DOES ORGANIZATIONAL TYPE MATTER FOR CLIENTS' EXPERIENCES? A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS, GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS, FOR-PROFIT ORGANIZATIONS, AND SOCIAL ENTERPRISES

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DEDICATION

To my parents, whose compassion taught me to take action to relieve suffering. To my Ph.D. family and friends, who listened to me and supported me throughout the journey.

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DOES ORGANIZATIONAL TYPE MATTER FOR CLIENTS' EXPERIENCES? A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS, GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS, FOR-PROFIT ORGANIZATIONS, AND SOCIAL ENTERPRISES

This dissertation research addresses the question: *Does organizational type matter for the service experiences of clients?* One of the central questions in nonprofit studies is whether nonprofits are distinct in significant ways from other service providers including governments, for-profits, or social enterprises. This dissertation addresses this question by focusing on two aspects of service quality hypothesized as mattering to clients' help-seeking preferences—employee motivation and clients' perceived control over key decisions in the service process. It specifically examines how employee motivation and clients' perceived control affect clients' help-seeking preferences in different organizational types.

In the first essay, the study conducted an online experiment to test how organizational types (governments/nonprofits/for-profits) and clients' perceptions of employee motivation (intrinsic/extrinsic) affect clients' help-seeking preferences. Employee motivation has been theorized as distinct for nonprofits compared to governments and for-profits. The study found that clients' perceptions of employee motivations are a stronger determinant of their willingness to interact with the organization and employees, compared to their perceived organizational types. When employees have intrinsic motivation, there is no effect of organizational type on clients'

service preferences. However, when employees are extrinsically motivated, clients prefer interacting with government or nonprofit organizations and employees.

In the second essay, the study conducted a scoping review to examine the current literature on the experiences of clients in social enterprises and ran an online experiment to test the effects of social enterprise types (nonprofit/for-profit) and clients' perceived control over key decisions in the service process. The study found that clients' perceptions of social enterprise types and control over their job placement mattered for their service preferences. When the services are provided in for-profit social enterprises, clients would recommend and say positive things about the for-profit social enterprise they perceive to have more control over service selections. But there is no similar effect on nonprofit social enterprises.

This dissertation contributes to understanding nonprofit distinctiveness through clients' experiences, a perspective often ignored in nonprofit studies, and considers the implications for both nonprofit relationships to the market and the state.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE. INTRODUCTION

Philanthropic and voluntary organizations have had a long history of providing services for people in need in the U.S. (Hall, 2006). The so-called nonprofit organizations have grown massively in the 1960s and 1970s to deliver services since governments rely on these organizations to fulfill the need for social policies (Dehoog & Salamon, 2002; Frumkin, 2009; Smith & Lipsky, 1993). The number of charitable nonprofit organizations reached 309,000 in 1967 and continued to increase to 1.1 million in the 1990s (Hall, 2006, p. 52, Table 2.1). The nonprofit sector first emerged rapidly in the American context during the economic recession and policy change in the 1970s and 1980s (Anheier et al., 2020). Later in the 1990s, nonprofit organizations and activities expanded globally, and the nonprofit sector paid attention more to civil society and advocacy until the 2000s (Anheier et al., 2020). In 2020, the total number of 501(c)(3) nonprofit organizations reached 1.40 million in the U.S. and American individuals, foundations, bequests, and corporations made a total charitable donation of over US$485 billion in 2021 (Giving USA, 2022). The nonprofit sector contributed around 6% to the gross domestic product (GDP) on average in the U.S. economy in 2022 (Independent Sector, 2022).

Due to the massive growth of nonprofit organizations, scholars have gained interest in studying "why are there nonprofit organizations" and "what difference do nonprofit organizations make" (DiMaggio & Anheier, 1990, p. 137). For example, the *Report of the Commission on Private Philanthropy and Public Needs* (e.g., the Filer Commission) is the landmark document that summarized the American's modern nonprofit sector (Powell, 2020, p. 7). Existing scholarships for nonprofit organizations

also posit that these organizations are distinct from other types of organizations such as government organizations or for-profit organizations because they play distinct roles in society (Frumkin, 2002; Kramer, 1987). First, as service providers, nonprofit organizations provide assistance, often in partnership with the state, in ways that are viewed as more responsive to local needs (Kramer, 1987, p. 242; Smith & Grønbjerg, 2006; Smith & Lipsky, 1993). Sometimes these services are provided by consumer-run organizations, enabling consumers to monitor the quality of services directly when quality is hard to judge (Hansmann, 1987, p. 29; Steinberg, 2006; Steinberg & Gray, 1993). Second, as value guardians, nonprofit organizations provide spaces for citizens to engage and express their interests and values and communicate those values to governments (Berger & Neuhaus, 1977; Clemens, 2006, p. 216). Third, as vanguards, nonprofit organizations are hypothesized to be sources of innovation, developing new ways to tackle public problems (Kramer, 1987, p. 242). Finally, as improvers or advocates, nonprofit organizations advocate public interests and attempt to influence public policies to promote social change (Kramer, 1987, p. 242; Jenkins, 2006).

The literature cited above suggests that nonprofit organizations are distinct from government agencies and for-profit firms. However, the question of nonprofit distinctiveness has been challenged over the last decades, particularly for those organizations providing services (Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004; Maier et al., 2016). First, more nonprofit organizations have contracted with governments. Researchers have found that when nonprofit organizations contract with governments, they become more bureaucratic, and less responsive to the community, resembling the state agencies that are funding them (Smith & Lipsky, 1993). And second, nonprofit organizations have started

generating commercial revenue, partnering with for-profit firms, and developing social enterprises to achieve their social objective. Researchers have suggested that when nonprofit organizations focus more on business strategies and goals, they become more concerned about profits than their mission (Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004). Eventually, nonprofit organizations would become more like government or for-profit organizations. These two trends mentioned above are blurring the boundaries between nonprofit organizations and government organizations/for-profit organizations, which evokes a scholarly question of to what extent nonprofit organizations are distinct from government or for-profit organizations and whether the values nonprofit organizations hold are eroding.

