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Chief Executive Officers of California Environmental Organizations: A Study of Personal Values Congruence with Organizational Mission

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Chief Executive Officers of California
Environmental Organizations:
A Study of Personal
Values Congruence with
Organizational Mission

A THESIS SUBMITTED

by

Christine Marie Schmidt

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Master of

Nonprofit Administration

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May 13, 1999

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Chief Executive Officers of California
Environmental Organizations:
A Study of Personal
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Organizational Mission

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Christine Marie Schmidt


This Thesis written under the guidelines of the Faculty Advisory Committee, and approved by all its members, has been accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of:

Master of Nonprofit Administration

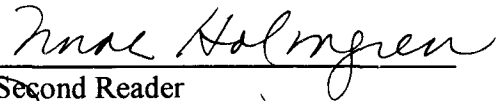
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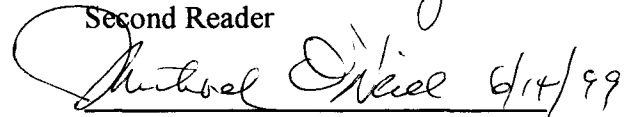
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Abstract

This study surveyed the Chief Executive Officers of 300 California environmental organizations to investigate whether these officers were personally committed to their organizations' missions as demonstrated by 1) past and present activities in their personal lives that indicated personal values similar to those espoused by the organization, and 2) their intent to stay with their organization. It was hypothesized that the level of activity in the personal lives of the CEOs demonstrating personal commitment to their organizations would be positively related to their intent to stay with their organizations. It was also expected that there would be a negative association between the size of the environmental organization, and the amount of evidence indicating that the CEO had personal values that were congruent with those of the organization's mission.

This study demonstrated that the congruence of CEO personal values and organizational mission had a significantly positive effect on the intended length of stay of CEOs with their organizations. It also substantiated that individuals with high levels of values congruence (and therefore intent to stay) were strongly influenced by the environmental mission of the organization when accepting their current position. This has implications for the selection of future chief executive officers.

Vita Auctoris

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Chapter One: Introduction

Nonprofit organizations fulfill a special role in American society. Outside the government bureaucracy and untainted by private inurement, they are strong voices protecting societal rights and values, and act as avenues for recreation, artistic expression, and philanthropy. Each organization's role and purpose is communicated by the organization's mission statement and implemented by the organization's voluntary and professional leaders.

Based upon years of research, Kouzes and Posner (1995) have come to define leadership as "the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations" (p. 30). They apply this definition to the role of leadership within an organization by saying that the leader's primary responsibility is to keep the organization focused on the ultimate view of the future that the organization strives to create. "No matter how much involvement other people have in shaping the vision, we expect that the leader will be able to articulate it" (p. 110). By keeping the organization focused on its vision, the leader can energize staff and volunteers to work to attain it. This thesis surveys the executive leadership of California environmental organizations to see how prepared these executives are to fulfill this important role within their organizations.

The environmental movement is an example of a social movement that has been nurtured throughout its development by the nonprofit sector. "Free from the constant demands of profit margins and elections, the independent sector can experiment with new strategies of social action, respond quickly to new social needs, and generally provide 'social risk' capital" (O'Neill, 1989, p. 16). Starting as a budding movement spurred by the commitment of a few individuals in the late nineteenth century, the environmental

movement has grown to include thousands of organizations that represent the interests of millions of Americans who actively participate by donating money, volunteering, or participating with these groups in other ways. The conclusions drawn from this study, therefore, will be illuminating with regard to the leadership of this particular social movement, and will hold potential implications for other movements being fostered within the nonprofit sector.

Literature indicates that managers who are personally committed to the values of their organization are more effective at their work, and enable others in the organization to be more enthusiastic and effective also (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Kouzes & Posner, 1995). "Commitment" can be measured in many ways, including personal values that are similar to those of the organization, or a manager's feelings of loyalty and dedication to the organization. At a time when environmental leaders self-identify themselves as "overworked and undersupported" (Snow, 1992, p. 80), it is recognized that these CEOs have competing demands on their time, including needs for fund-raising, coalition building, and lobbying. This thesis will investigate whether CEOs of California environmental organizations, in spite of the administrative demands placed upon them, are personally focused on and committed to the future that their organizations wish to create. This vision is most prominently communicated through an organization's mission statement.

This thesis investigates whether chief executive officers of environmental organizations in California are personally committed to their organizations' missions. This commitment will be measured by past and present activities in the personal lives of CEOs that demonstrate personal values similar to those espoused by the organizations, and by

the expressed intent of CEOs to stay with their organizations. It is hypothesized that the level of activity in the personal lives of the CEOs demonstrating personal commitment to their organizations will be positively related to their intent to stay with their organizations. It is also hypothesized that there is a negative association between the size of an environmental organization, and the amount of evidence indicating that the personal values of the CEO are congruent with those expressed in the organization's mission statement.

Background of the Issue

Environmental organizations have undergone extreme institutional transformations throughout the twentieth century. The environmental movement, according to Snow, is now the place "where science, the humanities, policy and law meet in a uniquely holistic setting" (1992, p. xxxii). In the early years of John Muir and Aldo Leopold, however, the issues were less complex and environmentalism simply combined the exploration and enjoyment of nature, with the preservation of nature from development. Even during these two leaders' lifetimes, however, the challenges of environmental protection became too great for individual activism, and so they responded by creating the Sierra Club and other organizations. Since that time, these organizations have indeed become significant forces in the environmental movement, representing the environmental ideals of millions of people.

Along with this growth, however, came tremendous responsibility. To ensure efficacy, funding, credibility, and sustainability, the environmental organizations began to adopt organizational structures that at times looked more like businesses. At the root of this transition was the development of membership-driven organizations. Membership

growth was the result of successful volunteer efforts to expand the conservation message and to recruit voices and signatures to save the environment.

The late 1960s and early 1970s were revolutionary years for environmental policy, which witnessed the enactment of landmark environmental laws including the Wilderness Act, the Clean Air Act, the Clear Water Act, and the Endangered Species Act, and the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA). Enacted in 1969, NEPA required federal agencies to include environmental protection in all their plans and activities.

Environmental impact statements were to be written for each project that agencies intended to manage or endorse, after extensive investigation into the effect the project would have on the environment. Legislation like this provided environmentalists a role in the review of federal projects, and guaranteed that environmental issues would not be overlooked. Although not a foolproof safety measure, this approach of adding an environmental safeguard to federal project planning was a major milestone.

President Reagan's anti-environmental policies during the 1980s infuriated the public, who thought their wildlands had been saved in the preceding decades, and that they had been guaranteed clean air and water. According to Stewart Udall, U.S. Secretary of the Interior between 1961 and 1969, "After nearly two decades of gains under five presidents, environmentalists were stunned in 1981 when the new Secretary of the Interior, James Watt, characterized their goals as 'extremist' and announced that the Reagan administration intended to "reverse twenty-five years of bad resource management" (Borrelli, 1988, p. 99). Reagan's philosophy that the marketplace, rather than the government, should dictate resource management practices, led to "an unprecedented 1-billion-acre sale of oil leases on the continental shelf" (p. 101); the

promotion of nuclear technology, regardless of the resulting pollution and danger to surrounding communities; and the abandonment of energy-efficient policies. In response to these threats, the memberships of national environmental organizations rose dramatically, from four million members in 1981 to approximately seven million in 1988 (p. 103). President Reagan's indifference to environmental protection issues mobilized individual Americans to get involved themselves.

Environmental groups reacted to these events by strengthening their internal structures to resist the backlash of federal-level anti-environmentalism, and to accommodate rapid membership growth. The public joined to voice their environmental concerns and protest the Reagan Administration's policies. In addition, as federal funds for publicly supported environmental programs (such as National Park acquisition and maintenance) decreased dramatically, environmental organizations had to emphasize membership revenue to support an increased need for their services and higher levels of legislative activity in Washington D.C. Competition for members increased significantly among environmental organizations, leading each to use increasingly professional marketing programs and direct mail campaigns. Dues-paying contributors had become the foundation, in a sense, of the modern environmental movement.

This shift to expensive, staff-led marketing and membership promotion programs differentiated small, grass-roots, volunteer-driven and often local groups from the larger, more established national organizations. The increased need for staff lobbying in Washington, law professionals working within the court system, and scientists defending clean policies, also contributed to the differentiation, because only the national organizations could afford this level of personnel. Foundations and other funders also

tended to favor larger, more professional and established organizations in their funding practices. This thesis will examine chief executive officers from both types of organizations, to attain an understanding of existing trends in environmental leadership.

Due to rapid growth in membership, national organizations had to increase staff levels and adopt professional management practices to increase membership revenue to support conservation projects and maintain fiscal survival. The professionalization of environmental organizations was necessary to gain legitimacy and respect in the eyes of funders, policy makers, economists, natural resource managers, and scientists. One of the many internal conflicts encountered during this time was the Sierra Club's search for a replacement for Michael McCloskey, who resigned as executive director in 1985. The board sought someone "capable of concentrating its professional, technical, and lobbying resources" (Gottlieb, 1993, p. 151), and settled on former Nixon aide Douglas Wheeler, who rapidly became a focus of contention, at least in part due to his lack of understanding and appreciation of the organization's volunteer/activist culture and traditions. He was fired by the board after only 16 months in the position.

While large organizations struggled to make a smooth transition to professional, expertise-oriented entities, the small organizations fought to survive. Small groups found that individual supporters were more attracted to the marketing strategies of large organizations, and funders were less inclined to support organizations that participated in direct-action environmentalism. In short, smaller groups found it difficult to gain the support necessary to allow them to develop the professional attributes they required to survive. Environmental Action is an organization, for example, which suffered from a lack of expertise after experiencing growth and recognition during the Earth Day festivities of

1970. Lack of foundation support hampered expansion of the organization's professional capabilities, and the organization remained "a group without a clearly defined role, walking on the divide between the various movements" (Gottlieb, 1993, p. 136).

The difficulties encountered by environmentalists during the Reagan era fostered internal reflection on the nature of organizations and the environmental movement. Environmental professionals reassessed their role in environmental protection. As Borrelli (1988) comments in his book covering the movement's development, "Obstacles placed in the way of aggressive environmental action . . . have forced environmental advocates not only to try harder but to reexamine priorities and strategies" (p. 3). Snow (1992) indicates that the debate over the appropriate level of professionalism is a topic of reflection today within the environmental community, with some leaders complaining that the era has passed when "conservationists were employed for their zeal, persistence, and charisma rather than their ability to manage sophisticated fund-raising campaigns or make prudent decisions over whether to build a new headquarters" (Snow, 1992, p. 4).

Statement of the Issue

Nonprofits define their special roles in society by the use of mission statements that outline organizational purposes beyond profit-making and financial health. Mission statements indicate why organizations exist. The mission of the organization is referred to at the budget negotiating table, when new programs are added or old ones are modified, and when new opportunities are discovered or threats are posed. This mission is often referred to as taking the place of the profit motive in private businesses (Knauff, Berger & Gray, 1991).

Mission statements are effective management tools, and private corporations are widely adopting them to improve their management. According to Peter F. Drucker, the mission statement and the management of an organization around it may be the most important lesson nonprofits can offer for-profit corporations (Drucker, 1989). However, in for-profit corporations, the mission statement is a means to the realization of profit, and not an end in itself. For a nonprofit corporation, the mission is the true purpose of the organization's existence, and the financial health of the organization is important only so that the mission can be achieved.

Chief executive officers are not only managers of their organizations, but leaders representing the mission of their organization to volunteers and staff internally, and to funders, policy makers, and the general public externally. Drucker (1990) states that "the first task of the leader is to make sure that everybody sees the mission, hears it, lives it" (p. 45). A mission is what creates internal motivation and momentum for an organization, while communicating a consistent message externally. Unlike their corporate counterparts, CEOs of nonprofit organizations must consider more than simply the financial health of their organization. They must also make sure that, by satisfying its mission, the organization fulfills the commitment it made to society.

Historically, people hired as CEOs were chosen because they had demonstrated a strong commitment to the mission of the organization through volunteer work or contributing in other ways. Today, however, nonprofits focus heavily on the ability of chief executive officers to handle the business aspects of managing organizational resources. The Conservation Fund noted this trend in its 1992 Conservation Leadership Project study of environmental leadership (cited by Snow, 1992), by revealing that on

average, staff leaders spend 71 percent of their time performing administrative duties, including personnel and board development, planning, fund-raising and public speaking. Program planning and implementation take up 29 percent of leaders' time (Snow, 1992, p. 58).

Also in the Conservation Leadership Project, environmental leaders identified high staff turnover as a barrier for effectively influencing public policy, enforcing environmental regulations, and soliciting voter support for environmental positions (Snow, 1992). In addition to the staff issues cited by the environmental leadership, a CEO's tenure affects an organization in unique ways. As experienced by an academic who recently spent a year as an executive of a private firm, new executives "have almost no real power as individuals and very little real influence, at least in their first year" (Goldhar, 1996, p. 46). Given the time sensitivity of most environmental issues, organizations trying to address them would be much more effective if they had leaders able to exert their power and influence. For this study, a CEO's "intent to stay" with their organization for a long period is used as an indicator of a CEO's commitment to the organization.

