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The Experience of Founder's Syndrome in Nonprofit Organizations Founded by Women

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This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

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Abstract

The Experience of Founder's Syndrome in Nonprofit Organizations Founded by Women

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Coutanya Moultry Coombs

M.S., Eastern Illinois University 2002

B.S., North Carolina Central University, 1997

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

School of Public Policy & Administration

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Abstract

Gaps exist in the literature on knowledge of how founder behavior affects volunteers and employees in nonprofit organizations. Through exploration of founder relationships with volunteers and employees, this study fills some of those gaps and adds to the body of knowledge of how those relationships are perceived by founders, volunteers, and employees. The purpose of this narrative study was to address the question of the impact of founder behavior on founders, employees and volunteers in nonprofit women's organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women. The theory of psychological ownership was used as the framework to understand founder behavior. The qualitative narrative inquiry design consisted of interviews with 12 participants who work for nonprofit organizations that provide empowerment services to women. Themes such as control, lack of strategy and support, and silenced voices emerged as responses to the question of the impact of founder behavior on the organization. The results indicate that founders, employees, and volunteers report a need for clear policies, role assignments, procedures, and organizational goals. Founders are oblivious to the impact of their behavior on the organization and are not aware of the available resources that may exist in their communities. Implications include state level nonprofit policy that funds training for nonprofit organizations around the themes examined in this study. Recommendations for future research include examination of internal issues and structures related to an organization's growth. The result of this study may lead to increased understanding of perceptions of the operations of nonprofit organizations which may impact nonprofit organizations' abilities to meet the goals of their mission.

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Dedication

Little did I know when I entered my doctoral program, that I was about to embark upon the toughest, most rigorous, and challenging endeavor of my life. I was naïve to the fact that the next seven years it would be not only my life, but become the life of my husband and family. I dedicate this PhD to my husband, Kristopher Coombs, Sr. who stood steadfast with love, support, and patience, as I followed by dream. I could not have done this without your support. I also dedicate this PhD to my sons, Kristopher and Nicholas, who consistently cheered for me and reminded me of the tenacity of the spirit of the Moultry and Hampton blood. Richard and Thomasine Pruitt, the dream of this particular journey began with you. I thank you for your ongoing support of my quest to pursue the path of higher education. To my parents, Samuel and Mary Moultry, and Annie P, Monie. You too, were my inspiration and I thank you for raising me to be the highly motivated, confident, accomplished, self-assured person that I am. Your spirit is present. Finally, to all the Aunts, Uncles, cousins, church family and friends, I thank you for the many kind words of encouragement. God is so good and He is real.

NOTE TO MY YOUNGER SELF: Little girl you were ten years old wondering about the world. We conquered the "ests" that held us back in earlier years. The quietest, the smallest, the poorest, and the brownest in the whitest of our environments. Who would have thought, certainly not you, that a little Black girl from Middletown, Ohio would grow up to change her "est" to highest achiever, boldest, most likeliest, and one of the most self-assured woman that anyone will meet. I am so proud of you and your part of this journey. We still have so much left to do.

Acknowledgments

Completion of a doctoral study program involves enormous commitment efforts and a strong support structure to ensure the PhD candidate accomplishes scholarly research. I would like to thank my committee; Dr. Cassandra Caldwell and Dr. William J. Benet, for helping their commitments that helped me accomplish a complete doctoral education experience. I would especially like to thank Dr. Jennifer Rounds-Bryant, my dissertation coach who understood my way to learn. I thank you Dr. Rounds-Bryant, for the individualized guidance you provided through your coaching program. The patience, guidance, and professionalism were instrumental in helping me design, write, and defend my research study. From the moment we connected, you were with me every step of the way. Together, Dr. Caldwell, Dr. Benet, and Dr. Rounds-Bryant, you were all instrumental in helping me finish the race. Cheers to a journey that is past, and joy and blessings to a new journey about to begin.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Scholars describe nonprofit organizations as a central part of American culture. Those communities with greater political engagement and income inequality are more likely to have more nonprofit organizations than those with lower income inequalities (Kim, 2015). Nonprofit organizations have become the voice for those who cannot or choose not to speak, with policy advocacy being one of its primary components (Almog-Bar & Schmid, 2014). Nonprofit organizations are highly regarded entities in the United States (Hall, 2016; Salamon, 2015). Nonprofit organizations promote civic engagement, social justice, and the empowerment of communities to initiate programs and to self-advocate for services (Norris-Tirrell, 2014; Salamon, 2015). The impact of nonprofit organizations on the economy and upon the day-to-day lives of people in communities makes it difficult to conceive that although the concept of nonprofit organizations is aged, formalization and recognition of nonprofit organizations as a unified sector is less than 50 years old (Hall, 206). Many of the services provided by nonprofit organizations might be determined to be unviable or unprofitable in the private sector, but estimates indicate that nonprofit organizations contribute $887.3 billion to the U.S. economy (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015).

Historical studies describe the significant role of women in the early formation of nonprofit organizations as the impetus of the advancement of society because women were the early sponsors of nonprofit organizations and voluntary associations (Costa, 2000; Cullen-Dupont, 2002; Goldin & Oliveti, 2013; McCarthy, 2003). Driven by their quest to help the less fortunate, early 20th century women formed groups and

organizations for fundraising purposes (McCarthy, 2003) and used self-reliant methods such as quilting, rummage sales, bake sales, and tea luncheons to raise money for charitable purposes. Although opportunities for educated middle-class women were limited, career prospects did exist. Middle-class women sought outlets that allowed them to engage in the existing political activities of equity, moral reform, and the women's suffrage movement (McCarthy, 2003). Those political engagements spurred new career paths in nonprofit environments such as nursing, teaching, and social work. It was within these settings that women participated on governance boards or held staff positions in organizations, which allowed them to be involved in organizational decision-making processes. Despite this increased leadership participation, women were still subordinate to the men who held the financial and decisive powers. In response to their discontent of the lack of financial and decisive powers, women sought opportunities to create and self-fund nonprofit organizations in which they would have a voice in the development and operations.

In 2015, the nonprofit sector accounted for 11.4 million jobs in the United States, which denoted 10.3% of the overall workforce (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015). Women represented 46.9% of the workforce and held 14.4% of senior executive positions in Fortune 500 corporations (Catalyst, 2018; National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015). Conversely, within this historically female-dominated nonprofit sector, women represent 73% of the overall nonprofit workforce and 45% of the CEOs for nonprofit organizations with budgets under $25 million (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics [BLS], 2015). Potential reasons for this phenomenon include lack of interest by men for

low-paying positions (which may allow more opportunities for women) and internal environments that ostensibly appeal to women. Additionally, women often are willing to take lower pay to obtain top-level executive positions and gain experience (Branson, Chen, & Redenbaugh, 2013).

The nonprofit sector workforce includes a large group of unpaid workforce volunteers who contribute significantly to the nonprofit sector (Stirling, Kilpatrick, & Orpin, 2011). In 2014, an estimated 62.8 million people volunteered for nonprofit organizations, which represented 25.3% of the U.S. population. The perception of volunteers concerning their experience in nonprofit organizations is fundamental to the organization's recruitment and retention efforts for volunteers (Hager & Brudney, 2008). The manner in which senior leadership communicates the vision, values, and mission to their employees and volunteers will influence the sustainability of the organization (Allen & Shanock, 2012; Labedz & Berry, 2011). In many instances, such as with newer or smaller nonprofit organizations, the leader will also be the founder and the one who holds vital information. The potential reason this occurs may be that the leader is often the founder of the organization. This factor may help explain the possessive tendencies of the founder towards the organization.

When an aggressive level of attachment to the organization manifests, the term founder's syndrome describes this phenomenon (Block & Rosenberg, 2002). Founder's syndrome is the set of powers, privileges, and influences that only the founder holds or that others attribute to the founder (Block & Rosenberg, 2002).

The literature on founder's syndrome reported that a founder's desire for control can impact decisions such as choice of leadership style, board selection, succession planning, or the type of governance model used (Block & Rosenberg, 2002; Calas &Smircich, 2006). Furthermore, the existence of founder's syndrome can affect leadership interactions between the founder and the organization's employees and volunteers (Block & Rosenberg, 2002). Research on the perceptions of founders, employees, and volunteers of nonprofit organizations on leadership behaviors are rare and the few studies that do exist lack focus on the perspectives and observations of the key participants, which are the founders, employees, and volunteers. This study filled in some of those gaps. This study provided empirical data that can serve as a blueprint for effectiveness, inform researchers of existing studies conducted on nonprofit founders, improve management practices for practitioners, and add to the current body of knowledge on founder's syndrome.

Additionally, this study may also have implications for human resource development research and practice, nonprofit practitioners, nonprofit organization boards, and for founders. The results may also foster a greater understanding for founders of the expectations and perceptions of its volunteers and employees. Awareness of founder, volunteer, and employee expectations and perceptions may allow nonprofit organizations the opportunity to improve levels of support to the organization, improve retention rates, and improve overall management of the organization. This section contains information on the background of the study, problem statement, the purpose of the research, and the research question. Additionally, this section presents the conceptual framework, the

scope of the work, nature of the study, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of the study.

Background of the Study

Over 90% of the nonprofit organizations that exist today emerged after the 1950s (Hall, 2006). Nonprofit organizations accounted for more than 11.4 million jobs in 2014 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). Also, an estimated 62.8 million adults (25.3% of the U.S. population) volunteered in 2014 at least once (National Center for Charitable Statistics [NCCS], 2015). In the United States, there are over 1.41 million registered nonprofit organizations, and the nonprofit sector contributes more than $900 billion to the U.S. economy, which was 5.4% of the gross domestic product (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015). Volunteers are the chief source of labor for the nonprofit sector and contribute 8.7 billion volunteer hours with an approximate value of over $179 billion. The role of volunteers in the nonprofit sector has an economic effect on both the United States and the worldwide economies (BLS, 2014; Salamon, Sokolowski & Haddock, 2011).

The manner in which volunteers view their experience at an organization will influence their tenure and will affect the organization's recruitment and retention abilities (Garner & Garner, 2011; Hager and Brundy, 2008; Stirling et al.; 2011). The extent to which employees and volunteers are willing to work hands-on in whatever capacity to sustain the organization will influence their tenure (Aulgur, 2016). The fact that many nonprofit organizations are new and their leaders are inexperienced exposes nonprofit organizations to vulnerabilities such as mismanagement of volunteers and employees.

The manner in which senior leadership communicates the vision, values, and mission will influence the sustainability of the organization (Labedz & Berry, 2011; National Institute of Standards and Technology, 2011). Further research on the relationship between management practices and volunteers should be conducted (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, 2006; Handy & Srinivasan, 2004; Huynh, Metzer, & Winefield, 2012). This study explored the perceptions of volunteers, employees, and founders on how they perceive the management of nonprofit organizations and on the impact of those management styles.

Scholars have determined that founders hold influence, power, and privileges over their nonprofit organization, a condition not experienced in nonfounder led organizations (Block & Rosenberg, 2002; Lester, Parnell, & Carraher, 2003). Additionally, active founders may also affect other parts of the organization directly related to leadership such as how members interface with each other. The phenomena of founder's syndrome were examined in a study designed to determine if founders use their influence to steer decisions within their organizations (Block & Rosenberg, 2002). Block and Rosenberg's (2002) study found that due to a founder's attachment to the organization, founder's syndrome affects both the founder's leadership abilities and growth of the organization. Amernic, Craig, and Tourish (2010) asserted that in many cases individuals cannot differentiate between personal interests and the organization's interests. The focus of a follow-up study by English and Peters (2011) was to determine if similar results held true specifically for nonprofit organizations led by women.

Authors of organizational literature have contended that nonprofit organizations typically progress through five stages, referred to as life cycles (Dodge, Fullerton & Robbins, 1994; Hanks, 2015; Hanks, Watson, Jensen, & Chandler, 1993). Although an organizational model may have up to 10 life cycles, most researchers refer to five stage models (Baird & Meshoulam, 1988). The five stages identified are the nascent or conception stage, the birth or start-up stage, legitimacy or growth stage, produce or sustain stage, and the review or decline stage (Bedeian, 1990; Jawahar & McLaughlin, 2001; Mintzberg, 1984; Quinn & Cameron, 1983).

Over time, the focus of an organization should naturally shift from the founder to the organization. While leadership monitoring is critical at the onset, the staff usually will become self-sufficient and require less instruction (Stewart & Manz, 1995). A study that measured the link between nonprofit organizations' management practices and volunteer and employer relations determined that formalized management practices may negatively affect volunteers (Milligan & Frye, 2005; Taylor, Darcy, Hoye, & Cuskelly, 2006).

Research also exists to support the premise that founder's syndrome can have positive implications. The same characteristics that propel drive and vision and evolve into influential powers are the characteristics that foster the creativeness and resilience needed to sustain nonprofit organizations (English & Peters, 2011). Other researchers have noted how positive work-related experiences and attitudes exist when employees in newer or small organizations perceive the founder as a leader who gives priority to the development of employee leadership skills (Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

Research on the impact of executive influence has provided extensive knowledge on the importance and significance of the executive director's role and leadership style to the organization (Bradshaw, Murray & Wolpin, 1992; Cyert, 1990; Block, 1998; Heimovics & Jurkiewicz, 1995;). Additional research in nonprofit literature includes the study of relationships between the nonprofit board and the executive director (Block & Rosenberg, 2002; Ikävalko, Pihkala, & Kraus, 2010) as possible explanations of the types of differences of leadership styles found in these organizations (Block, 1998; Kets de Vries & Cheak, A., 2014). Much of the extant literature focuses on practitioners' recommendations for founders and boards of directors, board and founder relationships, or governance policy. However, none of these studies focused on founder leadership behavior specifically in nonprofit organizations or its impact on volunteers and employees.

Problem Statement

Founder behavior may have an affect an organization's ability to attract and retain volunteers and employees. Avey, Avolio, Crossley, & Luthans's (2009) study noted the problems of power, control, and governance typically propelled by founders within nonprofit organizations. In the first empirical study of founder's syndrome, Block and Rosenberg (2002) surveyed 302 nonprofit board chairs and executive directors and found that 42% of the respondents considered the executive director as the most influential person during a board meeting. When the executive director was also the founder, the number increased to almost 52% of the time (Block & Rosenberg, 2002). Additionally, the results showed that an individual's tenure and service to a nonprofit organization has

some bearing on the ability to influence the organization's strategic direction (Block & Rosenberg, 2002). The authors concluded that the findings of this study support the premise that founders hold back the growth of their organizations. Results of that study also suggested that when founders' syndrome is prevalent newer members and employees are less likely to speak up or voice an opinion. Finally, research data indicated that founders do use their position to influence organizational direction (Block & Rosenberg, 2002; English & Peters, 2011).

A Canadian study on founder's syndrome by English and Peters (2011) used the Block and Rosenberg (2002) study to examine the impact of founder's syndrome and found that founder's syndrome does affect the ability of employees and volunteers to contribute to or influence organizational direction. The narrative inquiry examined the impact of founder's syndrome in 10 nonprofit organizations affiliated with six different types of organization. Participants of the study addressed broad issues of organizational development and sustainability with a particular focus on the effects of founders on more junior members (English & Peters, 2011). The study examined how founders retain control, establish agendas, and hold higher retention levels of employees and volunteers. The research findings of this study suggested that consensus models tend to work best if the organization has clear organizational policies and procedures that promote the inclusion of many voices.

Both studies acknowledged their limitations but recommended additional research studies. Block and Rosenberg (2002) suggested scholars examine under what circumstances founder's syndrome manifests problems or contributes to the success of

nonprofit organizations. English and Peters (2011) recommended a replication of Block and Rosenberg's (2002) questionnaire for an examination of how widespread founder's syndrome is in women's nonprofit organizations, whether men's organizations have the same experience, and which types of nonprofit organizations are most likely to experience this syndrome. It is unknown the extent to which these findings hold true for other populations within the nonprofit sector such as men's nonprofit organizations or nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women.

In response to these recommendations for further study, this study was essential because it provided research data to fill the unanswered question of the impact of founder's syndrome on volunteers and employees, specifically in nonprofit organizations founded by African American and omen. Findings from the study contribute to the body of knowledge on founder relationships with volunteers and employees. An understanding of how volunteers and employees perceive the founder could lead to measures that positively improve volunteer and employee retention rates.

Social Change

Responsibility as an advocate for social change requires adaptation of objectives that advance activities favorable to the improvement of working relationships in nonprofit organizations that seek to improve human conditions. The relationship between nonprofit founders, volunteers, employees, and stakeholders is critical to the success of nonprofit organizations. Founder behavior can have an impact on an organization's financial or mission sustainability and affects the organization's ability to not only appeal to volunteers and employees but to also provide an environment that will encourage this

labor pool to stay. As an advocate, I propose to teach these principles in nonprofit education academic courses and promote these concepts through nonprofit development consultation and through the extension of this research.

Recent changes in the way foundations and government funding reaches communities, such as the inclusion of for-profit organizations as providers of goods and services, may jeopardize the survival of smaller nonprofit organizations. As disbursements of large blocks of government grants through central organizations continue to be the norm, smaller nonprofit organizations are at risk of exclusion of those funds. Nonprofit organizations enter and exit the field daily, and competition among nonprofit organizations with each other as well as with for-profit organizations increases competition for the available labor pool of volunteers and employees. Careful monitoring and advocacy of policies that shape methods of disbursement should be in place to assure equal access to funding distributions.

A study of volunteers and their level of participation in nonprofit organizations report a 0.4% decline in (BLS, 2015). Without enthusiastic volunteers and employees who feel the value of their role in the organization, the challenge of managing the organization will increase while the commitment to work for the organization will decrease. A situation such as this would leave the nonprofit sector with a void of capable, prepared, next generation nonprofit leaders. A founder's priority must be to maintain an organization that will deliver the goods or services indicated by its mission.

Nonprofits of today must advance their purposes to include delivery of goods and services efficiently while paying attention to the needs of the organization's workers. The

ultimate objective of this study is to give attention to how founders establish the culture and internal structure of their nonprofit organizational environment, which may help to facilitate growth and stability within the organization. Human resource management bears a direct correlation to positive contributions of volunteers (Bartram, Cavanagh, & Hoye, 2017). This study is essential to the continued growth and development of nonprofit organizations and will be a beneficial source of information for future empirical researchers, funders, practitioners, and founders.

Exploration of ways for an organization to join its efforts with other nonprofit organizations through actions that advance shared knowledge and values is beneficial to organizations and ultimately to communities. Knowledge of such actions may result in minimizing founder frustrations, which may also result in lower levels of volunteer and employee attrition and untimely the demise of the organization. Effective employee management skills may increase the organization's retention rate through the organization's ability to develop loyal, capable, and engaged leaders within the organization.

Nonprofit organizations must give full attention to the preservation of both its volunteer and employee workforce to maximize the assistance of volunteers and contributions of talented employees. A dissatisfied volunteer can choose to walk away, and an underutilized misunderstood employee can move on to the next nonprofit organization. Demonstration of the benefits of improved relationships between founders and their internal organization is equally as important as the external relationships in which founders interact. Founders must learn to capitalize on the influence they have

over volunteers and employees instead of modeling negative behaviors that may cost employees and volunteers. Those who sacrifice higher pay for the opportunity to engage in something that holds personal significance expect some degree of flexibility, gratitude, and an opportunity to help make a human life better.

Although volunteers make up the greater portion of labor for nonprofit organizations and despite their relevance to the nonprofit sector, empirical research is lacking in this segment of the nonprofit sector. This study removed some of the gaps in the knowledge of how founder behavior affects volunteers and employees in nonprofit organizations and added to the body of knowledge on how volunteers and employees perceive their relationship with the founder. Data from this study may have the potential to change the manner by which founders, boards, and other major nonprofit stakeholders interact and make decisions about their volunteers and employees.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this narrative study was to provide research data to address the unanswered question of the impact of founder's syndrome on founders, volunteers, and employees in nonprofit women's organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women. Use of in-depth interviews as the method to focus on the phenomena of founder's syndrome gave me the opportunity to delve deeper into the personal lived experience of volunteer and employee relationships with founders. A narrative inquiry also enabled me to build upon previous research on founder's syndrome (Block & Rosenberg, 2002; English & Peters, 2011) by using a different subset population, African American and Caucasian women in nonprofit women's organizations.

Use of narrative inquiry provided insight and perspectives of founders, volunteers, and employees of nonprofit organizations less likely to be obtainable by other research methods. Personal perspectives and stories can be an effective method for understanding the unique views of those involved in the experience (Clandinin & Rosiek, 2007; Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

The need for this type of study stemmed from concern that founder's syndrome behaviors may dissuade younger members from vocal participation in the organization (English & Peters, 2011). By way of the knowledge obtained from this study, I plan to use the results of the findings from this study to improve the relationships between founders of nonprofit organizations and their volunteers and employees. I present a more in-depth discussion of narrative research methods in Chapter 3.

Research Question

RQ: What is the impact of founder's syndrome on nonprofit founders, employees, and volunteers in nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women?

Conceptual Framework

Psychological Ownership

In this qualitative study I used the theory of psychological ownership as a platform to explore and describe the impact of founder's syndrome on nonprofit organization founders, volunteers, and employees. The psychological ownership theory was constructed by Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks (2001) to extend the current knowledge of how psychological attachments can be experienced towards organizations not created by

the founder. Psychological ownership stems from the theory of possession (Etzoni, 1991; Furby, 1991; Litwinski, 1942; Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2001). Reasons why psychological ownership occurs and the circumstances in which those occurrences take place provide the foundational preliminaries necessary to grasp this construct (Dirks, Cummings, & Pierce, 1996).

Scholars define psychological ownership as the attachment and sense of ownership experienced when people connect themselves to tangible or intangible objects (Etzioni, 1991; Pierce & Jussila, 2014; Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2003; Shu & Peck, 2011). Furthermore, psychological ownership is the state of mind where an individual targets an object for ownership purposes and establishes rights to the object (Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2003). The targeted objects represent an extension of the founder's self, with the object belonging to the person(s) in possession and control of the object. Ownership of a target is not limited to a founder but includes ownership from a broader perspective such as control of a person's own portion of responsibilities within the organization (Pierce et al., 2001). For example, employees, volunteers, and the board of directors of a nonprofit organization all have different functions within a nonprofit organization, but each can carry possessiveness that allows them to operate in a state of psychological ownership.

Psychological ownership leads to personal feelings of achievement and control because of the connection experienced between the tangible or intangible object and the person who controls the object (Avey et al., 2009; Furby, 1978). Emotional, behavioral, and attitudinal feelings accompany feelings of personal achievement (Pierce et al., 2001).

Employees are likely to embrace their work when they have opportunities to utilize their skills and influence the content of their duties, working methods, and working times (Selander, 2015). Scholars suggest self-efficacy, accountability, belongingness, and self-identity are also interrelated roots of psychological ownership (Avey et al., 2009). Self-efficacy represents pleasure attainment and is experienced through ownership, whereas accountability denotes the expectation of persons holding themselves and others accountable through the sharing of information and control of the target (Pierce et al., 2001). Belongingness fulfills a person's social and socioemotional needs (Avey et al., 2009). Self-identity is the fourth dimension of psychological ownership and reflects the comfort derived from the experience of social interactions and socially shared meanings with others who hold similar well-defined goals (Dittmar, 1992; Pierce et al., 2003).

Psychological ownership also describes the outcome of specific processes such as knowing and controlling the target, and investment of the self in the target (Pierce et al., 2003; Pierce et al., 2001). Knowing and controlling the target suggests familiarity and intimate knowledge of the target. Psychological ownership can have an impact on volunteer workers if the criterion of volunteers is unmet (Omoto & Snyder, 2012. The volunteer experience is vital to the sustainability of a nonprofit organization. Psychological ownership can affect an organization's ability to meet its mission and goals (Avey, Wernsing, & Palanski, 2012; Luthans et al., 2008; Han, Chiang, & Chang, 2010). For example, although volunteers do not expect monetary compensation in exchange for their donated time, they do have other expectations such as a sense of personal control over their work, self-fulfillment, or attainment of skills (Laczo & Hanisch, 1999).

Volunteer workers also have expectations of positive working relationships with the nonprofit organizations in which they work (Laczo & Hanisch, 1999).

Research studies have indicated a positive correlation between psychological ownership and empowered employees who feel appreciation and empowerment from their organization (Carmeli, Gilat, & Waldman, 2007; Pierce, Jussila, & Cummings, 2010 Uslu, 2014). In a separate study conducted in Switzerland on the impact of autonomy-supportive leadership on volunteer motivation, researchers asked participants from 26 charitable volunteering organizations why they engaged in volunteer activity. The findings indicated that performing a task with autonomy is a significant and valued aspect for volunteers.

Psychological ownership carries constructive and destructive consequences (Pierce et al., 2003). If the employee, volunteer, or founder operates from a constructive psychological ownership stance in an environment, then citizenship behavior, stewardship, personal sacrifice, and overall stable patterns of behavior will usually exist (Pierce et al., 2003). In contrast, the dark, destructive side of psychological ownership includes being overly possessives of the target, sabotage, intrinsic motivations, and an unwillingness to share knowledge and control of the target (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Pierce et al., 2003). Scholars consider these behaviors to be factors that contribute to the phenomena termed founder's syndrome (Avey et al., 2009; Block & Rosenberg, 2002; Carver, 1992; English & Peters, 2012; Pierce et al., 2003).

Founders Syndrome

Nonprofit scholars and practitioners have identified and noted the particular problems of targeted ownership, and recognize the need for control often exists in nonprofit organizations. This need for control, identified as founder's syndrome (Block & Rosenberg, 2002; Carver, 2001), bears characteristics very similar to psychological ownership. In much the same manner in which psychological ownership is established, founders attach to their nonprofit organization. Founder's syndrome attachment begins during the conceptualization period and is the genesis of ownership, which stems from the unwillingness to share control of the organization.

