workers. This action may allow individuals to have a chance to interact and work with others different from their regular job assignment. Research has found with the more interaction and information, the more confident and knowledgeable an individual becomes, since they receive more feedback on how the organization works and how their tasks fit in the

organizational mission. Increased diversity may enhance contextual performance by introducing a wider array of perspectives, but considerations of the fact that gender and ethnic homogeneity within groups can promote increased interpersonal cohesion and enhances performance are also necessary (Panzer, 2003).

Limitations

Although the current study makes a significant contribution to performance, self-efficacy and organizational culture theories, there are a number of limitations that should be addressed.

First, the lack of randomization among organizations and workers would prevent larger generalizations of the results. Second, the present study used only a self-rated scale. The results obtained by the self-rated scales may have been inflated by common method bias (Noe & Wilk, 1993). It would have been interesting to obtain supervisors' ratings on the supervisee performance to compare them with supervisees' ratings because multisource feedback instruments can be good measures of objective performance (Johnson, 2001; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). However, supervisor's ratings were not accessible to the researcher. Third, the general demographic composition of the sample might also prevent generalizing the results, as more than three-fifths of the sample was female, and, 64% of the respondents were Caucasian.

Implications for examining worker's perceptions within a human service setting

Considering that nonprofit management is a quite new profession (Mulhare, 1999; Smith 2002), management/ practitioners would benefit by drawing practical applications from the results of this study and the relationships of organizational culture and interpersonal self-efficacy with job performance.

Organizational Culture.

Assessing organizational culture and “the shared understandings that pattern the interactions of people within the organization” (Mulhare, 1999, p.327) may provide useful feedback for practitioners, nonprofit managers and directors. Although a low level of interaction between organizational culture and efficacy may affect workers job performance, by assessing organizational culture, it will help workers and the nonprofit human service organizations to improve levels of efficacy, performance, and even satisfaction and commitment. Learning what aspects of organizational culture are related to self-efficacy can help guide nonprofit human service decision makers in their training procedures and operational policies. Examples of specific organizational cultures dimensions can be used to construct scenarios for staff training and improve the work atmosphere. For instance, if perceptions of organizational culture are identified as negative and associated with low self-efficacy, nonprofit decision makers could use this information to design strategies to enhance the working environment to raise self-efficacy and perceived job performance.

Organizational culture is important to study because it provides a first-hand diagnosis of how things are working inside an organization and there is statistically significant relationship between OC, ISE and JP (see table 19). In the case of a nonprofit organization, if communication between supervisors and workers is not being effective, positive and clear, it is more likely that there will be gaps of information, conflicts, and ultimately the job will not be done as expected. Moreover, organizational culture has been found to influence important aspects of worker behavior (Hatton, Rivers, Mason, Emerson, Kiernan, Reeves, & Alborz, 1999). Therefore nonprofit decision makers need to consider having an assessment of how the organization is perceived by the workers, in order to improve and perform more efficiently.

The present study found that positive perceptions of organizational culture has a moderate positive relationship with self-rating of job performance. Practitioners and nonprofit decision makers should consider organizational culture in designing appropriate policies and practices for workers, especially those that will foster friendly climates and enhance effective working relationships. Supervisors need to be aware of how workers perceive them and how these perceptions can affect the work climate. Informing supervisors and workers about these perceptions will assist in the understanding of job expectations (Wright, 2000), and may encourage workers to stay as well as perform better.

It is important to study organizational culture too, because if an organization expects innovative behavior from its workers, it should have policies that support this (Kanter, 1983; Kaufman, 1974; Potosky & Ramkrishna, 2002)

Interpersonal Self-Efficacy.

Bandura (1998) suggested that strong self-efficacy beliefs assist workers to focus on task demands while weak efficacy beliefs tend to concentrate on personal liabilities. Nonprofit service organizations should increase opportunities to enhance skills and raise perceptions to nurture interpersonal self-efficacy for their workers. Likewise, in planning job assignments, professional practice opportunities and teams, it is important to keep in mind that workers may perceive things differently because of their previous experiences and demographic makeup. Due to the transformation of scope and scale of nonprofit human service organizations, nonprofit organizations should advocate and encourage major interaction among the nonprofit stakeholders. This interaction will provide more opportunities for interpersonal activities. For instance, management can seek opportunities with funding counterparts to exchange management and entrepreneurship practices; boards can strengthen their role within an organization by learning more not only about the work, but the workers, and finally workers can provide and seek assistance from other workers and, in some cases, volunteers.