This dissertation aims to study the distinctiveness of nonprofit organizations by looking at the effects of organizational and management practices on clients. Looking at the perspectives of clients is one important way to understand the distinctiveness of nonprofit organizations. To understand whether nonprofit organizations are distinct from other organizational types, particularly those that provide social services, this dissertation focuses on whether organizational type matters for clients' help-seeking experiences. And why should we care about clients? First, since more organizational forms compete to provide similar services, clients would have more options to choose between nonprofit and other service providers (Witesman et al., 2022). While clients are often unaware of organizational types (Handy et al., 2010), they have certain perceptions of different service provider types when asked directly (Witesman et al., 2022; Xu, 2020). Therefore, understanding clients' help-seeking preferences for certain organizational types helps public and nonprofit managers understand the distinctiveness of nonprofit organizations.

Second, clients often play different roles in organizations and their participation in organizations may affect organizations. For example, Benjamin (2021b) argues that clients are not just service recipients but also organizational actors in nonprofit organizations (p. 6). Indeed, this dissertation also finds that in addition to services users, clients serve as employees, interns, volunteers, or social entrepreneurs in different types of social enterprises (see Chapter 3 for more details). Clients participate in nonprofit organizations formally and informally which may impact their service experiences and eventually affect organizational outcomes (Benjamin, 2021, p. 9). Therefore, understanding clients' perspectives in organizations helps public and nonprofit managers reexamine organizational impacts (Benjamin, 2021, p. 6). And finally, studying clients' perceptions of how and why employees carry out the job may help public and nonprofit scholars understand more broadly the distinctiveness of nonprofit organizations. Empirical studies have found that nonprofit managers and employees are more likely to be intrinsically motivated by their personal choices compared to public and for-profit managers and employees who are more likely to be extrinsically motivated by financial rewards or pressure (De Cooman et al., 2011; Prysmakova, 2021; Winter & Thaler, 2016). Since clients often experience organizations through their perception and interaction with employees, how clients perceive why and how employees are motivated to help them may affect their service experiences in organizations. Additionally, Benjamin (2022) argues that when clients perceive that staff cares about the work more than just a paycheck, or that staff share their control over decisions that are important to clients, clients will have more positive service experiences. Therefore, this dissertation intends to test this argument by using online experiments to study clients' perceptions of

employee motivation and their perceptions of control over key service decisions on their help-seeking preferences. The remainder of this section outlines the research purposes.

This dissertation research aims to examine the effects of organizational types and employee motivation as well as clients' perceived control over their key service decisions on the service experiences of clients. Here I focus the service experiences on clients' help-seeking preferences, such as their willingness to interact with employees and organizations as well as their recommendations about organizations. The first dissertation essay uses an online experiment to test the effects of organizational types and employee motivation on clients' help-seeking preferences. The second dissertation essay uses a scoping review to explore knowledge gaps in the current literature on clients' experiences in different types of social enterprises (e.g., nonprofit and for-profit social enterprises) and finds a crucial factor that matters for clients' experiences in social enterprises. Then it conducts a follow-up online experiment to test the effect of social enterprise types and clients' perceived control over key service decisions on clients' help-seeking preferences. This dissertation examines clients' perceptions of employee motivation and their control over key service decisions to understand the distinctiveness of 'nonprofitness' since these two features that might affect service quality as experienced by clients can be distinct from nonprofit organizations to other organizations. Such research could advance our understanding of nonprofit organizations more broadly and clients' perspectives, as their organizational roles and experiences, have not been the focus of nonprofit management research and education (Benjamin, 2021, 2022). The following sections describe why we should care about organizational forms and the experiences of clients as well as why we

should study the experiences of clients in different organizational forms. The last section outlines the overview of the dissertation.

Why Study Organizational Forms?

Organizations vary since they function and operate based on their surrounding contexts and environments (Scott & Davis, 2003). For example, "public agencies differ from private firms, even when they carry on the same kinds of work because they function in different institutional contexts. It matters considerably whether you operate to satisfy the demands of many decentralized customers, one centralized oversight bureau, or multiple political constituencies" (Scott & Davis, 2003, p. 14). In this section, I discuss several theories that predict what makes organizations different from or similar to one another and why nonprofits are distinct from other organizational types in essential ways. I first describe the economic theory approach that suggests the differences of organizational types and then the sociological theory approach that predicts the similarities of organizational forms.

Economic Theory Approach

Economic theory approaches, e.g., government failure theory and contract failure theory, suggest the distinctiveness of nonprofit organizations from government and for-profit organizations. The theory of government failure helps explain the constraints of government action that offer niches for nonprofit organizations to fill in providing public service (Young, 2012). Weisbrod focuses on categorical constraint to argue that government provides public goods according to the voting mechanism (Weisbrod, 1975; Young, 2012). That is, the majority voting mechanism forces governments to favor the median voter. The limits of the political system and social justice concerns allow

nonprofit organizations to provide certain services (Smith & Grønbjerg, 2006). Despite the ubiquity of government services, some clients/citizens would not be satisfied with the quality and quantity of services (Steinberg, 2006). Nonprofit organizations emerge to meet the service needs of high-demanders who are dissatisfied with governmental service provision (Steinberg, 2006, p. 122). But the theory of government failure does not explain why for-profit organizations do not take over government organizations to satisfy the high demands. The theory of contract failure predicts some reasons.

The theory of contract failure predicts the differences of service quality between nonprofit organizations and for-profit organizations. It suggests that contract failure occurs when clients need more information about the quality and quantity of services as organizations do and thus, the emergence of nonprofit organizations could solve the issue (Steinberg, 2006). Compared to for-profit organizations, the nondistribution constraint decreases the incentive and opportunity in nonprofit organizations to take advantage of customers under the circumstances of informational asymmetry (Hansmann, 1980, 1987; Steinberg, 2006; Steinberg & Gray, 1993). For example, empirical studies have found that nonprofit organizations are more likely to offer higher service quality than for-profit organizations when the characteristics of service quality are hard to observe or service users have little competence to evaluate the services, such as at nursing homes and daycares (Amirkhanyan et al., 2008; Ben-Ner et al., 2012; Gelles, 2000; Leviten-Reid, 2012). Rather than nonprofit organizations, for-profit organizations are more likely to follow policies that could reduce costs or compromise service quality when the service information is invisible at daycares (Gelles, 2000).