The desire for control may lead the founder to engage in behaviors such as the use of power and privileges that may threaten the well-being of the organization (Block & Rosenberg, 2002; Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2003). I have found only two empirical studies on founder's syndrome. This study explored the impact of founder's syndrome behavior on volunteers and employees. I provided a more detailed examination of psychological ownership and its relevance to founder behavior in Chapter 2.

Nature of the Study

Situated within the disciplines of social sciences are words that represent a microcosm of people's consciousness based on their experiences and to which people symbolize their experiences through words (Siedman, 2013). Use of personal perspectives and stories to describe the experiences lived can be an effective method for understanding the unique perspectives of those involved in the experience (Clandinin & Rosiek, 2007; Rubin & Rubin, 20112). Collection of the data for this qualitative

narrative study is semistructured in-depth interview questions. In-depth interviews allow for the abstraction of the meaning people make of the phenomena of their experience as viewed through their unique perception. That perception was shared through their words and stories (Siedman, 2013). Qualitative methods provided me the opportunity to question the meanings given to events. The words and phrases that give exact meaning and perceptions of phenomena are lost when quantitative or other types of research methods are used (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

This study used a naturalistic, social constructionist approach, which means that the focus was on how founders, volunteers, and employees interpret their experiences, events, expectations, and meanings they bring to their nonprofit organization employment environment. An additional variation selected for this study was for me to take an interpretive constructionist view. The interpretive constructionist seeks clarification through the participants' lens, and from the naturalists' paradigm, I took the stance that all meaning is the result of people's prior experience and biases (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

One of the strengths of the in-depth qualitative interview was that the participants' perceptions were the focal point to the discovery of their views of the impact of founder attitudes, behaviors, and motives, as they reconstruct events and details otherwise not accessible to me (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). In a like manner, the additional strength of in-depth interviews comes from the words used to describe situations, as opposed to a solely statistical quantification type of data extraction. Words allow for clarity and opportunity to inquire about and challenge assumptions (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

Interviewing is a mode of inquiry, and the words that people use in telling their stories represent their subjective perception of the event and how they frame that (Siedman, 2013). A qualitative inquiry is a practice that involves a lot of time, energy, and in many cases a lot of financial resources (Siedman, 2013), and are factors that created limitations for this study. Other limitations of this study were access to potential participants, lack of prior research and available data, self-reported data, author bias, and data collection processes.

Definitions

Founder: Designated term given to the person whose initiation and conceptualizations were the impetus to create the nonprofit organization, and satisfy the legal requirements to obtain its nonprofit status.

Founder's syndrome: The set powers, privileges, and influences that only the founder holds, or that others attribute to the founder which includes the decisive conduct to control decisions and steer the organization in favor the founder instead of the best interest of the organization.

Women's empowerment nonprofit organizations: Nonprofit organizations that provide services in which the focus is to support women through the provision of economic, political, and social programs that strengthen the lives of women.

Influential: Use of personal power to alter the opinions and actions of others.

Psychological ownership: A theory rooted in individual motives of efficacy and self-identity that lend itself toward feelings of possession.

Volunteers: A person who offers himself or herself without compensation for a service or undertaking.

Nonprofit organization: An organization granted tax-exempt status by the Internal Revenue Service, usually characterized as a 501 (c) (3) or 501 (c) (4) organization, to provide a public service and for which the purpose is not profit driven.

Board chair: Volunteer that oversees the responsibilities and duties associated with the CEO of a nonprofit organization.

Executive director: A person hired by the board of directors to implement and advocate the organization's mission, while simultaneously managing the organization.

African American: People with origins in any of the Black race groups of Africa, including people who self-report being Black.

Assumptions

As in all research studies, general assumptions exist that requires identification. The first assumption for this study was that I as researcher could remain neutral while conducting the work for the study. To obtain neutrality, I had to maintain a continual state of acceptance that there is no one reality, especially for a study of this type that used a naturalist constructionist paradigm. A naturalist constructionist paradigm denotes the existence of many truths to a story, and it is the perceptions of the participants in the study that allow me to achieve the stated goals of the study.

The second assumption made was that the participants would answer the interview questions honestly. The purpose of the study was orally presented to the participants to encourage openness and honesty and will receive a written declaration of

the confidentiality and anonymity protocols of the research study. I informed the participants of the voluntary nature of the study, and informed the participanst that should they decide to cease participation, they may do so without any harm or actions placed upon them. In all situations, trust between the participants and me was the foundation of the relationship.

The third assumption made was that the sample was representative of the appropriate criteria that all participants have experienced the similar phenomenon of the nature of the study. All three of these assumptions were addressed by me through constant monitoring

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this qualitative narrative study was limited to the exploration of the experience of founder's syndrome by employees and volunteers in nonprofit organizations, founded by African American and Caucasian women who provide services that lead to the empowerment of women. The deliberate intent was to determine whether the pattern of founder's syndrome holds true within this population, through examination of the perspectives and stories of those who work with founders in a nonprofit environment. Results of this study add to the current body of knowledge of nonprofit organizations.

Qualitative research requires the restriction of certain populations so that the results of the study can be generalized (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). In this study, those restrictions required the elimination of nonprofit organizations founded by anyone other than African American and Caucasian women, and nonprofit organizations that provide

services other than those endeavors specifically designed to lead to the empowerment of women. The design of this study built upon existing research in response to recommendations of scholars for an additional empirical study of founder's syndrome. Boundaries of the study excluded for-profit corporations and nonprofit organizations that do not provide health and human service types of services.

This study follows qualitative sample strategy guidelines (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014) that recommend the homogeneous sampling strategy in conjunction with the snowball technique. Homogeneous sampling narrows the focus to a particular group of people (i.e., employees and volunteers of nonprofit organizations founded by women) for a study. There are no specific rules for determination of a sample size in qualitative research. The guiding principle for qualitative research is to reach data saturation, the point in which the collection of new data no longer reveals new information on the issue. The small size of the sample can lead to information-rich results and is a method designed to obtain in-depth knowledge of phenomena (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). Further explanation of the thick description method was given in Chapter 3 of this study.

Limitations

The limitations considered for this study were lack of prior research and available data, self-reported data, author bias, and data collection processes. The following is a detailed explanation of each of these limitations.

The first limitation was the lack of prior research and available data. Rukwaru (2015) wrote that previous research forms the foundation and basis of the literature review. Janesick (2011) wrote that in scientific research studies empirical assertions

should support the data. A danger in self-reported data is that the data is unverifiable (Rukwaru, 2015). In the case of this study, only two extant research studies on founder's syndrome and its impact on the nonprofit organization were available that counts as previous empirical data for this topic, and that data does not extend itself to address the specific variables of this study. Consequently, the lack of available data minimizes assertions to support future research data. This lack of available data limited the establishment of a trend but was useful as an addition to existing empirical knowledge.

The second limitation considered was self-reported data in which individuals tell stories about themselves and their own experiences (Creswell & Poth, 2017). However, self-reported data challenges validity because it depends on the memory of participants who may not respond truthfully, research questions that may be leading, or participants who may misunderstand the question.

The third limitation considered was author bias. This study espouses the constructionists' paradigm and believes that people construct their understanding of the world based on prior experiences (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Therefore, it is neither feasible nor necessary for the researcher to eliminate all biases or expectations, but prudent that the researcher guards against the imposition of their expectations and be attentive to the impact of those expectations on what the researcher see and hear (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

The fourth limitation considered was the data collection process. Due to time constraints, this study used a single source of data collection. Surveys and questionnaires are useful for qualitative studies that seek phenomena prevalence but have increased validity if the researcher incorporates multiple sources into the data collection (Lee,

Mitchell, & Sablynski, 1999). The final limitation offered was that this study used a small sample, therefore impeding generalization of the results beyond the specific population of the data collection.

Significance of the Study

This study on the impact of founder's syndrome behavior provides a foundation for further exploration of the manner in which founder behavior affects volunteers and employees in nonprofit organizations. A review of the literature suggests founders of nonprofit organizations are responsible for holding back the potential growth of their nonprofits by the manner in which founders retain control and through use of founder influence (Block & Rosenberg, 2002; English & Peters, 2011).

Significance to Theory

Psychological ownership is determined to have arisen from the theory of possession (Etzoni, 1991; Furby, 1991; Litwinski, 1942; Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2003). In nonprofit organizations, psychological ownership exists because of the mental connection of the founder to their founded nonprofit organization (Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2003). Therefore, psychological ownership may play a vital role in the degree of latitude given by the founder to volunteers and employees when the founder decides to include others in decision-making for the organization. Nonprofit scholars and practitioners have identified and noted that the particular problem of targeted ownership and a need for control, exists in nonprofit organizations and identifies this phenomenon as founder's syndrome (Block & Rosenberg, 2002; Carver, 2001).

The Block and Rosenberg (2002) study on founder's syndrome was the empirical building block for founder's syndrome, but the study did not address the prevalence of the phenomenon. A follow-up study conducted by English & Peters (2012) examined founder's syndrome in nonprofit organizations whose focus of services was for purposes of women's empowerment. Examples of women's empowerment include social, economic, and political programs. The study stopped short of exploration of the impact of race, class, and ethnicity in its study of founder's syndrome.

This study extended the existing theory that the presence of founders can affect leadership and interaction with members and organizational growth (Block & Rosenberg, 2002). Furthermore, the presence of founder's syndrome may deter newer members and less dominant members (volunteers) from engagement in nonprofit organizations (English & Peters, 2012). This study bore similar findings; and testing of that theory in nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women provided meaningful information to the study of founders.

Advancement of Practice

Based on information obtained from the perceptions of volunteers, employees, and founders through their stories, this study discovered the elements that could improve interpersonal relationships, make mentoring of volunteers and employees a priority, and improve leadership capabilities in nonprofit organizations. Founder's syndrome can affect leadership interactions between the founder and the organization's employees and volunteers. The ultimate objective was to give attention to how founders establish the culture and internal structure of their nonprofit organizational environment, all of which

may facilitate growth within the organization. This study was important for the continued growth and development of nonprofit organizations and will be a beneficial source of information for future empirical researchers, funders, practitioners, and founders.

Research that makes primary, empirical data on leadership characteristics about women and women of color, can add to the limited information on this topic that currently exists in nonprofit organization literature. Recognition of potential problems and direct intervention can improve management practices and address common internal problems in nonprofit organizations, which thereby increase the prospect of a successful organization that can meet its mission goals.

Significance to Social Change

This study has implications for strengthening the internal structures of nonprofit organizations. Nonprofit organizations can better serve society when its internal structures such as active volunteer engagement, sound leadership skills, and management expertise are in place. Empirical knowledge obtained through the study of interpersonal relationships and the expectations of founders, volunteers, and employees in their roles in nonprofit organizations, will facilitate an understanding of the value of knowledge of founder's syndrome. Such knowledge may afford opportunities to improve the capacity of the organization to retain its workforce through effective leadership skills and interactions. The result may lead to increased longevity of the organization and the likelihood of the organization's ability to obtain its mission.

Retention of nonprofit organizations that sustain its mission goals reduces the gap of services in a community. Social change is possible by my involvement in nonprofit development as I work to educate nonprofit organizations with strategies for retention. The relationship between nonprofit founders, volunteers, and employees, is critical to the success of the nonprofit organization. The manner in which senior leadership communicates the vision, values, and mission will influence the sustainability of the organization (Labedz & Berry, 2011).

The social change implications include the identification of internal issues and structures that impede the organization's growth. The facilitation of responses that include empowerment of all who are a part of the organization may foster a supportive organizational culture inclusive of a mentoring, training, and a nurturing supportive environment. The growth of an organization includes the growth of its founder, employees, and volunteers. Issues such as founder's syndrome that renders dysfunction and remains silent empirically unaddressed potentially hold negative societal ramifications. Such ramifications may impede growth of these nonprofit organizations. To minimize the challenges of founder's syndrome, awareness of management tactics must be available for use by practitioners and leaders of these organizations.

Recognition of the impact of founder's syndrome on an organization may be the first step towards its management. As a society, the challenge of nonprofit organizations to create opportunities to address issues of hunger, poverty, access to education, and medical needs, while simultaneously giving attention to the internal demands of the organization, may leave founders overwhelmed. A founder's response to a societal

problem is an unselfish act and is to be applauded, but the founder may be ill prepared to handle the challenges of management of the organization. The founder may be capable as a fundraiser or a champion for the cause but may have to rely on the skills and knowledge of staff, volunteers, and employees. The presence of founder's syndrome may impede the types of relationships necessary to foster extra-role behavior.

A lack of knowledge of methods to manage the nonprofit organization with the inclusion of those who share the passions of the founder (i.e., volunteers and employees) may induce feelings of isolation and feelings that the burden of responsibility rests solely upon the shoulders of the founder. Perhaps the sense of responsibility experienced by the founder to respond to the increased need for assistance in communities while experiencing a decrease in funds contributes to the frustrations of founders. Social change can be affected through academic instruction before a person develops or works for a nonprofit organization. I plan to teach nonprofit management courses at a university or college and to impart knowledge that will help future founders to understand the role of founders, volunteers, and employees as they encounter or develop nonprofit organizations. Advocacy for the allocation of funds, specifically for training and development, is a social change issue. I would like to address these issues with policy-makers, philanthropists, and donors of nonprofit organizations. Through engagement in my nonprofit community and social media blogs, I will potentially have the opportunity to reach donors and policymakers to address issues such as the importance of inclusion of funds for nonprofit development. Nonprofit organizations exist for the benefit of an entire local or global community. The education of those

responsible for funding policies is pertinent to the development and retention of nonprofit organizations.

Finally, by uncovering some of the leadership challenges experienced by the founder, volunteers, and employees, this study may help scholars and practitioners to begin to look for other ways to address the identified challenges. Data from this study will provide a close examination of the motives of founder's, unknown internal issues spurred by founder behaviors, sources of job satisfaction and personal preferences such as mentoring relationships. Data from this study may also provide unknown information of how relationships between the founder, volunteers, and employees may be improved. The study may also provide data on challenges that may be unique to nonprofit organizations or women founders of nonprofit organizations, as well as identification of the depth of founder's syndrome in smaller nonprofit organizations. In a survey of nonprofit administrators, volunteer training ranked third, behind fundraising and grant writing, as a current unfunded need identified by nonprofit organizations.

Data from this study may also expose the need for nonprofit leadership to include business practices such as strategic planning and strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) analysis. Knowledge from this data has the potential to advance empirical knowledge and expound the importance that future attention in needed on this topic.

Summary

The nonprofit sector relies on its vast number of unpaid volunteers as the dominant source of its workforce, and the manner in which founders of nonprofit

organizations communicate with volunteers and employees influence the missions and sustainability of the organization (Labedz & Berry, 2011). The availability of an adequate volunteer workforce is beneficial for society and the volunteers. Volunteers have shifted from lifetime commitments to decreased commitments of sporadic and episodic commitments (Bidee et al., 2011).

Extant literature on nonprofit organizations bestows praise of the economic contributions, service functions, builder of social capital, and social justice advancements these organizations have realized in United States communities. Empirical research on nonprofit organizations lags behind the amount of research on the for-profit business sector (Simon & Donovan, 2001). Study of the challenges that plague nonprofit organizations such as its roles, resources, transparency, and management strategies will help these organizations remain vital to society (Salamon, 2012).

Founders of nonprofit organizations are the initiators of actions required to address an identified need. Founders move an idea from conceptual to the actual creation of the nonprofit organization and often remain with the organization through the first several lifecycles of the organization (McLaughlin & Backlund, 2008). Unfortunately, not all founders adapt to the environmental challenges of the organization or have the skills to manage and lead the organization successfully throughout its many life cycles. A founder's desire for control stems from the founder's attachment to the organization. This may explain why founders are protective of the organization, which ultimately develops into the phenomenon referred to as founder's syndrome, which can affect decisions such as leadership style and governance models (Block & Rosenberg, 2002).

Founders may also affect how its volunteers and employees interact with each other and with the founder. Founders hold the influence, power, and privileges of the organization, which can affect the growth and development of the organization. Founder behavior may have an impact on an organization's ability to attract and retain volunteers and employees. Research also supports the premise that founder's syndrome also has positive implications such as the energy and drive needed to keep the organization moving forward (English &Peters, 2011; Luthans, Avolio, & Avey, 2003).

In the literature, only two studies conducted on founder's syndrome that examine the circumstances for which founder's syndrome prevails or contribute to the success of nonprofit organizations. Both studies recommend additional research on this phenomenon. This study will extend that knowledge by not only replicating the English & Peters (2011) study but add to the current body of knowledge with the inclusion of the new variable of whether founder's syndrome holds true for nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women. It is possible, that founder's syndrome may be rechanneled to maximize organizational strengths which include meaningful mentorships, effective leadership, and the inclusion of its labor in the organization's decision-making processes.

The literature review in Chapter 2 follows the recommendation of Merriam & Simpson (2000) in that a purposeful literature review will build a foundation and demonstrate how a study advances knowledge (Boote & Beile, 2005). The research studies chosen for this review includes twenty-six studies, all of which used qualitative methods, typically using surveys that required short answers or interviews as the data

collection method. The studies vary using founder, employee, and volunteer perspectives, and organization sizes that range from six to two thousand employees. Studies used are from the United States, Canada, Taiwan, Australia, China, and European countries. The intent is to use the voices of the participants to describe, interpret, and find explanations for the phenomenon of founder's syndrome, and to gain knowledge of how volunteers perceive their role and the role of the founder of the nonprofit organization where they work.

Chapter 2 provides a review of literature associated with organizational behavior and its link to power and influence of leaders. Chapter 2 also explores the role of founders, volunteers, and employees, and ways in which founder's syndrome exists at individual levels. Additionally, a literature search strategy, theoretical foundation, summary, and a conclusion are included in this chapter. The literature search strategy shows how I combined keywords and search terms to maximize the best results in the various databases used. The theoretical foundation provides the origin of the theories selected as support for this study. This study uses psychological ownership and founder's syndrome as the theoretical and conceptual frameworks to explore the impact of founder behavior on volunteers, and employees. The information provided in the literature review overview is of the scholarly works that confirm the existence of founder's syndrome in nonprofit organizations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this study was to understand the impact of the experiences of founder's syndrome on employees and volunteers in nonprofit women's organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women. Use of in-depth interviews as the method to focus on the phenomena of founder's syndrome permitted me an opportunity to delve deeper into the personal lived experience of volunteer and employee relationships with founders. A narrative inquiry also enabled me to build upon previous research on founder's syndrome (Block & Rosenberg, 2002; English & Peters, 2011) by using a different subset population, African American and Caucasian women in nonprofit women's organizations. Use of narrative inquiry provided insight from founders, volunteers, and employees of nonprofit organizations that may have been less likely to be obtainable by other research methods. Personal perspectives and stories can be an effective method for understanding the unique views of those involved in the experience (Clandinin & Rosiek, 2007; Rubin & Rubin, 2012). The need for this type of study stemmed from concern that founder's syndrome behaviors may dissuade younger members from vocal participation in the organization (English & Peters, 2011). In this study I sought to improve the relationships between founders of nonprofit organizations and its volunteers and employees.

This literature review focused on studies that examined factors that lead to founder's syndrome and the motivation of volunteers and employees. Information regarding the attitudes of founders, volunteers, and employees can provide insight for practitioners, educators of nonprofit organizations, founders, and funders of nonprofit

organizations. These factors may be a significant step toward uncovering the internal environment of nonprofit organizations, especially if the perceptions come from the direct data of those who may best understand the experience because they lived the experience.

Literature Search Strategy

For the literature search strategy I identified key relevant scientific contributions by using broad literature searches of published and unpublished studies (see Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart, 2003). Additionally, this review explored explanations on which behaviors dismantle the nonprofit organization and identified those behaviors that hold the nonprofit organization together. The information presented in the literature review was from 140 scholarly peer-reviewed articles. The sources were on nonprofit organizations and pertained to psychological ownership, possession, psychological contract, organizational commitment, founders of nonprofit organizations, the role of founders and employees, founder commitment, nonprofit organization volunteers, and founder's syndrome. The 140 journals used for the literature review came primarily from the EBSCO databases, ABI/INFORM Complete, Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, Emerald Management Journal, Expanded Academic ASAP, Proquest Central, PsycINFO, PsycArticles, Sage Premier, Thoreau, and Web of Science. The focus of these databases is in the social sciences. Also included were articles on entrepreneurs and small businesses owners if the articles dealt with phenomena such as organizational culture, ownership, or psychological ownership. Excluded were anecdotal articles. The development of a spreadsheet for relevant information housed pertinent data such as the

literature review category, research questions and hypotheses, the author, title, and year of publication, participants, data collection, data analysis, and conclusions. Each database search began with a basic search using the following search terms: *founder(s), founder behavior, founder's syndrome, possessive behavior, ownership, psychological ownership, nonprofit leadership, nonprofit organizations, nonprofit women leaders, volunteers,* and *nonprofit employee*s.

Next, an advanced search used truncated versions to find singular and plural forms of words such as *nonprofits, nonprofit, or nonprofit organizations, women-owned nonprofits and nonprofit volunteers, organizational culture,* and *organizational behavior,* for example, nonprof*, found*, women lead*. Finally, I entered those same keywords with a question mark as their wildcard symbol to check for variant spellings of the keywords. I used subject headings for the PsychINFO database to check for common acronyms used in articles that possibly were missed in other search terms. The language feature was restricted to English only. a Google search implemented to ensure capture of other articles rounded out this process. In this case, few studies could be located on founder's syndrome. The Walden University librarians provided assistance to help with the search. They documented that the only studies known to that date were the ones I had secured already.

Theoretical Foundation

Guided by the theory of founder's syndrome (Block & Rosenberg, 2002), this study evolved from the theory of psychological ownership. The theory of founder's syndrome explains conditions that exist in an organization whereby the founder holds

unbalanced power and uses that power to influence the direction of the organization (Block & Rosenberg, 2002). The theory of psychological ownership explains the state of mind that exists in which an individual claims possessive ownership of an object based on invested time and energy inputted toward all or some portion of the object (Pierce et al., 2001). Research studies on possessive feelings are antecedent to psychological ownership and represent the root of possessive behaviors. Therefore, this section shall start at the core of possessive feelings, which is the concept of possession.

Possession Concept

The concept of possession refers to the things people call "theirs" that denotes ownership and translates to "this is mine" based on their psychological attachment to the object (Pierce et al., 2003). James (1890), an early philosopher who developed the groundwork for the modern notion of self, wrote that possessions are things for which people develop emotionally attached feelings, and it is from those possessions that good or bad emotional feelings incur based on the circumstances of the possession. Beaglehole (1932) acknowledged the lack of existence of a sociological or economic theory of individual human action but conducted a cross-cultural study using field data from many disciplines to gain an understanding of the nature of possession of animals and human beings (Furby, 1978).

The nature of animals and humans is to acquire objects identified such as food, a mate, nest, and territory to satisfy primitive forms of satisfaction. Findings of the study indicated that animals possess objects because they fulfill certain specific needs and desires (Beaglehole, 1932). Beaglehole (1932) summarized the results and implications

of the study as the psychological origin of property based on the appropriation of those objects. Beaglehole also argued that the definition of ownership will have a different meaning within different societies, and personal property is part of the self with its value set by environmental and social patterns. These principles, therefore, represent how Beaglehole portrays the psychological characteristics of humans.

Beaglehole's (1932) discussion of possession was of value to Furby (1974) and other scholars seeking to understand the nature of possession. Furby (1978), however, noted a gap in the study because the study only reflected adult behavior and did not examine the origins, development, and functions of possession and ownership behavior in human beings. The study also did not explore the possibility that socialization practices in childhoods may influence behaviors of the person as an adult towards possessions (Furby, 1974). Subsequently, Furby conducted two major empirical studies on the nature of possession.

In the first study, Furby (1974) used the Human Relations Area Files as source material. The purpose of the Furby (1974) study was to identify the major determinants of possession and to identify any common behaviors that could be indicative of a basic need or desire to possess. Among the 112 cultures represented that referenced back to the transmission of cultural norms files, only 38 cultures were studied in detail. Furby's (1974) study examined the techniques used by adults to change attitudes and thoughts about the ownership of possessions. Furby (1974) found that boundaries, public chastisement, physical punishment, imitation of adults through observation on how settle

disputes, and fairytales and stories were commonly used techniques within several cultures to deter possessive behavior (Furby,1974).

The second study conducted by Furby (1978) on the nature of possession and ownership was a cross-cultural approach that used open-ended interviews with 270 U.S. and Israeli children and adults. Findings of the study indicated possessions enable persons to effect desired outcomes in their environments and that the motivation for possessions was social power and status. Results of Furby's (1978) study identified two themes, the link between the experience of efficacy and feelings of personal control and the association between possession and the sense of self.

Other findings of the Furby (1978) study indicated that the meaning of possession was subjective to each participant and was contingent upon the motivation for ownership, and upon the type of object in question. Additionally, Furby (1978) found that across the spectrum of ages and cultural groups, the response most often given for the definition of possession was the sense of personal control and the association between possession and a person's sense of self. The right to control use was the leading descriptor at all age levels, especially among fifth graders (Furby, 1978). Furby (1978) states that the acquisition process and personal control issue became progressively important as the age of a person increased. Furby's (1978) analysis revealed that the responses of the high school students and adults frequently mentioned that possessions provided security and enhanced social power, both of which could become motivation for ownership.

Furby's (1978) studies supported the contention that possessive behaviors and attitudes begin in early childhood. Children as young as 5 years old have already

developed a sense of the meaning of possession, and components associated with efficacy and control are germane to possession for both children and adults (Furby 1976; 1978). Furby and Wilke (1982) found that more than 85% of the conflicts among toddlers between 18-21 months old stemmed from possessive feelings for objects. Furby and Wilke's study on infants examined at what age infants developed a preference for objects, and found that by 3 months fewer than half of the infants showed a preference for an object. However, by the age of 6 months, 70% of infants have developed a preference for a favorite object.