Significance

The topic of this current research falls in the category of human resource development, as it focuses on individual performance (Swanson, & Holton, 2001). This study contributes with empirical data to discussions on the impact of nonprofit culture on human service workers and on their job performance perceptions. This study adds to the literature of nonprofit human resource development (HRD) by providing empirical accounts of workers' perceptions on organizational culture, and its relationships to their job performance. For instance, research suggests that if organizational elements are internalized, they can "guide behavior in a desired direction, while allowing significant variability in behavior in other areas" (Danielson, 2004, p. 365). The more organizational knowledge an individual has (i.e. practices, strategies, and values), the better chance that he/she will interact and collaborate with others and have a better fit with the organization goals. This study addresses the interaction effects of two known predictors of job performance, a gap in the nonprofit research literature. Organizational knowledge will make an individual better equipped to perform at the different levels (Danielson, 2004) and thus, practical outcomes might result such as a reduction of turnover (Riordan, Weatherly, Vanderberg, & Self, 2001), and a higher job satisfaction (Holton & Russell, 1997).

Another contribution of this study is that this research is exploratory in nature and is designed to provide information to better understand the nonprofit culture and workers. Most of the empirical research on organizational culture has involved profit-making corporations (Sriamesh, Grunig, & Dozier, 1996).

Therefore discussion of nonprofit organizational culture could contribute significantly to organizational theory and its application to the nonprofit human service sector considering that this sector “holds a particular set of values in regard to social justice, social welfare, and human well-being that distinguish it from other sectors” (Gibelman, 2000, p.266). As the number of nonprofit human service organizations continues to grow, this research addresses a critical gap in the literature and may help employee and employers better understand the predictors of positive job performance, which may be also linked to better quality community services (Drucker, 1989).

Another contribution of this research is that it examined ongoing organizations in their natural environments. Little research in the nonprofit human service area has been found examining the observed variables. These results advance the understanding of organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and job performance relationships not only because they demonstrate the worker’s perceptions, but also because these results are based on adults working in a real work setting.

This study extends the literature by indicating that the interpersonal self-efficacy of human service workers is strongly related to job performance perception. It also adds to the Bandura’s self-efficacy theory since few studies had explored the concept of interpersonal self-efficacy within the human service setting. For instance, interpersonal self-efficacy added 14% of the variance in self-rated job performance. The results of this study support Bandura’s proposition (1986) that perceptions of high self-efficacy are related to perceptions

of high job performance. A contribution of this study is its application in the nonprofit human service sector, an area not explored in depth previously.

Finally, another area that the present study explored was the interaction between gender and ethnicity, and contextual performance. Current findings on the significance of contextual performance in the nonprofit human service setting are supported by Borman and Motowidlo (1997). They suggest that contextual performance significance is increasing because of globalization and business concepts such as team-based organization and downsizing; experienced supervisors weight contextual performance as high as task performance; and, if contextual performance dimensions are included as selection criteria, personality predictors are more likely to be better correlates. Another important fact is that by adding the contextual component to performance, it is recognized that working in an organization is not the same as working alone, because it requires interactions with others (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). A possible explanation of why the ANOVA analysis was only significant with contextual performance might be the nature of work of a nonprofit human service worker. By definition, they all have to serve other people and facilitate their work or lives as clients or coworkers

Suggestions for Additional Research

The results of this study provide evidence that it might be useful to explore other related areas among the nonprofit human service setting. The author suggests several areas for future research.

First, as recommended by Glaser (1983), the findings of this study could be enhanced by using a combination of methods to examine the same organizational and individual variables. Qualitative research paradigms could be used to complement the quantitative data and produce a more complete understanding of the nonprofit human service organizational culture (Yauch & Steudel, 2003). The present study suggests that researchers and practitioners interested in studying organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and job performance need to collect information regarding these variables from difference sources.

Second, although organizational culture added the least variance to the regression equation, follow-up studies may consider more closely observing this variable as it relates to job performance, mediated by other variables such as job satisfaction and job involvement (Parker, Baltes, Young, Huff, Altmann, Lacost, & Roberts, 2003). Indeed, previous research has shown that organizational characteristics such as perceived organizational support was significantly related to workers (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Third, previous research has shown that according to the job, there are different perceptions, beliefs, and satisfaction among workers (LaRocco, Tetrik, Meder, 1989). For that reason, follow-up studies can also examine if there are differences in perceptions of organizational characteristics among the different job categories (e.g., management, front line workers) in a nonprofit human service setting.

Fourth, future studies could also examine how the external culture from the community and for-profit practices affect the organization (Foster & Bradach, 2005; Sriramesh, et al., 1996). Although nonprofit human service organizations have their own culture and practices, they cannot be detached from the community and societal changes such as population growth, an aging population, technological advances, and the of increase of minorities (Reisch & Jarman-Rohde, 2000).