However, the theory of contract failure has limitations. First, the objectives of nonprofit organizations might not be determined by organizational ownership or form, such as nonprofit organizations or for-profit organizations. For instance, rather than organizational form, the objectives or motivations of entrepreneurs (or managers) would direct organizational objectives (Steinberg, 2006). Second, in addition to the goals of achieving social missions or making profits, organizations usually operate based on different objectives which leads to organizational dilemmas. Examining organizational dilemmas could help us understand how organizations function differently (Eliasoph, 2016). And third, the theory of contract failure does not explain the coexistence of nonprofit organizations and for-profit organizations in a market economy (Steinberg & Gray, 1993) and ignores other environmental and organizational factors, such as governmental regulations, frontline staff, volunteers, and clients/beneficiaries.

Sociological Theory Approach

Despite the limitations of contract failure theory, neo institutionalism helps explain that organizations would become more similar when they are embedded in the same environment (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Legitimacy is one reason that organizations become isomorphic. When nonprofit organizations and for-profit organizations compete for government contracts in a highly institutionalized environment, they must follow state regulations to execute their practices and become more like each other. Both nonprofit and for-profit organizations would adopt practices that are easier to gain government approval. For instance, some studies have shown that nonprofit and for-profit service providers do not have significant differences in terms of service quality (Heinrich, 2000; Witesman & Fernandez, 2013). It is possible that

organizational form might not matter for service quality or how they do what they do as neo institutionalism predicts.

Neo institutionalism suggests three mechanisms that lead different types of organizations to become more similar: coercive isomorphism, mimetic processes, and normative pressure (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). The first mechanism, coercive isomorphism, explains that most nonprofit and for-profit organizations receive government contracts or even government organizations provide public services directly and they all need to follow state regulations to execute their practices in a highly institutionalized field. For example, these organizations may not provide some client-needed services because the state would not reimburse those services. Or the service provider may only pay staff at a certain salary level because of government contracts. The elements of these formal organizations, such as professions, programs, and technologies, are highly institutionalized (Meyer & Rowan, 1977), which may drive different forms of organizations to behave in a homogenized manner and thus influence their individual actors to do what they can do and eventually the experiences of their beneficiaries would be more similar.

The second mechanism, mimetic processes, describes that when goals are ambiguous, organizations might become more similar to others because the environment creates uncertainty (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Although one of the main goals for for-profit organizations or for-profit social enterprises is to make profits, for-profit service providers, such as rehabilitation facilities that serve people with disabilities, or work-integrated social enterprises may incorporate a social mission as their ultimate organizational goals, such as meeting the needs of their clients for a better life quality or

finding a job to increase their well-being, respectively. Drawing on the proposition of mimetic processes, when for-profit organizations have both social and profit missions, they encounter an ambiguous circumstance that might increase the possibility of organizational isomorphism. That is, "the more ambiguous the goals of an organization, the greater the extent to which the organization will model itself after organizations that it perceives to be successful" (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 155). This might be more evident in the similarity between government and nonprofit organizations since these two organizations are more value-oriented.

And the third mechanism, normative pressure, explains that when organizations are more likely to hire professionals with academic credentials or participate in professional networks, organizations become more like other organizations in the field (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). While nonprofit organizations could have volunteers carry out the administration work or recreational activities, all nonprofit, government, and for-profit organizations, as well as social enterprises, need professional employees to serve their beneficiaries for most services in highly institutionalized environments. For example, regardless of organizational type, formal organizations must hire accredited professionals for certain services, such as certified therapists to serve people with special needs or certified social workers as case managers. That is, the more professionals are needed in organizations, the more organizations become similar to those in the field.

Overall, these three mechanisms identified in neo-institutional theory suggest that despite the organizational forms, organizations would function and operate increasingly alike, mainly when they are operating in the same field. In other words, nonprofit organizations will not be distinct in highly institutionalized field from government

organizations, for-profit organizations, or social enterprises. When nonprofit organizations operate more like the other organizational forms, the experiences of beneficiaries among these organizations might also be similar to one another.

In general, economic theories predict the distinctiveness of nonprofit organizations from other organizational forms whereas neo-institutionalism suggests the similarity among nonprofit organizations from other organizational forms in the highly institutionalized fields. Against the backdrop of nonprofit organizations becoming more like for-profit organizations, we need to know which theoretical approach is more relevant to explain why and how nonprofit organizations exist. One way to understand how organizational forms vary is to study individual actors in organizations. In the following section, I explain why we should study the experiences of clients.

Why Study the Experiences of Clients?

In this section, I summarize how researchers have studied service quality and then argue why we should study the experiences of clients more than service quality. In addition to program outcomes and service quality, Benjamin (2021a, 2021b) argues that nonprofit organizations (or more generally human service providers) that have a social mission to serve clients, should consider the social impact by looking at the experiences of clients. If organizations only measure their outcome or service quality through programs without understanding the whole picture of clients' experiences, such as the interactions with frontline staff and the decision-making power of clients, they may overlook non-programmatic outcomes achieved together with frontline staff and clients (Benjamin, 2021a, 2021b, 2022; Benjamin & Campbell, 2014). To better understand the experiences of clients, I drew on Benjamin's study to review three pieces of literature to

understand what may affect clients' experiences in different organizational forms: service management (Benjamin, 2021, p. 10), public management (Benjamin, 2021, p. 9), and nonprofit management (Benjamin, 2022).