The works of other researchers imply that feelings of possession consist of a multitude of linked components such as part attitude, mind, and part object (Belk, 1988; Dittmar, 1992). Research from another study cited possession theories as a basis for feelings of psychological ownership (Dittmar, 1992). The concept of possession is also applicable to work organizations, nonprofits, and small businesses. Dittmar (1992) argue that it is common for people to perceive possessions as an important aspect of the identification of self. Pierce et al.'s (2001) study identified control as being the motive of possession and surmised that whoever controls the object gets to determine the use of the object. Avey et al. (2009) suggested viewing psychological ownership through the lens of positive organizational behavior that focuses on accomplishments.

In a recent study, Brown & Zhu (2016) found that feelings of ownership and territorial behavior correlate to feelings of commitment to the organization and that ownership positively correlates with an individual's organizational commitment. Possession and other ownership feelings have also shown up in literature in small family-

owned businesses (Ikävalko, Pihkala, & Jussila, 2006; Van Dyne, & Pierce, 2004; Wagner, Parker, & Christensen, 2003).

Using a sample of 52 small family-owned businesses and 229 nonfamily employees, Bernard, & O'Driscoll (2011) looked at the relationship between owner-managers' leadership style and employees possessive ownership feelings for the family business and their job. Also examined was whether psychological ownership mediated the link between leadership style, employee attitudes, and behaviors. In that study, a hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) analysis confirmed transformational and transactional leadership as facilitators of psychological ownership for the family business and the job. Measurement of psychological ownership used a 7-item instrument developed by Pierce, Van Dyne, and Cummings (1992) and the 7- point Likert-type scale. Research findings indicate that family businesses can benefit from the recognition of the favorable effects of psychological ownership on individuals' attitudes and behaviors and that enhancing psychological ownership over the job and organization is a mechanism for motivating nonfamily employees.

Interest in possession and possessiveness has spurred interest in the positive benefits of possessive ownership feelings within organizations. Being well- informed of the origins of possession is essential to the comprehension of how people psychologically attach to objects.

Emergence of Psychological Ownership

The timeline. Pierce, Rubenfeld, & Morgan (1991) conducted a study to identify how a formal ownership system leads to the bonding of an employee-owner with the

organization. This system, subsequently identified as psychological ownership, was the impetus for additional studies on psychological ownership. Vandewalle, Van Dyne, & Kostova (1995) theorized that psychological ownership makes a difference in the behavior of organizational members. Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks (2001) identified psychological ownership as the mediating variable that played a role in share ownership and employee commitment, identified the roots and routes of psychological ownership, and introduced psychological ownership as a theory.

In a subsequent study, Pierce et al. (2003) explain why psychological ownership occurs and how it manifests within organizations. Pierce et al. (2003) also theorized that the driving forces of psychological ownerships are intra-individual motives such as efficacy, self-identity, and having a place to dwell. Through the integration of prior research from other disciplines such as social psychology, philosophy, psychology, management, and sociobiological theories, Pierce et al. (2003) combined the scholarly disciplines to form clarity on the subject matter of psychological ownership and possessive feelings that exist in organizations.

Van Dyne & Pierce (2004) built on the Pierce et al. (2003) psychological ownership theoretical framework through examination of employee work attitudes and work behaviors. Asatryan & Oh (2008) observed how customers form psychological ownership toward a company, and Avey et al. (2009) further defined and developed measurement instruments for psychological ownership. Han et al., 2010 conducted a study in Taiwan to explore the effect of employee participation in decision-making on employees' positive cognition and attitudes.

Ikävalko, Pihkala, & Kraus (2010) examined the role of owner-managers' psychological ownership in small and medium-sized enterprises. Liu, Wang, Hui, & Lee (2012) viewed the role of control within psychological ownership at an individual level, and Erkmen & Esen (2012) examined the relationship between internal locus of control and organizational commitment. Zhang, Nie, & Yan (2014) explored psychological ownership from a marketing perspective through examination of the mediating effects of psychological ownership on consumer behaviors, while Brown & Zhu (2016) viewed psychological ownership from a territoriality perspective in organizations.

A review of the studies. The focus of the Pierce, Rubenfeld, & Morgan (1991) study was to develop a model that illustrates and describes how employee ownership operates. Based on the premise that ownership is multidimensional, Pierce et al. (1991) integrated research on cooperatives, social ownership, and employee stock ownership plans to construct a model of employee ownership for use in the examination of the processes and outcomes of employee ownership relationships. The exploratory model explains one of the pathways through which employee ownership operates, and Pierce et al. (1991) argue that in certain situations formal ownership can lead to psychological ownership. A second finding of the Pierce et al. (1991) study was that psychological ownership correlates with high levels of motivation that will lead to an integration of the employee-owner into the organization and ownership experience. Although psychological ownership was not the focus of the study, findings of the study indicate psychological ownership is part of the formal ownership system that leads to bonding between the employee-owner and the organization.

Vandewalle, Dyne, & Kostova (1995) built on the works of Pierce et al. (1991) to devise a model of the consequences of psychological ownership and to demonstrate the relatedness of psychological ownership and extra-role behaviors. Vandewalle et al. (1995) surveyed 797 residents of university housing cooperatives, used the Pierce et al. (1992) 5-item instrument to measure psychological ownership, and mediated regression analysis to support the premise that organizational commitment was the common factor between psychological ownership and extra-role behavior. Research findings indicate that psychological ownership does make a difference in the behavior of organizational members in that psychological ownership can induce the willingness to contribute non-rewarded extra effort behaviors based primarily on a sense of responsibility linked to psychological ownership.

Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks (2001) used previous works on commitment, identification, internalization, possession, and ownership theories to form the foundation for a definition of psychological ownership in organizations. In the (2001) study, Pierce et al. point to the distinctiveness of psychological ownership from other constructs such as its conceptual core, motivational bases, rights, and responsibilities. Pierce et al. (2001) argue that the root of psychological ownership is possessiveness as opposed the root of commitment, which is the desire to remain affiliated, or the roots of internalization, which is shared goals or values. Pierce et al. (2001) developed a comprehensive theory of psychological ownership in organizations and identified the roots of psychological ownership to be feelings of possessiveness and ownership, and the routes of psychological ownership as intimacy, self-investment, and control of the object.

Although the roots and routes of psychological ownership are critical to a clearer understanding of psychological ownership, those aspects are beyond the scope of this research study and therefore not addressed in this study.

In a follow-up study on psychological ownership, Pierce et al. (2003) assimilate previous research of scholars from various disciplines (i.e., sub-disciplines of psychology, anthropology, sociology, child development, geography, philosophy, and organizational behavior) was examined with the purpose to develop one conceptual perspective on psychological ownership. This study did not have any data collected. The focus of the study was on antecedents and consequences of psychological ownership, and on moderating factors that are a consequence of psychological ownership. Pierce's et al. (2003) research study also determined that two elements of psychological ownership exist, the role and the routes of psychological ownership, and argue that these elements are essential to understanding the processes through which psychological ownership emerges. Findings of the study indicate that efficacy the power to influence, self-identity, and the need for having a place is the genesis from which psychological ownership begins. Pierce's et al. (2003) study recommends future theoretical development for particular types of situations, and fulfillment of the need for more empirical testing and research on psychological ownership.

Van Dyne & Pierce (2004) surveyed 800 employees from three different companies to measure psychological ownership, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational based self-esteem. Data included three convenience samples of field studies from various areas of the United States that

included employees ranging from clerical, office, supervisory, professional, and management jobs. The researchers used confirmatory factor analysis, and LISREL 8 to conduct nested model confirmatory factor analysis, to examine the homogeneity and dimensionality of ownership items, and to assess distinctiveness of psychological ownership for the organization relative to other constructs. Possession was the basis of the attitudinal measure of psychological ownership. Measurement of organizational commitment used six- items, and four- items were used to measure affective commitment.

To measure job satisfaction two items were used, and five-items were used to measure organization-based self-esteem. Research findings from the measurement of psychological ownership support homogeneity and uni-dimensionality of the psychological ownership measure. The following additional hypotheses were presented; psychological ownership will be positively related to organizational commitment; psychological ownership for the organization is positively related to job satisfaction; a positive relationship exists between psychological ownership for the organization and organization-based self-esteem, and a positive relationship exists between psychological ownership for the organization and performance. However, findings of the study did not support the hypothesis that psychological ownership is positively related to employee performance. Overall, findings presented suggest that psychological ownership for the organization provides additional steps toward explanations that lead to a full understanding of organizational citizenship.

In an exploratory study, Asatryan & Oh (2008) investigated relationship marketing behaviors and the consequences of psychologically committed relationships. All measurement items were on a 5-point Likert-type scale except for customer demographics and identification. Measurement of customer identification was on a 7-point and an 8-point scale and measured in verbal and visual forms. The verbal measured the degree to which the respondent's values were similar with those of the company. The visual measure, on an 8-point scale, reflected the respondent's own identity with the restaurant's identity. Measurement of internal consistency was by use of Cronbach's alpha. The researchers conducted two pretests to improve validity. A homogenous sample of 1255 individual faculty and staff members of a large university in the Midwest was used to test the hypotheses, and responses to the questionnaire were designed to test whether psychological ownership is positively related to word-of-mouth communication; willingness to pay more; customer participation; perceived control; and customer-company identification. The validity of the study was analyzed using confirmatory factor analysis with LISREL 8.5. The research findings supported all of the hypotheses except hypothesis 1, which proposed a positive relationship between perceived control and psychological ownership. The research findings of this study also suggest that when customers' sense of belonging and identification with the company's values increases, feelings of psychological ownership might generate specific behavioral outcomes such as competitive resistance and willingness to pay more.

Avey et al., (2009) picked up where Pierce et al. (2003) left off and conducted a study with a two-fold purpose. The first was to build upon the current method for

measurement of psychological ownership. The second purpose was to examine the effect of leadership in both promotion and preventative forms of psychological ownership. Avey et al. (2009) used a heterogeneous sample of 316 working adults from a cross-section of organizations in the United States to study leadership and motivation. Avey et al. (2009) also found that the extent to which one feels like the degree to which the individual has a sense of belonging, and the right to hold ones-self and others accountable reflect the owner of an object. Study measures were designed to measure psychological ownership, organizational commitment, knowledge sharing, and employee participation in decision-making (EPDM). Avey et al. (2009) utilized experts from an organizational behavior research group in conjunction with a review of the literature to generate a 16-item psychological ownership scale. Cronbach's alpha was used to measure internal consistency. Other results of the Avey et al. (2009) study indicate that individuals with a high need to control experience higher levels of psychological ownership.

Additionally found in the literature were management related studies on psychological ownership. Han et al. (2010) investigated the effect of employee participation in decision-making on employees' positive cognition and attitudes. Approximately 600 employees from eight high-tech companies in Taiwan responded to randomly distributed questionnaires, of which 239 were valid. Han et al. (2010) used a structural equation model to test the hypotheses. To ensure content validity, organizational behavior experts translated the questionnaires. Validity and stability were tested using confirmatory factor analysis. Knowledge sharing, employee participation in

decision-making, psychological ownership, and organizational commitment was measured.

The study included five hypotheses. Those hypotheses were; (1) a positive relationship exists between participation in decision-making and individuals' psychological ownership, (2) psychological ownership correlates with organizational commitment, (3) psychological ownership correlates with an individuals' knowledge-sharing behavior, (4) organizational commitment and individual knowledge-sharing behavior are correlated, and (5) organizational commitment mediates the relationship between psychological ownership and knowledge-sharing behavior. Research findings of the study support all of the hypotheses except number three, psychological ownership and individuals' knowledge-sharing behavior. Han et al. (2010) found that psychological ownership does not significantly affect individual knowledge sharing.

A second management related psychological ownership study focused on the role of owner-managers' psychological ownership in small and medium-sized enterprises (SME) strategic behaviors. The focus of the study was to explore the effect of the strong feelings of psychological ownership by owner-managers and to identify the possible implications it may have on strategic behavior decisions. Ikävalko et al. (2010) suggest that in the context of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) the theory of psychological ownership is applicable because owner-managers feel a personal attachment to their firms. This state of attachment can make entrepreneurs behave in certain ways about their businesses. In the study, Ikävalko collected data from 150 Finnish SMEs in South-East Finland. To measure psychological ownership researchers

used principal components analysis with Varimax-rotation used to discover the basic nominators between the measures. Findings from the analysis suggest the owner-managers self-conception in the company, namely the company, could be regarded as part of the owner-managers personality. Ikävalko et al. (2010) used a 4-item set of questions to measure industry change and the effect on (SME) managers. The findings of this study of small and medium-sized enterprises (SME's) Ikävalko, et al., (2012) suggests owner-managers might have strong feelings of psychological ownerships that influence their ability to manage the firm solely as an economic instrument. Additionally, Ikävalko et al. (2012) suggest the manner in which an entrepreneur relates to the company has a direct effect on the method chosen to develop or change the organization.

A third management related article, the first of three international studies found on psychological ownership, investigated the significance of control and its role in psychological ownership. Liu, Wang, Hui, & Lee (2012) built a control-based model of psychological ownership in a Chinese context, to test their theory that control over a work process gives the employees wide-ranging knowledge of the process and allows the employees to establish ownership of the process in the organization. Liu et al. (2012) also theorized individual-level control and unit-level control are both essential to the establishment of psychological ownership, and that encouragement of employees to play a part in decision-making may contribute to feelings of psychological ownership. Liu et al.(2012) collected data from two telecommunication firms in China, 105 supervisors, and their 284 direct employees. Psychological ownership was measured, power distance,

organization-based self-esteem, affective commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. To measure psychological ownership a 7-item scale developed by (Pierce et al. 2003)and Cronbach's alpha was used to test for validity. Power distance was measured using a six-item scale, and organizationally-based self-esteem was measured by a 10-item scale, and a 6-item scale was used to measure affective commitment, using Cronbach's alpha to test validity. Measurement of organizational citizenship behavior was measured with a 5-dimension scale that focused on discretionary behaviors. Conducted separately was supervisor and employee measurements, and LISREL 8 was used to conduct confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) to test the psychometric properties of the criterion, predicting, and moderating variables. The research findings of this study suggest psychological ownership mediates the relationships between participative decision-making and outcomes, and that a sense of ownership is an important component of individual contributions. Findings also suggest two ways two ways to facilitate the development of psychological ownership; (1) control the target through participative decision-making and (2) support the control with a self-managed team.

Erkmen & Esen's (2012) study in Turkey examined psychological ownership and its role between internal locus of control and organizational commitment. Using a convenience sample 166 information technology employees received questionnaires on the internet. The Allen and Meyer's (1990) 12-item organizational commitment scale, Rotter's (1966) 17-item locus of control scale, and Avey et al.'s (2009) 16-item psychological ownership scale were used to collect data. Research findings of this study

support the hypothesis that psychological ownership mediates the relationship between internal locus of control and organizational commitment.

Zang, Nie, and Yan's (2014) study explored psychological ownership from a consumer and marketing perspective, and examined the effect of network embeddedness on pro community behaviors. Zang et al.'s (2014) study findings hypothesized that psychological ownership would have a positive influence on members' intention to reject competitive brands, and would have a positive influence on members' intention to protect the relevant brand. Zang et al.'s (2014) study selected the online brand community of Meizu as its survey group. Meizu is comprised of more than 100,000 online members, but the data collected for this study represented 410 participants. Psychological ownership was measured using 5-item scales of Van Dyne and Pierce's (2004) and Baer and Brown's (2012). Convergent and discriminant validity (CFA) was analyzed with AMOS 20.0 software. The research findings of the study indicate that the when community members use the focal product, it creates a sense of self-identity and feelings of belongingness which are primary components of psychological ownership.

Brown and Zhu (2016) conducted a field study and surveyed 228 participants from10 medium-sized accounting, engineering, marketing, and transportation organizations to explore the outcomes of feelings of ownership and territoriality in organization workspaces. Brown and Zhu (2016) hypothesized that psychological ownership is positively associated with an individual's positive affect felt towards the territory and that territorial behavior is positively associated with an individual's positive affect felt towards the territory. To measure power, the participants completed a second

survey about their five closest co-workers in proximity to their workspace. Of the 228 questionnaires, at least three co-workers who were asked a single question to assess the co-worker's power, and four questions to assess their co-worker's performance rated 94 participants. A composite score was created for each rated individual and reliability was calculated for each variable based on the individual items. The purpose was to test the relationship between the independent variables of psychological ownership and territoriality and the dependent variables measuring coworker perceptions. Psychological ownership was measured using a 4-item scale (Vande Walle et al., 1995), and territoriality was measured with a 6-item scale Brown (2009). Affective commitment was measured using the affective dimension 7-item Likert type scale items (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Brown & Zhu's (2016) study also used items from the PANAS scale (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) to measure positive affect feelings toward one's workspace. The use of a 7-point Likert type scale and the ability to work with co-workers was the method used to measure performance. Findings of the study suggest feelings of ownership and territorial behavior may also extend beyond the intended targeted object.

Emergence of the Theory of Founder's Syndrome

Founder's syndrome follows the succession of ownership, possession, and psychological ownership concepts and theories. Scholars use the term founder's syndrome to describe mismanaged psychological ownership feelings of attachments that inhibit a founder's ability to make unbiased organizational decisions. The term founder's syndrome surfaced in a practitioner's field manual McNamara (1998) written on the topic

of nonprofit organization operations. McNamara (1998) described founder's syndrome as an organizational problem and wrote of the uncertainty of the origination of the term. Extensive research of the literature is void of any empirical research that used the term founder's syndrome before the Block & Rosenberg (2002) study. The term 'founderitis' was used in practitioner articles to describe founder behaviors, but I did not find 'founderitis' in the literature.

The theory of founder's syndrome introduced by Block & Rosenberg (2002) was founded without the benefit of the existence of prior research studies or available survey instruments that could be used to test and measure founder behavior. Founder's syndrome is the set of powers, privileges, and influences that only the founder holds or that others attribute to the founder, which may develop into an unhealthy method of controlling the organization. The Block and Rosenberg (2002) study was a response to the lack of empirical research in the literature. The design of the study was to confirm the forms of governance and management styles that exist in nonprofit organizations led by founders. The existence of founder's syndrome can affect leadership interactions between the founder and the organization's employees and volunteers (Block & Rosenberg, 2002). This study was the first to introduce founder's syndrome as a theory, based on empirical evidence compiled from survey responses from 302 executive directors, board chairs, and board members on forms of governance and management dynamics that exist in their respective nonprofit organizations.

In the study, Block and Rosenberg (2002) obtained a list of 5,825 names and addresses provided by the Colorado Association of Nonprofit Organizations, limiting the

sample to addresses within the city and county of Denver. Block and Rosenberg randomly selected a sample of 1,000 names and addresses from the Colorado Association list and sent each a four-page questionnaire. The final response rate was 302 respondents. Because this was the first empirical study on founder's syndrome and survey instruments did not exist, Block and Rosenberg developed a four-page, twenty-four-item questionnaire based on a pretested version.

Block and Rosenberg (2002) used a literature search for articles that addressed concepts of board performance, board member relationships, governance, and board practices for guidance in question development. Block and Rosenberg also included literature on group dynamics, small group decision-making, and social psychology. The literature on founder's syndrome reports that a founder's desire for control can impact decisions by founder's such as choice of leadership style, board selection, succession planning, or the type of governance model used (Block & Rosenberg, 2002).

The research findings of this study confirm that founders used their position to influence organizational direction, and may be responsible for holding back the potential growth of their nonprofits. Additional findings of the Block and Rosenberg (2002) study suggest that founder’s syndrome can affect both the founder’s leadership abilities and growth of the organization. In many instances Block and Rosenberg the leader will also be the founder and the one who holds key information, and that active founders may also affect other parts of the organization such as how other leadership members interface with each other and the founder. This factor may help explain why founders are

protective of the organization and may develop an unhealthy attachment to the organization (Block & Rosenberg, 2002).

A Canadian study by English & Peters (2011) extended Block's (2002) study by examination of perceptions of women leaders in nonprofit organizations. English et al. (2011) used narrative inquiry as a methodological framework to interview ten women from small organizations. Through stories, data collected from these ten women facilitated discovery of how the women had come to take leadership roles in community-based nonprofit organizations. Researchers identified and selected the women through organizational directories and snowball sampling. The sample included six different organizations from western Canada that included founders, volunteers, and employees affiliated with organizations that promoted feminine issues. Only one volunteer was a paid volunteer. Research findings of the English & Peters (2011) study indicate women's nonprofit organizations may be unaware of the impact of their leadership styles, or the consequences of homogenous choices for inclusion on boards and key leadership positions. The current study will extend knowledge of perceptions of volunteers and employees of the impact of leadership styles in nonprofit organizations. Before I move forward with more on the dynamics of leaders of nonprofit organizations, it is of equal importance that the dynamics of the evolution of nonprofit organizations and the foundation of the concept of ownership is established.

Nonprofit Origins

Evolution

Hall (2006) asserted that over 90% of the nonprofit organizations that exist today emerged after the 1950s. Hall noted that other than the fact that earlier nonprofit sectors, which includes voluntary associations, were self-governed and had governing boards, the actual practices did not bear much of resemblance to the current nonprofit sector. During the colonial period, it was unclear of the distinction between the public and private charities. Hall's makes the point that clergymen governed the early colleges supported by the government (i.e., Harvard, William & Mary, and Yale) founded during the colonial period. Hall's perspective also points to the fact that volunteers, corporations, trusts, and philanthropists, provided public service needs such as the building and maintenance of roads, and protection of the villages and towns from militias. Hall's study noted that taxation supported religious congregations and citizens often used service work to pay off tax debts. Hall's (2006) study indicates that the elements, ideas, institutions, and foundational aspects that prefaced growth of the nonprofit sector influenced the structure of nonprofit organizations, as they exist today. Hall asserted that many different types of nonprofit organizations exist. The Internal Revenue Code classifies nonprofit organizations (i.e., 501 (c) (3) charitable tax-exemption or as a 501 (c) (4) no deductibility of donations) and has created political controversy with legislators and the public. Hall's historical perspective breaks down the advancements of nonprofit organizations in the United States and provides a timeline of the nonprofit sector that begins with the colonial period of 1600 – 1701 in the United States.

In the colonial period, there lacked clear separation of public and private agencies, and for the most part, Americans distrusted voluntary associations and private charities (Hall, 2006). Fueled by the influx of Europeans in the 1830s, Hall (2006) wrote of the impact of the transition of people moving to the United States. Additionally, the increased participation in voluntary associations, churches, and charitable organizations played important roles in the formation of charities in the United States. Hall suggests that the increased growth affected voluntary associations because of religious toleration in America. The growth of the number of churches and the freedom to form and support an individual's congregation were other factors that contributed to the rapid increase of voluntary associations. Hall's historical research points to one of the earliest challenges to tax exemptions, and argues that religious dissenters should receive the same exemption from taxation as the churches.

Hall (2006) also wrote that it was during the early nineteenth century that voluntary associations began to merge with state and local chapters. These mergers changed the structure of volunteer organizations and increased its ability to affect policy and social movements that promoted reform. Churches organized themselves into national organizations that supported educational and charitable endeavors, developed domestic and foreign mission services, and became the preferred method to push social agendas and promote reform. Hall maintains that during the Civil War (1861-1865), volunteers, private charities, and associations had prominent roles in the Civil War that propelled advancement of charitable donations. Mobilization of groups of people to raise funds, make clothing, bandages, and otherwise support military needs became the norm.

Women were also involved in these efforts and conducted activities such as quilting, rummage sales, bake sales, and tea luncheons to raise money for the charitable purpose of assistance to families of soldiers at war and the soldiers themselves.

The Significance of Women as Contributors

Historical studies describe the significant role of women in the early formation of nonprofit organizations as an important advancement for society (McCarthy, 1991). McCarthy (1991) wrote that women, determined by their quest to help the less fortunate, and women and children, formed groups and organizations for fundraising purposes. Benevolent societies and other types of women's associations were ways in which women gained entry into the workforce. McCarthy (1991) suggests that the middle-class women sought outlets that allowed them to engage in the existing political activities of equity, moral reform, and the women's suffrage movement.

McCarthy (1994) argues that despite this increased leadership participation, women were still largely subordinate to men that held the financial and decisive powers. Although opportunities for educated middle-class women were limited, career prospects did exist. Through employment, benevolent societies and other separatist organizations afforded women the opportunity to work and participate in social reform movements. Those movements spurred new career paths in nonprofit environments such as teaching, social work, and nursing. It was within these settings that women eventually participated on governance boards or held staff positions in organizations, allowing them to be involved in organizational decision-making processes. Norris-Tirrell (2014) wrote that community-based organizations and charities are not new phenomenon's, and existed in

the colonial period. Community-based organizations were instrumental in the initiation of advocacy and influence in nonprofit public policy issues.

Twentieth Century

Role of women founders. Researchers at Indiana University (WPICP) examined the role of women in nonprofit organizations. The WPICP's wrote of how in the first 150 years of the Republic women sought ways to become inclusive in their society through the promotion of social change in issues such as conditions for women prisoners, abolition, expansion of education, care of widows and children, and health issues. The WPICP's (2010) historical documentation provides perspectives on the history of women in volunteer work and philanthropy. In the period of (the 1790s), a time when women could not vote or hold office, through charitable endeavors women began to form groups and volunteer in activities for the benefit of others (WPICP, 2010).

(Harris (1970) wrote (*The Economics of Harvard*) of the first philanthropic exchange by a woman in this country woman named Lady Ann Radcliff Moulson, who contributed Ł100 to Harvard College for a scholarship to aid poor scholars. The wealth of Lady Moulson came as the result of the death of her husband, which afforded Lady Moulson one of the few opportunities of that era for a woman to establish and lead a charity.