Literature has shown that leaders within an organization are more effective at their functions when their personal values are congruent with those of their organization. For example, in a discussion of the importance of mission statements and the best ways to utilize them within nonprofit organizations, Drucker (1990) writes that one of the three most important things to remember, is that the mission is not "impersonal. I have never seen anything being done well unless people were committed" (p. 7). Based upon extensive study of organizations in the private, public, and nonprofit sectors, Kouzes and Posner (1995) concluded that "when there's congruence between individual values and

organizational values, there's significant payoff for leaders and their organizations" (p. 213). These findings have heavily influenced the present study, which investigates the congruence of personal values held by chief executive officers of California environmental organizations with the primary values of their organizations, as expressed in mission statements.

Normative Definitions of Variables

CEO: The chief executive officer, or lead staff person of an organization by any other title, frequently "executive director." Literature indicates that it is the CEO who has the responsibility to translate the mission of an organization to the employees and other constituents (Drucker, 1990; Kouzes & Posner, 1995). A CEO does this by designing and overseeing programs, implementing policy, and fostering an organizational culture that facilitates achievement of the organization's mission.

Environmental organization: An organization whose primary purpose is the protection, conservation, and preservation of the earth's natural resources. Such organizations may be classified into several categories, as developed in the research of Snow (1992). Traditional groups, Snow wrote, include "any group whose principal mission is to foster the wise, sustained use of natural resources for human need, enjoyment, and betterment" (p. 12). Preservationist organizations on the other hand, "stand for the maintenance of natural living systems intact and as whole as possible, usually under the aegis of special protective designations, whether public or private" (p. 12). Others environmental groups specify as their main goal the protection of air, water, and soil quality, or some other specific aspect of the environment. This latter type

of group includes some animal rights organizations. The Coral Reef Alliance, for example, is fighting to preserve oceanic ecosystems by focusing its efforts on one animal within it, the coral.

Mission: The mission of an organization is the purpose of an organization, as stated in IRS documents, publications and promotional brochures, and the stated commitment that it makes to stakeholders and the public. A mission statement may outline the activities an organization is involved with, as for example the Sierra Club's statement: "To explore, enjoy and protect the wild places of the earth; to practice and promote the responsible use of the earth's ecosystems and resources; to educate and enlist humanity to protect and restore the quality of the natural and human environments." Other mission statements may focus more on the future they strive to create.

Size: Comparing the leadership of small and large organizations can be valuable because the comparison may indicate what leadership attributes work and promote organizational survival. Such comparison may also foreshadow the characteristics small organizations will be most likely to adopt in the future, because if an organization survives, it will likely become larger over time (O'Neill & Young, 1988; Snow, 1992).

Organizational values: Business organizations may have many values directed to specific aspects of organizational operations: customer service, timeliness, or workplace safety, for example. In nonprofit organizations, however, the mission statement is the primary value of the organization. The mission statement of Harley-Davidson is "Tell the Truth; Be Fair; Keep Your Promises; Respect the Individual; Encourage Intellectual Curiosity." Microsoft's mission statement is "To push technology forward, making products that help businesses operate more efficiently as organizations and help people

perform more effectively as individuals.” These are strong statements of organizational values, but they cannot compare with the mission statements of environmental organizations that tap people’s emotions regarding social responsibility issues. The mission statements of nonprofit organizations state the primary values and purposes of the organization (Rarick & Vitton, 1995).

CEO personal values: The personal values of CEOs are investigated as they relate to the environmental missions of their organizations. These include environmental values acted upon in the personal lives of CEOs and in their career choices. The survey conducted for this study will ascertain to what degree CEOs observe in their personal lives the environmental values they are charged to promote in their professional lives.

Research Question

This thesis will inquire whether CEOs of California environmental organizations have personal values that are congruent with their organizations' missions, as indicated by their present and past activities demonstrating values similar to those espoused by their organizations through their mission statements. This thesis also investigates the level of commitment of CEOs to their organizations, as indicated by their intent to stay with their organizations and the environmental movement. It is hypothesized that the level of personal activity demonstrating personal commitment to an organization will be positively related to an intent to stay with that organization and the environmental movement. It is also expected that there will be a negative association between the size of an environmental organization, and the degree to which personal values of a CEO are congruent with those of the organization's mission.

Importance of the Study

A large, professionally-managed and mission-driven national organization recently hired a chief executive officer to head one of its chapters. The chapter breathed a sigh of relief to have a skilled professional at the helm. The new executive, however, resigned two weeks later. He did not quit because he could not work with the board of directors or because the financial statements were worse than he expected. He quit because he had a strong, moral conviction that was drastically different from the position stated in the mission statement of the organization and enacted through its programs. Officials of this organization indicate that this case is far from usual; but it demonstrates, quite effectively, the antithesis of the nonprofit tradition, which is for staff persons to work with a nonprofit

primarily because they are personally committed to the mission of the organization, rather than for other criteria.

The available research literature shows that the congruence of an executive's personal values with those of an organization is an indicator of leadership excellence and organizational success (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Meglino, Ravlin & Adkins, 1989; Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Assuming that a mission statement accurately indicates the primary values of an organization, and following the suggestion made by researchers that "the *most significant* values deal with the organization's hoped-for impact on society" (Posner, Kouzes & Schmidt, 1985, p. 304), this thesis will assess the congruence of a CEOs' personal values and an organization's environmental mission, relative to organizational size. This methodology may prove useful to boards of directors as they hire new chief executive officers. If the data show that a majority of current CEOs do not have personal values that are consistent with the missions of their organizations, perhaps boards of directors should be considering this factor more in the selection of chief executive officers.

The findings of this study may also assist people looking for a position as chief executive officer of an environmental organization. If study results indicate that larger organizations have CEOs who demonstrate less dedication to their organizations' missions, for example, this may indicate that the culture of larger organizations favors managers with more technical skills than personal dedication to environmental preservation. If so, prospective CEOs may wish to consider managing smaller organizations that foster and utilize greater personal commitment to environmental work.

According to Sheehan (1996), there is a significant amount of literature

documenting the importance of missions, but there is a lack of literature concerning how missions are translated into operational terms. This thesis is intended to partially fill this literature gap concerning the role of the chief executive officer, and the hiring of the chief executive officer, by providing current information regarding trends in executive dedication to organizational missions and how this dedication is utilized in the hiring process.

Current literature indicates that the “primacy of mission” in the management and operation of an organization is an indicator of organizational effectiveness (Knauff, et al., 1991). Data from this study will indicate to what degree mission was a factor in selecting CEOs.

Limitations of the Study

Because this is a cross-sectional study, many internal factors operating within individual organizations will not be considered. The leadership structure in some organizations, for example, may afford the chief executive officer a more limited role than the typical leadership position assumed for the purposes of this study.

Due to time and financial considerations, the sample used in this study may not be representative of the nonprofit sector throughout California. The diversity of organizations in this state would render determination of representativeness a difficult issue in any study, and this study is not perfectly representative.

The sample was drawn exclusively from California. The unique economic, geographic and demographic characteristics of California may limit this study’s applicability to other states. The popularity of California, for example, has significant

impact on the employment pool because many people make career choices to relocate here.

The Harbinger File, from which survey participants were selected, is the most complete directory of environmental organizations in California, but it is not a complete directory. Very small and very new organizations are unlikely to be included in the database. Those not listed are not included in this study's sample.

Organizations were chosen for inclusion in the study based on a "small" and "large" organization classification scheme proposed by O'Neill and Young (1988). The size of the categories – annual budgets under \$1 million and annual budgets over \$1 million – are no longer as applicable as they were in 1988. The range of organizational budgets in 1998 is significantly different. A related limitation is that environmental organizations may have different budget ranges than the nonprofit organizations discussed in the articles. Further, the present study focuses only on environmental organizations, and so the applicability to other nonprofit subsectors is limited. This study proceeded from a decision to gather in-depth information about one nonprofit subsector, rather than a broad knowledge of many.

This study assumes that mission statements are the primary indicators of organizational values. This assumption allows the researcher to investigate the congruence of CEO personal values with organizational values as presented in mission statements.

In this study, organizational and individual values are evaluated independently. The values of the individual are self-assessed as being congruent or not, based on the individual's perceptions of the organization's values. There may also be survey bias due

to certain values in the survey being assessed by the respondent as “socially desirable.” Question 16a of the survey, for example, asks how often the survey respondent recycles household items. This is a very “socially desirable” activity, and respondents may feel impelled to provide affirmative answers to conform to society’s expectations, rather than to reflect their actual behavior (Meglino, et al., 1989, p. 425).

This thesis attempts to assess the environmental values of CEOs, but does not claim to completely capture them. There are many ways to positively and negatively impact the environment, and no questionnaire could adequately assess an individual’s values regarding all environmental issues. In addition, there are many reasons for being loyal and dedicated to an organization, and this study does not inquire about them all. For example, a person may be committed to an organization because of social relationships with others who are involved in the organization.

Every environmental organization has a unique mission statement. This thesis will review mission statements as reported in the survey to be sure that they are similar enough to combine for the purposes of comparison. If one organization has a mission statement that glorifies water pollution, for example, this mission would vary significantly from the other organizations and the congruence of the CEOs to this value would not be accurate across the sample. The survey was written to include indicators of commitment to the “environmental mission” that will apply to a variety of environmental organizations.

Chapter Two: Review of Related Literature

Nonprofit organizations are corporations that must manage day-to-day operations just like private companies such as General Motors or Pacific Bell. In addition, nonprofit organizations have criteria for success that go beyond fiscal survival and expansion. Many nonprofits focus on issues of strong emotional appeal to individual donors, volunteers, and staff members. An organization serving food to AIDS-affected adults, for example, must survive financially and compete for foundation and corporate funding, but must also strive to ensure that the needs of the AIDS community are being met as fully, respectfully, and compassionately as possible. This basic purpose of a nonprofit organization is defined in its mission statement.

The mission statement has been an effective tool for nonprofit organizations, providing a core focus for their programs, and an impetus for organization leaders to look outside their organizations and constantly evaluate the social need for their missions. Mission statements have become a management phenomenon in the private sector during the early 1980s, primarily because of two books, *In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best-run Companies*, by Thomas J. Peters and Robert H. Waterman, Jr. (1982) and *Theory Z: How American Business Can Meet the Japanese Challenge*, by William G. Ouchi (1981). Both books emphasize the benefits of clear statements of values and philosophies. In the years that have followed, mission statements and other statements of corporate values have proven effective tools in practice. Approximately six out of every ten large American companies now have their own statement of values, mission, vision or principles (Ledford, Wendenhof, & Strahley, 1995). The difference inherent between mission statements of private businesses and those of nonprofit organizations, however, is

that private businesses utilize mission statements to solidify business plans, market strategy, and internal loyalty and motivation. In the nonprofit sector, the mission statement is the sole purpose of the organization; the business plan is created to support it.

In an article describing the benefits of mission statements, Romuald A. Stone (1996) concludes that the mission statement is the key to “creating a competitive advantage” (p. 38) Stone makes the point early in his article that mission statements are used to increase the profit margin of companies. He cites several examples of companies, including Quaker State Corporation and United Parcel Service, that designed mission statements as a means of recreating corporate cultures to enable them to gain market share. Both companies have realized significant benefits from this practice.

Three purposes for corporate mission statements have been outlined by Ledford and colleagues, who performed an extensive literature review and case study to explain the popularity of mission statements (Ledford, Wendenhof, Strahley, 1995). They summarize that mission statements can be used to guide individual and organizational behavior and decisions; express organizational culture, internally and externally; and contribute to organizational performance by motivating employees or by inspiring feelings of commitment. If the lofty ideals expressed in the statement resonate with employees' private values, employees may view organizational goals as consistent with their own desires.

Researchers Lee Ginsburg and Neil Miller (cited by Ledford, et al., 1995) state that rather than achieving all of the above goals, many mission statements are not taken seriously, and that “for many firms, corporate values, if addressed at all, were only cited in advertisements, press releases, and company newsletters” (p. 8). Mission statements

become, in practice, an internal and external public relations tool, bolstering a positive corporate culture within a business, and promoting the business in the market.

The Independent Sector, a national leadership forum that promotes philanthropy, volunteering, nonprofit initiative, and citizen action, sponsored a study entitled “Profiles in Excellence” in 1996. The authors of the study, Knauff and colleagues, described the importance of organizational missions and pointed to the importance of further research on the issue. The authors emphasized the importance of a clearly stated mission by coining the term “primacy of mission.” They found that CEOs and board chairs surveyed for their study most often listed a “clear sense of mission” as a characteristic of an effective organization. In addition, 82 percent of the board chairs interviewed indicated that “a strong mission orientation is the top criterion on which to judge the effectiveness of a chief staff officer” (Knauff, et al., 1991, p. 4). “The best leaders, we found, embody their organizational mission. They can clearly articulate the mission and transmit it to others with a sense of excitement” (p. 8).

Profiles of Excellence collected data from existing literature, focus groups, a questionnaire answered by 950 chief executive officers in the nation, and 10 organizational case studies. This study concluded that the four characteristics of excellence for an organization are a clearly stated mission; a leader who fosters a culture that enables and motivates the organization to fulfill the mission; an involved and committed board that works effectively with the CEO and acts as a liaison with the community; and the ability to attract sufficient resources (Knauff, et al., 1991, p. 2).