Fifth, notwithstanding that the least variance was obtained with the organizational culture scale, future research might be necessary to redefine the six subscales of organizational culture and to understand better how these subscales can be more theoretically aligned with the interpersonal beliefs and job performance of nonprofit human service workers. In addition, future studies may search to explain which subscales exert the most influence over job performance, and to what degree the subscales are general and contextually sensitive to the nonprofit human service areas. Follow-up studies will help have a more clear perspective on these issues.

And, finally, future research needs to examine the causal relationship among contextual performance, and gender and ethnicity; and to examine the relationship among the above-mentioned variables and personality since personality has been identified as a predictor of contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

Summary

A benefit of studying workers' perceptions is that research suggests that if professionals feel more competent and efficacious in their work, it is more likely that they will feel more committed to the job (Cherniss, 1991).

Findings in the present study indicate that self-efficacy is a strong predictor of performance. This study found that to perform more effectively at the interpersonal level, nonprofit human service workers might require more expertise, resources, organizational and supervisor support, self-efficacy and the opportunity to engage in interpersonal interactions on job-related matters.

Furthermore, the results support the utility of examining the two categories of job performance: task and contextual performance, and individual differences among workers. Gender and ethnicity had a disordinal interaction on self-ratings of contextual job performance.

In conclusion, the results of this study may be generalized to other organizations with similar characteristics.

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APPENDICES

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Appendix1

Human Subject Review

University of Louisville

A Study of Nonprofit Workers

Subject Informed Consent

Participation: You are being invited to participate in a research study, whose purpose is to investigate the relationships among interpersonal self-efficacy which is refer to your perceived belief to successfully interact, provide support and feedback to individuals, organizational culture, which is the values, assumptions, beliefs, and artifact shared by the members of your organization, and perceived job performance within human service organizations. You are therefore being requested to respond to the survey below. This should take only approximately of 15 minutes.

Benefits & Risks: There are no foreseeable risks associated with this study. You may refuse to answer any questions that you are uncomfortable with. By participating in this study, you will be enhancing the understanding of the dynamic of interpersonal self-efficacy, organizational culture, and perceived job performance. Although there is no payment for your participation in this study, the information collected will be beneficial in understanding the human service workers.

Confidentiality: The questionnaire is intended to be anonymous so you are asked *not* to indicate your name anywhere on it. Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may elect to not participate at anytime.

Contact persons: Should you have any questions, you may call Dr. Tom Reio at 502-852-0639 or Maruja Vasquez at 852-4727. You may also call the Human Studies Committees office (502-852-5188) and will be given an opportunity to discuss any questions about your rights as a research subject, in confidence, with a member of the Committee. This is an independent committee composed of faculty and staff of the University of Louisville and its affiliated hospitals, as well as lay members of the community not connected with these institutions. The Committee has reviewed this study.

Consent: Completing and submitting the questionnaire below indicates your acceptance to voluntarily participate in this study.

Appendix 2

SME Feedback Letter and Form

Dear Mr//Ms....

You have agreed to be part of a panel of Subject Matter Experts in the Nonprofit Field. Your input as an expert in the nonprofit area will be extremely valuable in the validation of the questionnaire that will be sent out to approximately 1035 human service workers.

Attached is the Human Service Worker Questionnaire that will be used for this research study. Please read it thoroughly and follow the directions below. Once you have finished, please send the questionnaire via email to me at marujavasquez@louisville.edu.

If you have any questions, feel free to contact Maria Vásquez-Colina at 852-4727, or Dr. Tom Reio at 852 0639 at the University of Louisville.

The Human Subjects Committee at the University of Louisville has approved this study. I appreciate your effort, time, and feedback to make this a better study.

Thanks

Instructions

1. The instrument contains four parts. Part 1 seeks organizational culture data; part 2 covers interpersonal self-efficacy; part 3 covers perceived job performance, and part 4 covers demographical data.
2. Under each item, please provide your feedback on:
 - Appropriateness of that item in that category
 - Wording of the items.
 - Clarity of the instructions and the items.
 - Under part 3 on perceived job performance, please indicate whether these items are descriptive of a task performed by a nonprofit human service worker.
 - Under part 4 on demographical data, please indicate whether these items are representative of the job levels that exist in a nonprofit human service organization and if you, as a potential questionnaire respondent, would fit in one of them.
3. Be aware that the headings identifying each variable in the questionnaire will not be included in the final instrument.
4. You may use a different font/bold or color for your comments.
5. Please email your comments to me by January 20, 2004

Sincerely
Maruja Vásquez-Colina

Appendix 3
Pilot Group Form

From: Contact person in each organization
To: Pilot Group Participants
Date: May 1, 2003
Subject: Pilot of the Human Service Worker Questionnaire

You have been selected to participate in pre-testing a survey whose purpose is to determine the human service worker perceptions on organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy, and job performance.

In an effort to improve the design of this study I am requesting for your feedback from you as an employee who has worked in a nonprofit human service organization.