The passage of the Married Women's Property Act (WPICP, 2010) in 1848 in New York, opened more opportunities for women to have access to money. The Act allowed women to establish nonprofit organizations whereas formerly, women worked for nonprofit organizations owned or led by men. There are many other examples of how women became the force behind volunteer and charitable endeavors. Freedman, (1979)

wrote of the 18th-century era when the Society for the Relief of Poor Widows with Small Children formed the first female-controlled charity was founded by Isabella Graham, Elizabeth Seton, and 15 other women. The organization focused on public policy issues such as women children's issues.

Cullen-DuPont (2002) wrote of the development of women as philanthropists in the 19th century as the footsteps of contemporary women philanthropists. Mary Elizabeth Garrett donated the balance needed to complete the new medical school at Johns Hopkins University in 1893, conditional upon the university agreeing to admit women on the same basis as men. Sophia Smith left instructions in her will to provide for the founding of Smith College which opened its doors to 14 female students in 1875 (WPICP, 2010).

Role of African American women. WPICP's (2010) historical perspective into the 19th century also gives attention to the role of African American and other middle-class and working-class women. Although Caucasian women and African American women usually worked separately, the 19th century afforded more time for women to engage in volunteer endeavors due to the growth of urbanization, mass production, and access to education. The Civil War and its aftermath were instrumental in women working in nonprofit organizations. The African American women's clubs developed in the last half of the 19th century provided services throughout their communities. Typically, African American women created their organizations when excluded by Caucasian women. In today's nonprofit sector, evidence of exclusion and advancements for African American women still exists.

Adesaogun, Flottemesch, & Ibrahim-DeVries' (2015) study used an ethnographic approach, participant observation, surveys, and semistructured interviews to explore the experiences of 30 African American women in the nonprofit field in Minnesota. Identification of potential participants was through LinkedIn, Facebook, About.me, and email. The researchers used e-mail surveys and semistructured interviews to obtain data from participants about their experiences working in the nonprofit field. The interviews were audio recorded and did not identify interviewees by name, location, or nonprofit organization. Survey respondents agreed that their current work position reflected their level of education and experience, but most felt that their compensation was not adequate.

In the interviews, African American employees made a point of communicating with each other even if they were in other departments. Most of the black participants identified which Caucasian women in management level supervisors were dangerous, and which two employees of color to avoid, explaining they were cultural sell-outs. African American women reverted to African-American Vernacular English (AAVE) when discussions of racial issues were in the presence of employees who were not African American. Study participants perceptions of their positions within area nonprofits influenced how they chose to navigate the existing power structure, and induced feelings of the need for self-preservation.

Challenges identified by study participants that affect upward mobility in their nonprofit careers included pressure to commit unethical acts, how to navigate racism and discrimination within their respective nonprofit organizations. Every participant

discussed her experience with being a mid-level employee and working side by side with persons of non-color. Still, others described maltreatment from the hands of Caucasian women in nonprofit leadership positions. Strategic tools were, "be present and stay aware," seek mentorship and consult, consider your path, and be proactive.

Schwartz, Weinberg, Hagenbuch, & Scott (2012) conducted a study on perceptions of diversity in the workplace, which shares the views of nonprofit employees on diversity and inclusion. Schwertz et al. (2012) write of the gap between diversity and inclusion in the nonprofit sector. Schwertz et al. (2012) describe how candidates and employees consider the lack of diversity of senior management teams to be reflective of the nonprofit sector's lack of commitment to inclusion of people color in positions of leadership. Further discussion is beyond the scope of this study.

Twenty-first century. Salamon (2012) describes today's nonprofit organizations as central parts of the American culture and as voices of advocacy for those with little or no voice. The (BLS 2015) indicates that the number of nonprofit establishments, nonprofit employment, and total annual wages, increased by 8.5 percent from 2007 through 2012). Nonprofit organizations are highly regarded entities in the United States (Hall, 2016; Salamon, 2012). Salamon (2012) wrote that nonprofit organizations promote civic engagement, social justice, and the empowerment of communities to initiate programs and to self-advocate for services. The NCCS (2012) estimates that nonprofit organizations contribute $887.3 billion to the U.S. economy, and reports that the nonprofit sector accounted for 11.4 million jobs in the United States, which denotes 10.3 percent of the overall workforce.

Women represented 46.8 percent of the United States workforce and held 14.4 percent of senior executive positions in Fortune 500 corporations (Chandler, 2011). Conversely, within this historically female-dominated nonprofit sector, women represent 73 percent of the overall nonprofit workforce. Also, women represent 45 percent of the CEOs for nonprofit organizations with budgets under $25M (ABC, 2009; BLS, 2015; Pynes, 2016). Nonprofit organizations accounted for more than 11.4M jobs in 2014 (BLS, 2014). Also, an estimated 62.8 million adults (25.3 percent of the U.S. population) volunteered in 2014 at least once (NCCS, 2015). Statistics of NCCS (2015) indicate that in the United States there are over 1.41M registered nonprofit organization and that the nonprofit sector contributes more than $905B to the U.S. economy, which represents 5.4 percent of the Gross Domestic Product. Volunteers are a major resource for the nonprofit sector and contribute 8.7B volunteer hours with an approximate value of $179.2B.

Why Founders Create Nonprofit Organizations

Carman & Nesbit (2012) examined the dynamics associated with the founding of new nonprofit organizations and the roles of the boards of directors. The Business Master File from the National Center for Charitable Statistics (2009) was used as the sampling frame because it housed descriptive information for active 501 (c) (3) organizations registered with the IRS, and allowed for the inclusion of smaller nonprofit organizations exempt from filing the IRS 990. Researchers identified 231 nonprofit organizations from which sixty-nine organizations was excluded, forty-four religious and spiritual development organizations and twenty-five philanthropic and grant-making

organizations. Those exclusions were due to the regulatory content that was different from the other types of nonprofit organizations.

Data were collected from a random sample of half (81) of the remaining 161 nonprofits in Charlotte, North Carolina and surrounding counties, and those that had revenues of less than $50,000 annually. The Business Master File, internet, and directory searches were used to establish contact information. The interview process mandated the recording and transcription of the interviews. Content analysis was used to identify patterns of content and frequencies of pre-established codes and identification of themes and findings. A systematic evaluation of documents and oral communications resulted in the transform qualitative data into qualitative data. Participants responded to queries on why they elected to create a new organization, why they chose to become a nonprofit organization, the extent of their knowledge of boards, and whether or not they collaborated with others. Data were analyzed to assess contradictions and to support four hypotheses. Those hypotheses were that (1) new nonprofit organizations are created in response to government failure, market failure, contract failure, or in response to emotional needs of a founder.

Research findings suggest that first, founders created new nonprofit organizations based on their specific, personal experiences, and in many cases without a formal study or needs assessment. Second, nonprofit organizations operate in isolation. Third, capacity is usually an issue because volunteers or a limited staff manage most small organizations. Due to a large number of nonprofit organizations entering the field annually, competition and sustainability make it difficult for the smaller organization to

compete. Additional findings of the study suggest many small nonprofit organizations created by founders had little input, support, or demand from other members in the community. These organizations did not have active or engaged boards, did not rely on volunteers, and did not collaborate with other organizations in the community. More than half of the founders in the study stated that they created their organization to make a living.

Child, Witesman, & Braudt (2015) used an online membership directory of 300 organizations that they stratified by sector. Child et al. (2015) randomly sampled 35 nonprofits and 35 for-profits and conducted phone interviews. Semistructured interviews with 45 founders (22 nonprofits and 23 for-profits) selected from a master list of online organizations were used to examine why entrepreneurs choose to establish a nonprofit organization as opposed to a for-profit organization when both options are available. On average, each interview lasted 51 minutes, for which an interview guide with open-ended questions was used to guide the conversations.

The analytic process focused on identification of core themes. The data was reviewed using a coding guide such as market failure, government regulations, and philanthropic support. Child et al. (2015) coded groups of interview transcripts at a time, with discussions and further refinement and revisions to the coding guides. The researchers used visual, conceptual diagrams to establish clarity and to represent how the themes related to each other. Analytic matrices provided clarity on patterned themes across cases. Research findings suggest that entrepreneurs are motivated by instrumental, expressive, relational, and historical factors when making an institution decision choice.

Child et al. (2015) propose that these four dimensions may be the key drivers in selection between nonprofit and for-profit organizational forms, but call for additional research to substantiate their findings.

Role of Founder in Shaping Organizational Culture

Beck, Lengnick-Hall, & Lengnick-Hall (2008) explored the feasibility of the transference of business techniques developed for large for-profit organizations to small nonprofit organizations. Additionally, Beck et al. (2008) examined whether a bundle of techniques or perspectives were viable options. Beck et al.'s (2008) study used a critical participatory ethnography that interviewed 33 employees of a small mid-western organization that provides services to 2500 people with disabilities. Over a ten-month period, Beck et al. (2008) interviewed the executive director, management staff, volunteers and paid employees of the organization. Beginning with the organizations own articulated and well documented mission, Beck et al. (2008) hypothesized that due to the nature of the organization's small size and its level of commitment would mean the organization would have informal processes and high levels of collaboration within the organization. Finally, Beck et al. (2008) expected to find a unitary culture focused on service to each other as well as to its clients.

Methods of data collection used were open-ended interviews, observation of meetings during the data collection period, a review of organizational documents including the strategic budget plan, and other policy and procedure manuals. Researchers also conducted on-site observations of activities. The Work Environment Scale (Moos and Billings, 199) and the Organizational Culture Profile (O'Reilly, Chatman, &

Caldwell, 1991) were the two survey instruments used to collect data about the organization's climate and culture.

Survey data revealed the organization lacked a shared culture, and that the mission appeared to be open to interpretation by the employees and volunteers. Additionally, an overall lack of awareness by the board of directors of internal operations, and evidence of the presence of a hierarchical organizational structure was prevalent. Beck et al.'s study (2008) also found lack of cooperation within the organization and out-group and in-group distinctions. Research findings also suggest that the transferability of management techniques requires an appreciation for the surrounding factors. Although the intended outcomes of the state organizational activities are documented, the organization lacked the infrastructure to expand or see to it that those activities were executed.

McIntyre Hall, L., & Kennedy, S. S. (2008) examined 111 community-based organizations to determine the organizational characteristics related to accountability and program outcomes that will promote organizational culture. The focus was on organizations that received grant funds from the Catholic Campaign for Human Development (CCHD) from 2001 to 2004. Respondents included executive directors of organizations from 36 states and Puerto Rico. The data collection method included a pre-survey announcement and endorsement, a survey by e-mail, and telephone calls.

The variables were scored on a 4-point scale. The dependent variable was achieve program goals. Clarity of mission, legal compliance, the characteristics of the board of director, personnel management, strategic plan, and fiscal were the independent

variables. Construct validity was checked twice by examination of their relationship to variables of theoretical interest. Cronbach's alpha was used to test reliability. The number of questions for each subtopic varied. Clarity of mission had three questions, the board of directors had five questions, and personnel management was measured using 22 variables on recruitment and training, management procedures and protocols, decision-making, internal communication, and dispute resolution. Participants were asked to grade their planning process and to evaluate the rigor and utility of their strategic plan. The survey had eight questions regarding fiscal health, funding streams, financial indicators, and financial management. Respondents had to rate on a 4-point scale two groups of questions. The evaluation was based on multiple variables such as obtaining adequate information for financial evaluation, the anticipation of financial needs, obtaining funding or other financial resources, financial management, and accounting. In the second group of questions, respondents were asked to report changes in the financial indicators of total revenues, total expenditures, total assets, and total liabilities. The researchers also analyzed the responses of nonprofit organizations with networks or formal collaborations to a series of 14 questions on various dimensions of cooperation and collaborations. Respondents were also asked to identify, explain, and evaluate relationships with other organizations including the rationale for the selection of collaborations and why they chose that particular organization.

Research findings indicate that clarity of mission was significantly related to achieving program goals and that ninety-five percent of the CCHD groups had written governance policies or bylaws. Research findings indicate clarity of mission was

significantly related to achieving program goals, and that ninety-five percent of the CCHD groups had written governance policies or bylaws.

Harrison & Murray (2012) explored organizational culture through an examination of 10 CEOs and eleven members of nonprofit boards in the Seattle and Victoria regions. The two-part study focused on the impact of board chairs and general leadership characteristics of effective and less effective chairs. The data, collected in two phases over a two-year period, was collected using various nonprobability sampling techniques in different regions and countries. The design of Phase I used in-depth interviews with a group of 10-experienced nonprofit organization CEOs and eleven board members from Seattle and Victoria regions. The purpose of Phase I was to answer the research questions (1) What is the extent to which board chairs had an impact and (2) the identification of characteristics of an effective chairperson. Phase II utilized a seven-question online survey that was disseminated to nonprofit networks in Canada and the United States known to me. The participants, recruited using the snowball sampling technique, reported their observations of exceptional chairs with whom they have interacted.

Phase I asked respondents to recall the most effective and least effective board chairs they had ever known. Additionally, the respondents were asked a series of questions to explore their perceptions of what characteristics distinguished the effective from less effective chairs, and the impact of these chairs on their boards, CEOs, external stakeholder support, and organizations. Findings of Phase I indicated all respondents agreed that the behavior of board chairs could be influential and could have an impact on

leadership capacity, the effectiveness of the CEO, and affect the capability of the organization in achieving its missions and goals. Those perceived as ineffective leaders were thought to be problematic for the board and organization. The general characteristics included being proactive, held focused meetings, placed high-quality people on the board, and improved relations with existing or potential partners.

Phase II used a seventeen question online survey to capture characteristics associated with perceptions of effective chairs and perceived impacts. The questionnaire took 10 minutes and was distributed to throughout nonprofit networks in Canada and the United States using third-party networks. The data shows that survey respondents were experienced observers of board chairs. Perceptions of board chairs were obtained from the diversity of roles in which board chairs served and from a variety of organizations and environments. Findings of the study indicate that yes, board chairs do have an impact on the leadership capacity of the board and that the behavior of board chair could be influential. Responses to the questions of the specific characteristics of effective and less effective chairs suggest that effective chairs were perceived as proactive, committed to the mission, charismatic, and extroverted.

Phase II tested the validity of Phase I findings with a questionnaire completed by a more diverse sample of nonprofit respondents. Phase 1 of the study identified characteristics of the most exceptional board chair. Respondents in Phase 2 of the study were asked to use the characteristics described in the first part of the study and to apply those characteristics to the exceptional chairs for which they had worked. The most frequent observation of exceptional board chairs was 10 percent. Respondents used a 7-

point scale to indicate their perception that board chairs have the most impact on board performance. Two variables in the bivariate correlation failed to achieve some level of significance. Clarity of mission was the most significant characteristic in predicting the likelihood that an organization will achieve its program goals. Effective personnel management procedures and strategic planning process have a positive influence on a group's ability to reach its mission goals. The results of having both a well-functioning board and good fiscal health did not seem to be the norm, but was significant in the analysis. Research findings indicate the model is a useful tool to predict whether an organization can attain its mission goals. Leaders who are good at development of an environment conducive to collaboration are more effective than those who do not.

Allen, Smith, & Da Silva's (2013) study approached organizational culture through its research exploration of transformational leaders. The study explored whether transformational leaders are more likely than transactional leaders to lead in a way that employees think their organization is ready for change Allen et al., (2013) interviewed members of six Presbyterian churches on the West Coast. Surveys were used to measure leadership style, the psychological climate for organizational change readiness, and the psychological climate for organizational creativity. The psychological climate was measured using nine items from Daley (1991) in which participants responded to a five-point Likert-type response in the multi-factor leadership questionnaire (MLQ). Psychological climate for organizational creativity was assessed using six items adapted for congregational use from Farmer, Tierney, and Kung-McIntyre (2003), in which participants responded using the same five-point Likert scale as the MLQ. Research

findings suggest there is no significant relationship between transactional leadership style and psychological climate for organizational change readiness. Additionally, transformational leadership is positively related to psychological climate for organizational creativity.

Desmidt & George's (2018) study focused on the promotion of an organization's values and future by an employees' supervisor or top management person. The study also focused on whether an organization's values are positively related with employee mission valence through its influence on public service motivation, work impact, and goal clarity. Non-managerial employees (585) of a Belgian social welfare organization responded to an email online questionnaire consisting of 46 items. Items were measured using a 7-point Likert scales ranging from totally disagree to agree. Mission attraction, which reflects employee perception, was measured using a two-item indicator adapted by Wright, Moynihan, & Pandey (2012), which reflects an employee's perceptions of the attractiveness or salience of an organization's purpose or social contribution. Goal clarity was measured using a three-item scale. Rainey (1983), PSM measured using a 40-item scale representing affective motives. Univariate and bivariate analysis were used for the study's measures. A latent variable model was used to test the hypothesized relationships among the constructs. Findings of the study indicate that public service motivation, goal clarity, and work impact mediate to some degree the relationship between top management team and mission attractiveness. Additionally, the results indicate including the effect of organizational socialization agents helps to gain insight in those pushing mission attractiveness. Finally, the model suggests that employees who report higher

levels of co-worker communication report higher levels of goal clarity and perceived work impact.

Olinske, & Hellman's (2017) study examined the effect of the relationship as perceived interference or enhancement, well-being, exhaustion, and disengagement between the board of directors and the executive director of human service organizations. A web-based link to the survey with an explanation message that was electronically mailed to a sample of 300 nonprofit human service organization executive directors located in the southern plains of the United States.

While 181 executives agreed to participate, only 140 participants responded. Statistical analyses were computed using version 19.0 of IBM SPSS software. Cronbach's Alpha was used to test reliability. The correlations were tested at the one-tail with statistical significance criteria set at the .05 type I error rate. The Medical Outcomes Survey-Short Form 20 for mental health and health perception was used to assess well-being. Mental health was measured by use of a 5-item scale. Board interference was measured with 10-items. Board enhancement was measured with 7-items based on the Family-to-Work Interference Scale. Board enhancement was measured with 7-items based on the Family-to-Work Enhancement Scale, and assessments made of exhaustion and disengagement.

Conceptual and empirical models for disengagement and exhaustion support the findings of this study. Board interference is related to higher mental health dysfunction and more-negative health perceptions and is related to higher disengagement and exhaustion. Researchers also determined board enhancement is shown to be related to

lower mental health dysfunction. Conceptual and empirical models for withdrawal and fatigue support the findings of this study.

Role of Employees

McDermott, Heffernan, & Beynon's (2013) study examined the nature of employment matters in the working relationship to explore the relationship between psychological contracts, organizational commitment, and job characteristics among paid employees in a nonprofit organization. Survey responses were from 428 paid employees of an Irish non-profit organization that provide services to individuals with disabilities and their families. In the McDermott, Heffernan, & Beynon's exploratory study, the Mowday, Lyman, & Steers (1979) 15-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire is used to measure organizational commitment. McDermott et al. (2013) adopted a composite approach developed by Coyle-Shapiro, & Kessler (2000) as the scale to measure psychological contract breach. Responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale, and the principal component factor analysis was used with varimax rotation. Cronbach's alpha was used to test for validity. McDermott et al. (2013) used fuzzy *c*-means clustering as the data analysis technique to discern patterns within groups of this type of data in which employees can display combinations of relational, transactional, and training psychological contract factors. The hypotheses were tested using two analytic strategies: (1) cluster validation, assessment of the cluster's relationship with organizational commitment, and (2) cluster profiling, to illuminate the characteristics of the employees associated with each cluster.

Findings of the study suggest the potential importance of values enactment within the work role of employees in nonprofit organizations. The nature of the work role influence the psychological contract and employment experience of the employee. Higher levels of fulfilled creativity and innovation positively associated with desirable employee outcomes. Focus on issues of employment relationships and maintenance of employees' psychological contracts can decrease perceived psychological contract breach and increase commitment levels.

Word & Carpenter's (2013) study examined how a nonprofit organization's history and culture affect and shape the motivation of workers. Wood & Carpenter (2013) used a structural equation model (SEM) and the software package AMOS 17 to test the theorized model. An online survey developed by the Caster Family Center for Nonprofit and Philanthropic Research at the University of San Diego was distributed to 408 nonprofit sector workers from California, Minnesota, and Oregon. Wood & Carpenter (2013) used open-ended questions and a modified version of Perry's Public Service Motivation (PSM) scale to examine the level of service motivation of the nonprofit employees surveyed. Survey questions included 35 multiple choice questions with a yes or no rating scale. The questions covered areas such as attraction to the current job, benefits, career strategies, and job resources. All items focused on three constructs: compassion, commitment to community service, and self-sacrifice. Results of the analysis suggest that despite the lack of diversity in the nonprofit sector, ethnic minorities are more motivated by intrinsic rewards than their Caucasian women counterparts in the sector are. In addition, individuals who are involved in multiple ways

in the organization exhibit higher levels of nonprofit service motivation than those employed solely in one role and are not involved in another capacity. Finally, findings suggest a strong positive relationship between those that identified mission as their primary reason for selecting their current job and nonprofit service motivation.

Selander's (2015) study uses an extended job demand-resources model (JD-R) in a survey conducted with 1412 Finnish nonprofit employees designed to measure work engagement of nonprofit organizations employees. Data for this study was collected in Finland through Internet and postal surveys. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was used to measure work engagement. The UWES questionnaire has nine items, and the response scale is rated on a 7-point frequency-based scale. Cronbach's alpha was used to test validity. Job demands were measured using three variables; time demands, the unpredictability of work, and employment security. Respondents were asked six questions regarding job control, seven statements on social support from supervisors, and two questions on social support from colleagues. Employees' ideological orientation to work is analyzed based on public service motivation and value congruence. Means comparisons and variance analysis were used to compare wages of nonprofit organization employees to employees generally in the work engagement studies. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to examine the connection between background variables, job demands, job resources, and employees' motivation to work for work engagement. Measurement of work engagement was by way of the validated Finnish version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. The scale consisted of

nine items. The response scale was rated on a 7-point frequency-based scale, using the Cronbach alpha to test validity.

Findings of the study suggest the third-sector operating environment support employees' high work engagement and ideological orientation to work and public service motivation. In addition, Selander's (2015) study found that third-sector employees' work engagement also stems from time demands, the unpredictability of work, and employment insecurity, all of which may decrease work engagement. Job control and social support were considered, and are statistically significant and related to work engagement. Employees who received support and encouragement from their supervisors Selander (2015) had higher levels of work engagement among employees who received little or no support.

Vardaman, Allen, Otondo, Hancock, Shore, & Rogers's (2016) study examines the role of positive organizational support (POS) with a survey of employee attitudes behaviors, organizational commitment, and retention. The sample consists of 342 service workers in 82 work units of a large hospitality company in the United States. The researchers collected data twice during the study. The first collection of data focused on data related to occupation and demographics. The second data collection process focused on organizational commitment. Vardaman et al. (2016) measured for perceived organizational support using a five-point Likert-type scale adopted from Eisenberger's et al., (1997) short form measure of POS. Vardaman (2016) measured organizational commitment with five items on a five-point Likert-type scale, adopted from the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. Retention behavior was collected from

organizational records. Dummy variables were used to measure control variables. Results of the analysis of the relationships among POS comparisons and commitment show that favorable comparisons positively predict individual commitment. Retention behavior was significantly correlated with POS and commitment. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to examine the distinctiveness of the commitment and POS measures.

Research findings suggest that perceived organizational support is significantly associated with commitment and social comparisons, and with longer retention. This finding suggests that individualized support may be more effective than support received by peer groups. Finally, the research findings suggest that socially responsible organizations may have supportive employee wellness and well-being.

Role of Volunteers

Salomon, Sokolowski, & Haddock's (2011) study developed a methodology for measurement of the macro-economic value of volunteer work and a tool to use to assess the economic value of the work of volunteers. Salamon et al. (2011) used survey data from several global countries (i.e., US, Australia, Canada, Asia, and Africa) to develop global estimates of the number of hours volunteered in 182 countries. The measurement of the work of direct volunteers was conducted using Time Use Surveys (TUS) from 26 countries to identify the respective region from which the volunteer work was contributed. Salamon et al., (2011) separately developed organization-based and direct volunteering estimates to generate the economic value of volunteers at a global level.

Salamon et al. (2011) used a regression equation to project the results of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project to 139 other countries.

The research findings of this study suggest that globally, volunteer workers are a significant part of a widely dispersed workforce, and represent a large economic force. Results of this study effectively closed some of the deficiencies that prohibited accurate measurement of volunteer work in many places, which impedes society's ability to measure, manage, and make effective use of human resources. Also, the lack of ability to measure volunteer efforts lessens knowledge and appreciation of the contributions and full value of the impact of volunteers. This study closes the gap of measurement tools for the volunteer activity and provides a systematic way to use comparative data to measure volunteer activities.

Stirling et al.'s (2011) study found that the manner in which volunteers view their experience at an organization will influence their tenure with the organization and will affect the organization's recruitment and retention abilities. Researchers used the local standard telephone directory to identify organizations for the study, the Australian website, and media advertisements to attract organizations for participation in the study. The study examined 67 volunteers and volunteer coordinators/administrators, in conjunction with survey responses from 152 mailed surveys to volunteer organizations. A semistructured recorded interview of both paid and unpaid volunteer workers was used in three Australian towns. Data was developed from information supplied by the Volunteering Tasmania, Australia organization.

Stirling et al.'s (2011) study conducted taped interviews and thematic analysis, peer debriefings and exploration of rival explanations. Frequencies of answers were tested against management variables from the survey to test for association between the dependent variable of the available supply of volunteers and the independent variables. A sequential exploratory design and twelve of Brudney's (1999) list of management practice items in the survey of Australia volunteer organizations was used to evaluate the degree to which those activities were carried out in Australian organizations. Measurement for sustainability included questions regarding the existence of an available supply of volunteers for recruitment and retention.

Analyses on the management variables included frequencies, bivariate and multivariate analyses, as well as a series of individual cross tabulations. Accessibility was measured using the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia (ARIA) GISCA 2000 categories. Dummy variables from existing data were created with the reference categories that reflected the probability of attraction, retention, and sustainability of volunteers.