Although the Profiles in Excellence project revealed the importance of mission, it was not designed to collect extensive data on how organizations use their mission

statements (for example, to evaluate programs or assess organizational effectiveness).

Given the research findings stressing the importance of mission statements, further research regarding how these organizations utilize their mission statements in these ways would be useful for the nonprofit sector (Sheehan, 1996).

One criteria commonly used to measure how well organizations are using their mission statements is the ability of leaders to create and maintain momentum toward achieving a vision. This vision not only applies to the management of the organization, but also in how well the organization's purpose matches leaders' internal values. In numerous studies, the personal values of a manager are cited as a criteria for organizational prosperity. In a study of leadership in about 30 organizations, including the Girl Scouts of America and Southwest Airlines, two of the key components of successful leadership were a balance between values and strategies, and consistent communication of the organization's mission and values (Heskett & Schlesinger, 1997). In a similar study by Tait (1996) based upon interviews with 18 business leaders, vision was found to be the most important leadership attribute. Tait emphasized that the simply stated mission of an organization should remain at the forefront to guide an organization.

Research on the importance of vision has been prevalent in the management field in recent years. Kouzes and Posner define "vision" as the ability of a manager to think of the long-term future of an organization and communicate this vision to others. The manager must remain committed to the mission and continuously remind others of it. Kouzes and Posner write, "Leaders animate the vision and make manifest the purpose so that others can see it, hear it, taste it, touch it, feel it. In making the intangible vision tangible, leaders ignite constituents' flame of passion" (1995, p. 133).

Nonprofit organizations are inherently structured to capitalize on the “vision” movement because they have mission statements already written and institutionalized to serve as the basis for related vision statements. These missions are one piece of the larger vision as defined by Senge. “Values” are the first stepping stone, defining day-to-day behaviors and attitudes. “Mission” is the purpose of the organization itself, while “vision” is the long-term view of the future, incorporating the contributions of the organization (Senge, 1990). Inspiring a contagious commitment to the values, mission, and vision of an organization is particularly important for CEOs of nonprofit agencies, because they often fulfill the role of the external voice for an organization, as a leader of staff and volunteers, and as a spokesperson for the larger issue that the organization was founded to address.

In a 15-year study of thousands of business managers, Kouzes and Posner (1995) found that a positive correlation between the personal values of individual managers and values of the organizations they lead yielded significant benefits for those organizations. Among the benefits were increased consensus about key organizational goals; development of a culture valuing ethical behavior; and higher levels of dedication to organizational goals. In addition, Kouzes and Posner found that not only is there a positive influence on managers’ efficacy if their values are in line with their organizations, but there is an even stronger effect if the managers have clarity about their personal values, and those values are congruent with those of the organization. This study focuses on the personal activities of CEOs, because personal action indicates that CEOs have clarity about personal values. If this study focused on stated values only, rather than actions, the data captured would include values about which CEOs have less clarity, as indicated by a lesser degree of behavior consistent with those values.

Table 1 graphically represents earlier research findings of Posner and Schmidt (1993), as cited in Kouzes and Posner (1995), regarding the similarity between personal and organizational values, and the degree of commitment to an organization. Over one thousand surveys of managers' personal and organizational values were compiled, and analysis of variance tests produced the values in Table 1. This table illustrates the added effect found when the individual in question has high clarity about his/her personal values, and high clarity about organizational values. The cells in Table 1 represent clarity about personal and organizational values. The numbers within the cells represent the extent of an individual's commitment to their organizations on a scale of 1, low, to 7, high.

Table 1

Values Congruence and Individual Commitment to Organization

HIGH clarity of org. values	4.87	6.26
LOW clarity of org. values	4.90	6.12

LOW clarity of personal values HIGH clarity of personal values

(Kouzes & Posner, 1995. p. 219)

There are many definitions for commitment utilized throughout the literature analyzing the importance of individual and organizational values congruence. The “central theme that continues to appear is the individual’s psychological attachment to an organization” (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 492).

An important component of psychological attachment is the process of identification between an employee and the organization. This includes an employee’s personal identification with the values of the organization. For the purposes of their study, O’Reilly and Chatman define organizational commitment as the psychological attachment to the organization felt by the employee, which reflects the “degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics of perspectives of the organization” (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 493). Citing Kelman (1958), O’Reilly and Chatman describe a three-tier hierarchy of organizational commitment. The classifications are compliance, which is involvement based upon expectation of reward; identification, which is involvement based upon desire for affiliation; and internalization. It is this third classification that is most related to the current study. According to O’Reilly and Chatman, “Internalization occurs when influence is accepted because the introduced attitudes and behaviors are congruent with one’s own values: that is, the values of the individual and the group or organization are the same” (p. 493).

Among O’Reilly and Chatman’s findings was a significant positive relationship between internalized organizational commitment (personal and organizational values congruence) and the dependent variables of intrarole and extrarole behaviors, and very strong relationship between similar values and the intent to remain with the organization. In addition, O’Reilly and Chatman followed employees over time and found a negative

association between personal and organizational values congruence and turnover 16 months later. Posner and colleagues echo this latter finding. “Managers who felt that their values were particularly compatible with those of the organization were significantly more confident that they would remain with their current employer for the next five years” (Posner, Kouzes & Schmidt, 1985, p. 298).

O’Reilly and Chatman’s study (1986) measured levels of commitment as the independent variable by using a survey that offered 21 statements indicating levels of commitment to the organization and its values. Respondents chose levels of agreement with each statement by way of a Likert scale. The dependent variable, on-the-job behaviors, was measured through 11 questions, also on a Likert scale. On-the-job behaviors are not assessed in this thesis, although O’Reilly and Chatman’s methods for quantifying commitment and values congruency are adapted in question 10 of this study’s survey.

Literature indicates that organizational commitment motivates staff members to perform their job to their utmost potential, and to perform spontaneous and innovative tasks that enhance the performance of the organization. The willingness of staff members to engage in “extrarole behaviors” reduces the need for organizations to implement stringent control systems to motivate employees, and can bolster the strength of the organization as staff members consistently act on behalf of the organization’s values (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 493). O’Reilly and Chatman summarize this idea by writing, “In sum, prosocial behaviors requiring the expenditure of personal time and effort on behalf of the organization are most strongly related to commitment based on value similarity or pride in affiliation, and not to involvement rooted in instrumental exchange of

behavior for rewards” (p. 497).

Environmental Organization Trends

In a 1992 study entitled the Conservation Leadership Project, Donald Snow and the Conservation Fund (a nonprofit organization which supports natural resource conservation) surveyed more than 500 conservation leaders throughout the nation, including board members, key staff members and CEOs to assess the needs of environmental leaders, with special emphasis on formal training and education. The Conservation Leadership Project research design overlaps with the present study. A review of the methods and data of that study is enlightening.

Selecting environmental organizations to survey, Snow sorted conservation groups into five sectors: government, nongovernmental organizations, academic, private philanthropic, and natural resource-oriented businesses. Snow again classified organizations by size, using the following criteria to categorize them. A nonprofit organization was classified as large if it possessed one or more of the following attributes: an annual budget of \$1 million or higher; a staff of thirty or more full-time professionals; or an endowment sufficient to sustain the organization at its current level of activity on an ongoing basis.

Due to difficulties getting respondents to answer staff question with a consistent definition of “professional,” and a decision not to follow up on endowments due to expected difficulties with confidentiality, Snow used budget size alone as indicator of size, and found correlations between size and geographic scope of organizations. Snow concluded that these two factors, size and scope, “are the variables that reveal the most

important differences in the needs and attitudes of the leaders surveyed and the demands that their organizations place on them” (Snow, 1992, p. 83).

Snow received completed surveys from 147 CEOs, which constituted a 60 percent response rate. Of the sample, 56 percent of the officials had been affiliated with their organizations six years or fewer, and the mean duration of affiliation was seven and a half years.

The study also found that professional staffing has become a standard characteristic of environmental organizations, but recommended that organizations “strive to maintain the spirit and vigor of volunteerism even as they become increasingly professional in their management” (Snow, 1992, p. 33).

Earth Day 1970 was a turning point for the environmental movement. The media latched onto this event and created a spectacle showcasing the benefits of a healthy environment. Broad media coverage portrayed environmentalism as a new and mainstream movement, which provided environmental groups the power to become more active in shaping the attitudes and behavior of the general public, and the legitimacy to work with industry and government to implement federal regulations. As Gottlieb (1993) summarized, “a number of groups, including existing conservationist organizations, developed along professional lines, creating a mainstream environmental movement in the process” (Gottlieb, 1993, p. 113).

Many organizations felt obliged to increase their expertise in environmental science, law, or other technical fields so that they could participate in policy formation or help buffer the impact of industry’s teams of scientists participating in the drafting of regulatory laws. Gottlieb (1993) observed, “While there clearly remained, in the aftermath

of Earth Day, the potential for further mobilization, most groups felt an even more pressing need to professionalize to better respond to and shape the new legislative and administrative structures rapidly being put in place” (p. 134).

The late 1980s and early 1990s brought more changes in the management of environmental organizations, as they adapted to further challenges by industry special interests and stiff competition between environmental groups for members. The political environment in these years was drastically different from the earlier years of the environmental movement, and the leaders had to respond to challenges using different skills. Shabecoff (1993) states that “the new group [of environmental leaders] was in many ways more pragmatic and professional, more inclined to cooperate with existing political and economic forces to achieve its goals” (p. 257). These leaders were faced with complex environmental issues, like the depleting ozone layer, and were further challenged by industry groups and corporations that had gained an appreciation for how environmental regulations could alter their work practices. Organizations further developed their marketing skills, launching large-scale direct-mail, canvassing, and lobbying campaigns. These complex programs made it necessary for organizations to departmentalize to best utilize their human resources. “Specialized staff positions and bifurcated management structures – separating business management from the management substantive programs – have replaced the monolithic arrangements frequently found among nascent groups” (Snow, 1992, p. 67).

During this period of professionalization of the environmental movement, veteran environmentalists expressed a prevalent fear that the “professionalization of environmental groups was robbing them of the passion and moral zeal that had infused them with a sense

of mission after Earth Day. They wondered if environmentalism was becoming just another career and its cadre was growing to resemble the corporate executives and government officials with whom they were supposed to be doing battle” (Shabecoff, 1993, p. 261). Indeed, Michael Frome, a prominent environmental journalist (quoted in Borrelli, 1988) remarked that “Thirty years ago saving the earth was a mission rather than a career . . . Now, people go to some very respectable colleges and universities to train for professional careers in the environment” (Borrelli, 1988, p. 251).

The dedication of nonprofit CEOs is rarely debated. A thorough literature review did not reveal, in fact, any study that questioned the commitment of these nonprofit managers to their organizations or to the environmental movement. The above concerns about environmental leadership, however, are serious enough to warrant further investigation, which this thesis attempts to fulfill. Borrelli (1988) again quotes the journalist Frome: “Natural resource professionals ought to be in the lead of the revolution of values. So should the environmental organizations and the people working for them. The problem is that compassion must be at the root of the revolution of values, while compassion, and emotion, are repressed in the training of natural resource professionals and obscured in the management of organizations” (p. 251). Indeed, if current CEOs of environmental organizations are lacking the passion and moral zeal of their predecessors, they will be less able to lead a values revolution. As Kouzes and Posner (1995) point out, we are much more likely to follow leaders whose actions are consistent with their avowed values. This thesis will highlight the level to which the leaders of environmental organizations exhibit activities in their personal lives consistent with their organization’s missions through activities in their personal lives.

Finally, this thesis will fill a gap in the literature on environmental leadership by attempting to measure the personal commitment of executives on the basis of the leaders' expressed intent to remain with their organization and the movement. This commitment is often taken for granted. For example, Snow's (1992) study simply presumed a high level of commitment among the study subjects. This thesis will test the validity of this assumption, and provide data quantifying the level of commitment.

Chapter Three: Methodology

This thesis investigates whether chief executive officers of environmental organizations in California are personally committed to their organizations' missions as demonstrated by past and present activities in their personal lives that indicate personal values congruent with those espoused by the organization; and by their intent to remain with their organization as indicated by projected duration of tenure as CEO. It is hypothesized that the level of activity in the personal lives of the CEOs demonstrating personal commitment to their organizations is positively related to their intent to stay with their organizations. It is also expected that a negative association will be demonstrated between the size of an environmental organization, and the amount of evidence indicating congruence of CEO personal values with those identified in the organization's mission statement.

Survey Respondents

California environmental organizations were chosen from the National Environmental Directory Project's Harbinger File, a database maintained by Global Action Information Network. This database contains information on 1,840 environmental organizations in California, including nonprofit agencies, government bodies, educational institutions, and for-profit businesses. The subset of the database containing information of nonprofit organizations was used for this study.

The database was stratified by budget size to address hypothesis two, which suggests that there is a negative association between the size of an environmental organization, and the amount of evidence indicating that a CEO has personal values

congruent with those in the organization's mission statement. Although the Harbinger File database does not have complete budget information for all organizations listed, because many environmental leaders chose to maintain confidentiality in this regard, the sample for this study was selected using the available information to achieve the most diverse and representative sample possible.