For confidentiality purposes, the questionnaire is enclosed in a closed envelope and will be returned in the self-addressed envelope enclosed in this package. The envelope is addressed to the researcher directly. Confidentiality will be ensured to the extent that the researcher can. The survey is also **anonymous**.

We are asking you to participate in the pilot study to obtain feedback about the clarity of the questionnaire and to detect any wording problems you may encounter in the process of completing this survey. Your valuable feedback will be used to make improvements to this questionnaire.

The questionnaire is divided in four parts. Part 1 seeks organizational culture data; part 2 covers interpersonal self-efficacy; part 3 covers perceived job performance, and part 4 covers demographical data.

Instructions:

1. Please **time yourself** during the completion of the questionnaire to determine how long it will take you to complete the questionnaire and note it under the last question in this survey.
2. As you complete this questionnaire, make note of the items/questions or instructions that are *unclear* by writing in your comments in the space provided in the second last question of the survey.
3. Submit the completed survey by sending it in the self-addressed envelope enclose.
4. Please read this consent form that informs you of your rights.

Appendix 4

Pre-Notification Letter

From: Contact person in each organization
To: Human Service Workers
Date February 10, 2004
Subject: Upcoming Research Study on Human Service Workers

We would like to notify you of an upcoming research study that I will be conducting to learn more about the nonprofit human service workforce. .

The survey will be seeking feedback from you as an employee who has been a human service worker. This is a part of a research study being conducted by María Vásquez-Colina, a doctoral candidate at the University of Louisville.

This is a pre-notification letter, informing you that we would encourage you to participate in this study. In the next couple of days, I will send you a package containing the questionnaire and other relevant documents..

Thank you.

Appendix 5

Reminder Letter

June 8, 2004

Dear Human Service Professional,

About two weeks ago, I hope you received the Human Service Worker questionnaire (HSWQ) to complete. I would like to remind you that your input is extremely valuable and will contribute significantly to this research considering organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy and performance.

Please be assured that your participation is voluntary and anonymous. I encourage you to please take some time to fill out the questionnaire. In case you may need another copy of the questionnaire, additional questionnaire packages will be sent to you by the end of next week. If you have already sent it in the pre-paid postage envelope, please disregard this letter.

Thank you for contributing to this research on nonprofit human service workers.

Sincerely,

Appendix 6

Thank you Note

June 28, 2004

Dear Human Service Professional,

I would like to express my deep gratitude to you for having participated in my study of Human Service Workers. Your valuable input and timely response have contributed enormously in this research.

Now, I will take the study to the next step. Data will be analyzed and later findings will be discussed and reported. You will be able to access the report through your human resource person in your agency by January 2005.

Thank you

Appendix 7

Human Service Worker Questionnaire

Instructions: After reading the enclosed informed consent, please choose **only one** response for each question. Once you have responded to all the questions, submit the completed questionnaire using the self-return envelope that was given to you with this questionnaire. It should take about 20 minutes to complete. Please send it back by **June 24, 2004**.

Part I. Your Organization

Questions 1 to 31 are on a 5 point scale: 1 (strongly disagree); 2 (Disagree); 3 (Undecided); 4 (Agree); 5 (Strongly Agree). For each question below, please select only one response to indicate how descriptive you believe it to be for you. Mark your choice with an "X".

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Not Sure (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
1. People I work with are direct and honest with each other.					
2. People I work with accept criticism without becoming defensive.					
3. People I work with function as a team.					
4. People I work with confront problems constructively					
5. People I work with are good listeners.					
6. Employees and management have a productive working relationship.					
7. This organization motivates me to put out my best efforts.					
8. This organization respects its workers.					
9. This organization treats people in a consistent and fair manner.					
10. There is an atmosphere of trust in this organization.					

11. This organization motivates people to be efficient and productive.					
12. I get enough information to understand the big picture here.					
13. When changes are made, the reasons why they are made, are clear.					
14. I know what is happening in work sections outside my own job.					
15. I get the information I need to do my job well.					
16. I have a say in decisions that affect my work.					
17. I am asked to make suggestions about how to do my job better.					
18. This organization values the ideas of workers at every level.					
19. My opinions count in this organization.					
20. Job requirements are made clear by my supervisor.					
21. When I do a good job, my supervisor tells me.					
22. My supervisor takes criticism well.					
23. My supervisor delegates responsibility.					
24. My supervisor gives me criticism in a positive manner.					
25. My supervisor is a good listener.					
26. My supervisor tells me how I'm doing.					
27. Decisions made at meetings get put into action.					
28. Everyone takes part in discussions at meetings.					

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Not Sure (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
29. Our discussions in meetings stay on track.					
30. Time in meetings is time well spent.					
31. Meetings tap the creative potential of the people present.					