Service Management Literature

Service management literature related to clients' experiences in for-profit organizations focuses most on service quality. Service quality models have been used to measure organizational performance in the for-profit sector for a few decades in business studies (Broderick & Vachirapornpuk, 2002; Philip & Hazlett, 1997; Seth et al., 2005). Service quality models usually define service quality as comparing clients' expectations and perceptions of service performance (Broderick & Vachirapornpuk, 2002; Caruana, 2002; Grönroos, 1984; Parasuraman et al., 1985; Seth et al., 2005). Some elements, such as client expectations, organizational image, physical environment, service encounter, and client participation (active or passive), may influence the quality of clients' experiences (Broderick & Vachirapornpuk, 2002; Caruana, 2002; Grönroos, 1984; Osborne et al., 2018; Parasuraman et al., 1985; Seth et al., 2005). Word of mouth, previous experiences, personal needs, and marketing strategies shape clients' expectations of service performance (Grönroos, 1984; Parasuraman et al., 1985; Seth et al., 2005). Furthermore, Philip and Hazlett (1997) argue that measuring service quality should not only focus on the core attributes of service encounter, i.e., the interaction between staff and clients primarily influences the client's perceptions of service quality, but also the pivotal and peripheral attributes of service structures. The pivotal attributes measure the outputs of service encounters that customers expect before purchasing the services. And the peripheral attributes mean the other factors that might influence service

quality, such as access to services, facility appearance, and other visible characteristics, like fancy material equipment and well-dressed staff. The service quality models help us understand the relationship between service quality and other variables, such as service loyalty or customer satisfaction, and some elements that shape clients' service experiences. However, focusing too much on service quality may ignore the other hidden factors influencing clients' experiences, such as clients' participation in organizations.

Public Management Literature

Public management literature focuses primarily on citizen satisfaction with public services to examine service quality. For example, expectancy-disconfirmation theory suggests that past experiences, marketing, and word-of-mouth communication shape clients' expectations of service quality that influence clients' perception of service satisfaction (Oliver, 1980; Van Ryzin et al., 2004). When clients' perception of service quality exceeds their expectations, i.e., positive disconfirmation, clients would have higher satisfaction with services. Alternatively, clients express lower satisfaction with services when their perceptions do not meet expectations, i.e., negative disconfirmation (Van Ryzin, 2013). In addition to previous client expectations, client participation in the service delivery process would affect the experiences of clients, such as the interactions with staff, peer support, and the physical environment (Osborne et al., 2016, 2018). Overall, the literature on service management and public management sheds light on where to study client experiences, yet it does not specify why clients may have positive or negative experiences or how might influence clients' willingness to interact with the staff and organizations. The nonprofit literature below provides a framework to explain

what can increase clients' positive or negative experiences when they receive services from organizations.

Nonprofit Management Literature

In general, nonprofit management literature pays less attention to the experiences of clients in organizations, except to consider whether desired outcomes have been achieved for them (Benjamin, 2021, 2022; Benjamin & Campbell, 2015). Drawing on the status theory with different studies, Benjamin (2022) identifies three features that shape clients' experience: control, commonalities, and causes (pp. 214-216). The first feature of *control* refers to the degree of control clients have during the service encounter and in the organization (Benjamin, 2022, p. 214). For example, nursing home residents with more responsibilities and control over decision-making had lower mortality rates (Rodin & Langer, 1977). Second, the feature of *commonalities* refers to the status difference between those providing support or help (e.g., frontline workers, volunteers, and other peers) and those receiving (Benjamin, 2022, p. 215). That is, clients felt more accepted when served by people with similar experiences. For example, clients with spinal cord injury mentioned in a focus group interview that peer support provides more encouragement and advice for coping with daily living and reintegration problems (Cott, 2004). And third, the feature of *causes* refers to the attributions or the causal stories clients tell themselves about why they need help (e.g., is it an environmental condition or some personal failing?) and why someone is helping them (e.g., is it her job or does she really care?) (Benjamin, 2022, p. 215). For example, clients' perceptions of helpers' motivations matter for their experience: clients increase their well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010) and feel more grateful and closer

towards those they perceived as intrinsically motivated to help (by personal choice) rather than those extrinsically motivated to help (e.g., by reward or pressure) (Weinstein et al., 2010). Similarly, people show more interest in learning skills and enjoying tasks when they perceive that they are taught by volunteers who are motivated intrinsically to help others rather than paid staff who are motivated extrinsically to help others (Wild et al., 1997). Benjamin (2022) argues that studying these three features of clients' service experiences in nonprofit organizations could help us understand how paying attention to helping exchanges between givers and receivers can decrease social inequality.

Why Study the Experiences of Clients in Different Organizational Forms?

"Organizations are the characteristic structures in society" so studying how organizations operate can help us understand individual actors (Scott & Davis, 2003, p. 7). And since "individual actors are constrained by, make use of, and modify existing structures," studying individual actors in organizations, such as clients, can help us understand how organizations vary (Scott & Davis, 2003, p. 7). Therefore, studying the experiences of clients is one important way to understand how nonprofit organizations and other organizational forms vary. In the following section, I summarize some empirical studies on how organizational forms vary regarding service quality and clients' experiences.

Nonprofit vs. Government Organizations

While some scholars have found that the service quality of nonprofit organizations might not be significantly different from government organizations and government organizations are more accessible to Medicaid patients than nonprofit organizations (Amirkhanyan et al., 2008), clients often perceive that nonprofit

organizations could offer a better quality of service than government organizations (Douglas, 1987; Smith & Lipsky, 1993; Mosley, 2020). For instance, compared to government organizations, nonprofit organizations are perceived by clients as being warmer, more trustworthy, and more competent (Drevs et al., 2014). Clients also experience a slightly higher level of comfort with nonprofit organizations than government organizations (Meier et al., 2022, p. 76). Clients tend to be more satisfied with services that are provided by nonprofit organizations whereas they often perceive that the unsatisfied service are offered by government organizations, but those are actually provided by nonprofit organizations (van Slyke & Roch, 2004). This implies that clients are more likely to believe that nonprofit organizations often provide better services that would satisfy them. Additionally, when there is no information about service quality, clients are more willing to purchase services from nonprofit organizations than government organizations (Witesman et al., 2022). That is, clients tend to believe the service quality of nonprofit organizations is better. Overall, clients perceive nonprofit organizations distinctly from government organizations and they believe that the former often offer a better quality of service than the latter.