The research findings of the study suggest that volunteers prefer to physically work on tasks that will keep the organization in operation, and that relational management, feelings of appreciation, and recognition are important expectations of volunteers. Stirling's et al.'s (2011) study also found that volunteers dislike the formality of policies, procedures, and other bureaucratic demands.

Hager& Brudney's (2011) study explores the relationships among strategic organizational arrangement, volunteer management practices, and organizational

outcomes. Survey data for this study comes was collected from 2,993 U.S. public charities that filed the IRS Form 990 in 2000 and used in conjunction with telephone interviews conducted by Princeton Survey Research International (PSRAI). The second set of calls was made to arrange for twenty-minute interviews. Board members were excluded. Study results are based on 1,361 sampled nonprofits that engage volunteers. The dependent variable is recruitment problems. The measurement of a recruitment problem incorporates three elements: (1) the recruitment of a sufficient number of volunteers, (2) the issues of recruitment of volunteers with the right skills and expertise, and (3) recruitment of volunteers available during the workday. Numerical values are assigned based on how individual assessed whether a problem was small, large or not a problem at all. Size of the organization was measured by the total expenditures reported in the sampling year. Age of volunteers is measured by asking respondents to estimate the percentage of organizational volunteers under age 24. Staff focus is calculated by dividing the reported number of paid staff members by the reported number of volunteers over the past twelve months. Volunteer intensiveness was constructed from a property space analysis, and some duties were calculated from a series of questions about the tasks that volunteers perform in the organization studied. Regression models were used to test the relationships between combinations of independent variables and the summative measure of recruitment problems.

Research findings suggest that while some nonprofit organizations have trouble in the recruitment of volunteers and others appear to have few problems, recruitment problems may not always be directly amenable to the management skills of volunteer

resource managers. Finally, findings of this study recommend nonprofit organizations study the methods most likely to work for their organization.

Boezeman & Ellemers (2014) study introduced and tested an identity-based model of volunteer leadership. This two-part study examines the types of behaviors and characteristics of leaders promote pride and respect among volunteers. Bozeman & Ellemers predicted the following hypothesis: Among volunteers, leader communication about the effectiveness of the volunteer work correlated directly and positively with pride in the organization, and indirectly and positively with identification with the non-profit organization through pride.

Bozeman & Ellemers study also predicted that among volunteers, leader support correlates directly and positively with respect from the leader, indirectly and positively with identification with the organization, and with satisfaction with the leadership through respect. The final hypothesis is that among volunteers, perceived leader encouragement for expressing ideas correlated directly and positively with respect from the leader, and indirectly and positively with identification with the organization and satisfaction with the management through respect.

Through advertisements and social network recruitment, 109 volunteers from an assortment of nonprofit organizations completed usable questionnaires. In Part 1 of the study, participants were tested for whether specific behaviors were related to pride and respect. Participants were recruited from advertisements and social media. Questionnaires from the 109 volunteers were completed. The questionnaires were analyzed EQS 6.1 multivariate software program. Slightly altering scales from existing

instruments, a 3-item scale (Bozeman & Ellemers, 2007) was used to measure leader communication about volunteer work effectiveness and pride, and a 3-item scale was used to measure leader support during volunteer work. Bozemen & Ellemers (2017) study used a 2-item scale to assess the satisfaction of the participants with leadership, and for how well the volunteer gets along with management. The scale of Mael and Ashforth (1992) was used to measure identification with the organization. Confirmatory factor analysis showed that the items clustered as intended and that the 6-factor model fitted the data well. Researchers also tested alternative measure models against the hypothesized measurement factor model, and then checked for method variance effects. A monetary value was assigned to the estimated number of hours based on wage data from the International Labour Organization (ILO) to explore the economic value of volunteering and the number of volunteers.

In Chapter 2, I shared several important research studies that measured commitment, the macro-economic value of volunteers, roles of founder, volunteers, and employees, management practices, organizational outcomes, retention, and perceptions of volunteers. Current literature presents volunteers as having a dislike for formality, as altruistically driven, and as a major workforce of nonprofit organizations. Chapter 3 will discuss the methodology that will be used to obtain data from these volunteers, employees, and founders, an overview of the study, the central concepts of the study, and rationale for the selected research tradition.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this study was to provide research data to address the unanswered question of the impact of founder's syndrome on founders, volunteers, and employees in nonprofit women's organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women. Chapter 3 includes discussion of the research design and rationale, role of the researcher, methodology, instrumentation, and published data collection instruments. In the study I used a qualitative narrative inquiry to answer the research question of how nonprofit employees, volunteers, and founders describe the experience of working in nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women.

Research Design and Rationale

Narratives help to make transparent the phenomenon in qualitative research and promote transparency of culture and social meanings as given by participants (Clandinin & Connelly, 2013; Patton, 2002). Morgan (1983) argued that the best theoretical framework to use for a study depends on what a person wants to do and which assumptions a person shares. The narrative researcher understands that every theoretical framework has strengths and limitations.

Role of the Researcher

My role as the researcher was to create an environment in which the participants would feel comfortable enough to talk about events or situations of their work lives from associated nonprofit organizations. I sought stories from the participant’s pasts, present, or future. As the facilitator of the semistructured interviews, I bore the role of coparticipant in the interview. Both parties shared the conversation in that I asked the

questions and the participant answered, but I had the additional role as a listener who could seek clarification asking follow-up questions. My role as the researcher moved from being in the field with the participant to being the composer of field texts to the analyzer of those texts to the person who retold the story.

I disclosed many relationships within in the nonprofit community and performed community service work for many local nonprofit organizations. I acknowledged that no participant with whom a personal relationship existed was used as a participant for this study. Although the study used four founders, four volunteers, and four employees as participants to alleviate power over participant situations or biases, no more than one person per nonprofit organization participated.

The design considerations for this study were on founders, volunteers, and employees of nonprofit organizations, on events, temporality, place, and social considerations, and pointed to narrative inquiry or phenomenology as options of design choices. The practical justification of this study was that although the number of nonprofit organizations that enter the sector has risen, there is concern that the skills to maintain the organizations and the volunteer numbers have decreased. Without enthusiastic volunteers and employees who feel the value of their role in the organization, the challenge of effective management of the nonprofit organization increases and the lack of commitment to work for the organization decreases. A situation such as this would leave the nonprofit sector void of capable, prepared, next generation nonprofit leaders. The kinds of situations experienced in the lives of participants and told throughout the inquiry indicate this research could be studied through either

phenomenology or narrative inquiry. I selected narrative inquiry because this method allows the interviewer to ask further questions, to dig deeper, rather than to rely on predetermined questions. Data obtained directly from the participant is conducive to a study focus that centers on the culture of nonprofit organizations. Based on appropriate design options of phenomenology or a narrative approach to this study, I elected to use narrative inquiry as the approach.

Phenomenology Versus Narrative

Phenomenology. Although phenomenology informs narrative inquiry (Patton, 2002) and the two are similar in that both explore stories of experience through interviews, the two approaches are otherwise very different (Creswell & Poth, 2017). Primary differences between narrative inquiry and phenomenology include the origin or disciplinary roots of each tradition. Phenomenology has its roots in philosophy and uses interviews, documents, and observations to obtain its data (Creswell & Poth, 2017). The narrative inquiry has its roots in the social sciences (Creswell & Poth, 2017) and does not use observation as part of its data collection process (Patton, 2002). The purpose of phenomenology is to understand what a particular experience is like for a person (Clandinin, 2013; Creswell & Poth, 2017). The purpose of a narrative inquiry is to obtain knowledge of what the story reveals about the person from the social, cultural, and institutional narratives within which the experience takes place (Clandinin, 2013).

Phenomenology analyzes data for the meaning assigned to a word or statement, to the textual and structural description, and to the description of the essence of the experience (Creswell, 2017). Narrative inquiry involves an analytic investigation into the

underlying assumptions that a story illustrates (Czarniawska, 2004). Unlike phenomenology inquiries, narrative inquiries usually follow the insights of the narrator as to what happened in that event (Hinchman & Hinchman, 1997).

Narrative. A narrative inquiry is a way of knowing about and inquiring into an experience characterized by the constant interaction of human thought with the self and social and physical environment (Clandinin & Rosiek, 2007) and the study of experience as a story (Connelley & Clandinin, 2006). Narrative inquiry is also an approach to the study of human lives that honors the lived experience as a source of knowledge and understanding (Clandinin, 2013).

Patton (2002) defined narrative inquiry as a research method that includes in-depth interviews to understand the meaning of the text, transcripts, and narratives, and a type of inquiry that analyzes the data for developing themes. Through the stories told, the researcher seeks to understand the meaning assigned by the participants to events experienced (Creswell, 2013; Miles et al., 2014). The manner in which the teller of a narrative unfolds the story will affect how the listener receives the information.

Understanding Narrative

Narrative is a way that social scientists try to represent and understand the human experience. Narrative analysts approach the truths of an experience by revisiting the experience, having it told in the same order as it happened, and in the telling of the story recognize the phenomena through its interpretation. Labov, founder of the Labov (1972) narrative method, wrote that the teller of the story would provide through the abstract a summary of the substance of the narrative, followed by specific time, place, situation, and

the participants involved in the experience. The teller of the story would then move to the complicating action, sometimes referred to as the sequence of events, followed by significance and meaning of the action, the resolution, and, finally, a return of the perspective to the present. In the evaluation clauses, the teller tells how they want to be understood and the point of the story (Culler, 1980; Toolan, 1988).

The Labov model (1972) was used in a variety societies and cultures such as in the study of how beggars manage to publicly beg inside of mosques in Iran (Hyati & Maniati, 2010). The Labov model was also used as a basis for describing how narrative analysis can be used to identify and present public preference within a participation process. Individuals relate experiences using a variety of narrative genres, and personal narratives depend on some structures to maintain its strength and purpose (Reissman, 1993). I followed the guidelines (Marshall & Rossman, 2015) that offered a strategy option which allowed me to frame the study within the boundaries of the scope of the study. In a narrative inquiry, boundary lines are ambiguous (Reissman, 2005). A scholar's definition of the narrative may vary, but all narratives require the construction of texts for future analysis, field notes, inspection of interview transcripts (Reissman, 2005).

This strategy, supplemented with in-depth interviews with founders, volunteers, and employees offers a guide for undertaking a systematic exploration of a phenomenon that exists in nonprofit organizations. A critique of the Labrov model is that it leaves out the relationship between teller and listener. The Canadian study from which this study is modeled (English & Peters, 2011) used the Labov structural approach but also left out the

relationship between the teller and listener. The assumption of Labov (Langellier, 1989) was that narrative is a relation among clauses, not an interaction of participants. Labov (2001) argued that narrative is an explanation of causality, one that makes a story worth telling. Nevertheless, scholars consider Labov's work as important in narrative research because of its assumptions about the value of direct relationships between experience, cognition, and representation (Hyati & Maniati, 2010).

In response to the need for a better way to research and represent social life other than from a natural science perspective, U.S. scholars from several disciplines turned to the narrative inquiry as the organizing principle to interpret human action Cronon, 1992; Schafer, 1992). In medical studies, the narrative inquiry was used for studies for which the researchers sought participant reflection on illnesses. For example, the American Cancer Society Behavioral Research Center used narrative inquiry to conduct a study on the unmet needs of cancer survivors (Burg et al., 2015) Another example of a narrative study approach was a study that explored the needs of new mothers from Afghanistan living in Australia (Russo, Lewis, Joyce, Crockett, & Luchters, 2016).

Clandinin & Rosiek (2007) argued that narrative inquiry, described as both a research method and as narrative ways of thinking, requires a distinction between the terms. Narrative inquiry as a methodology demands a view of the phenomenon (Connelley & Clandinin, 2006). Narrative inquiry as a way of thinking is the lens through which the interpretation made of a person's experience of the world is personally meaningful to that person (Connelly & Clandinin, 2006).

In qualitative research, there are several forms of narrative analysis such as linguistic analysis, visual analysis, and thematic analysis (Josselson & Lieblich, 1995; Josselson, Lieblich, & McAdams, 2003; Polkinghorne, 1988). Narratives are used in other qualitative studies such as case study and phenomenology (Clandinin, 2013). The focus of narrative inquiry includes the social, cultural, and institutional narratives within those experiences (Clandinin, 2013). An example of narrative inquiry approach was in a U.K. study that explored the experiences of sixteen participants who used or had previously used mental health services to determine the usefulness of the arts to health (Stickley, 2012). Another narrative study conducted focused on what managers and leaders need to know when dealing with volunteers and paid employees (Butrous & McBarron, 2011).

A final narrative study example presented is a study that explored the dynamics and dilemmas of women leading women (Bartunek, Walsh, & Lacey, 2000). In a Canadian study on how women come to take leadership roles in community-based nonprofit organizations (English & Peters, 2011), researchers used narrative inquiry for the methodological framework. The researchers combined findings from the literature with data from the research to address issues of control, problems with founders, and conditions that sustain founder's syndrome. In this study, the intent is to uncover narratives of founders, volunteers, and employees in nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women and to intersect their the personal perspectives of founder behavior in their respective nonprofit organizations.

In Chapter 3, I discuss methodologies for participant selection, the population from which participants are drawn, sampling procedures, data analysis plan, and other important methodologies I will use to capture the essence of the experience of the participants.

Methodology

Population. The population represents past or current founders, volunteers, and employees of nonprofit organizations whose services promote the empowerment of women. Participants included in this study were from nonprofit organizations that has/had an IRS 501 (c)(3) tax-exempt status. Participants were selected based upon their having specific characteristics needed to be included in the study (e.g., history as founder, volunteer, or employee in nonprofit organizations founded by African American or Caucasian women. The participants represented various types of nonprofit organizations that provided empowerment type services (i.e., education, training, health, or safety needs) to women.

Excluded from this population were nonprofit organizations other than 501 (c) (3) charitable organizations (e.g., churches, hospitals, and associations), and nonprofit organizations that had not filed the IRS Form 990 within the past year. Also excluded were nonprofit organizations not founded by African-American or Caucasian women and those nonprofit organizations not focused on services that may lead to the empowerment of women.

I screened for possible exclusion of individuals during the initial contact with the participant. During this contact, a series of three questions were asked (see Appendix B

prescreen form). The prospective participant was asked for the capacity in which they are associated with the nonprofit, if the nonprofit is a 501 (c) (3) organization, what types of services the nonprofit offers, the age of the nonprofit organization (if known), and if they would be willing to attend the hosted gathering. The responses to those questions were sufficient for me to make an exclusion determination.

Sample. I interviewed employees, volunteers, and founders of 12 nonprofit human service organizations that provided employment type services for women. Due to the anticipated small size of the organizations in the study, only one person per organization was selected as a participant representative from the role as an employee, volunteer, or as a founder.

The qualitative research process is emergent; therefore the number of participants within the sample can change if the researcher decides additional participants are needed for confirmation of the phenomenon (Merriam, 2009). However, recruitment of participants continued until I reached the number of required participants for each subgroup. There are no specific rules for determination of a sample size in qualitative research (Ritchie, Lewis, & Elam, 2003). The guiding principle for qualitative research is to reach data saturation, the point in which the collection of new data no longer reveals new information on the issue. The small size of the sample can lead to information-rich results and is a method designed to obtain in-depth knowledge of phenomena

Sampling procedure. Maximum variation sampling involves looking for outlier cases to examine whether patterns still hold (Miles et al., 2014). Maximum variation sampling was used in this study to determine whether the main patterns of founder's

syndrome holds true for nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women. The principle behind maximum variation sampling is to identify common themes from across the samples, which were taken from insights of a common phenomenon experienced by the participants.

Participants were selected based upon their having specific characteristics needed to be included in the study (e.g., history as founder, volunteer, or employee in nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). The participants who were founders represented the types of nonprofit organizations (i.e., education, training, health, or safety needs) that provide services that support the empowerment of women.

Recruitment and access to participants. Recruitment of participants began after the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) granted consent to conduct the study. My ability to recruit a group of individuals who were representative of the population was crucial to the success of the interview and the study (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). The recruitment goal was to request from nonprofit affiliates, warm introductions, and contact information of other nonprofit organization affiliates. Participant selection occurred through their peers as opposed to people above or below them in a hierarchy (Siedman, 2013).

I extended an invitation to three to six known affiliates of nonprofit organizations. The purpose was for the affiliates to provide contact information on nonprofit affiliates unknown to me, who may meet the required research criteria. The role of the affiliate was

limited to referrals, giving out of contact information to me of individuals who may meet the criteria. No data was collected from prospective participants.

Approach 1. I initiated contact to the warm referrals from the three to six known affiliates. Within two days, I initiated telephone contact to schedule an interview with those who expressed interest in participation. All scheduled interview participants received an immediate confirmation email upon scheduling of the interview, and twenty-four hours before the scheduled interview time. In situations where a warm introduction was not feasible, I asked the affiliates if they would provide contact information for others that I might consider for the study, and permission for me to mention their name as the referring party when I made contact. The role of the affiliate was limited to referrals, giving out of contact information to me of individuals who may have met the criteria. Only I initiated contact to each of the warm referrals from the three to six known affiliates.

Approach 2. I contacted facilitators of the local meeting of the nonprofit organization 100 Women of Westerville (WOW) and asked for permission to disseminate flyers and answer general questions about the study at the organizations' monthly meeting. No information on attendees was collected. Attendees were offered the opportunity to leave contact information with me or informed they could later give me their contact information. The 100 Women of Westerville organization had no role in this brief presentation, and did not promote the study. The only involvement of 100 WOW was to allow me access to the attendees of the meeting to expose the proposed study. My contact information was provided at the bottom of the flyer so that the

potential participant had time to consider participation, confidentially contact me with additional questions, or express interest to participate in the study.

The letter of informed consent requested permission for participation in the research project, described the purpose of the research project, confidentiality, and acknowledgement that they willfully and freely volunteer to participate in the study. This same cover letter was mailed to them through the U.S. postal service, with the directive to return the form in the enclosed self-addressed and stamped envelope, or to scan as email and return.

The cover letter identified the prospective participant and informed them that they would receive an identical notification in the mail. The cover letter included a brief introduction of me as a doctoral candidate from Walden University. The cover letter included the purpose and goal of the study, the procedures for what information asked of the participant, the specific risks, or benefits of the study. On the form was a place for the participant to acknowledge their decision to participate by checking the appropriate box on the form and returning the response to me by e-mail. Once I had received confirmation to participate from the perspective participate, a follow-up electronic message was sent that thanked them for their participation.

Also included was a confidentiality statement that addressed anonymity and secure storage of data, my contact information for future questions, contact information of my committee chairperson of the study, and space for the signed statement of consent of the participant and the researcher. A self-addressed stamped envelope was included for return of the signed participant copy, or participants had the option to sign the letter in

person at the interview. The document could also be or signed, scanned as an email attachment, and returned to me. I provided a copy of all written data to the participants.

Participant Consent

Upon confirmation of participation from the prospective participant, an email notification that includes a cover letter with the project description and consent form to the prospective participant thanking them for their interest and intent to participate in the research project. This same cover letter was mailed to them through the U.S. postal service, with the directive to return the form in the enclosed self-addressed and stamped envelope, or to scan as email and return.

Informed Consent

The cover letter includes a brief introduction of me as a doctoral candidate from Walden University. The cover letter included the purpose and goal of the study, procedures regarding the study, discussion of specific risks or benefits of the study, a confidentiality statement that addressed anonymity. Also included was information on security and storage of the data, my contact information for future questions, contact information of my committee chairperson of the study, and space for the signed statement of consent of the participant and the researcher. The cover letter has a space for the participant to check as acknowledgement or willingness to participate in the study. A self-addressed stamped envelope was included for the participant to return the signed copy, and the participant was informed that the cover letter could be signed, scanned as an email attachment, and returned to me in lieu of returning it through the U.S. mail.

Once I received confirmation of the participant's willingness to participate, a follow-up electronic message of thanks was emailed to the prospective participant. The letter of informed consent requested permission for participation in the research project and described the purpose of the research project. Additionally, the letter discussed confidentiality, and included verbiage that acknowledged participation was voluntary, and clarification to the participant that a decision to withdraw from the study for any reason will be granted without any penalty for doing so. I provided a copy of all written data for the participant's records. The consent form was stored securely in a safe and will never accompany the data for this study. This removes the possibility of direct or indirect connections to the participants.

Prior to the interview, I went over these forms with the participant, and again informed the participants that the study was voluntary, and that they may withdraw at any time, or pass on any interview question. I asked the participants if the information is correct, and if they wish to proceed with the study. At that time I signed the participant consent form, and participants were provided copies of that form.

Data Collection

Process. I used face-to-face interviews with the responsive interview guide technique developed for this study. The guide has six communal warm-up questions for each of the participants, and eight additional questions specific to the position of the participant (as founder, employee, or volunteer) in the organization.

The stages of a Responsive Interview included casual talks such as introductions, explanation of the role of the interviewer, and the purpose of the research. The goal was

to use their stories to find narratives that have depth and details of the interactions between founders, volunteers, and employees in the nonprofit workplace. I used the published responsive interview model to develop an interview guide with six broad questions about the topic of inquiry (Rubin & Rubin, 2012) and eight questions specific to the status (founder, employee or volunteer) in the organization, a total of fourteen questions. The stated amount of time for the interview is up to ninety minutes. Data was recorded on a digital voice recorder. The goal was to use the stories told to find narratives that have depth and details of the interactions between founders, employees, and volunteers, in the nonprofit workplace (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). The responsive interview model emphasizes a flexibility of research design questions and allows the researcher opportunity to change the line of inquiry in response to statements from the interviewee (Rubin & Rubin, 2012) that may prompt a deeper probe. The Interview Model is copyrighted by SAGE Publications, Inc. (2012).

Style. I used semistructured open-ended questions intended to elicit views from the participant to obtain the data. Participants were only required to attend one session with the interviewer. The structure of the responsive interview requires the researcher to begin with safe warm-up questions, then to engage in three other types of questions: (1) thought-provoking tougher questions, (2) follow-up questions or probes, and to end each interview with lighter questions that return them to a safe place. Each of the three types of questions have specific purposes.

The purpose of the primary questions is to give the researcher the opportunity to design the interview to attain the goal of getting answers to the research questions (Rubin

& Rubin, 2012). The purpose of the follow-up questions is to assure thoroughness and credibility. The purpose of probes is to manage the conversation by keeping the interview on target (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). The stages of a responsive interview included casual talks such as introductions, explanation of the role of the interviewer, and the purpose of the research (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

Content validity. The interview questions were submitted to the authors of a previous similar study English & Peters (2012) for evaluation since the original questions were adapted for this study. I received acknowledgement that the questions were appropo and beared relevance to the shared topic. Sufficiency of data requires that I has the technical competence to communicate, develop repoire, take notes, hold back personal thoughts and convictions, and have ready strategies of talk. These skills are the impetuses that drive most people to honesty and forthrightness in answers to interview questions.

Language. I used terms common to the participants and avoided social or cultural contexts in the research questions (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).I conducted face-to-face interviews with pre-scheduled participants in a closed-door study room at the Westerville Public Library. An audio recorder, clipboard with paper, pen, and research questions was situated in front of me. A packet that contained a copy of the informed consent form and cover letter, and the statement of consent was given to the participant. A bottle of water and a napkin was situated in front of the participant. I reminded the participant the interview was voluntary, then asked the participant to review the signed consent forms and cover letter, then asked if they wish to continue participation. The participant was

informed that a debriefing would be conducted after completion of the interview, just to make sure any questions they may have could be answered.

Rubin and Rubin (2012) and Janesick (2012) recommend that the researcher take notes and record the interview sessions, transcribing the interview shortly after the session ends. The interviews lasted approximately an hour, at which time an estimated 15 minutes was allowed for follow-up questions by me, and to address questions from the interviewees. Final instructions and debriefing included a reminder to the participants that I may need to contact them for follow-up on questions, and asked if they are amiable to another meeting. The participant were instructed that if they would like to receive a summary of the results of the study, to check the appropriate answer of yes or no.

Participants also received a written declaration of the confidentiality and anonymity protocols of the research study. I explained the difference between confidentiality and anonymity. Confidentiality refers to the manner in which information was handled, for example, ways that are consistent with the understanding of the original disclosure. Anonymity indicated that the participant's identity is unknown to all involved in the study, including the researcher. The written declaration informed participants of the voluntary nature of the study, and informed the participant that should they decide to cease participation, that they may do so without any harm or actions placed upon them.

Finally, the written declaration included verbiage of the protection of data storage. Data from the study shall be stored only on my computer, and on the back up external drive that is locked in my safe, only to be taken out for backup of data. No other persons are involved in this study except me, and no other person will have access to the data. In

all situations, trust between the participants and the researcher is the foundation of the relationship.

Participants of the in-depth interview portion of the study received a $15 gift card as a thank you for their time at the end of the interview. Final instructions included the fact that they may be called back for a follow-up question, but that it is a voluntary decision to return or answer a follow-up question. Even if the participant withdraws from the interview, a $15 gift card would be given to the participant at the time of departure. Justification for the incentive was to improve participation rates and offset the economic factors of parking in an uptown area near the Westerville Public Library.

Interview Guide Questions

Interview guide process. I developed an interview guide to maintain focus and consistency in the research questions (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). The research interview guide safeguarded against bias as it provides the consistency that the same questions were asked of each participant (Rubin & Rubin, 2012; Siedman, 2013). I first determined the order of the questions by beginning with the warm-up questions, then moved to the tougher questions, and ended with the toned down less stressful questions (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). In all stages of questioning, I avoided leading questions.

In-depth interviews are designed to allow the participants the opportunity to share their experience through their recall and reconstruction (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). In the English & Peters (2011) study, the researchers used a Conversational Interview guide method to collect the data. The participants were asked to address broad issues such as the role of female founders, problems with founders from the volunteers and employee's

perspective, problems with founders from the founder's perspective, and on conditions that sustain founders' syndrome.