Part II. Your Job

In question 32 to 48, please circle the number (0 to 100) that best represents your beliefs.

How confident are you that you can successfully...?

32. Respond adequately to coworkers.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot do at all					Moderately certain can do it					Certain can do

33. Manage your work well.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot do at all					Moderately certain can do it					Certain can do

34. Take adequate measures necessary to keep your job running efficiently.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot do at all					Moderately certain can do it					Certain can do

35. Redirect a co-worker that disrupts you quickly.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot do at all					Moderately certain can do it					Certain can do

36. Get through to most difficult co-workers.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot do at all					Moderately certain can do it					Certain can do

37. Make your expectations clear to co-workers.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot do at all					Moderately certain can do it					Certain can do

How confident are you that you can successfully...? (Cont')

38. Communicate to your coworkers that you are serious about your job.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot					Moderately					Certain
do at all					certain					can do
					can do it					

39. Understand what rules are appropriate for work.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot					Moderately					Certain
do at all					certain					can do
					can do it					

40. Approach coworkers if you want to talk about problems at work.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot					Moderately					Certain
do at all					certain					can do
					can do it					

41. Approach colleagues for help if you are confronted with a problem.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot					Moderately					Certain
do at all					certain					can do
					can do it					

42. Find colleagues with whom you can talk about problems at work.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot					Moderately					Certain
do at all					certain					can do
					can do it					

43. Ask colleagues for advice if necessary.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot					Moderately					Certain
do at all					certain					can do
					can do it					

How confident are you that you can successfully...? (Cont')

44. Ask your supervisor for advice if necessary.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot					Moderately					Certain
do at all					certain					can do
					can do it					

45. Bring up problems with supervisors if necessary.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot					Moderately					Certain
do at all					certain					can do
					can do it					

46. Approach supervisors if you want to talk about problems at work.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot					Moderately					Certain
do at all					certain					can do
					can do it					

47. Get supervisors to support you when it is necessary.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot					Moderately					Certain
do at all					certain					can do
					can do it					

48. Get supervisors to help you if necessary.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Cannot					Moderately					Certain
do at all					certain					can do
					can do it					

Part III: Your Job (Cont')

Questions in 49 to 59 are on a 5 point scale: 1 (not at all likely); 2 (slightly likely); 3 (likely); 4 (very likely); 5 (extremely likely). For each question below, please select only one .

In relation to other individuals in your organization, how likely is that you...?

	Not at all Likely (1)	Somewhat Likely (2)	Likely (3)	Very Likely (4)	Extremely Likely (5)
49. Use problem solving skills					
50. Perform administrative tasks					
51. Have a good overall technical performance					
52. Plan your work					
53. Organize your work					
54. Cooperate with others in a team					
55. Persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task					
56. Look for a challenging assignment/task					
57. Pay attention to important details					
58. Support and encourage a coworker with a problem					
59. Work well with others					

60. Overall, rate your job performance (Please circle)

Do not meet standards
for job performance

Meet standards for
job performance

Exceed standards for job
performance

1

2

3

4

5

Appendix 8

Letters Authorizing Use of Scales

Organizational Culture Survey

Maria:
Professor Glaser is out of town. She asked me to tell you that you do have permission to use the OCS in your study. She requests your results should you use the scale.
Thank you.
Layla Yarr

--

Layla Yarr
Business Manager
Glaser & Associates
1740 Craigmont
Eugene, OR 97405
541-343-7575
541-343-1706 fax
www.theglasers.com

Teacher Interpersonal Self-Efficacy Scale

Dear Maria,
You will find the items of the scale in the factor table (see attachment). It's the same as you find in the article. I hope you can assess it's usefulness for your study. As you decide to work with the instrument, I'm curious about your results!

Sincerely,
André

Job Performance Scale

You have my permission to adapt the scales Van Scotter and I described in the article you mention.
Steve Motowidlo

Appendix 9
Descriptive Statistics

Distribution of Females by Years of Experience and Years in Organization

Experience	Years	<i>n</i>	%
Job Related	13	239	
In organization	6	239	
Missing			

Distribution of Males by Years of Experience and Years in Organization

Experience	Years	<i>n</i>	%
Job Related	15	239	
In organization	5	239	
Missing			

Appendix 9 (cont')

Distribution of Females by Level of Education

Education	<i>n</i>	%
Graduate	47	19
Undergraduate	111	45
High School	63	25
Other	27	11

Distribution of Males by Level of Education

Education	<i>n</i>	%
Graduate	5	11
Undergraduate	22	46
High School	18	38
Other	2	4

Appendix 9 (cont')

Distribution of African American Males by Level of Education

Education	<i>n</i>	%
Graduate	4	44
Undergraduate	3	33
High School	1	11
Other	2	22