Nonprofit vs. For-profit Organizations

Some studies found that nonprofit organizations offer a higher quality of service than for-profit organizations. For example, despite the greater service access, for-profit organizations provide lower service quality than nonprofit organizations (Amirkhanyan et al., 2008), especially when clients and their families hardly observe the quality of services (Ben-Ner et al., 2012). Studies have also found that for-profit and nonprofit nursing homes have no significant differences between some easily observable attributes,

such as residents' infections and falls, but not for other less observable attributes, like client satisfaction and interaction with frontline staff and other residents. That is, residents at for-profit nursing homes are less likely to have higher satisfaction and closer relationship with staff or other residents than those at nonprofits (Ben-Ner et al., 2012). Similarly, studies have also found that nonprofit child daycare centers provide higher process quality of care than for-profits, which means nonprofit daycare centers provide more available activities and have better communication between caregivers and children (Leviten-Reid, 2012).

Alternatively, other studies have argued that for-profit organizations have a higher quality of service than non-profit organizations only under certain circumstances. For example, for-profit nursing homes are more likely to provide services with higher quality in a more competitive market because market competition would reduce market segmentation in the field of nursing homes, and for-profit organizations need to compete with other nonprofit organizations which consider service quality as their main values (Amirkhanyan et al., 2008). Additionally, a study has shown that for-profit organizations are seen as more competent, efficient, and effective than nonprofits, and thus clients are more willing to choose for-profits (Aaker et al., 2010).

However, some studies predict that organizational types are not significantly associated with service quality (Weisbrod & Schlesinger, 1986; Witesman & Fernandez, 2013). For example, nonprofit and for-profit service providers are similar in these features of performance, such as cost, service quality, responsiveness to government requirements, and compliance with the law (Witesman & Fernandez, 2013). Therefore, Amirkhanyan et al. (2008) suggest that to understand the relationship between

organizational types and service quality, we should know more about the motivational structure of nonprofit- and for-profit service providers as well as their service users and environmental conditions.

Nonprofit vs. For-profit Social Enterprises

The rationale for promoting social enterprises or applying market strategies and values to nonprofit organizations is that it would lead to target services for beneficiaries to satisfy individual needs or to increase their well-being. Some scholars found some positive experiences of clients at social enterprises that generate incomes for social purposes while the organizations incorporate two different organizational goals: market and social mission goals. First, beneficiaries could earn skills and knowledge by working at social purpose enterprises (e.g., Akingbola, 2015; Owen et al., 2015). For example, beneficiaries with disabilities gain working skills, build social networks, and enhance self-efficacy while being trained and hired at the social enterprises and the business also contributes to community awareness of disabilities and social inclusion (Owen et al., 2015). Clients at different Canadian supported social enterprises have perceived that they improve their financial well-being, self-confidence, working skills, social interaction, and access to materials and services, such as computers, life coaches, and yoga classes (Chan et al., 2017). And second, beneficiaries could sometimes benefit from conflicting organizational goals in social enterprises. For instance, when the business and social service departments coexist and conflict in social enterprises, service users with weaker power could influence the practices of human service organizations to meet their needs (Garrow, 2016). Often, frontline workers have conflicting concerns and act differently in

commercialized and social activities within social enterprises. However, institutional contradictions allow service users to choose their preferences (Garrow, 2016).

Yet, more studies on social enterprises and nonprofits applying market strategies and values find negative consequences on the experiences of clients. Empirical studies have found two main results. First, clients' needs may become less of a concern to organizations than organizational performance. For instance, a study found that organizational performance is more important than clients' needs in some microenterprise development programs which aim to support disadvantaged individuals in running small businesses (Jurik, 2006). Instead of serving low-income recipients, microenterprise development programs accepted more moderate-income service users to demonstrate better organizational performance (Jurik, 2006). And second, clients may not sustain equality of opportunities as they should in the organizational context. For instance, Backman and Smith (2000) argue that if nonprofit organizations rely more on service fees, they might view clients as customers rather than beneficiaries and favor fee-paying clients over those requiring subsidies. Another example is service users who were served and employed by work-integrated social enterprises. Although these service users work for work-integrated social enterprises, they are not laborers so they cannot join the unions and have a voice (Garrow & Hasenfeld, 2014). And service users were often treated as a means to an end (e.g., their benefits are not the goals of the social enterprises) when the organizations were at least moderately embedded in the business-dominated field (Garrow & Hasenfeld, 2012).

Overall, some studies have raised concerns about the impact of nonprofit organizations that apply market strategies and values or social enterprises that contain

business and social welfare goals on beneficiaries. However, the experiences of clients are often not the focus of the studies. This dissertation uses the experiences of clients, more specifically their help-seeking preferences, as one crucial way to understand how organizational types and other factors (e.g., employee motivations and clients' perceived control) matter.

Overview of the Dissertation.

In the rest of the dissertation, Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 include two empirical studies on the experiences of clients/beneficiaries in different forms of organizations. (see Table 1 for more information). Chapter 2 contains an experimental study to address the research question: "does organizational type or employees' motivation affect clients' help-seeking preferences?" This empirical study tests the effects of organizational type and employee motivation on clients' help-seeking experiences. The chapter first illuminates the background of governments partnering with nonprofits or for-profits to provide public services. Then it explains four hypotheses and the experimental research design that tests the effects of organizational type and motivation type on clients' help-seeking preferences, i.e., their willingness to interact with staff and organizations, which is one way to understand clients' service experiences. And it lastly reports the analysis of the experimental study and discusses the findings, limitations, and implications.

Table 1. *Dissertation Essays, Methods, and Research Questions*

Essay	Methods	Research Questions
Employee Motivation	An experimental study	Does organizational type or employees' motivation affect clients' help-seeking preferences?
Clients' Perceived	A scoping review	What are beneficiaries' experiences in social enterprises?
	An experimental study	Does social enterprise type or clients' perceived control affect clients' help-seeking preferences?