Following a method first proposed by Jonathan B. Cook (Cook, 1988), and later applied by Snow (1992) in the Conservation Leadership Project study, the present study identifies a budget amount of \$1 million as a break point differentiating large from small organizations. According to Cook, large organizations are organizations that have 30 or more professional staff and a strong funding base to support them, an annual budget of \$1 million or more, or an endowment large enough to support it on an ongoing basis (Cook, 1988). Snow, in the 1992 Conservation Leadership Project study, used only the budgetary test, because of difficulties obtaining reliable data for the other two criteria (Snow, 1992). The staff level was problematic because the definition of "professional staff" was not interpreted consistently by survey respondents. Information necessary to establish the size of the endowment was also difficult to verify due to confidentiality concerns of survey respondents. Therefore, Snow utilized the \$1 million annual budget as the primary measurement of size.

Within the Harbinger File database, all of the organizations (68) that indicated that their a budget larger than \$1 million were selected. An additional 68 organizations were selected from the organizations that indicated annual budgets less than \$1 million. The remaining 164 organizations selected for the sample were chosen, using a computer randomization program, from the organizations that did not provide budget information.

Bourque and Fielder (1995) indicate that a single mailing of a self-administered questionnaire to the general public normally result in a 20 percent response rate. Therefore, two follow-up mailings, including a second mailing of the survey itself, were expected to improve upon this average response rate. In addition, the cover letters made it clear to the CEOs that they were not chosen at random from the “general public,” and this personalization was expected to further improve the response rate. The goal for completed surveys was 100.

Research Design

The self-administered questionnaire asked about the personal activities of the CEOs and their level of commitment to their organizations. The questions in the survey were adapted from published articles measuring values congruence and organizational commitment in a variety of organizations and industries.

Questions 1 through 4 assessed the organization’s exact mission and size characteristics, including staff and volunteer core size, and budget size. Questions 5, 6, and 7 assessed the primary type of affiliation (staff, volunteer, or other) between the CEOs and their organizations, how long each CEO had been associated with the organization, and their length of tenure as CEO. Other questions inquired further about the nature of the affiliation, and the length of time the CEOs expect to remain with their organizations.

Question 11 assessed “extrarole behaviors,” defined by O’Reilly and Chatman as “acts beyond what was specified in the job description” (1986, p. 494). Activities listed here included acts assumed to be performed by someone who is committed to the goals of the organization, for example, making a cash donation to the organization, encouraging a

friend to volunteer for the organization, or volunteering for an environmental project in the CEO's community. In a study outlining and investigating three distinct levels of an individual's commitment to their workplace, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) discovered that "there exist different dimensions of commitment to an organization, and that the more internalized the commitment, the more prosocial the behavior of the individual" (p. 497). The authors further state that "critical voluntary behaviors that are not specified by job descriptions are largely a function of identification and internalization rather than instrumental involvement" (p. 497). The survey items included in the present study are indeed behaviors critical to nonprofit organizations, and were chosen on the assumption that a person not committed to their organization would feel no obligation to perform them, and therefore, would not.

In addition, items from O'Reilly and Chatman's 1986 study were adapted in question 15 to assess organizational commitment. O'Reilly and Chatman used 12 items in their survey, and respondents used a Likert scale to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement. The O'Reilly-Chatman design was not used in its entirety for this study, because their items are better suited for staff in non-executive positions and are not completely appropriate for the chief staff person of an organization. For example, questions such as, "How hard I work for the organization is directly linked to how much I am rewarded" (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 494), were not included in this study.

Question 16 was designed to measure the level of environmental activism performed by the CEO at his/her home. The individual items listed in this question were adapted from a Roper Organization study, which used a questionnaire to measure public

concern for the environment (Schwartz & Miller, 1991). The Roper study grouped individuals into environmental types, depending upon their level of “environmentally friendly” activity. “True-Blue Greens,” accounting for 11 percent of the U.S. adult population, are the most environmentally concerned, and most engaged in pro-environmental activities. “Greenback Greens,” who make up another 11 percent of the U.S. adult population, are less likely to accept inconvenience for the environment’s sake, but will pay up to 20 percent more for environmentally friendly products. The “Sprouts” category, 26 percent of American adults, is considered a key “swing” group, because these individuals are willing to accept inconvenience to be environmentally friendly, but have ambivalent views about environmental regulations. “Grousers” are indifferent to the environment, but have considered environmental issues and have decided to act on what they feel is society’s prevalent indifference to environmental activism. Grousers, who constitute 24 percent of adult Americans, are less likely to participate in environmentally friendly activities. The final group identified by the Roper Organization is the “Basic Browns.” This group is the largest, including 28 percent of the U.S. adult population, and is characterized by a “virtual absence of any pro-environmental activities” (Schwartz & Miller, 1991, p. 34).

This thesis did not attempt to classify the CEOs of California environmental organizations using the Roper study categories, because the complete Roper survey design was not being replicated in the present study. The activities measured in this survey, however, do include some of the measures tested and used in the Roper Organization study.

Other components of question 16 were adapted from the World Wide Web site of

the Sierra Club which offers tips on how individuals can take personal and collective action to improve the environment (Sierra Club, <http://sierraclub.org/activism/>, December 29, 1997).

In addition, questions 12 and 14 measured how much the environmental focus of organizations influenced original job choices of CEOs. Question 12 inquired about the job qualifications that resulted in the CEOs being offered their current positions, and question 14 asked the extent to which the environmental missions of organizations influenced CEOs in their job choice.

Procedures

The surveys were addressed to CEO/Executive Director, because although the Harbinger File contains a contact name for each organization, these contact persons are not always the CEO. Surveys were mailed with a cover letter explaining the survey, and included an addressed, stamped return envelope. A cover letter describing the project was sent with the survey. Two follow-up mailings encouraged responses. A postcard was mailed twelve days after the survey mailing, and a letter, including a replacement copy of the survey, followed ten days after that.

Operational Definitions of Relevant Variables

Large: Organizations classified as large for the purpose of selection in this study were organizations with annual budgets larger than \$1 million, following the model provided by Cook (Cook, 1988).

Organizational values: For the purposes of this study, the values of the surveyed

organizations were assumed to be voiced by the organization's mission statements. In keeping with the research of Posner, Kouzes and Schmidt (1985), many workplace values, such as timeliness, courtesy, and customer orientation, were not included in this study. Instead, only the mission statement was utilized as a statement of values. The survey was designed to be applicable for executives working with a variety of environmental organizations, and the mission statements reported in the surveys were reviewed for sample reliability. Organizations with mission statements that mention conservation, restoration, preservation, natural resource protection, and pollution prevention were included in this study.

CEO values: These were measured by the questions regarding environmental activities performed by the CEOs in their personal lives. The questions make no claim to completely capture the values of the individual, but an attempt was made to gauge the activity levels suggesting that the individual has values similar to those in the mission statement of their environmental organization, and that they acted on these at home.

Environmental organization: Organizations were chosen as survey subjects based upon their inclusion in the Harbinger File database of the National Environmental Directory Project. Mission statements were used to determine the classification of organizations according to the categories developed by Snow. Organizations with an activity code description of "gardening club," for example, may have a mission statement focusing on the preservation of native flora. This organization would fall into Snow's "Professional Society" category. Organizations in this group promote research and discussion relating to conservation and preservation (Snow, 1992, p. 20). But if an organization had a mission statement that mentions solely recreation through in-home

container gardening, for example, the organization was not maintained in the data set because it is not truly an environmental organization. The complete organization classification system is:

- small, all-volunteer issues groups
- small, quasi-volunteer naturalist groups
- recreation and sporting clubs
- state-based or regional advocacy groups
- education, research, and policy-development centers
- law and science groups
- small national and international membership groups
- large national and international membership groups
- real estate conservation groups
- professional societies
- support and service organizations

(Snow, 1992, p. 15)

Treatment of Data

Question 4 asked respondents to specify the size of their organizations, using 4 response options. Two of the options included budgets under \$1 million, and the two remaining options included budgets over \$1 million. This allowed organizations with budgets under \$1 million and budgets over \$1 million to be compared against the independent variables. After comparing these two size groups with other variables, however, it was discovered that there was more variation among the four size categories, and that analyzing them separately was more indicative of behavior patterns.

The intent of CEOs to remain with their organizations was measured by two questions. Question 10 asked the respondents to indicate how long they expected to stay with their organization, and provided four ordinal response choices. Responses indicating “less than 1 year” were rated with low intent (coded 1), “1 to 5 years” was medium intent

(coded 2), and the last two options, “6 to 10 years” and “more than 10 years,” were categorized as high intent (coded 3). Question 13 asked the CEOs to indicate their level of agreement with four statements, three of which suggested that an individual intended to leave their organization. The responses to the statements in these questions were combined using principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation. This process produced one ordinal variable, “intent to stay,” which was compared to other variables investigated in this study.

The similarity of CEOs’ personal values and their organization’s purpose was assessed with three questions. Question 11 asked whether the CEO had participated in activities that suggested a personal commitment to the organization. The possible responses were “yes,” “no,” and “n/a.” “Yes” answers were awarded 10 points because they indicated high commitment to the organization. “No” and “n/a” responses were awarded zero points, because they implied no personal commitment.

Question 15 offered eight statements indicating high levels of commitment to the values of an organization. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a Likert-type scale.

Question 16, similar to 11, offered several statements and requested respondents to indicate their answers on a Likert-type scale. The statements described a series of activities deemed to be consistent with the missions of environmental organizations. The CEOs were asked to indicate to what extent they perform these activities at home.

Each of these responses to the statements within questions 11, 15, 16, were individually subjected to factor analysis to identify any patterns existing within the responses. Factor analysis compared the individual responses to each question, combined

the most highly correlated items, and provided weighted scores which were used as variables in further analysis.

Hypothesis one suggests that a negative association exists between the size of organizations and the level of activity in the personal lives of CEOs indicating values similar to those of their organizations. Organizational size was compared to the factor variables derived from the activity-related survey responses, and the Pearson test of correlation was used to quantify the significance of associations between the responses in the survey. The inferential Kruskal-Wallis H test to quantify the significance of the associations with respect to the possibility of projecting the discovered patterns to the CEOs of all the environmental organizations in California, rather than only to the respondents to this survey.

Hypothesis two states that there is a positive association between the values similarity score and a respondent's intent to remain with an organization. The factor variables derived from the survey questions were compared to a respondent's intent to stay score by using the Pearson test of correlation and the Kruskal-Wallis H test.

In addition, regression analysis was applied to show to what degree the independent variables in this study could be used to predict a CEO's intent to stay.

Question 9 inquired about the reasons why CEOs were hired for their current positions. The individual questions within question 9 were analyzed with factor analysis, and the responses were correlated in two groups. By reviewing the results, one group was labeled "business acumen" skills and the others labeled "mission orientation" skills. In addition, question 13 asked how significant the environmental mission of organization was to each CEO when accepting his/her current position. The skill factor variables and the

“environmental mission” variable were compared to the other independent variables using Pearson test of correlation and the Kruskal-Wallis H test.

Further exploratory statistical analysis compared other variables to reveal any existing associations between them. The level of commitment of organization founders was compared to the level of commitment of nonfounders. Information regarding job skills that influenced the hiring of a CEO for their current CEO position was compared to the independent variables of commitment and intent to stay. In addition, the duration of tenure as CEO and length of affiliation with the organization was compared to CEO degree of commitment and intent to stay.

Chapter Four: Results

Summary of Data Collection

Surveys were mailed to the chief executive officers of 300 environmental organizations on March 25, 1998. The three-page surveys and hand-signed cover letters were mailed first class with personally affixed postage. A self-addressed, stamped envelope was also included for easy return. Ninety-one surveys were received from this first mailing. Each return envelope was coded with an individual “key code” for the recipient organization, making it possible to track who had and who had not returned the survey. Twelve days after the first mailing, 209 hand-signed postcards, with personally affixed first class postage, were mailed to all the people who had not responded. After this second mailing, a total of 134 organizations had returned the survey.

To achieve an even greater response and to decrease return bias as much as possible, a second copy of the survey, with another cover letter and self-addressed stamped return envelope, was mailed on April 16 to those who had not returned the survey. As with the original package, each cover letter was hand-signed and mailed with a first class, hand-affixed stamp. After the three mailings, 163 completed surveys were received, totaling a 54.3 percent response.

Only organizations that were identified as environmental organizations were retained in the final data set used for the hypothesis testing. The survey requested the respondents to summarize their organizations’ missions, making it possible to determine which surveys to exclude. It was a disappointment to have to exclude 30 surveys because organizations did not fit the criteria for “environmental” outlined in Chapter Three. Most of the excluded organizations were social cause organizations, with environmental issues

constituting only a portion of their programs. Therefore, 133 responding organizations (44 percent of the original 300 organizations solicited) were used for the following analysis and hypothesis testing.

Among the 133 organizations, the median response to the four-category budget size question was 1.78, indicating that the median organization had a budget between \$500,000 and \$1,000,000. The median organization had 7.76 part-time staff and 12.85 full-time staff. Part-time volunteer corps were much larger, with a median of 97.79 members. The median number of full-time volunteers was 94.56.