Distribution of White Males by Level of Education

Education	<i>n</i>	%
Graduate	23	85
Undergraduate	12	44
High School	1	4
Other	0	0

Appendix 9 (cont')

Distribution of African American Females by Level of Education

Education	<i>n</i>	%
Graduate	19	50
Undergraduate	7	18
High School	4	11
Other	8	21

Distribution of White Females by Level of Education

Education	<i>n</i>	%
Graduate	81	45
Undergraduate	50	28
High School	34	19
Other	15	8

Appendix 10

Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics for OC Dimensions

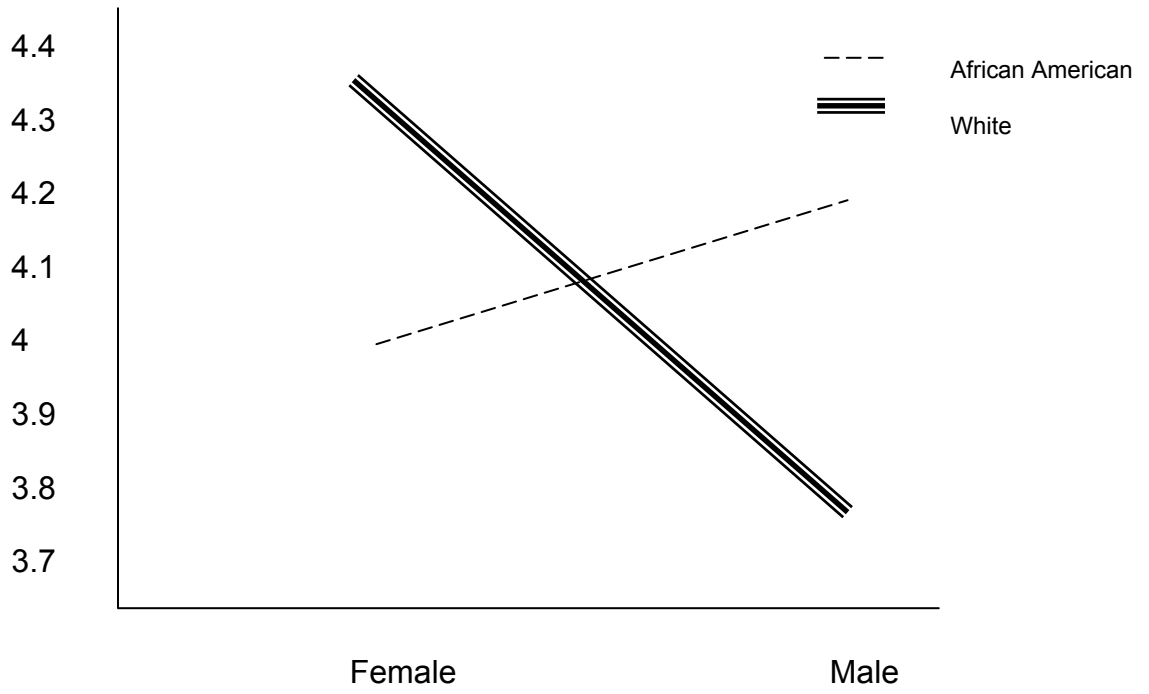
Dimension	<i>Glaser et al. (1987)</i>	<i>Vasquez-Colina (2005)</i>
Teamwork-Conflict	.87	.874
Climate-Morale	.84	.926
Information Flow	.82	.803
Involvement	.86	.901
Supervision	.91	.905
Meetings	.89	.478

Reliability Statistics for Interpersonal Self-Efficacy Subscales

Dimension	<i>Brouwers & Tomic (2001)</i>	<i>Vasquez-Colina (2005)</i>
Self-efficacy at work	.91	.78
Self-efficacy (support from coworkers)	.90	.86
Self-efficacy (support from supervisors)	.94	.95

Appendix 11

Disordinal Interaction between Gender and Ethnicity on Contextual Performance



CURRICULUM VITAE

María D. Vásquez-Colina
301 Norwood Terrace, N227
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ACADEMIC BACKGROUND

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Research Assistant

- UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE - NYSTRAND CENTER FOR EXCELLENCE IN EDUCATION
2002-Present

Assisted in the collection and analysis of qualitative and quantitative data. Assisted in editing *At the Center* Newsletter. Conducted Literature reviews for research.

- UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE - LATIN AMERICAN EDUCATION CENTER
2002

Assisted in the development of best practices survey sponsored by NASULGC (National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges) Commission on International Affairs, Standing Committee on International Exchanges and Matriculation (CIAIE). Assisted in the collection and analysis of data for research projects. Assisted in grant writing.

- UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE - LEADERSHIP, FOUNDATIONS & HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT 2000-2001

Assisted the department chair and faculty in research and classes; grading of papers and exams in the same programs; assisting in the revision of grant proposals. Assisted in the collection and research data for grant writing. Provided assistance to students.

- UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE - LATIN AMERICAN EDUCATION CENTER
1999-2000

Assisted in the revision of grant proposals; and syllabi updating in Spanish. Assisted in the collection and research data for grant writing. Taught Spanish classes tailored for faculty addressing cultural and language content within the College of Education and Human Development.

Graduate Teaching Assistant

- UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE -EDTL 101 Fall 2003

Assisted in developing class presentations, and served as guest presenter during class. Supported instructor in class discussion of **Academic Orientation, EDTL 101.**

- UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE -EDTD 696 Spring 2003

Assisted in facilitating class discussion and served as guest presenter during class. Supported instructor in class discussion of **Ethics and Social Responsibility, EDTD 696.**

- UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE – EDFD 790 2000-2002

Assisted in the development of syllabus, class scheduling, student information and contact. Lectured as a guest presenter in class. Supported instructor in class preparation of **Problems in Urban Education and Society, EDFD 790.**

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Assisted in the development of syllabus, class scheduling, student information and contact. Lectured as a guest presenter in class. Supported instructor in class preparation of **Introduction to Human Resource Development, ELFH 411.**

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- **Doctoral Internship** 2002
CENTER FOR NON PROFIT EXCELLENCE, LOUISVILLE, KY

Assisted in conducting research and collecting data in focus groups. Classified and analyzed qualitative data. Assisted in developing a curriculum for a training program and a training evaluation for a youth work program.

- **Master Internship** 2000
HUMANA LOUISVILLE, KY

Assisted in the development of instructional strategies, curriculum development and needs assessment in the NAES Project (New Automated and Enrollment Specialist).

- **Credit Curriculum Facilitator - Cultural Assistant** 1996-1997
CONCORDIA LANGUAGE VILLAGES, CONCORDIA COLLEGE, CALLAWAY, MN

Implemented the educational curriculum of the credit program and the academic Year Program. Coordinated and administrated credit program. Assumed responsibility for counseling skills with international staff. Assisted the dean with one-site orientation, training of credit teaching staff, and staff performance appraisals. Assisted the dean with on-site and off-site orientation and staff recruitment. Assisted in program research and developing a cultural awareness program.

OTHER TEACHING EXPERIENCE

English Teacher

- ASOCIACIÓN CULTURAL PERUANA BRITÁNICA, LIMA, PERU 1995-1996
- COLEGIO SAN FELIPE, LIMA, PERU 1997-1999
- UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL AGRARIA, LIMA, PERÚ 1991-1993
- UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL AGRARIA, LIMA, PERÚ 1990-1991

Spanish Teacher

- CONCORDIA LANGUAGE VILLAGES, CALLAWAY, MN 1994
- UNIVERSITY OF MARY, BISMARCK, ND (Language Assistant) 1993-1994

TRANSLATING AND INTERPRETING EXPERIENCE

- TACHAU MADDOX HOVIOUS & DICKENS PLC, Louisville, KY 2002, 2004
- HECTUS & STRAUSE, PLLC, Louisville, KY 2002
- LATIN AMERICAN EDUCATION CENTER 1999-2000
Documents for the master programs in Panama and El Salvador; grading of papers and exams in the same programs.
- UNIVERSIDAD CATÓLICA / INSTITUTO LUDWIG VON MISSES, PERÚ
Translator (English-Spanish) 1998-1999
- UNIVERSITY OF MARY, ND
Spanish-English Interpreter 1993-1994
- CARTAGENA AGREEMENT, PERU 1989
Student Intern

RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

- Designed and conducted an exploratory study to examine the Human Resource Academic Programs in Peru. 2005-present.
- Designed an exploratory study to examine the relationships among demographic variables, organizational culture, interpersonal self-efficacy and perceived job performance. 2003-present.
- Designed a case study to understand the perceived barriers to the implementation of a pedestrian bridge in a Peruvian community and, to describe to what extent the inclusion of the community leaders could have assisted the implementation process. Conducted respondent's interviews and field observations. Coded and categorized findings. University of Louisville, Dec 2002- 2004.
- Assisted in a minority teacher training program project. Developed database for data entry of survey (The Cultural Adaptation Pain Scale (CAPS)- Revised). Entered data. University of Louisville, February 2002-March 2002
- Assisted in a MAT (Master of Arts in Teaching) and minority teacher training program project. Developed database for data entry of survey. Entered data and ran statistical tests for the same survey. University of Louisville, 2001-February 2002.

- Assisted in the development of a survey of professional development opportunities and needs in early intervention. Developed database for data entry and assisted in running statistical tests for the same research project. University of Louisville, 2000-2001.
- Developed a research proposal about the contemporary challenges faced by international students at the University of Louisville, 2001.