Chapter 3 contains a scoping review study to address the research question: "what are beneficiaries' experiences in social enterprises?" and an experimental study to address the research question: "does social enterprise type or clients' perceived control affect clients' help-seeking preferences?". The study first conducts a scoping review to identify the gap in the current literature on the experiences of beneficiaries in social enterprises. It describes the rationale for reviewing the literature on beneficiaries' experiences at social enterprises. It illustrates the scoping review method of searching and identifying the literature and summarizes the findings on how the literature includes the studies of beneficiaries' experiences at these different types of social enterprises. It expands the important findings that beneficiaries' control over service decisions is a critical determinant of their help-seeking experiences to conduct an online experiment to test the effects of social enterprise type and beneficiaries' perceptions of control over key service decisions on their willingness to interact with the organization and their recommendation about the organization. It lastly reports the results and discusses the implications and limitations.

Before proceeding, I want to define key terms. By *organizational type*, I define it as different forms of organizations, such as government organizations, nonprofit organizations, for-profit organizations, or social enterprises. I use the term *government organizations* or *governments* to refer to public agencies that provide public or social services, such as public aged care facilities. I broadly use the term for-profit firms or for-profit organizations to refer to business organizations that provide social services, such as for-profit nursing homes. I use the term *nonprofit organizations* to refer to organizations that are neither government organizations nor for-profit organizations and provide public

or social services, such as member-run organizations, cooperatives, etc. I broadly use the term social enterprises as an umbrella concept to refer to different types of organizations that aim to make profits to achieve social benefits (Yong & Lecy, 2014). I also adopt Benjamin's (2021) definition of *beneficiaries*, *clients*, *citizens*, or *constituents*, as the primary person who receives assistance or help from organizations, sometimes called recipients, members, and service users.

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CHAPTER TWO. DO EMPLOYEE MOTIVATIONS MATTER MORE THAN SECTORAL DIFFERENCES? AN EXPERIMENT ON THE SERVICE EXPERIENCES OF CLIENTS/CITIZENS

Introduction

Governments have a long history of partnering with nonprofit organizations to provide human services in the U.S., Western Europe, and other countries (Bromley & Meyer, 2017; Brown, 2018; Dehoog & Salamon, 2002; Salamon, 1987). Scholars have identified several reasons governments partner with nonprofits rather than deliver services directly. For political considerations, governments benefit from contracting out services without providing direct service provision and enlarging government bureaucracies (Dehoog & Salamon, 2002). Nonprofits are more flexible in satisfying public interests and responsive to clients than government agencies (Brown, 2018; Douglas, 1987; Smith & Grønbjerg, 2006; Smith & Lipsky, 1993). Governments often contract with nonprofits, rather than for profits, because nonprofit missions aim to provide public services and promote the welfare of clients/citizens, which aligns more with the government's goals (Amirkhanyan, 2010; Ferris & Graddy, 1986; Van Slyke, 2007).

Scholars have also identified several problems government faces when relying on nonprofits to deliver human services. Governments would lose control over the services and need to spend excessive costs monitoring the contracting agencies as well as training public employees and their contract employees in government regulations and contract compliance (Dehoog & Salamon, 2002). Additionally, employees and clients/citizens may be confused about who is responsible for service decisions and complaints. For

example, when clients/citizens encounter problems with contracted services, they would not know they could contact state or local governments for further support (Dehoog & Salamon, 2002). In the wake of welfare reform in the 1990s, governments also started partnering with for-profit agencies to deliver human services (Dehoog & Salamon, 2002). This government shift led to more for-profit service providers competing with nonprofits, and governments may not always favor nonprofits for contracting (Grønbjerg & Salamon, 2012).

Against the backdrop of partnering with nonprofit and for-profit service providers to deliver human services, public scholars have concerns about to what extent government should provide direct services or contract out services and to which organizations (Dehoog & Salamon, 2002; Jung et al., 2018; Van Slyke, 2003). This concern raises the question of how governments differ from nonprofit or for-profit service providers in terms of providing human services. In general, service quality is the key concern regardless of the organization providing human services (Amirkhanyan, 2010; Amirkhanyan et al., 2018). However, most studies have suggested that nonprofits are more likely to provide a higher quality of service than governments or for-profits (Amirkhanyan et al., 2018; Ben-Ner et al., 2012). One way to understand service quality in different organizations is to go directly to clients/citizens and examine their experience with these different service providers.

Toward this end, this study examines clients' willingness to interact with different types of service providers (government, nonprofit, for-profit) and with employees who are intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to carry out the job. Here we focus on employee motivation, an important concern in public management research because

clients experience services by interacting with employees (Christensen et al., 2017; Perry & Vandenabeele, 2015). Previous studies suggest that employee motivations differ across different types of service providers. However, we do not know to what extent employee motivation impacts clients/citizens' service experiences. To better understand client/citizen perception of employee motivations and its effect on their service experiences we turn to the social psychology research on receiving help which provides evidence that the perceptions of helper motivation matter for the experience of the recipients (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010; Weinstein et al., 2010). To our knowledge, the effects of employee motivations on clients/citizens' experiences and its implications for governments' decisions about how best to deliver services have not received as much attention in the literature on public service motivation specifically nor in the broader literature on government-nonprofit social service provision.

In this study, we conducted an online experiment through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) to recruit 1,020 participants who had received some form of help or assistance from organizations in the past two years. We tested the effects of organizational type (government, nonprofit, and for-profit organizations) and employee motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic motivations) on clients/citizens' help-seeking preferences. Throughout the study, we define the term *client* or *citizen* as the primary person who receives services or assistance from a human service provider (Benjamin, 2021). This study also defines *intrinsic motivation* here as actions that are motivated by personal choice and *extrinsic motivation* as actions that are motivated by rewards, control, pressures, or demands from others.

The paper proceeds as follows. We start by summarizing the scholarship on service quality in different types of organizations. Here we first draw on several theories and empirical studies to predict the differences in service quality between governments and nonprofits and between nonprofits and for-profits. We then articulate the first two hypotheses. We then turn to the literature on employee motivation and its effects on clients/citizens. Here we start with the public service motivation that suggests employee motivations differ in government, nonprofit, and for-profit organizations. We then turn to the insights from social psychology research, specifically the literature on the experience of the person receiving help. This research finds that perceptions of helpers' motivation affect recipients' experiences of the services. We then articulate the last two hypotheses to address the research questions. We describe the research design, experiment procedure, and measures. The results section reports our findings. We find that clients' perceptions of employee motivations are a stronger determinant of their willingness to interact with the employee and the organization, compared to organizational types. The final section discusses the implications of these findings for public management research and practice as well as the limitations of the study.