Summary of Data Treatment

The survey had two main objectives. It was designed to determine whether the level of activity in the personal lives of the CEOs demonstrating personal commitment to their organizations was positively related to their intent to stay with their organizations, and whether the size of an environmental organization was negatively associated with evidence indicating that a CEO held personal values congruent with those of the organization's mission.

Many questions in this study's survey contained multiple related questions within them. These sub-questions were compared using factor analysis to see if they were similar enough to be used as single variables. Factor analysis compares individual responses to a set of questions, combines the most highly correlated items, and provides a weighted score which can be used as a variable in further analysis. In many cases this was possible, and factor analysis was used to combine questions within the survey in a theoretically based manner.

Once the variables were created using factor analysis, the descriptive Pearson test of correlation was used to quantify the significance of associations between the variables in the survey, and the inferential Kruskal-Wallis H test to quantify the significance of the associations with respect to the possibility of projecting the discovered patterns to the CEOs of all the environmental organizations in California, rather than only to the respondents to this survey. In addition, regression analysis was applied to show to what degree the independent variables in this study can be used to predict the value of the dependent variable, the length of time CEOs expect to remain with their organizations.

Analysis of Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis was that the level of activity in the personal lives of the CEOs demonstrating personal commitment to their organizations would be positively related to their intent to remain with their organizations and in the environmental movement. The “intent to stay” variable was compared to responses to questions 11, 15, and 16, which were designed to capture values congruence.

The “intent to stay” variable was composed of the four “plans” questions (included in question 13) which asked indirectly about the expected length of time the respondents planned to be working in their current organization and in the environmental movement, and the one “expect” item (question 10), which asked directly how long the respondent expected to be with their organization. The “plans” and “expect” items were compared for internal consistency to justify their use in combination to represent “intent to stay,” using the Pearson test. As can be seen in Table 2, the items were found to be significantly

correlated at the 0.01 level, indicating that both the indirect and direct questioning resulted in similar responses.

Table 2

Intercorrelations of the Five Items Assessing Intent to Stay

	Does not prefer other job	Has not thought of changing job	Will work here in three years	Conservation for professional life	Length of stay with organization
Does not prefer other job	-	.000	.000	.000	.008
Has not thought of changing job	.000	-	.001	.004	.001
Will work here in three years	.000	.001	-	.000	.000
Conservation for professional life	.000	.004	.000	-	.000
Length of stay with organization	.008	.001	.000	.000	-

Rather than summing the responses to create a scale “intent to stay” variable, the “plans” and “expect” items were combined using principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation. This process produced one single component, which is consistent with the high correlation of the items. This component variable will be referred to as “intent to stay.”

The values congruence measure was the result of responses from three sets of questions. The first question set, referred to as “values,” directly assessed the congruence of CEO personal values with the mission statements of their organizations. The next question set inquired about certain activities taken with regard to one’s organization that are generally deemed to exceed normal job expectations. These items are referred to as “actions.” The third set of questions asked about the respondent’s environmental activities performed at home. These items are referred to as “home.”

Factor analysis proved to be an important statistical tool for identifying existing patterns among these questions. The three questions, “values,” “actions,” and “home,” were factored within themselves and the resulting factors were compared with “intent to stay.”

Correlation of values and intent to stay.

Before factoring, the Pearson test of correlation was performed on the eight response options, included in question 15, which most directly assessed personal values congruence. With few exceptions (primarily involving question 15h that was negatively phrased, “My private views about the organization are different from those I express publicly”), the items were positively correlated with a significance of 0.01. Due to the

high correlation of these items, therefore, the principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation resulted in only one component being extracted. This component was used as the “values” variable when compared to other variables.

Table 3

Intercorrelations of the Eight Items Assessing Personal Values Congruence

	Attached to values	Values changing	Prefer org for what it stands	Attachment for values similarity	What org. stands for important	Proud to tell others	Talk up org.	Private views are different
Attached to values	-	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.008
Values changing	.000	-	.000	.041	.000	.000	.015	.093
Prefer org for what it stands	.000	.000	-	.000	.000	.000	.000	.055
Attachment for values similarity	.000	.041	.000	-	.000	.000	.000	.005
What org. stands for important	.000	.000	.000	.000	-	.000	.000	.084
Proud to tell others	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	-	.000	.042
Talk up org.	.000	.015	.000	.000	.000	.000	-	.005
Private views are different	.008	.093	.055	.005	.084	.042	.005	-

The Pearson test of correlation was performed using the “values” factor and “intent to stay.” These variables were highly positively correlated at the .01 level, suggesting that the higher a CEO’s “values” score is, the higher his/her “intent to stay” score will be.

Table 4
Pearson Correlation Scores for Values and Intent to Stay

	Pearson correlation	Significance
Intent to stay	1.000	-
Values	.528	.000

The inferential Kruskal-Wallis H test was also used to uncover associations between the CEOs’ responses to the “values” questions and the “intent to stay” questions. The null hypothesis of this test was that the responses would show no relationships strong enough to extrapolate to the CEO population of California environmental organizations. The means of the responses to the “values” questions were ranked and compared to the means of the “intent to stay” responses. This ranking, as displayed in Table 5, indicated that the CEOs who provided highly affirmative responses to the “values” questions also indicated high levels of “intent to stay.” This relationship was found to be highly significant to the 0.01, thereby rejecting the null hypothesis that “values” responses are unrelated to responses of “intent.” These two questions, “values” and “intent,” are the

most direct measures of hypothesis one, and the results of analysis suggest that the hypothesis is correct. Personal values congruence and length of intended tenure with the organization and the environmental movement are positively associated.

Table 5

Mean Ranks of Values Factor Compared with Intent to Stay

Intent to stay	Values
-3	16.00
-2	27.67
-1	34.40
0	59.66
1	63.61
Significance	.000

Actions and intent to stay.

Before factoring the “actions” items, the Pearson test of correlation was performed and showed strong correlations. Most of the items were significantly correlated with the others at the .01 level. Among the insignificant combinations, the strongest pattern was that the CEOs who indicated that they made financial donations to other environmental organizations were not likely to report having “encouraged a friend or relative to make a cash or other donation to your organization,” “encouraged a friend or relative to volunteer for your organization,” “volunteered for an environmental project in your community,” and “encouraged a friend or relative to work for your organization.”

Table 6

Intercorrelations of Seven Action Items

	Donate to org.	Donate to other org.	Volunteered	Encouraged others to donate	Encouraged others to volunteer	Volunteered for project	Encouraged others to work
Donation to organization	-	.006	.083	.000	.000	.002	.000
Donate to other org.	.006	-	.000	.338	.561	.283	.279
Volunteered	.083	.000	-	.268	.002	.000	.006
Encouraged others to donate	.000	.338	.268	-	.000	.175	.000
Encouraged others to volunteer	.000	.561	.002	.000	-	.000	.000
Volunteered for project	.002	.283	.000	.175	.000	-	.000
Encouraged others to work	.000	.279	.006	.000	.000	.000	-

Factor analysis using principal component analysis with varimax rotation isolated three factors from the original seven action items, as shown in Table 7. The first factor combined questions that seem to measure the executives' interest in their own organizations. The executives made donations to their organizations, encouraged their friends or relatives to donate to their organizations, and encouraged their friends or relatives to volunteer for their organizations. Because making a cash donation to one's own organization is frequently professionally expected, and larger amounts of volunteers and donors are good for an executive's position in his/her organization, the factor incorporating these activities will now be referred to as "professional self-interest."

The second factor was made up of questions asking whether executives had volunteered for an environmental organization, volunteered for an environmental project in their community, or encouraged a friend or relative to work for their organization. This factor demonstrates environmental commitment because it includes getting personally involved in other environmental organizations and attempting to get friends and relatives involved professionally also. This factor will be referred to as "environmental commitment."

The third factor included a single variable, the question asking whether the executive made cash or other donations to other environmental organizations. This factor will be referred to as "environmental donor." This action is not related to either the executive's professional standing or his/her organization's health, but shows the executive's interest in supporting the environmental movement.

The results of this factor analysis explained the insignificant correlations between several actions items in the Pearson test (Table 6). The fact that CEOs who made donations to other environmental organizations are less likely to participate in the “professional self-interest” activities is consistent with the descriptions of the factors offered above, which indicate that CEOs performing professional self-interested activities are more focused on their own organization than on other organizations in the environmental movement.

Table 7

Factor Analysis Results from Actions Items

Professional self-interest	Environmental commitment	Environmental donor
Donated to organization	Volunteered for an environmental organization	Donated to other environmental organization
Encouraged other to donate to organization	Volunteered for environmental project in community	
Encouraged other to volunteer for organization	Encouraged others to work for organization	

The Pearson test of correlation was run to discover any possible correlations between the “actions” factors and “intent to stay” (Table 8). Interestingly, each of the factors was negatively associated with “intent to stay,” although the negative association with “professional self-interest” was the only item that was statistically significant,

measuring to the .004 level. This suggests that CEOs who perform professional self-interested activities are less organization-specific in their loyalties.

Table 8

Pearson Correlation Scores for Actions and Intent to Stay

	Pearson correlation	Significance
Intent to stay	1.00	-
Professional self-interest	-.287	.004
Environmental commitment	-.45	.657
Environmental donor	-.110	.278

As can be seen in Table 9, the Kruskal-Wallis H test indicated that the relationships between the “actions” factors and “intent to stay” are not strong enough to be projected to a larger population of CEOs beyond those who responded to this survey.

Table 9

Mean Ranks of Professional Self-Interest, Environmental Commitment, and Environmental Donor when Compared to Intent to Stay

Intent to stay	Professional self-interest	Environmental commitment	Environmental donor
-3	77.30	53.50	32.70
-2	49.50	44.32	60.05
-1	55.54	53.06	55.38
0	44.00	53.07	48.33
1	49.23	39.10	44.23
Significance	.101	.458	.282

Home activities and intent to stay.

The Pearson test showed a high correlation, displayed in Table 10, among responses to the nine “home” questions asking survey recipients about environmental actions they engage in at home. As with the “actions” correlation results, the strongest pattern emerged for a question that appears unrelated to the others. Question 16a, which asked whether the respondent recycles at home, has a very different response curve than the other items. One explanation may be that recycling is a very socially acceptable behavior and is very easy to accomplish given societal support, including curbside recycling in many communities. The other items in the question require a larger personal commitment to environmental causes and greater amounts of personal effort.

Table 10

Intercorrelations of the Nine Items Assessing Home Activities

	Recycle	Reduce car travel	Refillable packaging	Recycled materials	Social consumer	Limit chemicals	Conserve energy	Compost	Biode- gradable
Recycle	-	.577	.157	.058	.546	.769	.014	.132	.232
Car travel	.577	-	.000	.000	.000	.017	.000	.003	.004
Refillable packaging	.157	.000	-	.000	.000	.247	.000	.033	.000
Recycled materials	.058	.000	.000	-	.000	.023	.000	.007	.000
Social consumer	.546	.000	.000	.000	-	.008	.000	.001	.000
Limit chemicals	.769	.017	.247	.023	.008	-	.036	.327	.958
Conserve energy	.014	.000	.000	.000	.000	.036	-	.002	.000
Compost	.132	.003	.033	.007	.001	.327	.002	-	.000
Biode- gradable	.232	.004	.000	.000	.000	.958	.000	.000	-

To create variables that made use of the existing relationships among the “home” items, the nine questions were factored using principal component analysis and varimax rotation. The analysis produced three components (Table 11), each suggesting a level of environmental activism of the CEO at home. The first factor, labeled “personal activism,” included several actions indicating consumer activism and an awareness of the need to reduce personal energy consumption. A person in this category buys recycled materials, avoids buying products from environmentally irresponsible companies, and attempts to drive less.

The second component, called “waste reduction,” includes people who indicated that they use biodegradable products and compost their garbage.

The third and final component of “home” is called “recycle.” The only question in this item is whether or not the CEO recycles at home.

Table 11

Factor Analysis Results from Home Items

Personal Activism	Waste reduction	Recycle
Reduce car travel	Compost	Recycle
Buy refillable packaging	Use biodegradable products	
Avoid buying from irresponsible companies		
Limit use of chemicals		
Conserve energy		

According to Pearson correlation scores, only one of the factors measuring CEOs' home-based activities shows a strong statistical association with regard to their "intent to stay" with their organizations. The "personal activism" item was significant at the .027 level, suggesting that CEOs who performed the most difficult environmental activities offered in this survey intend to remain with their current environmental organizations longer, and plan to work in conservation for the rest of their professional careers.

Table 12

Pearson Correlation Scores for Home Activities and Intent to Stay

	Pearson correlation	Significance
Intent to stay	1.000	-
Personal activism	.223	.027
Waste reduction	.080	.432
Recycle	.134	.188

The Kruskal-Wallis H test compared the means of the "home" items to test for associations. None of the combinations were significant enough to project the associations beyond the CEOs who participated in this study. As can be seen in Table 13, "personal activism" showed an association significant only at the .335 level, while "waste reduction" was significant only at .442 and "recycle" was only significant at .671. These factors seem to measure only CEO personal commitment to environmental activities, rather than indirectly measuring CEO commitment to their organizations.