In this study, a Responsive Interview guide (Rubin & Rubin, 2012) was used to obtain thick, rich narratives of the participants' nonprofit organization. Interviews that utilize a conversation guide, such as the English & Peters (2011) study, do not focus on stories and details, and the topics do not require the same level of detail. In contrast, the Responsive Interview guide method focused on details and the meaning is given to the experience (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). To compare the meanings given to the experience of the participants, I adapted the questions from the English & Peters (2011) study. The Responsive Interview guide approach was used to ask the same questions in the English & Peters (2011) study, but in a way that would bring about information that is more detailed from the participants. The questions were submitted to the authors of the English & Peters (2012) study. The Responsive interview method (Rubin & Rubin, 2012) interview began with warm-up questions, moved on to more sensitive as well as conceptually difficult questions that included follow-up and probing questions, and finally, returned to less stressful questions.

As shown in Table 1, a comparison is made of the questions asked in the English & Peters (2011) study that used a Conversational Interview guide, to those incorporated into the Responsive Interview guide. These questions were field tested to Dr. Lenora English (English & Peters, 2011) and there were no suggested changes.

Table 1

Comparison of Research Interview Questions

Conversational Interview Type Questions English & Peters (2011) study	Responsive Interview Type Questions Coombs (2017) study
Probe Questions	Warm-up Questions
What are the characteristics that a founder must possess to be an effective leader?	(WU) Talk about yourself and your role in the organization.
Whose final voice should be heard in final decisions about the organization? Why?	(WU) Tell me about the founder's role in the organization.
In what ways does the founder use their power to influence decisions in the organization?	(Wu) What characteristics of the founder stand out to you?
How does the founder of this organization practice inclusion and mentoring to employees and volunteers?	(WU) In what ways are those characteristics helpful to the organization? In what ways are some of those characteristics not helpful?
In what ways does the founder's position influence decisions made in the organization?	(WU) In what situations would the founder make decisions without the input of others?
	(WU) What is the importance of your role (as founder, volunteer, or employee?
Founder's Perspectives	Volunteer or employee's perspective
(TQ) What role or significance does mentoring of volunteers or employees play in your organization?	(TQ) How would you describe the model mentor/mentee relationship?
(TQ) There are usually dominating voices in an organization, how is the softer voice heard?	(TQ) Give me an example of how employees or volunteers are mentored or could be mentored in your organization?
(TQ) In what ways are you influential in your organization?	(TQ) Describe a time the founder used their position or power to influence decisions in the organization?
(TQ) Describe a situation in your organization that caused you to use your influence to guide or resolve the situation.	(TQ)If you had a suggestion, idea, or other input to offer, what if any types of obstacles would prevent you from presenting them to your leadership?
(LS) How would you describe the model mentor/mentee relationship?	(LS)In what ways does the founder encourage input for organizational decisions?
(LS) Was mentoring of employees or volunteers included in the early design of your organization? Why or why not?	(LS) Why did you elect to work or volunteer for a nonprofit organization?
(LS) In what ways are you influential in your organization?	(LS) In what ways can the founder be more inclusive of employees or volunteers?
(LS) In what ways does the founder encourage input?	(LS) If given a chance, how would you redesign your current position for inclusiveness?

Note. Types of questions: (WU) warm up (TQ) tough questions (LS) less stressful questions.

Data Analysis Plan

Narrative inquiry is the organizing principles for human actions, it is interpretive, and depends on particular structures to hold them together (Geertz, 1983; Rainbow &

Sullivan; Riessman, 1993). Narratives have formal properties, and each property has a function. As shown in Table 1, an adequately developed narrative includes the six common elements of an abstract, orientation, complicating action, evaluation, and a resolution. The abstract is the essence of the story while the orientation concerns the time, place, participants, and situation. The complicating action is the sequence of events, and evaluation is the meaning of the action and the attitude of the narrator. The resolution brings closure and reveals what finally happened. Coda returns the perspective to the present.

The Labovian approach regards personal narrative as story text. Labov (1967) created a structural analysis of oral personal narratives. Text and event centered, the Labovian (1967) approach constructs a story from a primary experience and interprets the significance of events in clauses and embedded evaluation (Labov, 1967). The temporal sequence of narrative also is a significant factor that proceeds from its referential function (Labov, 1967).

Labov (2006) writes of three steps that must occur before the construction of a narrative. The three steps of narrative construction are: (1) the decision to report an event, (2) construction of a recursive series of events, and (3) location of the event before it became reportable. This repeatable chain of events will generate what is known as the complicating action as described in the Labov & Waletsky (1967) framework for narrative analysis. The Labovian procedure will be used to construct the narrative for the study.

Preconstruction of Narrative

Step 1. Preconstruction begins with the most reportable event and proceeds backwards in time to locate events that are linked causally.

The decision to report an event. The decision to report an event comes from the speaker, who signals the listener, that a narrative is about to be initiated. The narrator's choice to listen is the exact point the narrator affirms the event is reportable, therefore becomes the information that generates the abstract (Labov, 1999). Labov (1999) makes the point that the summary of the narrative begins with one or two passages that capture the essence of the narrative and identifies its purpose. The abstract includes the point of departures that begins the telling of the narrative and is the point where the narrator proceeds to tell the narrative with the intention of presenting a full account of what happened (Labov, 1999).

In narrative construction, the researcher moves backward in time beginning with the reportable event and locates events causally linked (Labov, 2006). This process establishes the temporal sequence, which contains the independent clauses of successive events or situations (Labov, 2006). Only independent clauses (Labov, 2006) are relevant to temporal sequence; subordinate clauses are removed.

Step 2. The necessity of this step is crucial and will help to understand how the narrator of the story reorganizes and transforms the evens of real time in the finished narrative.

Construction of a recursive series of events. Build a series of events that happened before the most notable event. Preceding the most reportable event, each links

causally to the one that follows (Labov, 2006). This step will produce a series of clauses that contains at least one temporal juncture and qualifies as a narrative (Labov, 2006). Temporal relations generate the complicating action and are identified by subordinating conjunctions (Labov, 2006). For example, the same events can be told in any order without constructing a narrative (Labov, 2006).

Step 3. Prior to construction of a narrative, it must be decided upon that the event is reportable.

Locate nonreportable event. The non-reportable event, typically formulated with the progressive aspect and normally found the first clause, is embedded in the orientation section (Labov & Waletzsky, 1997). In narrative construction, an every-day activity that is not reportable is an activity that does not happen every day; therefore, it does not require an explanation.

Construction of Narrative Data

Processing the data. Construction of the data consists of editing the audio recordings, then manually coding and categorizing the data. Saldaña (2013) writes that manually coding is beneficial for newer researchers because it brings them closer to the data. The researcher will identify codes, patterns, themes, and categories, and manually work through them before transferring the data into ATLAS.ti, the CAQDAS software selected by the researcher for the study. Before the data is entered into the CAQDAS software, it must be reduced from the audio to text.

Reduction and editing the data. This step is essential to the narrative analysis. Riessman (1993) recommends first listening to the entire audio tape and then producing a

rough draft, carefully noting any parts of the conversation that strikes your interest. Next, return to the audio recording and re-transcribe certain parts for future detail. Then find the point in the story told that identifies where the story began. Riessman (1993) reminds us that people do not always tell stories in order. Time orients the listener, carries the complicating action, establishes sequence and allows for the evaluation of the story's meaning, and provides an end to the action through resolution (see Table 1).

Manually code segments. I read and reread the interview notes. I listened again to the audio recordings of the conversations, made notes of questions, and selected excerpts from the audio data before the transcription process that included the transfer of audio recording to text. Observation of any notes taken were observed because they are important tools that were used to stimulate my memory of questions or events that happened during the interview (Miles, Huberman, & Saldanda, 2014). I made notations of evident patterns in the setting or those expressed by the narrator of the story (Labov, 1972). The next directive was to re-transcribe the story a third time to parse the story into numbered lines (Labov, 1972, 1982). Parsing of the story means to assign a number to the left of each line of the story Table 2.

Categorize the data. The next step was to go back, assign a letter based on the codes (see Table 2), and place it to the right of each line of the previously parsed data Labov, 1972. The data from this study was entered into the ATLAS.ti software. Manual immersion of the data is also an important step in this process. Manual handling of data is an effective method for developing intimacy with the study (Labov, 1972, Marshall & Rossman, 2014; Saldaña, 2013). Conduct all initial coding on hard-copy printouts. Use

different color highlights, small strips of paper and post-it notes first, then transfer your codes onto the electronic file. Handling the data by way of manual input and immersion allows for intimate engagement between the researcher and the data helps the researcher understand changes in patterns that may have occurred (Graue & Walsh, 1998; Marshall & Rossman, 2014 Saldaña, 2013).

Transcription of the data. There are six steps to the Labovian (1972) method of transcription. The six steps described (Labovian, 1972) included: (a) transcription of the narrative, (b) assignment of a unique letter to each clause which had an independent temporal anchor, (c) test for placement of the event to see how it could be moved forward or backward without changing the order of events, (d) division of the clauses into free, narrative, coordinate, and restricted clauses, (e) determination of the primary sequence and note how it may depart from the primary sequence, and (f) discuss the function of the order of the clauses the events and the role of the evaluation clauses in qualifying the narrative.

The Labovian analysis (1972) criteria for transcription begin with the establishment of a plot, and the labeling of each clause with a letter (as shown in Table 2). The verbs take on past tense notations, and at this point, the evaluation (meaning of the story), is determined before the story returns to the coda, the present tense. Retained are the narrator's pauses for which the short ones indicated by a comma and indicate the longer pauses by their numbers in seconds in parentheses. I removed the other parts of the dialogue such as comments, notations, and descriptions from the text. I used the data

from this study to develop themes, establish categories, and identify patterns that will help to answer the over-arching research question.

Table 2

Transcription Codes

Abstract (A)	The essence of the narrative that identifies the purpose of the story; the bird's eye view of the story.
Orientation (O)	Time, place, situation, participants
Complicating action (CA)	Sequence of events, substance of the story, the climax, or high point
Evaluation (E)	Identify means by which significance of the story is established.
Result (R)	Audience informed of how complication action was resolved.
Coda (C)	The conclusion of the story; tense is returned from narrative to the present.

After the transcript has been analyzed, the researcher should return to the narrator of the story for clarifications, ask additional questions, review discrepant data, and to share acquired data interpretations with the interviewees to ensure the validity of the data (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Maxwell, 1996). I maintained a separate data-gathering activity sheet and a separate memo notation sheet for each interview. To sustain focus on the core narrative on the summary sheet, I ignored any generalizations of conversations, interactions between me and the interviewee, and generalizations from the evaluation.

Development of Categories

I isolated the various patterns into clusters to further reduce the data and develop core groups. The core groups related the text to patterns and themes. These codes are what further explained what the patterns seem to indicate. These researcher-generated categories attributed interpreted meaning to each datum and allowed for pattern detection and categorization (Miles & Huberman, 2014. The goal was to understand a phenomenon better through the grouping of the objects that were similar (Miles et al., 2014).

Pattern codes usually consist of categories or themes, causes or explanations, relationships among people, and theoretical constructs (Miles et al., 2014). I interpreted and grouped the patterns into clusters based upon one of the four types of codes. Next, I created a matrix chart or table display of the condensed material that included the codes, for a snap-shot view that could be used for reflection, verification, and conclusion drawing (Miles et al., 2014).

At this point, I entered all data into the CAQDAS software, in this case, I selected ATLAS.ti, to assemble the data and compile clusters or segments of data that relates to the research questions. The software clustered and displayed chunks of data, therefore setting the stage for deeper analysis, themes, and conclusions with its array of categories. At that point, the CAQDAS was be able to generate a list of concepts, codes, themes, and categories. I compared the software-generated list to the manually coded list, and to the theoretical code list derived from the literature review, looking for common themes and

patterns within the newly reduced data. This process repeated itself until no new data, no new themes, and further coding was no longer feasible (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006).

Finally, an overall review and assessment of the data, at which point attention-grabbing patterns or themes are noted. This step includes a summary of the analysis and includes the reading of the written report and specific recommendations of findings that may be included at the end of the study. In some instances, the data may reveal the need to gather more data.

The data consists of the responses collected from 12 interview respondents to fourteen open-ended semistructured questions (see Appendix). The approach was to ask open-ended questions with a minimum of interruptions (Labov, 1972) and to use the Labovian (1972) method of transcription to summarize the event and to make sense of events and actions of how the interview respondents perceive their nonprofit environment. It was important that I gave full attention to not just how the interview respondents recanted their histories, but what they choose to omit or emphasize (Rosenwald & Ochberg, 1992).

The final step of processing the data required me to review the summary sheet that was completed at the end of each interview before moving forward to transcription of the summary. I began with a rough transcription, then went back and transcribed selected passages for detailed analysis (Reissman, 2011), while making notes of what information was surprising, intriguing, or disturbing (Sunstein & Chiseri-Strater, 2007). Listening for entrance and exit talk helped define simple narratives (Holloway & Jefferson, 1979). I

refamiliarized with the established codes associated with the Labovian structural categories and utilized the codes for transcription of the summary sheets.

Coding segments. Next, I examined the literature review section of the proposal to identify and create theory-generated codes (Miles & Huberman, 2014). These codes were used concurrently with in-vivo codes that emerged from the narrative data (Marshall & Rossman, 2015). I read and reread the interview and raw field notes. I again listened to the audio recordings of the conversations, made notes of questions, and selected excerpts from the audio data before transcribing the audio recording to text. The field notes were important in that they were used to stimulate me to remember things that happened during the interview that may not have been included in the notes (Miles & Huberman, 2014). I made notations of evident patterns in the setting or those expressed by the narrator of the story (Labov, 1972).

The data from this study was entered into the ATLAS.ti software, with recognition that manual immersion of the data is also an important step in this process. Manual handling of data is an effective method for developing intimacy with the study (Marshall & Rossman, 2015; Saldaña, 2013). Conduct all initial coding on hard-copy printouts. Use different color highlights, small strips of paper and post-it notes first, then transfer your codes onto the electronic file. Handling the data by way of manual input and immersion allows for intimate engagement between the researcher and the data, and helps the researcher understand changes in patterns that may occur (Graue & Walsh, 1998; Marshall & Rossman, 2015; Saldaña, 2013).

I then isolated the various patterns into clusters to further reduce the data and develop core groups. The core groups related the text to patterns and themes. These codes are what further explained what the patterns seem to indicate. These researcher-generated categories attributed interpreted meaning to each datum and allowed for pattern detection and categorization (Miles & Huberman, 2011). The goal was to understand a phenomenon better through the grouping of the objects that are similar (Miles et al., 2014).

Pattern codes usually consist of categories or themes, causes or explanations, relationships among people, and theoretical constructs (Miles et al., 2014). I interpreted and grouped the patterns into clusters based upon one of the four types of codes. Next, I created a matrix chart or table display of the condensed material that include the codes, for a snap-shot view that could be used for reflection, verification, and conclusion drawing (Miles et al., 2014).

At this point, I entered all data into the CAQDAS software, in this case, by selection of ATLAS.ti, to assemble the data and compile clusters or segments of data that relates to the research questions. The software clustered and displayed chunks of data, therefore set the stage for deeper analysis, themes, and conclusions with its array of categories. At this point, the CAQDAS was be able to generate a list of concepts, codes, themes, and categories. I compared the software-generated list to the manually coded list, and to the theoretical code list derived from the literature review, looking for common themes and patterns within the newly reduced data. This process repeated itself

until no new data, no new themes, and further coding is no longer feasible (Guest et al., 2006).

Finally, an overall review and assessment of the data, at which point attention-grabbing patterns or themes were noted. This step included a summary of the analysis and included the reading of the written report and specific recommendations of findings that were included at the end of the study. The data consists of the responses collected from 12 interview respondents to fourteen open-ended semistructured questions (see Appendix). The approach is to ask open-ended questions with a minimum of interruptions (Labov, 1972) and used the Labovian (1972) method of transcription to summarize the event and to make sense of events and actions of how the interview respondents perceived their nonprofit environment. It was important that I give full attention not just to how the interview respondents recount their histories, but what they choose to omit or emphasize (Rosenwald & Ochberg, 1992).

Issues of Trustworthiness

Threats to Validity

Creswell, Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, (2003) wrote of the necessities required to demonstrate validity in a study as those that include member checking throughout the writing of the study, and findings and interpretations. Additional requirements include the presentation of negative data, and that the study contained thick, rich data from which the researcher presented documentation of data collection and analytic procedures. For this study, triangulation measures consisted of the interviews, data source, audio recordings, evaluation of records, and relevant theories from the professional research

literature in psychology. Although it is nearly impossible to contain every possible threat to validity, I reported the following issues to be of great concern and importance to ensure the integrity of the data in the study.

Internal validity. Ethical considerations and issues of practicality are factors that may jeopardize the internal validity of a study before the study begins (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Threats to internal validity represent factors that are beyond the control of the researcher, nevertheless, factors that must be identified and anticipated. The researcher will triangulate the data by looking for responses and stories that reflect ulterior motives and possible deception. Schuh (2009) described proper triangulation as use of multiple sources of data collection methods to investigate a problem. Therefore, I triangulated by data source, by method, and by theory. Denzin (1978) cautions researchers that no one method is the sole cause of a problem, and that each method will reveal a different aspect of the problem.

External validity. Qualitative researchers must ensure that the approaches to a study are consistent or reliable (Yin, 2003). Rubin & Rubin (2012) write that qualitative interview lets researchers examine that which is often looked at but without the benefit of its real meaning. I conducted semistructured responsive interviews using an interview guide with research questions for consistency, as I sought to obtain knowledge of the impact of founder behavior on volunteers and employees in nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women.

Selection bias. I recognized that volunteer bias can be harmful to the external validity of this study. I also acknowledged that volunteers may have personal reasons for

wanting to participate in a research study and that those reasons can potentially influence how they respond. Furthermore, volunteer bias reduces homogeneity that can potentially threaten external validity and generalizations of the study. Preventative actions taken by the researcher include stratification of the sample ensuring that the participants represent a variety of ages, educational levels, and represent various levels within the nonprofit organizations.

Experimenter bias. I recognized that the possibility of personal biases could enter the research process from my behaviors. For example, if the researcher is friendlier with the founders of the nonprofits than with the volunteers or asks more questions of the employees than the volunteers to influence their behavior, this would represent experimenter bias. To avoid the possibility of experimenter bias, a planned method of preinterview strategy was executed to ensure all participants would be treated in the same manner. This protocol existed throughout the study and included everything beginning with the method in which participants were received before, during, and after the interview, to the use of an interview guide to steer them back on topic. The preinterview protocol covered all aspects from the offering of refreshments, how I presented the overview of the process, to how the interview was completed. I remained alert, neutral, and attentive to the task.

Researcher effects. I was aware of researcher effects, the effects of the researcher on the case or the effects of the case on the researcher (Miles et al., 2014). To combat researcher effects, I planned to conduct the interviews off-site in a pleasant social environment for the volunteers and employees of nonprofit organizations. Also, I

ensured that the intentions of the study and what specifically was studied were clear for the participants. Furthermore, I briefed the participants on how data was to be collected, what will happen to the study results, how their identities will be protected, confidentiality of information, and how they may elect to discontinue participation in the study at any time without harm.

Discrepant evidence and negative cases. I recognized that inconsistent data and negative cases represent contain valued information from the study and that to have a negative case appear is not a negative situation. Instead, it was an opportunity for me to rigorously re-examine all of the data to determine if it is plausible to retain or modify the conclusion (Maxwell, 2013).

Maturation effect. I acknowledged that the maturation effect, short-term changes, and the effects on participants cannot be controlled. Participant behavior, good moods or bad moods, boredom, hunger, inattention, and preoccupation can be the downfall of the best research plan.

Flexibility to reduce dropout. I recognized that participants will sometimes experience changes in their life either before the interview or between the first interview and the follow-up session. The changes can be a new job, loss of a job, sickness of a family member, age, or acquire additional education. All of these factors can affect access to the participant that may cause the participant to drop out of the study. To minimize dropout of participants, I ensured that the participant was well aware of the time needed for the interview; however, I attempted to reschedule the participant if

necessary. I confirmed the appointment time with a phone call, text, or e-mail notification with a request for confirmation from the participant.

Construct. This study specifically sought stories from volunteers and employees of nonprofit organizations but did specify that the founder identifies as an African American or Caucasian women, which means the four founders who were interviewed were African American or Caucasian women.

Ethical Procedures

I obtained agreements to gain access to participants. I conducted no research or made contact with participants until the IRB had issued approvals needed for the study.

Summary

Narrative inquiry was selected as the method to obtain data for this study. The population represents past or current founders, volunteers, or employees of nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women in organizations that focus on services that may lead to the empowerment of women. The research strategy, supplemented with in-depth interviews with founders, volunteers, and employees, offered a guide for undertaking a systematic exploration of a phenomenon that exists in nonprofit organizations.

I used the responsive interview model as an interview guide to find narratives that have depth and detail (Rubin & Rubin, 2012), of interactions between founders, volunteers, and employees in the nonprofit workplace. The analytic approach selected for this study was the Labovian structural approach (Labov, 1972). The Labovian Structural Approach to stories follow a chronological sequence; move linearly, and are

difficult to change without changing the inferred sequence of events in the original semantic interpretation.

The focus of this study was on 12 nonprofit human service organizations that provide empowerment type services for women. The sources of data included founders, volunteers, and employees from different roles within these organizations. Following the guidelines of Siedman (2013), access to participants for a narrative inquiry occurred through peers as opposed to from people that represent a work hierarchy. Due to the anticipated small size of these organizations in the study, only one person per organization was selected as a participant either as the founder, a volunteer, or as an employee.

The possible sources of data include in-depth interviews that served as first-hand accounts of the experience of those involved with nonprofit organizations. Through the experiences shared a closer examination of the motives of founder's, internal issues spurred by founder behaviors, sources of job satisfaction. Personal preferences were considered such as mentored relationships, how volunteers and employees contribute to the organization, and on how relationships between the founder, volunteers, and employees may be improved. Additionally, the study provided data of challenges that may be unique to nonprofit organizations or women founders of nonprofit organizations, as well as identification of the depth of founder's syndrome in smaller nonprofit organizations.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to provide research data to address the unanswered question of the impact of founder's syndrome on founders, volunteers, and employees in nonprofit women's organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women. The research question was: What is the impact of founder's syndrome on founders, volunteers, and employees in nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women?

Chapter 4 includes findings of the research study, beginning with the research setting and a summary of the demographic information, followed by data collection, data analysis, and evidence of trustworthiness. Finally, Chapter 4 provides the study results and a brief summary.

Findings of the Study

Research Setting

Participants had the option to meet in a public library or a local coffee shop. Due to scheduling conflicts, two of the participants scheduled the interview to take place in their homes. If the scheduled interview was to take place in the public library, I reserved a private room for the interview. In-depth interviews for seven of the participants were in a small tutoring room at the public library, and one in-depth interview took place in a medium size tutoring room. The room was small but sufficiently ventilated and was large enough for two office desk-type chairs on wheels. An eight- by four-foot ledge that was used as a writing surface was attached to the wall. One wall of the room was all glass as was the door to the soundproof room. The room was brightly lit and was narrow

in depth. Each chair faced the other chair, and I and participant sat face-to-face. Only one interview was held in the medium sized tutoring room that had eight chairs and a conference table. I sat across from the participant.

The two interviews that took place in the coffee café, a choice of the participants, were a bit more challenging due to the noise of other patrons or background traffic noise. One took place in a seating area outside the café and the other took place inside. Both required additional time to review audio-recorded sessions. Participants appeared to be comfortable in the open setting. I checked with each participant at the start of interview for confirmation of comfort level, which was affirmative, but otherwise I could not gauge if nonprivate setting had an effect on participants' responses. Due to a conflict of schedules, two participants elected to be interviewed in their homes.

Demographics

Selected as the site for the study was a community that has 37,267 501(c)(3) public charities, of which 14,000 are IRS 990 reporting charities. The community was selected as the site for this study because it represents the largest geographical area nearest to me that could offer a diverse population for participant selection. Although less than 38% of Ohio's nonprofit organizations had gross receipts of $50,000 or more, the Ohio nonprofit sector is recognized as the 4th largest employer by industry (NCCS, 2011), landing behind manufacturing, retail industry, and local government. Human services type activities such as family support, housing, and youth services make up 24% of the total nonprofit charitable sector.

The demographics of those selected (Table 3) included founders, volunteers, and employees of nonprofit organizations that provided women's empowerment types of human services such as education, training, health, or safety needs. Also included in Table 3 is the role within the organization in which the participant functions, the number of years participants worked at their respective organization, and the race of the participants.

Table 3

Participant Demographics

Participant	Role	Years w/org	Self-defined race
Participant 1	Founder	7	African American
Participant 4	Founder	10	White
Participant 5	Founder	25	African American
Participant 11	Founder	5	White
Participant 2	Employee	14	White
Participant 6	Employee	2	African American
Participant 10	Employee	18	African American
Participant 12	Employee	3	White
Participant 7	Volunteer	7	White
Participant 8	Volunteer	8	African American
Participant 9	Volunteer	9	African American
Participant 3	Volunteer	1	White

Data Collection

Recruitment of participants began after I obtained IRB proposal approval (approval number 09-06-18-0329758). I initiated the snowball sampling approach. Nonprofit affiliates provided warm referrals of 20 participants from nonprofit organizations. The role of the warm affiliates was limited to referral only of contact information of individuals who may be possible candidates for the study. Once the

number of potential participants reached 20, active recruitment for additional affiliate referrals ceased. Out of the 20 secured referrals, four opted not to participate in the study, and two did not work in the types of organizations required for the study. I selected 12 participants for the study. The remaining two referrals were not needed, but contact information was maintained as backup in the event a participant dropped out of the study.

The expected number of participants was 12, and saturation was experienced at nine participants. There are no specific rules for determination of a sample size in qualitative research (Ritchie, Lewis, & Elam, 2003). The guiding principle for qualitative research is to reach data saturation, the point in which the collection of new data no longer reveals new information on the issue. Participants were interviewed only once and for 1 hour.