Service Quality in Different Organizations

Both government agencies and nonprofit organizations seek to serve a larger public good and are thus distinct from for-profit firms (Rainey & Steinbauer, 1999). Many empirical studies over the years have examined whether service quality is notably different in the first two types of organizations and how this compares to services provided by for-profit firms. For example, scholars argue that governments aim to meet the demands of the median voters and may not be able to serve some unsatisfied

consumers who seek more or higher quality services (Salamon, 1987; Weisbrod, 1989). Although nonprofits are not free from bureaucratic constraints, nonprofits can focus on serving a distinct subset of population to satisfy their needs and thus might more easily earn the trust of clients/citizens (Douglas, 1987). In these cases, the theory predicts that nonprofits are formed to supplement government service provision and provide these higher quality services (Kramer, 1987; Steinberg, 2006; Young, 2000). Therefore, compared to governments, nonprofits could take a client-centered approach to provide higher quality services (Mosley, 2020).

Clients/citizens tend to believe nonprofits will provide better services than governments (Douglas, 1987; Mosley, 2020; Smith & Lipsky, 1993). For example, empirical research suggests that clients/citizens perceive nonprofits as warmer, more trustworthy, and more competent than governments (Drevs et al., 2014). When clients/citizens were unsatisfied with the services that were provided by nonprofits, they thought that those were offered by governments (van Slyke & Roch, 2004). That is, clients/citizens believe nonprofit organizations would provide more satisfying services than government organizations (van Slyke & Roch, 2004). Clients/citizens also prefer purchasing services from nonprofits rather than from governments when the information on service quality is absent (Witesman et al., 2022). Overall, clients/citizens prefer to interact with nonprofits over governments.

Hypothesis 1: Clients will be more willing to interact with a nonprofit organization than a government organization.

Turning to the research comparing nonprofits and for-profits, nonprofits differ from for-profits in organizational ownership, mission, and operation. Contract failure

theories predict the distinctiveness of nonprofits from for-profits due to their information asymmetry. Clients are more likely to choose nonprofit organizations rather than for-profit organizations in a field where service quality is hard to judge in terms of information asymmetry. In these cases, customers trust nonprofit organizations not to take advantage of this information asymmetry by compromising quality for profit under certain circumstances (Hansmann, 1980; Steinberg, 2006; Steinberg & Gray, 1993). Information asymmetry happens when the services are too complex for customers to assess, clients do not have the competence to evaluate the services, or clients are the same as the service users (Steinberg, 2006). Clients tend to choose nonprofit organizations since they are prohibited from profit distribution to shareholders, have fewer incentives to save costs, and are more likely to provide a higher quality of service. In contrast, clients are less likely to choose for-profit organizations since they are more likely to compromise service quality to reduce costs and maximize financial returns for their shareholders or investors. Therefore, under these circumstances, clients are predicted to be more willing to choose nonprofits than for-profits.

Empirical studies have shown consistent results. For example, for-profit organizations have a higher quality of service than non-profit organizations only in a more competitive market because for-profit organizations need to compete with other nonprofits which consider service quality as their main value (Amirkhanyan et al., 2008). More often, nonprofit social service providers offer a higher quality of service than for-profit service providers. For example, although for-profit nursing homes provide greater access to Medicare clients, they have lower service quality than nonprofits (Amirkhanyan et al., 2008). This is true especially when clients and their families hardly observe the

quality of service and for-profit nursing homes are more likely to make use of information asymmetry to offer a lower quality of services (Ben-Ner et al., 2012).

Despite the distinctiveness between nonprofit and for-profit organizations, some studies have found that for-profit and nonprofit nursing homes have no significant differences between some easily observable attributes regarding service quality, such as the frequency of residents' infections and falls (Ben-Ner et al., 2012). However, nonprofit nursing homes and for-profit nursing homes have significant differences in less observable attributes, like client satisfaction and interaction with frontline staff and other residents. In other words, residents at nonprofit nursing homes are more likely to have higher satisfaction and closer relationships with staff or other residents than residents at for-profits (Ben-Ner et al., 2012). Similarly, compared to for-profit daycare centers, studies have also found that nonprofit child daycare centers provide more available activities and have better communication between caregivers and children (Leviten-Reid, 2012). Taken together, nonprofit organizations are more likely to provide higher quality services than for-profit organizations when they operate in the same field, increasing the likelihood that clients might prefer nonprofits than their for-profit competitors.

Hypothesis 2: Clients will be more willing to interact with a nonprofit organization than a for-profit organization.

Employee Motivations in Different Organizations

The research on public service motivation has been used to compare the motivations of managers and employees in different sectors. Public service motivation has been applied to explore the motivations of public managers and employees and its effects on job satisfaction, job choice, employee performance, organizational

performance, etc. since the 1990s (Christensen et al., 2017; Perry & Vandenabeele, 2015; Ritz et al., 2016). Empirical studies have shown that nonprofit managers and employees differ from government or for-profit managers and employees regarding their motivation to work in organizations. For example, public and nonprofit employees are more likely to have prosocial motivations to carry out their jobs and volunteer in charitable organizations than for-profit employees (Lee, 2012; Rotolo & Wilson, 2006). While nonprofit and government employees are more likely to be motivated by public interest than for-profit employees (Winter & Thaler, 2016), studies have found that nonprofit employees generally score higher with public service motivations (e.g., compassion and self-sacrifice) than public employees (Prysmakova, 2021).