HONORS AND FELLOWSHIPS

- **Grawemeyer Fellowship**
UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE, KY 2004-2005
2003-2004
- **John Dewey Fellowship** 2003-2004
UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE, KY 2002-2003
2001-2002
- **International Student Scholarship** 2001
UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE, KY
- **Honorary Mention, Literary Contest “Anaconda & Discovery of America”**
EMBASSY OF THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC, LIMA, PERU 1999
- **Amity Institute Scholarship** 1993-1994
UNIVERSITY OF MARY BISMARCK, ND

PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

- Member of the American Evaluation Association (AEA)
- Member of the Academy of Human Resource Development (AHRD)
- Member of the American Educational Research Association (AERA)
- Kentucky Translators and Interpreters Association (KYTIA)
- *Colegio de Traductores del Peru* (CTP), Peruvian Board of Translators

PUBLICATIONS

Petrosko, J.M., Egginton, W., & Vásquez-Colina, M. (November 2002). University of Louisville PDS Partnership: Teacher quality Study. *Nystrand Center of Excellence in Education Publication*, University of Louisville.

Bhagwanji, Y., Rightmeyer, E., Vásquez-Colina, M. & Suárez-Sousa, X. (2002). Early intervention training: Opportunities and needs in early intervention training in Kentucky. *Kaleidoscope: A Journal of the Kentucky Association for Early Childhood Education* 17.

Petrosko, J.M. & Vásquez-Colina, M. (September 2002). NEA/PDS (National Education Association/ Professional Development Schools) Graduate Follow-up study. *Nystrand Center of Excellence in Education Publication*, University of Louisville.

Vásquez-Colina, M. (October 2002). Allow me to Introduce Tim Hatcher. *Performance Improvement*.

PRESENTATIONS

- Vásquez-Colina M, & Reio. T. (2005, February). Relationship among demographic variables, organizational culture, and job performance. Academy of Human Resource Development International Conference, Estes Park, Colorado.
- Vásquez-Colina M, (2004, March). International Worker Development in the United States: Issues and Opportunities for HR Practitioners. Academy of Human Resource Development International Conference, Austin, Texas.
- Vásquez-Colina, M. (2003, April). *The relationship between organization culture and worker's self-efficacy in human service organizations*. Research Conference, University of Louisville, Louisville, KY.
- Vásquez-Colina, M. (2002, April). *A case study of the perceived barriers to the implementation of a pedestrian bridge in a Peruvian community*. Research Conference, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- Bhagwanji, Y., Vásquez-Colina, M. & Suárez-Sousa, X. (2001, October). *Training opportunities and needs in early intervention*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Kentucky Association of Early Childhood Education, Lexington, Kentucky.
- Mungania, P. & Vásquez-Colina, M. (2001, April). *A case study of challenges facing international female students*. Research Conference, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.

COLLABORATIONS

- Vásquez-Colina, M., (2002, March). Facilitator for P. Cunningham, P. (Presenter), *Promoting social responsibility & life affirming work*. Session presented at the 2002 Academy of Human Resource Development, Honolulu, Hawaii.
- Vásquez-Colina, M., (2002, March). Facilitator for D. Russ-Eft, T. Hatcher, & C. Squillaci, (Presenters), *Human resource development quarterly: Meet the editors*. Session presented at the 2002 Academy of Human Resource Development, Honolulu, Hawaii
- Vásquez-Colina, M., (2001, March). Facilitator for P. Kuchinke, (Presenter), *Emerging Scholarship in HRD*. Session presented at the 2001 Academy of Human Resource Development, Tulsa, Oklahoma.

UNIVERSITY SERVICE

- Education Graduate Student Association Vice-president,
University of Louisville 2001-2002.
Assisted with planning of Executive Board meeting agenda. Organized and chaired a Paper
Talk to promote research among graduate students. Developed an evaluation form for the
same event
- Education Graduate Student Association (EGSA) Representative,
University of Louisville 2001-2002.
Disseminated EGSA information to the organizations represented.
- Faculty Search Committee, Leadership, Foundations and Human Resource Education,
College of Education, University of Louisville
2001.
- English-Spanish / Spanish-English Interpreter,
Women's Center Director, Family Support Center,
University of Louisville 1999

COMMUNITY SERVICE

- AHRD International Sub-Committee Facilitator 2004-2005
- Jefferson County Public School District, Middle School Connection 2004
- Spanish-English Interpreter, Catholic Charities of Louisville 2004
- Economic Development Committee, Sister Cities of Louisville 2002-2003
- Community Initiatives Committee, Sister Cities of Louisville 2002
- Board of Directors of the Kentucky Translators and Interpreters Association 2001-2002