I used an Olympus MP3 digital voice recorder to record all sessions. No identifying numbers or names are verbalized on the audio-recordings. After each recorded session, I uploaded the interview into my computer, and upon verification that the file had been transferred, the Olympus file was deleted. I submitted the file to a transcription service for transcription of the data. This step was conducted for all 12 interviews.

I created an Excel spreadsheet to organize, schedule, and document all pre-interview data. I prescreened referrals were (Appendix D) to determine if the potential participants met the established criteria. I conducted the interviews over a 3-week period. Participants had the option of meeting with me in a private scheduled room in the local

library or in a coffee café. Eight participants selected the library. Two participants requested home interviews, a variation from the original plan to interview at coffee shops and library, and two opted to meet at a coffee shop.

I designed the interview questions to discover if founder's syndrome existed in the community's nonprofit organizations and, if so, to explore its impact on founders, employees, and volunteers. The interview questions were also designed to elicit in-depth commentary and stories of events that substantiated the participant's answers to the questions. No particular order was used to interview the participants. The interviews lasted between 45 to 60 minutes for the 12 participants. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed by a transcription service.

I conducted member checking to validate the data obtained from the interviews. I opted to use a transcription service to transcribe the data, but I manually coded the data so as not to be distanced from the data. After transcriptions of the interviews were received back from the transcription service, I e-mailed participants a copy for review of its accuracy. I encouraged participants to make any change that did not reflect their experience.

The interviews became the sources of data that served as first-hand accounts of the experiences of those involved with nonprofit organizations. The interviews produced 730 minutes of transcription. Each participant had the opportunity to review the transcribed transcript for accuracy and to ensure quality of the data. After completion of the interview, each participant received a $15 Starbuck's gift card.

After the diverse collection of narrative data was gathered, the task of reduction of the data into themes and categories became the next goal. I reduced selective key aspects of the data from the full narrative to smaller more manageable pieces of the story. I analyzed the data within temporality, sociality, and place. The manner in which individuals recall events is as important at what they emphasize or omit.

Personal narratives depend on certain structures to hold the story together as credible (Labov, 1972). Prior to analysis of the data, the data had to be organized and constructed. All of the incoming data was dated, labeled, and backed-up both digitally and with hard copies. I added notes of questions and select excerpts to the transcribed data. Over a 3-week period, I edited, manually coded, and categorized the audio recordings. The coding process was tedious and challenging but necessary to provide psychological and social contexts of the stories.

I made notations of evident patterns in the setting, story type, storyline, spoken features, and theme from the expressions made by the narrator of the story. These notations, along with other notes and comments from the interviews, became the rough transcriptions to the original versions of the story. Labov (1972) represented this as the appropriate strategy for data reduction in preparation of data analysis. I used the rough transcription to establish the boundaries of a segment of the narrative story, where the story begins, and where it ends.

Data Analysis

This section presents the themes relevant for each group of participants. The first action for analysis of the reported events began with transcription of the data from the

original transcript of the primary experience to a rough draft transcription. Incorporated were the six steps of the Labovian (1967) structured approach (Table 2). This was essentially the first step (Reissman, 1993) to interpretation of the narratives of the founders. Disfluencies and subtle features of the discourse like pauses and utterances of the interviewer were omitted. This initial reduction provided the rough transcription of the data.

Each of the four founder participants was asked to describe a situation in which they had to use personal influence to guide or sway the decision of an issue. Volunteers and employees were also asked if and how they observed founders use of influence to sway decisions or control a situation. The transcriptions and retranscriptions are included in Appendix A to illustrate the process of how to establish order, structure, and to analyze the data of a story. Examples of founder reported events began with rough translations of the in-depth-interviews that led to the stories, and then proceeded to the retranscribed version, or core narrative, of the story.

Implementation of the Labovian (1972) elements allowed formation of a fully formed structure. The format of the narratives adapted cohesiveness and reflectivity after inclusion of responses to notated questions and select excerpts from the transcribed data. The themes that developed became more visible and allowed for observation of contrasts and similarities of responses to interview questions from founders, volunteers, and employees. Discussions of the emerged themes are presented in the results section for each subgroup.

The comments of twelve participants associated with nonprofit organizations are qualitative in nature and are in response to subject led interviews. The neutral questions focused on stories or events the participants elected to report to illustrate their response to a specific question. Presented are the participant responses to those topics grouped as comments of the founders, volunteers, and employees.

Founder Themes

Some of the major topics that founder participants highlighted were their need to maintain control of the organization by way of control of its final decisions, their perception of the role of founder passion and motivation, and their reflections of the diminutive and lack of support and presence of mentors for founders.

Theme 1: Control of decisions. To illustrate, founders were asked to describe a time in the organization in which they used personal influence to steer a decision. The questions were designed to provide insight into the organizational culture and structure within which the founder must function. Within those accounts of events was the founder's rationale for the right to control or have final say in the decisions of the organization. All four of the founder participants voiced the belief that as the founder and the person who ultimately bore responsibility for the organization, founders expect to have the freedom and flexibility to make decisions on behalf of the organization.

Founder participants also indicated the expectation to collaborate with Boards and other stakeholders, but were adamant that the collaboration not be at the expense of giving up control. The founders expressed a degree of control and protectiveness over the organization, but they did not want those desires to be misrepresented as negative

characteristics. For example, founder participant 1 shared a story in which a funding agency adjusted the boundaries of locations for which services were to be offered. Founder participant 1 believed that "adjustment of the boundaries altered the intended targeted population of the mission." Founder participant 1added, "I feel as though the agency's insistence lessened my right as a founder to establish the program as envisioned, and minimized my right to control the decision without jeopardizing the possibility of funding."

This theme reoccurred in the story of the founder participant 5, who reported an event that focused on control of the selection of a successor. Participant 5, in preparation to transition from the organization, took advantage of the opportunity to influence the Board in the selection of the next Executive Director. Founder participant 5 stated justification was "it was well within my rights as the founder to exercise a degree of control over the event that would lead to the organizations next successor."

Founder participant 4's story focused on how the organization is sometimes chaotic in its daily course of activities, and stated that, "this sometimes forces the necessity of an immediate decision, one made without time to confer with others." Founder participant 4 expressed the opinion that "the weight of success of the organization always falls upon the founder, and there is not always time to consult with others before making a decision. My staff knows that as the founder I will always do what is best for our organization."

Founder participant 11shared similar comments as those of founder participant 4, which was the concern that the founder often makes decisions without the input of others.

Founder participant 11 expressed concern that "founders do not always have time to recant the vision and may hold information that others in the organization do not have, thus makes the decision based on that information." Interesting to note is that deeper probe of the topic with founder participant 11 eventually led to comments that denote ownership belief such as "my mission or my goals" as opposed to organizational goals or mission."

Theme 2: Passion. Founder participants were asked to discuss their personal reason for starting a nonprofit organization and the role those personal reasons played in the success of the organization. The question was designed to uncover whether staff motivation was a tool used in the organization. Emergent as a theme from that discussion was the word passion. Each founder participant shared their founding story of what inspired them to found and support a particular cause. In each case, the founder participants spoke of a personal connection to the type of identified need. The identified need ultimately led to the selection of type of services offered by the organization founded. A founder's connection is usually the result of a personal experience, or observed impact of an event experienced by a family member.

The participant's stories revealed their perceived level of commitment and passion required to launch and effective management of a nonprofit organization. Though the stories appeared to focus on their personal traits as the key to the organization's success, the premise that the passion of the founder will make or break the organization was consistent among the four founder participants.

To illustrate, founder participant 1 identified the need for a particular type of organization while seeking intervention for a family member's situation. Resources were not largely accessible, which led founder participant 1 to awareness of a community shortage for that particular type of resource. Founder participant 1 expressed how founders must demonstrate a certain level of passion to make visible the need to create change. Founder 1 noted that "the passion must shine bright enough for others to see and follow."

Founder participant 4 describes passion as "an imperative characteristic of a founder, and is the driver of enthusiasm and motivation." Founder 4 stated, "Empowerment of youth has always been a personal passion, therefore was a natural choice as a cause to embrace and start a nonprofit organization." Founder participant 4 often referred to the organization in the personal context of "my organization", which may denote some level of possessiveness, but also may have been a way to convey pride for the organization.

Founder participant 5 developed a nonprofit organization that supports families of extremely ill children during their hospital stay. Founder participant 5 asserts, "Passion is a beneficial and important characteristic of a founder because passion provides energy and direction for an organization's followers." "It is not something one works on, trains for, or acquires. It is already within the founder because it began with the founder's conceptual formation of the organization. Passion is the visible side of commitment."

Founder participant 11 regards passion and commitment as interwoven, but noted that "commitment can exist without passion; however the presence of passion will

usually increase the intensity of commitment." Founder participant 11 spoke of the importance of education for economically disadvantaged youth, and of the passion that spurred the personal initiative to found a nonprofit organization that provides financial resources for the education of youth.

Theme 3: Insufficient support structure. The theme of a non-supportive environment developed from interview topic discussions with founders of the early days of conception of the organization. Again, the question was designed to seek further information of the not only the organization's culture, but on the external culture that supports the founder mission. The founder participants were asked to speak about their mentors, early boards, and obstacles encountered during the early phase of the organization's development. Although all four of the founder participants reported having received advice during the earliest phase of their respective founded organizations, none of the founders recalled having a specific person or mentor as a guide.

Founder participant 1 stated, "Many times I resorted to a trial by error approach simply because there was neither the time nor money to pay for fundraisers or people to staff a position." Founder participant 1 believes many nonprofit founders share this same experience, but that "this could be a positive approach in that it creates intimacy between the founder and the organization through immersion processes.

Founder participant 4's early days of conception story revealed how recursive it was to spend fourteen-hour days spinning from one task to the other trying to get tasks accomplished. "The early board consisted of an aunt, best friend, neighbor, and an old

college mate. There was no one who could write grants, raise funds, or to whom I could ask a specific question. I was the organization for a long time and now it is difficult for me to separate and allow others to perform those tasks or have input on decisions."

Founder participant 5 contends, "Although the organization is over five years of age and now has a board, there are still times I feel isolated and alone when I solely make a decision. I recognize that every decision made could mean the difference between the ability to service the clientele today and exist tomorrow." Founder participant 5 also lamented, "The responsibility to fill the gap for services that the community cannot provide fuels the passion but also leaves a personal burden of an ultimate sense of responsibility."

Founder participant 11 also spoke of the sense of personal responsibility for achievement of the mission that she experiences as a founder. Founder participant 11 predicts that as the organization increases in terms of number of staff and volunteers, the level of responsibility is likely to intensify.

Employee Themes

The major topics of the employees were similar to those expressed by the founder participants with concerns that pertain to control and the lack of mentorship and support for employees. Whereas founders concern centered on control of the organization, the themes of employees exhibit how founders exercise control by withholding information, obstacles to input of shared vision, and lack of strategy.

The employee participants spoke of their belief that obstacles exist in the organization that makes it difficult for them to share in the vision due to the hierarchal

path that guards the vision. The third major theme of employee participants is the lack of support for employees such as access to mentors or a place to have voice and express opinions. To obtain more insight of the perspectives of employees on the culture and internal structure of nonprofit organizations, volunteers were asked to respond to the same six set of questions asked of founders. Employee participants remarked favorably of founders in the areas of creativity, tenacity, commitment, passion, and as visionaries. The stories that pertained to necessary characteristics of a successful founder held slightly less favorable remarks. The employees conveyed that patience, service-mindedness, ability to multi-task, and empathy are the most valued characteristics of founders.

Theme 1: Control manifested by information suppression. The participants were asked to discuss characteristics of the founder that were beneficial or not beneficial to the organization. The employee participants spoke of admirable characteristics such as commitment and strengths to stand up to protect the organization. The non-beneficial characteristics the employee participants shared revealed they sometimes feel as though they are asked to perform tasks without an explanation for the reason it must be performed a certain way. To illustrate, employee participant 2 concedes that "the fast pace of the organization may be a factor in the distribution of limited information, but I believe that to have the big picture of the ultimate goal would actually speed the process."

Employee participant 6 recalled an incident when the founder was not available and the decision to approve the draft of a document was imminent in order to meet a deadline. "I did not know that the date for the event was moved by the Board in order to accommodate two key stakeholders. Because the founder did not share the updated

information with us, my decision to go ahead and print the materials subsequently cost the organization the huge expense of a reprint."

Employee participant 10 provided another example of the repercussion of unshared information through story. It was of the story of the loss of grant funding and the detrimental impact it had on the budget. "No one knew the organization was in a financial bind and that loss of a financial funder meant the loss of one and a half staff positions. We were blinded by not having the big picture."

Employee participant 12 believes only an insecure founder would withhold information. "It speaks to the level of confidence of the founder – but it happens all the time." Employee participant 12 shared the story of once being employed by a nonprofit organization for which the employees were allowed to participate in decisions, but only within the options they were given. "It was disastrous. Had we been given all of the facts, a lot of time could have been saved and naturally we would have made a different choice."

Theme 2: Obstacles to join in the shared vision. Surprisingly, employees spoke of the obstacles that impede their ability to share in the vision of the founder. The stories ranged from observations of incongruous comments which allude to personal ownership of the organization, to stories of founder resistance to suggestions, and minimal opportunities for feedback or evaluative measures for the organization.

To illustrate, employee participant 2 mentioned that the founder was overheard on several occasions making comments that suggested personal founder ownership such as my organization, my mission, or my funds. Participant 2 stated, "The entire organization

works hard to raise funds, provide services, and grow the organization. I thought the organization belonged to all of us and the people we serve?"

Employee participant 6's believes, "that a founder needs to trust the employee to get the job done independent of founder micromanagement. "In my organization, assignments given out by the founder is followed with specific guidelines and constant monitoring of the assigned project. It is a standing joke in the office."

Employee participant 10 shared the story of a time when a Board member asked for an opinion on the best way to deliver services to school aged children. "I felt the question was legitimate since I was in charge of services for that particular school. The Board member wanted to know why I had not presented my idea for improvement to the board and was surprised to learn that previously the idea was recommended to the founder. Apparently my idea never made it to the Board."

Employee participant 12 believes that founders ought to be commended for the creativity, resilience, and fortitude to identify a need and to take the initiative to seek remedy for that need. However, employee participant 12 attested that "The hardest job for a founder is to keep the vision forefront in the minds of others, in a manner to which others want to attach to the vision. People attach to things for which they feel a part of, and a big piece of that is to feel as though it is partly theirs."

Theme 3: Lack of strategy. Many of the employee participants have several years of experience working for nonprofit organizations, which may have enabled them to identify and speak on the importance of nonprofit organizations to formulate a well-

designed strategic plan for the organization. The final theme to emerge for employee participants was the lack of strategy or plans of action.

For example, employee participant 2 discussed the frequency with which the organization bounces around with respect to its projects and ways to tackle the work. "We don't seem to stick to our approach to the work long enough to know if the method used is the best approach." Employee participant 6 recalls spending a full weekend at the organization's retreat to strategize long-term plans for recruitment and retention of volunteers. "Each person had a role in getting the volunteer up to par to work with a staff member. The strategy would have worked if the volunteers were not always pulled away from the task to attend to other emergencies in the office."

Other stories speak to employee frustrations infused by unclear strategies or changing goals. Employee participant 10 states, "Everyone knows what the task at hand requires us to do, so go away already and let us get to the work that has to be done instead of continuously changing priorities or methods for how the work needs to get accomplished." Employee participant 12 noted that "Founders of organizations should be careful about sudden implementation of swift changes to the mission. It causes chaos and resentment to those who have to keep changing the way the job gets done."

Theme 4: Lack of support. The third theme to emerge from employee participant stories was the need for more a supportive environment. All of the four employee participants feel as if the founders discourage staff-led initiatives and stifles creativity. Employee participant 10 shared an encounter with the founder in which the

founder became hostile and told the employee, “Just get the job done that you are paid to do. I am the thinker for this organization.”

Employee participant 2’s story indicated that the employees of that organization “just kind of goes along with the founder in what it is the founder wants done. Everyone is happier without the emotional turmoil caused by the founder’s need to be top dog.” Employee participant 12 believes that if the culture in an organization is not conducive to sharing in the successes and not so successful projects of an organization, minimal support will result from either the founder and from its employees to the founder.

Volunteer Themes

Although the interviewees were asked the same six questions as the employees and founders, the stories quickly took a different path that focused on feelings of autonomy, burnout, and passion. The major themes of the volunteer participants were having a voice, role ambiguity, and burnout. Passion is the only topic in common with the other two subgroups.

Theme 1: Hear my voice. The volunteer participants shared stories that included feeling of slight and misperceptions of the volunteer’s capabilities to support the mission. The volunteer participants deemed it important that the staff and its leadership recognize them as an essential part of the organization. For example, volunteer participant 9 told the story of being stuck with grunt work in the first volunteer year with the organization. “Though I mentioned this particular skillset several times, the supervisor was clueless of the technological value those skills could bring to the project.”

Volunteer participants also spoke of the importance to have systems in place in which they can provide input on decisions that affected them. "In our case, we are not invited to staff meetings where information and ideas are usually exchanged." Volunteer participant 3 remembers the excitement felt when first coming aboard the organization, only to quickly learn she would have to fight to earn enough respect to interject ideas.

Volunteer participant 7 spoke to the lack of respect she felt from the staff for her personal time, and sometimes feel put down as "the person who does it for free." Volunteer participant 8 shared the story of the surprise of a supervisor when the volunteer refused to lift heavy boxes. The supervisor believed the refusal to be insubordination on behalf of the volunteer. Volunteer participant 7 feels, "This is not corporate America, it is a nonprofit organization and I am here as an unpaid volunteer."

Theme 2: Role ambiguity. Volunteer participants spoke of being asked to perform what they considered unreasonable tasks at some point in their volunteer tenure in the organization. All of the volunteer participants expressed a degree of offensive to these actions. Volunteers also spoke to offense of being subjected to what they consider grunt work. As volunteer participant 8 put it, "I did not sign up to be a catch all for the jobs no one else cares to do." All of the volunteer participants agreed that they were partly to blame, and should do a better job of communicating their needs, which may change over a period.

The volunteer participants all stated that they set personal boundaries for how they would like to volunteer, and usually do not like to deviate from those desires. For example, volunteer participant 8 shared the experience of specifically volunteering to

write press releases and marketing publications for an organization whose work in the community provided a much-needed service, but occasionally a request was made by the staff to fold and stuff envelopes. "The occasional request became more and more frequent." Refusal by the volunteer to do so resulted in reprimand by the founder.

Volunteer participant 3 shared the story of the pleasure of informally having three direct reports. "It was a nightmare. There was never any coordination between the three of them in terms of priority of assignments. There appeared to be some sort of power struggle amongst them, with me caught in the middle."

Volunteer participant 7 expressed the need for clear communications of expectations. "I offered my strongest skill sets to the organization prior to accepting the volunteer position. Provided there is a need to alter those duties, my expectation is the option of acceptance of a temporary or permanent change to initially agree upon duties.

Answer to Research Question

The research question of this study is what is the impact of founder's syndrome on founders, volunteers, and employees in nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women? Results indicated three major themes expressed by founders, four major themes expressed by employees, and two major themes expressed by volunteers. Founder themes are control of decisions, role of passion, and lack of support for founder. The employee themes are control through information suppression, obstacles to share in the vision, lack of strategy in organization, and lack of support. Volunteer themes include a silent voice and role ambiguity.

The impact of founder's syndrome on the three subgroups varied. The impact of founder's syndrome on the founder results in tunnel vision of the founder to see or acknowledge effect of leadership style on organization, dependency of organization on founder to function, and founder burnout caused by founder's perceived need to fix everything to avoid the organization's demise.

The impact of founder's syndrome on employees is distrust of founder's intent to represent the best interest of the organization, skepticism that the founder values them as employees, concern for impact of dysfunction on mission. The impact of founder's syndrome on volunteers is lack of a sense of appreciation, feelings of exclusion, and lack of voice in the process of decisions made for the organization.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Member checking was used to validate that the data collected was accurate. Participants were allowed to review their transcripts for accuracy to ensure the integrity of the data and minimize threats to validity of the study. The possibility of internal and external threats to validity exists. In anticipation for internal and external threats, the data was carefully reviewed for responses to the interview questions and within stories told that may have reflected ulterior motives or possible deception. To reduce such possibilities, an interview guide was used to provide consistency in the data collection process. All participants were asked the same questions in the same order.

The potential for bias was another area of the threat to validity that was addressed. Preventative actions to avoid such a threat included stratification of the participants such as the selection of participants from different levels within the organization, variety of

roles, various years of service, and participants who served in different capacities within the nonprofit organization. To combat experimenter bias, a planned method of pre-interview strategy is executed to ensure all participants are treated in the same manner. The protocol that is implemented includes everything from the method in which participants are received to the method in which they were exited. The goal was to remain alert, neutral, and attentive to the task in a consistent manner for all participants, and to be conscious of nods or comments of affirmation when listening to participants. Conditions that may have possibly influenced interpretation of this study include the limitations of prior research and self-report data.

Threats to Validity

Although it is nearly impossible to contain every possible threat to validity, following issues were addressed to ensure the integrity of the data in the study. I recognized the necessity to demonstrate validity in the study. Therefore, member checking was implemented throughout the writing of the study, findings, and interpretations. Triangulation measures consisted of the multiple evaluations of interviews, data source, audio recordings, and relevant theories from the professional research literature in psychology.

Internal validity. Ethical considerations and issues of practicality were factors that had the potential to jeopardize the internal validity of a study. Threats to internal validity represent factors that are beyond the control of the researcher. Anticipation and identification of those factors is considered important and therefore was addressed. I triangulated the data by looking for responses and stories that reflected ulterior motives

and possible deception. Multiple sources of data collection methods are used to investigate problems. Triangulation of the data source is by method and by theory.

External validity. A semistructured responsive interview guide with research questions was used for consistency. The aim was to find out if founder's syndrome was likely to exist in the participants organizations, and what impact that might have on the founders, employees, and volunteers of their organizations.

Selection Bias

I recognize that founder, employee, and volunteer bias can be harmful to the external validity of this study. I also acknowledge that participants may have personal reasons for wanting to participate in a research study and that those reasons can potentially influence how they respond. Furthermore, participant bias reduces homogeneity that can potentially threaten external validity and generalizations of the study. Preventative actions taken by me included stratification of the sample ensuring that the participants represent a variety of ages, educational levels, and represent various levels within the nonprofit organizations.

Experimenter Bias

I recognized that the possibility of personal biases can enter the research process from the behaviors of the researcher. For example, if the researcher is friendlier with the founders of the nonprofits than with the volunteers or asks more questions of the employees than the volunteers to influence their behavior, this would represent experimenter bias. To avoid the possibility of experimenter bias, I executed a planned method of preinterview strategy to ensure all participants all treated in the same manner.

This protocol existed throughout the study and included everything beginning with the method in which participants are received before, during, and after the interview, to the use of an interview guide to steer them back on topic. The preinterview protocol covered all aspects from the offering of refreshments, how I presented the overview of the process, and how the interview was completed. I remained alert, neutral, and attentive to the task.

Researcher Effects

I was aware of researcher effects, the effects of the researcher on the case and the effects of the case on the researcher. To combat researcher effects, I conducted the interviews off-site in a pleasant social environment for the volunteers and employees of nonprofit organizations. The intention of the study was clarified for the participants. Participants were briefed on how the data would be collected, and on what would happen to the study results, protection of their identities, on confidentiality of information, and of how they may elect to discontinue participation in the study at any time without harm.

Discrepant Evidence and Negative Cases

I recognized that inconsistent data and negative cases represent contain valued information from the study and that to have a negative case appear would not be a negative situation.

Maturation Effect

I acknowledged that the maturation effect, short-term changes, and the effects on participants would be impossible to control. Participant behavior, good moods or bad

moods, boredom, hunger, inattention, and preoccupation can be unpredictable and have the potential to disturb the best of research plans.

Flexibility to Reduce Dropout

I recognized the possibility that participants will experience changes in their life either before the interview or between the first interview and the follow-up session. The changes can be a new job, loss of a job, sickness of a family member, age, or acquire additional education, and that any of these factors had the potential to affect access to the participant. To minimize dropout of participants, I ensured that the participants were aware of the time needed for the interview. However, I also included flexibility into the schedule should that occur. I confirmed all appointment times with a text or email notification prior to the scheduled interview.

Construct

For this study I sought stories from volunteers and employees of nonprofit organizations, and specifically required the founder of the organization of the event described be an African American or Caucasian women.

Summary

The goal of the study was to discover the impact of founder's syndrome on founders, employees, and volunteers. The first step in the process used was to listen to stories of the participants that represent the phenomena of events that occur in organizations. The second step was to determine the existence of founder's syndrome in the organization. The final step was to uncover the impact of founder's syndrome on

founders, volunteers, and employees in nonprofit organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women.

Based on the data provided by participants of this study, reactive crisis-driven leadership, little opportunity for others to provide input, lack of planning, founder control, and dependency on the founder, evidence exists that support the likelihood of founder's syndrome within the nonprofit organizations reported by the participants. Chapter 5 will provide further discussion, conclusions, and recommendations for this study.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to provide research data to address the unanswered question of the impact of founder's syndrome on founders, employees, and volunteers in nonprofit women's organizations founded by African American and Caucasian women. Use of in-depth interviews as the method to focus on the phenomena of founder's syndrome permitted the opportunity to delve deeper into the personal lived experience of founders, employees, and volunteers to observe the intertwined relationships within these subgroups.

This study was an opportunity to observe what really happens inside nonprofit organization from the perspective of the participants. Rarely has such rich thick data of events that have taken place inside nonprofit organizations been reported. Only two known empirical studies existed on founder's syndrome (Block & Rosenberg, 2002; English & Peters, 2012) when this study took place.