Table 13

Mean Ranks of Personal Activism, Waste Reduction, and Recycle when Compared to Intent to Stay

Intent to stay	Personal activism	Waste reduction	Recycle
-3	29.20	62.20	35.00
-2	50.55	52.18	42.55
-1	44.12	40.84	51.56
0	53.66	51.66	50.63
1	52.88	51.69	52.69
Significance	.335	.442	.671

Home and action factors compared with values.

In an attempt to explain the strength of the “values” factor and the lesser significance of the “actions” and “home” factors when compared with “intent to stay,” the “action” and “home” items were compared with the “values” factor. The Pearson test of correlation was performed with the variables, showing several significant relationships. “Professional self-interest” was negatively associated at a significance level of .001, while “environmental commitment” was negatively associated at the .019 level. The home-based activities of “personal activism” and “waste reduction” were positively associated at the .001 and .048 levels, respectively.

Table 14

Pearson Correlation Scores for Values, Actions, and Home

	Pearson correlation	Significance
Values	1.000	-
Professional self-interest	-.328	.000
Environmental commitment	-.224	.019
Environmental donor	.004	.967
Personal activism	.375	.000
Waste reduction	.191	.048
Recycle	.073	.453

The Kruskal-Wallis H test indicated weaker associations between the variables. “Professional self-interest” was associated on the inferential level only at the .089 level, while the second and the third action factors, “environmental commitment” and “environmental donor,” were associated only at the .113 and .077 levels.

Among the home-based activities, the “personal activism” score was strongly correlated with “values” at .006, while “waste reduction” and “recycle” were associated only at the .120 and .173 levels.

The Kruskal-Wallis H test confirmed the positive association of “personal activism” displayed through the Pearson test with a significance level of .006. This association between “values” and “personal activism” is an internal validation between the measures. If the “values” factor measures the congruency of a CEO’s personal values with his/her environmental organization’s mission, then it is logical that the same CEO

with a high “values” score should also have a highly affirmative score when asked if s/he buys recycled materials, avoids buying products from environmentally irresponsible companies, and conserves energy.

Table 15

Mean Ranks of Actions and Home Compared with Values

Values	Professional self-interest	Environmental commitment	Environmental donor	Personal activism	Waste reduction	Recycle
-5	74.00	54.50	36.00	36.00	32.50	14.00
-4	100.50	91.50	33.50	15.00	18.00	89.00
-3	80.50	91.50	101.00	5.00	2.00	12.00
-2	74.33	71.67	38.50	30.00	36.00	63.43
-1	59.65	60.57	48.02	44.22	60.48	58.22
0	49.70	49.94	58.59	62.06	55.19	52.65
Significance	.089	.113	.077	.006	.120	.173

Analysis of Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis of this study proposes a negative association between the size of an environmental organization and the amount of evidence indicating that the CEO has personal values that are congruent with those of the organization's mission. To test this hypothesis, the factors created from "values," "actions," and "home" were compared with organization size. Organization size was quantified into four categories of budget size.

As summarized in Table 20, application of Pearson correlation coefficients demonstrates that organization size has little association with the values, actions, or home variables; however, the "environmental commitment" items did show a positive association at the .001 level.

Table 16

Pearson Correlation Scores for Values, Actions, Home Compared to Organization Size

	Pearson correlation	Significance
Organization size	1.000	-
Values	.006	.953
Professional self-interest	-.130	.157
Environmental commitment	.340	.000
Environmental donor	.026	.776
Personal activism	.069	.458
Waste reduction	-.026	.782
Recycle	.167	.070

Building on the Pearson correlations, the Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed to inferentially test the null hypothesis that organization size does not affect responses to questions assessing values, actions, and home activities.

As shown in Table 17, the result did not show a significant association between values and organization size. This is an interesting finding, because in the first hypothesis, the values variable showed a strong association with the dependent variable “intent to stay.”

Table 17

Mean Ranks of Values Compared with Organization Size

Organization size	Values
Small	60.68
Medium	58.80
Large	50.27
Very large	59.21
Significance	.683

The three “actions” factors were also compared to the organization size categories using the Kruskal-Wallis H comparison of means. The first actions factor, “professional self-interest,” showed (in contrast to the Pearson correlation) significant correlation with organization size at the 0.04 level. Small organizations and very large organizations appear to have the highest scores for “professional self-interest” activities. This suggests that smallest and largest organizations expect their CEOs to act on behalf of the

organization by making personal donations, encouraging their friends or relatives to donate, and encouraging their friends or relatives to volunteer for the organizations.

The second actions factor, “environmental commitment,” was significant at the .004 level. This association is consistent with the Pearson correlation, and suggests that CEOs of larger organizations have either created large organizations due to their personal efforts, or the organizations have high expectations of CEOs to contribute in many ways, including through their personal actions.

Interestingly, the third actions factor, “environmental donor,” with a correlation of .764, displayed no strong association to organization size. This is an intuitive result, because if CEOs are strongly motivated by the environmental cause, as demonstrated by making cash or other donations to an environmental organization other than their own, the size of their organization will not dramatically affect their actions one way or the other.

Table 18

Mean Ranks of Actions Compared with Organization Size

Organization size	Professional self-interest	Environmental commitment	Environmental donor
Small	68.17	51.43	62.61
Medium	50.65	66.85	56.95
Large	49.20	75.43	57.29
Very large	64.07	74.79	69.50
Significance	.040	.004	.764

The three “home” factors were also compared to organizational size, although none of the associations were statistically significant. “Personal activism” is associated with size to the .710 level, “waste reduction” is associated at .529, and “recycle” is associated at .114.

Table 19

Mean Ranks of Home Activities Compared with Organization Size

Organization size	Personal activist	Waste reduction	Recycle
Small	57.05	61.14	54.89
Medium	64.00	66.00	64.33
Large	64.94	59.29	65.81
Very large	64.33	40.83	85.67
Significance	.710	.529	.114

Exploratory Analysis

The Pearson test of correlation was performed to test the relationship between the two dependent variables in this study and to determine whether CEOs working for larger organizations plan to remain with their current organizations for a longer period of time than their counterparts working for smaller organizations. As displayed in Table 20, the correlations between the two dependent variables proved insignificant.

Table 20

Pearson Correlation Scores for Intent to Stay with Organization Size

	Pearson correlation	Significance
Intent to stay	.000	-
Organization size	.051	.606

The Kruskal-Wallis H test was run and confirmed the minimal association between the two dependent variables. The Kruskal-Wallis H was insignificant at .564, negating the exploratory hypothesis that organization size and duration of CEO tenure are related.

Intent to stay model.

One of the most important aspects of this study is the concept of “intent to stay.” This is an important consideration for organizations as they search for a new executive or try to retain their current CEO. Considerable resources and a high degree of organizational identity are vested in this officer. The independent variables used in the hypothesis testing have been combined in a model developed to build factors for predicting how long an executive intends to stay with his/her organization, and to a lesser extent, in the environmental movement professionally.

Regression analysis was applied to reveal whether the measured variables, listed in Table 21, could explain respondents’ varying time commitments to their organizations and the environmental movement generally, and to show which, if any, of the measured variables is the strongest predictor of intent to stay.

The measured variables were grouped into “internal” and “state” categories to make data analysis more sensitive. “Internal” variables are values held and actions taken internally by the CEO, while “state” variables describe the organization itself, i.e., organization size or the number of staff persons. When the “internal” and “state” variables are regressed with “intent to stay,” an R Square value is produced. This value is a quantified predictor relationship between the independent variables (Table 21) and the dependent variable, in this case, “intent to stay.” The R Square value indicates the degree that the independent variable explains, or predicts, the value of the dependent variable.

Table 21

Measured Variables for Predicting Intent to Stay

Internal:

Values

Professional self interest

Environmental commitment

Environmental donor

Personal activism

Waste reduction

Recycle

State:

Number of part-time volunteers

Number of full-time volunteers

Number of part-time staff

Number of full-time staff

Number of years in organization years

Number of years in position

Organization size

The “values” variable was most highly associated with “intent to stay” when using the Kruskal-Wallis H comparison of means test. This variable, therefore, was regressed individually against “intent” to see if it could be used to explain the variation in survey respondents’ intentions to remain working with their organization and the environmental movement. The R Square value of .279 produced from this process was indeed significant. This value indicates that knowing the answers to the “values” questions would allow someone to predict, with a 27.9 percent chance of being correct, a CEO’s intent to remain with their organization and the environmental movement.

The internal items explained 34.5 percent of the variation in CEO intent to stay. This represents an increase in the predictability, compared to reliance only on the “values” variable, but in practice there are many other questions that a hiring committee would need to ask a prospective CEO.

The “state” variables explained an additional 13.1 percent of “intent” when regressed alone. Together, however, the “internal” and “state” variables provide a powerful prediction tool. They explained 51.8 percent of the variations in “intent to stay,” with an F score that is statistically significant at the .004 level.

Table 22

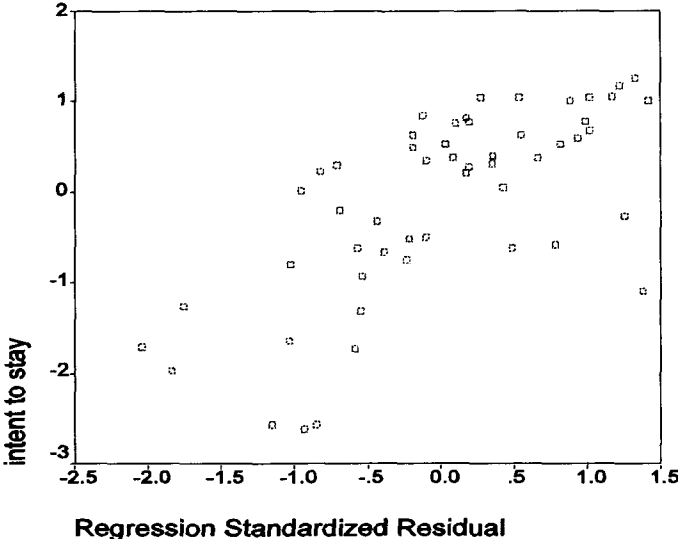
Regression Statistics for Internal and State Variables Regressed with Intent to Stay

R Square	F	Significance
.518	2.989	.004

The scatterplot in Table 23 depicts the positive relationship between the independent and dependent variables. There are outliers, but the distribution of the cases depicts a linear relationship between the variables, which offers statistical validation for the R Square values and the significance level.

Table 23

Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals: Internal and State Variables



Environmental career choice.

Survey question 14 asked CEOs how important a factor an organization's environmental mission was in their decision to accept their current position as CEO. This is an important question because there are many other reasons for accepting a job, among them geographic location, salary, and job description. Knowing what the "attractors" are for CEOs can help organizations market open positions.

Using the Pearson test of correlation, "environmental choice" showed a strong positive association, statistically significant at .001, with "values." This is interesting because the "values" questions are very organization-specific, while the "environmental choice" question is environmentally focused. "Professional self-interest," "environmental commitment," and "environmental donor" showed significant negative associations with "environmental choice," with statistical significances of .013, .002, and .005 respectively. These counterintuitive results may point to survey bias. Respondents may have overemphasized the directly phrased "environmental choice" question, while being more conservative with the series of specific "actions" questions. "Personal activism" produced a positive correlation, however, which was significant at .001..

Table 24

Pearson Correlation Scores for Values, Actions and Home Compared with
Environmental Job Choice

	Pearson correlation	Significance
Environmental choice	1.000	-
Values	.541	.000
Professional self-interest	-.239	.013
Environmental commitment	-.302	.002
Environmental donor	-.269	.005
Personal activism	.323	.001
Waste reduction	.182	.066
Recycle	-.031	.758

Using the inferential Kruskal-Wallis H test to compare question 14, regarding environmental career choice, with the “values,” “actions,” and “home” questions yielded many insignificant results, making any inferences to the entire population of California environmental organization CEOs unreliable. The “values” variable, however, was highly significant at the .001 level and “environmental commitment” was significantly correlated at the .012 level. These results demonstrate internal consistency among the questions in the survey, and reinforce the intuitive assumption that individuals who consider an organization’s environmental mission an important factor in their decision of whether to be its CEO, are more likely to have personal values congruent with the mission of the organization, and are also more likely to volunteer for an environmental organizations and local environmental projects, and to encourage others to work for their organization. It is

possible that the lack of significant associations with other variables could have been explained had other questions been asked about factors influencing respondents' job choice decisions.

Table 25

Mean Ranks of Values, Actions, and Home Compared with Environmental Job Choice

Environmental job choice	Values	Professional self-interest	Environmental commitment	Environmental donor	Personal activism	Waste Reduction	Recycle
1	22.67	75.89	72.56	56.22	25.72	45.72	50.50
2	17.67	52.83	37.17	59.17	35.00	34.33	32.33
3	29.33	37.17	81.50	100.83	36.50	29.50	71.50
4	39.00	46.50	60.00	64.00	47.50	53.50	61.50
5	40.00	66.00	82.67	22.00	43.67	31.67	69.33
6	26.00	67.20	74.40	59.00	51.10	51.50	62.90
7	48.08	47.25	77.75	38.75	36.00	53.33	61.83
8	46.12	56.72	50.72	61.22	56.24	43.00	63.29
9	48.33	56.60	54.10	45.90	61.38	56.88	71.50
10	66.59	48.49	43.93	52.28	58.38	58.69	41.60
Significance	.000	.407	.012	.105	.130	.519	.060

Organization founders.

Question 9 asked whether the survey respondents had founded their organization. The responses of the 37 founders and 95 nonfounders showed surprisingly insignificant correlations with the independent variables “values,” “actions” and “home,” as can be seen in Table 26.

Table 26

Pearson Correlation Scores for Values, Action, and Home Compared with Founder Status

	Pearson correlation	Significance
Founder	1.000	-
Values	-.133	.158
Professional self-interest	.078	.394
Environmental commitment	.171	.059
Environmental donor	.138	.129
Personal activist	-.099	.282
Waste reduction	-.020	.827
Recycle	-.091	.321

The inferential Kruskal-Wallis H test mostly corroborated the Pearson correlations. This test found few relationships among survey responses from founders and nonfounders. The significant associations this test uncovered were a tendency for founders to have higher “values” scores, and nonfounders to have higher “environmental commitment” scores.

Table 27

Mean Ranks of Values, Actions, and Home Compared with Founder Status

Founder	Values	Professional self-interest	Environmental commitment	Environmental donor	Personal activist	Waste reduction	Recycle
Yes	71.92	61.39	50.77	57.42	64.42	63.37	56.79
No	53.93	61.54	65.15	62.89	59.72	60.00	62.58
Significance	.015	.983	.044	.443	.511	.609	.419

Hiring criteria.

Each respondent was asked to rate the importance of several skill and knowledge attributes they possessed that they believe influenced the decision to hire them for their current position. Factor analysis was performed to quantify the intuitive groupings of the skills and knowledge attributes that were presented in the survey. As can be seen in Table 28, two components were isolated by this test, and were labeled as “mission-oriented” and “business acumen” attributes.

Table 28

Factor Analysis Results from Hire Items

Mission-oriented	Business acumen
Commitment to environmental issues	Financial management skills
Environmental/biological science knowledge	Supervisory skills
Knowledge of people/traditions of organization	
Knowledge of goals/objectives of organization's programs	

The Pearson test of correlations was performed to compare the mission-oriented and business acumen factors with “values,” “actions,” and “home.” The positive associations observed in the results were between mission-oriented skills and “values” and “personal activist.” There were also two negative associations, between mission-oriented

skills and “professional self-interest” activities and “environmental commitment” activities. The “business acumen” skills showed no strong patterns with any of the variables tested.

Table 29

Pearson Correlation Scores Between Values, Actions, Home, and Mission-oriented Skills

	Pearson correlation	Significance
Mission	1.000	-
Business	0	1.000
Values	.584	.000
Professional self-interest	-.200	.044
Environmental commitment	-.215	.033
Environmental donor	.020	.843
Personal activist	.303	.002
Waste reduction	.080	.431
Recycle	-.060	.559

Table 30

Pearson Correlation Scores Between Values, Actions, Home, and Business Acumen Skills

	Pearson correlation	Significance
Business	0	1.000
Mission	1.000	-
Values	.128	.207
Professional self-interest	-.151	.133
Environmental commitment	.102	.308
Environmental donor	.023	.822
Personal activist	-.001	.996
Waste reduction	.098	.336
Recycle	.025	.809

The associations found with the Pearson test of correlation were largely confirmed by the Kruskal-Wallis H tests (Table 31 and 32), indicating that some of these patterns may be strong enough to apply to the general population of CEOs of California environmental organizations. “Values” was strongly and positively associated with “mission oriented skills,” suggesting that CEOs with higher degrees of values congruence and organizational loyalty came to their organizations with higher degrees of “mission-oriented skills.”

The third “action” variable, “recycle,” also displayed an association with “mission-oriented” skills, although the distribution of means is not clear enough to make judgements about the implications.

As can be seen in Table 32, “business acumen” skills showed no significant inferential associations with any of the variables, suggesting that the financial and supervisory skills that CEOs of California environmental organizations bring to their organizations are not affected by their personal values, personal organization-related actions, or home-based environmental activities.

Table 31

Mean Ranks of Values, Actions, Home, and Mission-oriented Skills

Mission oriented	Values	Professional self-interest	Environmental commitment	Environmental donor	Personal activism	Waste reduction	Recycle
-4	1.00	97.00	68.00	14.00	1.00	4.00	4.00
-3	7.50	65.50	62.50	49.50	25.60	32.80	56.00
-2	34.25	59.83	61.61	38.83	46.69	51.94	50.44
-1	45.88	49.48	58.10	52.52	44.74	51.19	60.02
0	54.24	49.58	46.47	51.92	53.50	51.14	49.47
1	69.75	45.74	39.05	54.89	59.21	49.58	33.79
Significance	.000	.346	.125	.573	.068	.471	.027

Table 32

Mean Ranks of Values, Actions, Home, and Business Acumen Skills

Business acumen	Values	Professional self-interest	Environmental commitment	Environmental donor	Personal activism	Waste reduction	Recycle
-3	72.67	42.60	47.60	64.40	61.88	57.63	46.88
-2	42.50	58.63	46.25	57.63	50.88	35.13	40.63
-1	51.79	56.11	49.83	56.92	40.27	45.00	52.36
0	51.05	48.76	50.41	44.64	57.01	56.23	46.80
1	42.63	45.19	58.25	47.56	47.38	48.38	54.94
Significance	.465	.565	.843	.271	.140	.258	.723

Affiliations.

Question 7 explored the implications of respondents' primary affiliations with their organizations. This question was designed to investigate the career path of the CEO, whether they had been volunteers before being hired as CEOs of their organizations, or whether they were new to their organizations when accepting these positions. Some of the CEOs indicated that they were volunteer CEOs, however. Respondents were offered the choices of "staff member," "volunteer," and "other." Comments written in the space provided for the "other" category included: attorney, accountant, veterinary advisor, manager director, and ranger/program coordinator.

Responses to question 7 were compared with "values," "actions," and "home" to reveal any existing patterns. The Pearson test of correlation indicated only one significant association between the survey responses, and that was a negative association with the set of actions labeled "environmental commitment." This relationship indicates that respondents who had primarily staff affiliations with their organizations were more likely to volunteer for environmental organizations and for community environmental projects, and were more active in encouraging peers to work for their organizations.

Table 33

Pearson Correlations Between Values, Actions, Home, and Affiliation

	Pearson correlation	Significance
Affiliation	1.000	-
Values	.167	.094
Professional self-interest	.135	.164
Environmental commitment	-.195	.044
Environmental donor	-.011	.909
Personal activist	-.047	.629
Waste reduction	.184	.059
Recycle	-.085	.385

The relationships between CEOs' primary affiliations and the "values," "actions," and "home" factors were tested using the Kruskal-Wallis H test. As can be seen in Table 34, the ranking of the means shows that the "values" factor is associated with "affiliation" to the .025 level. People who have been primarily volunteers are much more likely to have high "values" scores than staff members or people who have been affiliated with their organizations in other ways. "Waste reduction" was also significantly correlated with the "volunteer" category. The "environmental commitment" variable was strongly correlated with the staff respondents, while "professional self-interest" respondents indicated that they were primarily affiliated with their organizations in capacities other than staff or volunteer.

Table 34

Mean Ranks of Values, Actions, Home, and Affiliation

Affiliation	Values	Professional self-interest	Environmental commitment	Environmental donor	Personal activism	Waste reduction	Recycle
Staff	45.20	50.05	59.73	53.14	53.60	47.38	56.16
Volunteer	64.26	48.17	43.83	54.36	54.20	70.34	45.75
Other	54.41	69.36	44.17	53.74	52.45	54.21	53.64
Significance	.025	.026	.032	.986	.982	.011	.393

Summary

Many associations were discovered among the responses provided by the 133 chief executive officers whose surveys were included in this study. The findings summarized below were statistically strong enough to provide insight into the patterns, behaviors, and internally held beliefs of the CEOs of California environmental organizations.

The first hypothesis was that the level of activity in the personal lives of the CEOs demonstrating personal commitment to their organizations would be positively related to the length of time they intended to remain with their organizations and the environmental movement. The “values” factor directly assessed the congruence of CEO personal values with the values of their organizations, as reflected by their mission statements. The “intent to stay” measure was a factored variable based on responses to five questions inquiring about the length of time respondents intended to remain working with their organization and the environmental movement. Consistent with the first hypothesis, the “values” factor was significantly and positively associated with the “intent to stay” variable.

The connection between the “values” factor and “intent to stay” is CEO dedication to the organization based upon shared values. The individual questions compiled into the “values” factor were organization-focused inquiries concerning organizational pride, congruence of personal values with the organization’s values, and organizational attachment. When submitted to regression analysis, the “values” factor explained nearly 30 percent of the variance in the “intent to stay” responses.

This is a useful finding, because the questions assessing these tested values can be easily applied in the hiring process for a CEO. By using the values questions as tools in selecting a CEO, a hiring committee can make a more educated decision regarding the

probable organizational commitment of the applicant, and avoid wasting organization time and resources on a CEO who is unlikely to serve the organization over the long term.

Professional self-interest activities have a strong negative statistical association with “intent to stay,” suggesting that CEOs who perform the professionally expected activities of making donations to their organizations and encouraging their peers to contribute and volunteer are less organization-specific in their loyalties.

The second hypothesis stated that there is a negative association between the size of an environmental organization, and the amount of evidence indicating that a CEO has personal values congruent with those of the organization’s mission. Very few of the independent variables tested against organizational size showed a statistically significant association, and therefore, this hypothesis is largely unsubstantiated. The two exceptions are the “professional self-interest” and “environmental commitment” variables. The association with “professional self-interest” indicates that CEOs of the smallest organizations with budgets less than \$500,000, and CEOs of the largest organizations with budgets over \$5,000,000 are more likely to donate to their organization, encourage others to donate to their organization, and encourage others to volunteer for their organization.

The association between “environmental commitment” and organization size suggests that CEOs working with organizations with budgets over \$1,000,000 are more likely to volunteer for an environmental organization, volunteer for environmental projects in their communities, and encourage others to work for their organization.

The exploratory research provided some additional insights. Among the most significant of these discoveries was that by combining several of the independent variables in this study, the length of time a CEO intends to work with his/her organization and

within the environmental movement can be predicted with a 51.8 percent chance of accuracy. This is enormously important, because the selection of a chief executive is a time- and energy-intensive process for an organization, and large investments of time and money are subsequently devoted to the successful applicant. A tool to help a hiring committee better predict how long potential CEO hires will remain could be very helpful for many organizations.

A conclusive association was also found between the personal values congruence factor and the degree to which respondents reported that the environmental mission of their organization had influenced their decision to accept their current CEO position. The higher the personal values congruence, the higher this factor was in their decision making. To confuse this, however, the factor termed “environmental commitment” showed the opposite effect. The higher the CEOs’ voluntary involvement in environmental organizations and community projects, and the more actively they encouraged peers to work for their organization, the less importance they attributed to the environmental mission of their organization as a factor influencing their decision to accept their current position.

This contradictory relationship between “values” and “environmental commitment” scores was also evident when the responses of organizational founders and nonfounders were compared. Founders of their organizations had higher scores for values congruence, while nonfounders had higher scores on “environmental commitment.”

Survey respondents were also asked which of a number of skills and knowledge attributes they believe had been decisive factors in their being hired as CEO. Using factor analysis, the skills attributes were categorized as “mission-oriented” or “business acumen.”

The CEOs who had high “values” scores also had high “mission-oriented” scores, confirming the intuitive assumption that CEOs who are proud of their organization because of what it stands for and feel that their values are similar to their organization’s would also feel that their commitment to environmental issues and their knowledge of the goals and objectives of the organization were important factors in the decisions to hire them for their current positions.

Finally, respondents were classified by how they had been primarily affiliated with their organizations, inclusive of their tenure as CEO. They were asked whether they had been primarily volunteers, staff people or otherwise affiliated. The respondents who were or had been primarily volunteers with their organizations had higher “values” scores and higher “waste reduction” scores. Respondents who had been primarily staff, on the other hand, reported higher “environmental commitment,” which again, is counter to the “values” score. Respondents in the “other” category – who, to infer from their write-in comments, appear to have been largely volunteers – scored highly on “professional self-interest” activities.

Chapter Five: Summary and Conclusions

The wide diversity of responses to the survey questions in this study confirms that the environmental movement and the organizations within it have become more complex since the time of John Muir and Aldo Leopold. This survey was completed by founders and nonfounders of organizations. Some respondents said they were building up their organizations to counter looming environmental threats, while others said they were closing their organizations because environmental problems had been resolved. The annual budgets of these organizations ranged from less than \$500,000 to more than \$5,000,000. The issues these organizations address reflect the complicated world in which we live, and include ocean wildlife protection, native plant restoration, and open space preservation.

Respondents to this survey are leaders of organizations devoted to protecting the environment and the plants and animals, including ourselves, that depend upon it. Any information we can gather about this leadership will be helpful for those who wish to secure the vitality of this critical movement, and for those who wish to participate in the most effective way possible.