There were two major reasons for the need of this study. The first reason was that empirical research on nonprofit organizations lags behind the amount of research on the for-profit business sector. Current literature on nonprofit organizations is mostly from a practitioner's perspective, and little data comes directly from inside the organization. The lack of empirical information (Block & Rosenberg, 2002) about founders results in much speculation and ungrounded theories on nonprofit organizations.

The second reason for the need of this study had to do with the noted decline of volunteers in the nonprofit sector. The nonprofit sector leans heavily on volunteers as a source of labor. A study on volunteering in the United States reported a 0.4% decline in

the volunteer rate in 2015 (BLS, 2015). High attrition levels of employees and volunteers only further overwhelm the already overworked and frustrated founder. Without enthusiastic volunteers and employees who feel the value of their role in the organization, the challenge of managing the organization will increase while the commitment to work for the organization will decrease. A situation such as this would leave the nonprofit sector with a void of capable, prepared, next generation nonprofit leaders.

Finally, this study is essential to the continued growth and development of nonprofit organizations and will be a beneficial source of information for future empirical researchers, funders, practitioners, and founders. Study of the challenges that plague nonprofit organizations such as its roles, resources, transparency, and management strategies will help these organizations remain vital to society (Salamon, 2012). Effective employee management skills may increase the organization's retention rate through the organization's ability to develop loyal, capable, and engaged leaders within the organization. Empirical study of nonprofit organizations will facilitate an understanding of the unexplored darker side of nonprofit organization management. In this study I sought to improve the relationships between founders of nonprofit organizations, their employees, volunteers, and stakeholders.

Interpretation of the Findings

There is a need for a better understanding of the impact of founder behavior in nonprofit organizations. Research findings of this study indicated that founders of nonprofit organizations seem oblivious to the fact that their leadership style and behavior may affect the organization in a negative manner. Founder responses to interview

questions indicated a certainty that they were on target with peak-level management skills. Founders seemed almost unmindful of the importance of maintaining awareness of their behavior and did not acknowledge that interpersonal weaknesses exist in the organization.

The results of the study indicated common themes amongst the founders, employees, and volunteers such as issues of control, lack of support, and inclusion. These findings have implications for the practice of nonprofit human resource management guidelines, training of founders, and policy procedures by funders. Findings of this study support the premise of Block and Rosenberg's (2002) study that characteristics of founders may have both positive and negative influence on employees and volunteers. The Block and Rosenberg study was the first empirical study that gave definition to and provided an understanding of founder's syndrome. The Block and Rosenberg study surveyed men and women, unlike the current study and the English & Peters (2012) study that focused solely on women. Founder's syndrome refers to the influential powers and privileges that the founder exercises or the power others attribute to the founder. Findings of Block and Rosenberg's study suggested that the presence of founders can affect leadership, interaction with members, organizational growth, and succession planning, a premise supported by findings of this study.

A research study purposed to examine the factors affecting employee motivation of the nonprofit workforce suggests that people who opt to work in nonprofit environments do so because they perceive the work as meaningful and motivating (Word & Carpenter, 2013). This finding may help to explain why nonprofit employees are more

likely to be tolerant of negative behaviors of nonprofit founders. Nonprofit organization workers are attracted to their jobs because of intrinsic rewards and inherently satisfying tasks (Word & Carpenter, 2013). The sake of the mission may be enough of a reason that employees and volunteers are willing to tolerate the imperfect environment.

Employees and volunteers report a need for clear policies, role assignments, procedures, and organizational goals; however, they describe the opposite work environment when asked to describe their own organization. Data from the interviews support the existence of a willingness of nonprofit employees and volunteers to tolerate unchallenged, negative founder behavior. The willingness to do so may be the outcome of what was uncovered in the English and Peters (2012) study, that nonprofit organizations have an unspoken rule that you do not buck the system or directly confront the founder. When asked in the interview why they do not speak up, the employees and volunteers alluded to this unspoken rule.

In some cases, toleration of founder behavior might be because it comes from the person revered as the one who had the wherewithal to start the organization. This finding supports a previous study in which founders and staff refers to the tough, relentless, take-charge characteristics as the very attributes that moved the organization from a visionary state to a functional organization (English and Peters, 2012). Employees and volunteers interviewed in the study heralded founder characteristics such as boldness, strength, aggressiveness, and tenaciousness of the founder. However, those same characteristics appear to not to be well- received when used to manage people. Employees and

volunteers spoke of the importance to them to have a voice in decisions of the organization.

The current study is an extension of English and Peters (2012) study on founder's syndrome in women's nonprofit organizations. The English and Peters study, built upon Block and Rosenberg's (2002) study, explored founder's syndrome in nonprofit organizations that offered empowerment type services to women. However, Block and Rosenberg surveyed men and women, unlike my current study and the English & Peters study that focused solely on women. The English and Peters study surveyed women's organizations to test for the existence of founder's syndrome, examine how founders retain control and establish agendas beyond their terms in office, and how founders impact the ability of younger members to contribute to and influence organizational direction.

Research findings of the English and Peters (2012) study suggested that a lack of critical scrutiny may result in ineffective work practices and of exclusionary management practices such as founder's syndrome. A second finding was that older women founders are likely to be visionaries with executable ideas and less likely to emanate skilled management practices such planning, providing supportive environments, or supporting collaborative teamwork environments. The third finding was that the impact of founder's syndrome for younger members or those with less tenure is discouragement of the younger or less tenured members to speak up or to voice a dissenting opinion.

The current study followed English and Peters (2012) recommendation for further research to examine the impact of founder's syndrome in nonprofit organizations founded

by women and women of different races. This study selected African American women to study as the population for women of a different race. Evidence of discernible differences were not detected between organizations founded by African American women and organizations founded by Caucasian women.

One important finding of the analysis was that not all of those who work in nonprofit organizations aspire to hold leadership positions. Yet, they all expect some form of mentorship and training on how they could better serve the cause within the role they have in the organization. Founders recognize the need to include training and mentoring of employees and volunteers but express concern about the investment of time required from their already over-taxed schedule. Although this mirrors findings in English and Peters (2012) study, it is not consistent with the responses given by founders in the study when asked of the importance of mentoring and training. Mentoring and training was not included in the early phase of development of the organization or in current strategic plans for any of these organizations in the study.

Founders cite increased demand for services, insufficient funding, and competition for the volunteer labor pool as areas of concern regarding the nonprofit organization. Only in one case in the study did a founder confirm that they have a succession plan in place for the organization or that they have entertained thoughts of the organization's future without them at the helm. A research topology on nonprofit executives was created to analyze the manner in which nonprofit founders approach leadership succession (Martin, Martin, & Mabbett, 2002) The findings indicate that most founders do not make succession plans and rarely relinquish their positions as CEOs or

presidents without a struggle (Santora & Sarros, 2013). This datum is commensurate with findings of the Block and Rosenberg (2002) study in that boards and staff in every organization have the unwritten expectation that founders will become egalitarian and remove themselves from being the decision maker of the organization. Findings of this study indicated that founders do not make such plans because they do not foresee their relationship with the organization as finite.

Founders acknowledged use of their privilege as the founder to influence the direction of the organization. Founders expressed that they do not feel this to be something sinister or negative and that their real intention is to safeguard the organization's existence. Founders also indicated their belief that they have every right to do so, a right that stems from the fact that they are the creator of the organization. Founders in the study reported that use of their position to influence organizational direction makes sense because they know the vision of the organization better than anyone else. Founders typically view their organization as more of a personal possession, one in which they have a right to make certain decisions.

These beliefs follow the classic definition of founder's syndrome, which refers to Block and Rosenberg's (2002) study of the influential powers and privileges founders exercise. The belief of ownership and the right to make decisions on behalf of what founders believe to be a personal possession stems from feelings of psychological ownership. The theory of psychological ownership and concept of possession supports the whys and wherefores of the innately possessive human.

The theory of psychological ownership (Pierce et al., 2003) offers an explanation to the driving forces of psychological ownerships as intra-individual motives such as efficacy, self-identity, and having a place to dwell. Through the integration of prior research from other disciplines such as social psychology, philosophy, psychology, management, and sociobiological theories, Pierce et al. (2003) combined the scholarly disciplines to form clarity on the subject matter of psychological ownership and possessive feelings that exist in organizations. Founders unconsciously attach themselves to their nonprofit organizations in the earliest days of its conception. By the time the concept is developed and is organized, the almost unbreakable bond between founder and organization already exists.

The predecessor of psychological owner is the concept of possession. The concept of possession refers to the things people call "theirs" that denotes ownership and translates to "this is mine" based on their psychological attachment to the object (Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2003). Beaglehole (1932) conducted a cross-cultural study using field data from many disciplines to gain an understanding of the nature of possession. Findings of the study indicated that animals possess objects because they fulfill certain specific needs and desires. Beaglehole (1932) summarize the results and implications of the study as the psychological origin of property based on the appropriation of those objects, and argue personal property is part of the self with its value set by environmental and social patterns.

Founders fear loss of control of decisions to boards and donor, which to them is the loss of power. They worry that if they do not protect their vision for the organization,

that the vision might not be fully understood by those who are empowered to alter the vision and result in the demise of the organization. In Avey et al.'s (2009) study of the problems of power, control, and governance by founders within nonprofit organizations, founder behavior was found to affect the organization's ability to attract and retain volunteers and employees. Founders believe they are often criticized, and less likely to be supported. One of the emergent themes of founders in the study is that they feel a lack of respect and support. None of the founders indicated having a specific person or mentor as a guide.

Building on English and Peters (2012) study of women founders of nonprofit organizations, this study confirms that founders affect leadership, interaction with employees and volunteers, and organizational growth. Findings that add to the current body of knowledge is that founders, employees, and volunteers share common concerns about the organization such as issues of control, lack of support, and inclusion. Founders are unaware that possessive behavior is disruptive, is perceived as being negative, and impedes organizational growth. Additionally, founder characteristics can affect employees and volunteers in both positive and negative ways. Founders have tunnel vision when it comes to giving attention to their succession. Employees and volunteers want to be involved in decisions of the organization. These findings have implications for the practice of nonprofit human resource management guidelines, training of founders, and policy procedures by funders.

This study provides empirical evidence that founder's syndrome behavior impacts founders, employees, and volunteers by silencing the voices of the young or less tenured,

induces distrust that founders care more about the being in control than about the mission, and that founders themselves need more support to adequately develop their organizations. To this extent, English and Peters (2012) study recommended further study of nonprofit organizations founded by women. This study responded to that call for further research.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations considered for this study were lack of prior research and available data, self-reported data, author bias, and data collection processes. The following is a detailed explanation of each of these limitations. The first limitation will be lack of prior research and available data. Prior to this study, only two extant research studies on founder's syndrome and its impact on the nonprofit organization are available that counts as previous empirical data for this topic, and that data does not extend itself to address the specific variables of this study. Consequently, the lack of available data minimizes assertions to support future research data. The lack of available data limited the establishment of a trend, but was useful as an addition to existing empirical knowledge.

The second limitation considered was self-reported data in which individuals told stories about themselves and their own experiences. However, self-reported data challenges validity because it depends on the memory of participants who may not respond truthfully, research questions that may be leading, or participants who may misunderstand the question.

The third limitation considered was author bias. This study espoused a constructionists' paradigm that include the belief that people construct their

understanding of the world based on prior experiences. Therefore, it was neither feasible nor necessary for me to eliminate all biases or expectations, but prudent that questions were asked in a way that guarded against the imposition of their expectations and be attentive to the impact of those expectations. By asking the participant to use an example through story, after response to a question, minimized expectations of the participant.

The fourth limitation considered was the data collection process. Due to time constraints, this study uses a single source of data collection. In-depth interviews was selected as the method for questions. The final limitation offered is that this study was use of a small sample, therefore impeding generalization of the results beyond the specific population of the data collection.

Implications for Social Change

A better understanding of the impact of founder's syndrome on founders, employees, and volunteers has two implications; to strengthen the internal structure of nonprofit organizations, and to reshape current policy on use of grant funds to support training and development in nonprofit organizations. These findings have important implications for the ways in which we teach about nonprofit organizations, and for the ways in which we allocate resources to these organizations.

Nonprofit organizations function best when its internal structures consists of attentive founders, employees who feel valued, and involved volunteers, who together form a productive team that enables mission completion. Empirical knowledge ascertained through efforts of this study, deliver an informed perspective of the importance that nonprofit organizational leadership have knowledge of methods to

combat founder's syndrome. A new focus on the internal management of nonprofit organizations should include the empirically based evidence of the phenomena of founder's syndrome.

Through education and advocacy, the focus of attention is toward those who fund, set policy, or are considered key stakeholders of nonprofit organizations. I explored founder's syndrome through narrative inquiry, and interviewed founders, employees, and volunteers, in an attempt to answer the question, "What is the impact of founder's syndrome on founders, employees, and volunteers?"

Implications of Practice

The findings from this study contribute several important implications for practice. The first implication for practice is the recognition that founders, with all of their charisma, creativity, abilities to develop an organization, and capacity to raise funds, do not necessarily have the leadership skills needed to successfully manage the business side of a nonprofit organization. Founders need external support and guidance in development of those skills. This support may come in the form of courses, certifications, consultants, or from a mentor.

The phenomenon of founder's syndrome is not discriminate of type, age, size, mission, or location of nonprofit organizations. Findings of this study indicate the presence of founder's syndrome can exist in even the smallest of nonprofit organizations, and in organizations founded and led by women. Theorist indicate that the desire for control is innate, and may lead the founder to engage in behaviors such as the use of power and privileges that may threaten the well-being of the organization (Pierce et al.,

2003; Furby, 1974; Beaglehole, 1932). No nonprofit organization is impervious to the phenomena that, if left unattended, can wreak havoc in the organization.

The second implication to practice comes from the data analyses that suggest founders are oblivious that their leadership style can inhibit growth of the organization, and of the impact that certain behaviors have on the organization. Founders are ultimately accountable for everything that happens in their organization, but it is difficult to fix something that you do not know is broken. Access to a professional who could identify founder's syndrome within the organization and put the organization back on track would be beneficial. However, many new organizations are unwilling or unable to pay someone to come into their organization as a consultant. Given the importance to have knowledge of founder's syndrome and management related topics, thought should be given to the development of an inexpensive certification program should be required as a prerequisite to receipt of the organization's charter.

Important keys to the successful management of nonprofit organizations include training, extended knowledge of leadership needs, and knowledge of other nonprofit founders and services offered in the community. A good place to begin is with the local Internal Revenue Service to ensure eligibility of as a 501 (c) (3) nonprofit charity IRS tax status. Most states have a Small Business Administration (SBA) organization that can offer guidance to obtain Charter set-up and direction of early development requirements for the organization.

In the state from which this study was conducted, there is an association of nonprofit organizations and Secretary of State Offices that offer a full range of low cost

client services, resources, and training, many of which are instructed by local faculty and other experts in the field. Its certified trainers use the core principles of the Standards of Excellence to maximize results in nonprofit organizations. For currently established organizations, local Chamber of Commerce and local nonprofit organization associations offer workshops and network opportunities, usually taught by local experts, as a way to connect the nonprofit community.

While in its formative phase, nonprofit organizations may benefit from accessible paper and electronic guide pamphlets as a resource tool. A host of resources and tools currently exists for smaller nonprofit organizations, but founders are not aware of the existence or availability of those resources.

Implication of Policy

The first implication of policy stems from the fact that small nonprofit organizations tend to operate in isolation, which robs founders of the opportunity to collaborate with other small or medium sized nonprofit organizations. Rarely do smaller nonprofit organizations have the opportunity to learn from the mistakes of more seasoned nonprofit organizations. Distributors of block type grants or community funders are knowledgeable of the existence of most nonprofit organizations in their region. Ways to assure newer nonprofit organizations do not feel isolated would be to create some type of program that provided incentives to nonprofit organizations that participated in the program. The incentive could be preferential funding, media exposure, or a special gala for organizations that could demonstrate efforts to reach out to newer organizations.

The second implication to policy stems from the need to educate and sensitize funders of the benefit of allowing additional funding to newer nonprofit organizations to cover most if not all of the costs associated with annual training for new founders. An alternative approach would be to require proof of a certificate in nonprofit management, or a series of courses that constitute the basics of management of nonprofit organizations. Before a founder opens its doors to service, it needs to have a clear strategy based on the reality of an assessed need for the service. Nonprofit founders need access to resources that can help them define the internal structure components of the organization such as its culture, management systems, and major support system. The approach needs to occur simultaneously with the early formation of the organization, preferably with the first board.

Retention of nonprofit organizations that sustain its mission goals reduces the gap of services in a community. The relationship between nonprofit founders, volunteers, and employees, is critical to the success of the nonprofit organization. The manner in which senior leadership communicates the vision, values, and mission will influence the sustainability of the organization (Labedz and Berry, 2011). These social change implications include the identification of internal issues and structures that impede the organization's growth. The facilitation of responses that include empowerment of all who are a part of the organization may foster a supportive organizational culture that includes mentoring, training, and a nurturing supportive environment.

Recommendations

Several recommendations exist for future researchers. First, the nonprofit community may benefit from additional research that uses an expanded geographical location and an increased number of participants for the study. Observance of regional or national nonprofit organizations in the United States may create a broader perspective. Second, an important element of the study that emerged was that founders, with all of their good intentions, did not acknowledge their style of leadership may negatively impact the employees and volunteers of the organization. Additional training of leadership and management of nonprofit organizations is recommended for nonprofit founders. Observances are warranted of the impact of the additional training on these organizations. Recommendations for future research include examination of internal issues and structures related to an organization's growth. The result of this study may lead to increased understanding of perceptions of the operations of nonprofit organizations which may impact nonprofit organizations' abilities to meet the goals of their mission. Further recommendations include education of founders, funders, and other key stakeholders of the potential threat founder's syndrome may bring to the nonprofit sector.

Conclusions

Only a small amount of empirical data exists on the impact of founder's syndrome in nonprofit organizations. This study has added to the body of knowledge on founder's syndrome through its exploration of the impact of founder's syndrome within small nonprofit organizations.

The results of this study are an indication of the priority nonprofit organizational leaders must make to retain and preserve its workforce of committed employees and volunteers. Nonprofit leaders must mitigate the challenges of turnover, and recognize that the nonprofit employee has the additional need to enhance their impact on social missions. It all may come down to the organizational culture created by the founder, a culture that includes attention to employee expectations of the founder, both individually and to the mission.

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Appendix A

Rough Transcriptions and Retranscriptions

Founder participant 1 rough transcription. Well these were times early before I even had a concrete idea about what it was that I wanted to address. I knew enough to know that people will try to push their own agendas. I felt as though this was happening to me. That people were not really listening to me. There was always a battle to do things the way I wanted them to be done. These people strongly recommended that I listened to them more because they knew how to get things done. The reality was that they held the grant funds. It was as if the people in the organizations were trying to hold me hostage with their grant funds. I felt as if my ideas were being pushed aside without regards for the fact that I nurtured the concept, I brought it alive, and I should have more say in its development. The board wanted to go along just to get the funding. That is when I began to push, to challenge the board to stand up with me to either push back or be willing to walk away from those 'funding bullies'. Finally, the board was persuaded to support me, and rather than aborting our true mission, we stood our ground. Unfortunately, we did not receive funding from the funding bullies but in the end found another source of funding. The moment defined us. We evolved into a stronger organization because we stood together as a team. It was our first and greatest lesson in unity.

Founder participant 4 rough transcription. Let us get this straight; I have good people working all around me in the organization. I can articulate the mission, vision, and goals all day long, but the buck ultimately stops with me. Integrity must be maintained.

If something goes wrong, the community will look at me first. Sometimes my goals may change a bit. I do not always have time to explain why I may want to shift in my approach to resolving an issue or planning an event. Like the time I had to convince the board to drop a service others felt was important. I must admit, sometimes it is easier to just make a decision and ask the others to trust that I have the organization's best interest at hand. Any of my people have the option of walking away, but I do not! So yes, sometimes I may have to use influence to get a vote for the result I feel is best for the organization. Like the time I had to persuade the board to remove a costly portion of a service provided to youth. I hope that upon reflection by the board or staff of any difficult push for a particular to be decision made, are viewed as a push based on my belief that the decision is best for the organization. My battles are not for me but for what I truly belief is best for the organization.

Founder participant 5 rough transcription. My goal was to make sure that when I transitioned from the organization it would "continue to thrive and not just survive." I nominated someone who the board turned down, and was a little annoyed because I felt the person I nominated would be a good fit. When that nomination was declined, I wanted to withdraw from the process. I took a step back and decided that the answer was not to withdraw from the process, but to make sure I continued to be part of the process. I wanted to pick my successor. The success of this organization that I founded was personal. The personal battle was to fight to ensure the right person was selected. It turned out that the second nominee, also my nomination, was a better fit for the organization and the first nominee found a more suitable offer elsewhere. This is a

great example of trusting the process and using influence for the good of the organization.

Founder participant 11 rough transcription. My organization respected the skill set brought to the table, and relied upon me heavily. I do not know if it was because they felt I knew more or if it was because of the confidence and commitment exuded on a day-to-day basis. Whenever we had challenges we would talk about it not yell our way through it, and were patient with allowing others enough time to digest differing points of view. Because of their over reliance, I pretty much made the decisions and told them what I had decided. In the rare times I had to convince them, it was as simple as putting the pro's on one side of the paper and the con's on the other. That's one way to do it. Take each item one by one until the other side can see your whys. My group tends to lean on me a bit more then I would like for them to. Still, I take criticism well, I listen to them, and if I make a mistake, I will quickly own up to it. Most of the time it is my call anyway, but they trust me.

The next course of action was to retranscribe the rough transcription of each participant's story that was parsed it into numbered lines, and assigned a unique letter to each clause that had an independent temporal anchor. The retranscriptions now represent the core narratives of the four founder participants. According to Labov's (1972, 1982) framework, well-formed stories are made from a common set of elements that provided a skeleton plot. Those elements were used to provide structure to the narrative and provide a starting point of the event. The anchors were tested for placement of the event.

Founder Participant 1 Retranscription

Abstract 001	I felt I was asked to give up control in order to receive funding. There were times when I first got going, before I even had a concrete idea of what or how I wanted address the problem. I was new to the world of nonprofits.
Orientation 002 003 004 005	 I knew just enough to know that people will try to push their own agendas. I felt as though this was happening to me. That people (funders) were not really listening to me. There was always seemed to be a battle to do things the way I wanted them to be done
Complicating Action 009 010 011	 I felt I was being held hostage my ideas were being pushed aside felt as if my ideas were being pushed aside without regards for the fact that I nurtured the concept, I brought it alive, and I should have more say in its development
Evaluation 012 013	 The board wanted to compromise for the sake of the funding That's when I pushed back and challenged the board to stand up with me or be willing to walk away from those "funding bullies".
Resolution 014 015 016 017	 Approached board members individually and as a group to get the support needed to step up to funders or be willing to walk away Board stood behind me and assessed whether we wanted to compromise mission . We stood together as a team but did not receive funding from the funding bullies. In the end we found another source of funding
Coda 018	 We became a stronger organization because we learned to stand because we stood together as a first and greatest lesson that we must function as one unit.

Founder Participant 4 Retranscription

Abstract	
001	I have good people working all around me in my organization. However, I can articulate the mission, vision, and goals all day long
002	but the buck of failure stops with me
003	If something goes wrong, the community will look at me first
Orientation	
003	Mission integrity must be maintained even at the expense of hurt feelings.
004	I must admit, sometimes it is just easier to make a decision without the input of others
005	Like the time I felt I had to persuade the board to drop a youth service that I felt was costly and others felt it was critical to continue to fund.
006	They just need to trust that I know what I am doing and will always have the organizations best interest at hand
Complicating Action	
007	Sometimes I have to change goals without opinions of others
008	I do not always have time to explain my actions, I just need my staff to follow Commitment does not remove tension that is unavoidable
009	All of my people have the option of just walking away, I do not have that option
010	So yes, I may have to use my influence to keep things moving,
011	Priority one is organization stability
Evaluation	
012	Mission integrity brings about stability. Often times founder must have last say, none are more committed than I, who bears ultimate responsibility
Resolution/Coda	
017	Trust that I want best for organization
018	Understand it is never personal but no one has more invested than me
019	We are all in this together
020	I will not always have time to ask for your opinion, nothing personal

Founder Participant 5 Retranscription

Abstract 001	My goal was to make sure that when I transitioned from the organization it would "continue to thrive" and not just survive
Orientation 003	I knew that I would be transitioning out of the organization soon
004	I was a little annoyed because I felt the person I nominated would be a good fit as a successor
005	When my nominee was declined, I took it personally and wanted to bow out of the process
Evaluation	But would not have been best decision for organization. -
010	I knew I could influence others of who I wanted my successor to be
011	I realized the important battle was to put someone in place who shared my similar values
Resolution 012	Decided to stick with the program and try to find another person
013	More important that my organization continue to thrive than to make a point
014	Sometimes best to step back, breathe
Coda	
020	We are all in a good place. My second choice turned out to be best choice.

Founder Participant 11 Retranscription

Abstract 001	My organization respected the skill set that I brought to the table, and relied on me heavily
002	I do not know if it was because they felt I knew more or if it was because of the confidences and commitment I showed on a day-to-day basis.
Orientation	
003	Whenever we had challenges we would talk about it, not yell, but they usually deferred the decision to me
004	I do not want to be the one to make all the decisions, and encourage them to provide input
Complicating Action 005	Because of their lack of initiative or willingness to be part of the decision-making, I feel as though it is up to me.
010	because they over-rely

014	I do not have many cases where I have to convince or use influence
Resolution 017	In the rare cases where there are strong feelings, we do have discussions
Coda 018	I don’t know if that is a good thing or a bad thing

Appendix B: Prescreen Form

1. Does the nonprofit that you are associated with have a 501 (c) (3) tax status?
2. What type(s) of services does the nonprofit offer?
3. Would you be willing to attend a hosted gathering of nonprofit affiliates to hear about or to share their success stories?