Review of Problem

Literature has shown conclusively that leaders within an organization are more effective at their functions when their personal values are in agreement with those of their organization. This effectiveness is vital for environmental organizations because their missions are so important and time-sensitive. Each of the “values” questions posed in this survey received a median response in the top quartile of possible scores. This is a very

positive finding and speaks very well of the values held by California environmental leaders. As exemplified by a comment included with a survey, values congruence was not universal among survey respondents.

“I consider myself an event organizer who happens to work for an environmental organization. I have not sought, nor will I seek, a position in any other environmental organization.”

Discussion of Findings

The first hypothesis was that activities in the personal lives of the CEOs demonstrating personal commitment to their organizations would be positively related to the length of time they intend to remain with their organizations and the environmental movement. This hypothesis was largely substantiated by the strong positive association between the “values” congruence variable and the “intent to stay” variable. This association indicates that people who feel that the organization’s values are important and share them as their own are more likely to work for their organization and the environmental movement for a long period of time. Stronger values congruence, in fact, explained 27.9 percent of the variance of the “intent to stay” question.

Lower ratings on “intent to stay” were associated with CEOs who report very actively making donations to their organizations and encouraging their peers to contribute and volunteer, than for CEOs who engaged in fewer of these behaviors. This is a counterintuitive result, because these activities do benefit the organizations. This finding indicates that more complex behavioral motivations are involved in these activities than simple loyalty to the organization. Other possible motivations include professional expectations, peer pressure, or ambition.

The second hypothesis stated that there would be a negative association between the size of an environmental organization, and the amount of evidence indicating that a CEO's personal values are highly congruent with the organization's mission. Data analysis shows that CEOs of the smallest and the largest organizations are more likely to donate to their organization, encourage others to donate to their organization, and encourage others to volunteer for their organization, while CEOs working with organizations with budgets over \$1,000,000 are more likely to volunteer for an environmental organization, volunteer for environmental projects in their community, and encourage others to work for their organization. These unclear patterns indicate that no generalizations can be made about organizational size and the amount of CEO behavior that indicates values congruence. This is a positive finding, because it would have been a red flag to environmental organizations if the CEOs of the large and powerful organizations were not indicating commitment to the values of the organizations.

This study also revealed that the higher a CEO's values congruence score, the more important the organization's environmental mission was in the CEO's decision to accept his/her current position. The opposite finding was indicated with regard to "environmental commitment" activities of CEOs. Those with the highest levels of voluntary involvement in environmental organizations and community projects, and who were the most active in recruiting their peers to work for their organization, were less likely to identify the environmental mission of their organization as an important factor in their decision to accept their current position.

Many of the survey respondents (37 of the 132 who answered this question) were founders of their organizations. Founders were shown to be more likely to have high

levels of values congruence, but nonfounders indicated higher participation in “environmental commitment” activities, which included volunteering for environmental organizations or community projects, and encouraging peers to work for their organizations.

Those CEOs who had high values congruence scores also rated highly on “mission-oriented” skills, which include knowledge of environmental issues and knowledge of their organizations’ traditions and goals.

Survey respondents were asked about their primary affiliation with their organizations, including their tenure as CEO and before. Respondents were asked if they had been affiliated primarily as a staff member, a volunteer, or in some other capacity. This information led to the finding that volunteers have higher values congruence scores and higher “waste reduction” scores, while staff reported higher “environmental commitment,” which again, is counter to the values congruence score. Those who selected the “other” category scored highly on “professional self-interest” activities.

One of the most significant findings of this study was that by testing a combination of several of the independent variables, the length of time a CEO intends to stay working with his/her organization and within the environmental movement can be predicted with 51.8 percent accuracy.

Conclusions

In addition to anecdotal information about the activities and behaviors of the leaders of California environmental organizations, this study provides tools that can be used to improve the leadership selection for these important organizations – in particular,

the ability to select a CEO who will remain in the position for a long period of time. This selection ability can greatly maximize an organization's investments in a CEO. The significant and positive correlation between the values congruence variable and the "intent to stay" variable is very important, as is the finding that "values" explains nearly 30 percent of the variation in CEO "intent to stay." The combination of the "internal" and "state" variables proved to be a strong predictor, explaining more than 50 percent of the variation in intended CEO duration of tenure. If these predictive tools were incorporated into the review of applicants for a CEO position, the organizations would have a much greater chance of selecting someone who would remain in the leadership role for the long term. These observations have obvious implications for recruitment strategies.

This study clearly indicates that high values congruence is positively related with the length of time executives plan to remain with their organizations and the environmental movement. Past research also clearly tells us that higher values congruence correlates with more effective leadership. Given that this study indicates that CEO candidates with strong values congruence are also highly influenced in their job choice by the environmental mission of an organization, organizations should stress their environmental missions when publicizing staff openings to attract candidates who have personal values consistent with the mission of the organization. In this way, organizations have a better chance of selecting a CEO who will stay with the organization long term and be a highly effective leader.

Recommendations for Action and Future Research

Further investigation of “internal” and “state” variables is warranted to identify how the variables work in combination to influence CEO decisions to remain with their organizations. Refining the analysis of variable interaction and following the survey respondents longitudinally would provide a wealth of information that could be applied to nonprofit organizations generally.

Many of the respondents to this study survey were volunteers. The survey was primarily directed toward paid personnel, and it would be beneficial to explore many of the same issues discussed here exclusively from the point of view of volunteer leadership. For example, it would be beneficial to better understand differences in organizational loyalty of full-time volunteers compared to part-time volunteers.

Given the importance of values congruence, as indicated by the literature and by the findings of this survey, it would be beneficial to explore the sources and influences that build these values so that appropriate mentorship or other programs can be designed and implemented.

It would be beneficial also to further assess the reasons why CEOs of environmental organizations leave their positions. It is common, for example, for executives to leave their organizations after a significant growth transition, because it is often appropriate for the instigator of change (usually the current CEO) to step aside for new leadership. Provided with findings from further research, programs could be designed to ensure that executives leaving their current organizations stay involved within the environmental sector, so that their valuable knowledge and skills are not lost. A comment

from a survey respondent who indicated that he or she would be leaving his or her organization in less than a year confirmed the complexity involved with position tenure.

“My comments regarding my interest in moving on from my current position have to do with my own career and personal goals and should not be construed to reflect negatively on the organization in any way”

Board members can greatly impact the leadership of an organization; many of the factors applicable to staff leadership selection, therefore, can also be applied to this important volunteer body. One survey respondent suggested one way in which the values congruence of directors can affect an organization by having an impact on the CEO’s job satisfaction and ultimately, intent to stay.

“I love the work of preserving open space, but find working with a volunteer board of people who don’t hold the same environmental-political views as I do very taxing.”

It would be beneficial to study the level of values congruence among these directors, and to assess their degree of organizational loyalty using the same methods this study has applied to CEOs.

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Appendix A

Survey Cover Letter

March 22, 1998

Dear CEO/Executive Director,

I hope you will take a few minutes to fill out the enclosed survey. I am completing a thesis for my master's degree in Nonprofit Administration at the University of San Francisco, and have chosen you as one of a few nonprofit managers of environmental organizations to provide information for my study. Your answers are crucial to my research.

My final project will report the realities faced by managers of environmental organizations today. By documenting your background and professional observations, I plan to open a dialogue between nonprofit managers, following the tradition of The Conservation Funds' *Conservation Leadership Project* which became a training and education needs assessment tool for environmental leadership.

Your answers will be confidential. As part of only a small group of managers receiving surveys, I hope you will take the few moments necessary to complete the questions and return the survey in the stamped, addressed return envelope provided. Due to a tight academic schedule, I would be very grateful to receive your survey by *April 10*.

Thank you in advance for your response. I look forward to your input in my study.

Sincerely,

Christine Schmidt

PS - *Your* answers are important to me. Please return your survey by April 10 and add *your* individual perspective to my report on nonprofit managers. Thanks!

Appendix B

Survey

Thank you for completing this survey! Your answers will be kept confidential. By completing this survey, you will increase the knowledge currently held about environmental management, and support others working in other environmental efforts.

- 2) Please summarize your organization's mission.

- 3) How many full-time paid staff does your organization (or subdivision) employ? _____

How many part-time paid staff does your organization (or subdivision) employ? _____

- 4) How many full-time volunteers does your organization (or subdivision) involve? _____

How many part-time volunteers does your organization (or subdivision) involve? _____

- 5) What is the approximate annual budget of your organization?

- Less than \$500,000
- \$500,001 - \$1,000,000
- \$1,000,001 - \$5,000,000
- over \$5,000,000

- 6) For how many years have you been in your current position?

- Less than 1 year
- 1 - 5 years
- 6 - 10 years
- more than 10 years

- 7) For how many years have you been affiliated with your organization?
 Less than 1 year
 1 - 5 years
 6 - 10 years
 more than 10 years
- 8) Throughout your affiliation with your organization, you have been primarily . . .
 a staff member
 a volunteer
 in another capacity (specify) _____
- 9) In what year was your organization founded? _____
- 10) Are you the founder of this organization?
 Yes
 No
- 11) How long do you expect to remain with this organization?
 Less than 1 year
 1 - 5 years
 6 - 10 years
 more than 10 years
- 11) In the past three years, have you personally (check all that apply):
- | | <u>Yes</u> | <u>No</u> | <u>n/a</u> |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| a) Made a cash or other donation to your organization? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) Made a cash or other donation to another environmental organization? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) Volunteered for an environmental organization? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d) Encouraged a friend or relative to make a cash or other donation to your organization? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| e) Encouraged a friend or relative to volunteer for your organization? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| f) Volunteered for an environmental project in your community? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| g) Encouraged a friend or relative to work for your organization? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- 12) How important do you feel the following items were in your being hired for your current position? Please circle the best rating.
- | | <i>Not</i>
<u><i>Important</i></u> | <i>Very</i>
<u><i>Important</i></u> |
|--|---------------------------------------|--|
| a) Your commitment to environmental issues | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 |
| b) Your financial management skills | | |
| c) Your environmental or biological science knowledge | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 |
| d) Your supervisory skills | | |
| e) Your knowledge of the people and traditions of the organization | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 | |
| f) Your knowledge of the goals and objectives of the organization's programs | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 | |
- 13) Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Circle the best rating.
- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| a) You prefer another more ideal job than the one you now work in. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 |
| b) You have thought seriously about changing organizations since beginning to work here. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 |
| c) If you have your own way, you will be working for this organization three years from now. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 |
| d) You view your work in conservation as something you'll be doing for the rest of your professional life. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 |
- 14) How important was the fact that yours is an environmental organization to your decision to accept your current position? Please circle the best rating.
- | | <i>Not</i>
<u><i>Important</i></u> | <i>Very</i>
<u><i>Important</i></u> |
|--|---------------------------------------|--|
| | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 | |

15) For each statement below, please <u>circle</u> the best rating.	<i>Completely Disagree</i>	<i>Completely Agree</i>
a) If the values of this organization were different, I would not be as attached to this organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	
b) Since joining this organization, my personal values and those of the organization have become more similar.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	
c) The reason I prefer this organization to others is because of what it stands for.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	
d) My attachment to this organization is primarily based on the similarity of my values and those represented by the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	
e) What this organization stands for is important to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	
f) I am proud to tell others that I am a part of this organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	
g) I talk up the organization to my friends as a great organization to volunteer with, work for, and donate to.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	
h) My private views about the organization are different than those I express publicly.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	

- 16) At home, how often do you perform the following activities? Please circle the best rating.
- | | <i>Never</i> | | | | | | | | | <i>Always</i> |
|--|--------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---------------|
| | _____ | | | | | | | | | |
| a) Recycle household items, e.g., mixed paper | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| b) Reduce car travel by carpooling, taking transit, or walking and bicycling | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| c) Buy products in refillable packaging | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| d) Buy products made from recycled materials | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| e) Avoid buying products from specific environmentally irresponsible companies | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| f) Limit use of household chemicals by using alternatives | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| g) Conserve energy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| h) Compost biodegradable waste | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| i) Use biodegradable soaps, detergents | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |

17) Is there anything you would like to add?

Thank you again . . .

Christine Schmidt, 3215 Bermuda Avenue #13, Davis, CA 95616

Appendix C

Follow-up Postcard

Dear CEO/Executive Director,

You recently received a survey, giving you the opportunity to provide valuable input for my thesis for the University of San Francisco's Master of Nonprofit Administration program.

I have not received your reply, and am still hoping that you will take the few moments necessary to complete the survey and return it in the stamped, addressed return envelope provided.

Thank you in advance for your response.

Sincerely,

Christine Schmidt

3215 Bermuda Avenue #13, Davis, CA 95616-2758

P.S. If this postcard crossed your survey in the mail, please forgive the reminder!

Appendix D

Follow-up Cover Letter

April 16, 1998

Dear CEO/Executive Director,

I recently sent you a survey, required for completion of my master's degree in Nonprofit Administration from the University of San Francisco. I have not yet received your reply, and hope that by sending the survey to you again, I can encourage you to return it to me.

I have extended my academic completion schedule to allow for the return of a few more surveys. I hope yours will be among them, as your individual perspective is important for my study. Your answers will be held in confidence.

Please take the few moments necessary to complete the questions and return the survey in the stamped, addressed return envelope provided.

Sincerely,

Christine Schmidt

PS - If you have already returned your survey, thank you for your help. If you haven't yet, I hope you will take just a few minutes to do so. Thanks!