When employees have higher public service motivations, they tend to make positive impacts on clients (Perry & Wise, 1990). Public managers often favor promotion and rewards (i.e., extrinsic) whereas nonprofit managers value family-friendly policies and increased responsibility more (i.e., intrinsic) (Lee & Wilkins, 2011). Mostly, nonprofit managers and employees are more likely to be intrinsically motivated to help clients than government managers and employees. Moreover, nonprofit employees are more likely to be motivated intrinsically by the work itself than for-profit employees (Benz, 2005; Leete, 2000; Valentinov, 2007). For example, studies have found that nonprofit employees are more often motivated by social compassion than for-profit employees (Winter & Thaler, 2016).). Nonprofit staff value making a positive difference in another person's life and interacting more with their clients, compared to for-profit staff (De Cooman et al., 2011). Like for-profit workers, public workers are more likely to be motivated by monetary incentives and value career advancement and pension plans

more (Borzaga & Tortia, 2006; Lee & Wilkins, 2011). Overall, government or for-profit managers and staff are more extrinsically motivated by financial incentives whereas nonprofit managers and staff are more intrinsically motivated by values or enjoyment (Benz, 2005; Lee & Wilkins, 2011; Leete, 2000; Valentinov, 2007).

More recently, public management scholars suggest applying the empirical findings on public service motivation to leverage the relationships between employees and clients/citizens (Christensen et al., 2017). This makes sense when we consider that clients experience organizations through relationships with frontline workers, so employees' motivation to carry out the job could be one factor affecting how clients experience service received in organization (Benjamin, 2018). Benjamin (2022) has drawn on research from social psychology on receiving help to understand clients' experiences of these relationships in service organizations. This research predicts that the helpers' motivations can influence the recipients' well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Clients experience greater well-being when employees are intrinsically motivated to help them rather than extrinsically motivated by control or pressure to help (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). More specifically, clients' perceptions of employees' motivations to help them impact their help-seeking experiences. For example, people increased their well-being and felt more grateful and closer towards the helpers they perceived as intrinsically motivated to help rather than those required or pressured to help (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010; Weinstein et al., 2010).

Clients' perceptions of employees with intrinsic motivation have more positive impacts on their well-being, self-efficacy, and social connection to others, compared to

their perceptions of employees with extrinsic motivation. For example, people showed more interest in learning skills and enjoying tasks when they perceived that they were taught by instructors who were motivated by the interest or enjoyment of helping others rather than those motivated by the reward of helping others (Wild et al., 1997). Given that studies show nonprofit managers and staff are more intrinsically motivated by values compared to government or for-profit managers, who are more extrinsically motivated by financial incentives, clients might be more willing to interact with nonprofit employees than government or for-profit employees. Thus, an interaction effect between organizational types and employee motivations to help might impact clients' help-seeking preferences. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: Clients will be more willing to interact with staff who have intrinsic motivations to help compared to staff with extrinsic motivations to help.

Hypothesis 4: The interaction effect between organizational types and employee motivation will influence participants' preferences to interact with staff and organizations. Clients will be more willing to interact with nonprofit staff and organization than government or for-profit staff and organization when staff are more intrinsically than extrinsically motivated.

Method

Design

This study used a between-subject 3 (government organization vs. nonprofit organization vs. for-profit organization) x 2 (intrinsic motivation vs. extrinsic motivation) factorial design to test the effects of employee motivations and organizational types on clients' preferences to interact with staff and organizations. Employee motivations and

organizational settings were manipulated through vignettes that included hypothetical information about a healthcare organization and a staff person's interview about the job content and their work motivation. We use health care organizations as the experimental context because most people might have had health care service experiences and government, nonprofit, and for-profit organizations coexist in the U.S. health care industry. The study was pre-registered to improve the quality and transparency of the research at the AsPredicted website.

Participants

A total of 1,020 participants (39.9% female, age range: 21-78, M_{age}=37.25, 80.9% White) were included in the final analysis. We recruited participants from Amazon Mturk who are American, over 18 years old, and had some form of service experience at organization, such as having seen a doctor at a clinic and/or receiving food from a food pantry. The sample characteristics appear in Table 2. We excluded 4 participants who did not agree to participate in the study and 4 participants who did not reveal their actual ages, but typed some random answers, such as "jj." We also excluded 84 participants who incorrectly answered the manipulation check question of organizational type (Question: "What kind of organization did the staff person work for? Please check what is true. Government organization, nonprofit organization, or for-profit organization"), and 159 participants who incorrectly answered the attention check question ("Instructions: Many people engage in charitable activities. Nevertheless, we would like you to skip this question to show that you are reading carefully. Do not select any of the options corresponding to volunteering, mentoring, providing monetary contributions, joining charitable organizations, donating for tax purposes, or other charitable activities").

Table 2. *Sample Characteristics. (N=1,020)*

	Gender			
	Male	Female	N/A	Total
Age				
21-30	216	116		332 (32.55%)
31-40	224	140	1	364 (35.69%)
41-50	106	81		187 (18.33%)
51-60	44	47		91 (8.92%)
61-70	22	19		41 (4.02%)
71-80	1	3		4 (0.39%)
Race				
Hispanic	38	25		63 (6.18%)
White	502	322	1	825 (80.88%)
Black/African American	72	45		117 (11.47%)
American Indian/Alaska Native	7	5		12 (1.18%)
Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander	3	0		3 (2.94%)
East Asian	18	13		31 (3.04%)
South Asian	6	6		12 (1.18%)
Biracial or multiracial	7	5		12 (1.18%)
Others	1	2		3 (0.29%)
Education				
High school or under	43	27		70 (6.86%)
Vocational school, associate's degree, or some college	51	60		111 (10.88%)
Bachelor's degree	371	243		614 (60.20%)
Master's degree or above	148	76	1	225 (22.06%)
Income				
Less than $10,000	23	21		44 (4.31%)
$10,000- $19,999	49	33		82 (8.04%)
$20,000- $34,999	99	63		162 (15.88%)
$35,000- $49,999	110	103		213 (20.88%)
$50,000- $74,999	182	116	1	299 (29.31%)
$75,000- $99,999	120	48		168 (16.47%)
$100,000 and above	30	22		52 (5.10%)
Total	613 (60.10%)	406 (39.81%)	1 (0.10%)	1020 (100.00%)

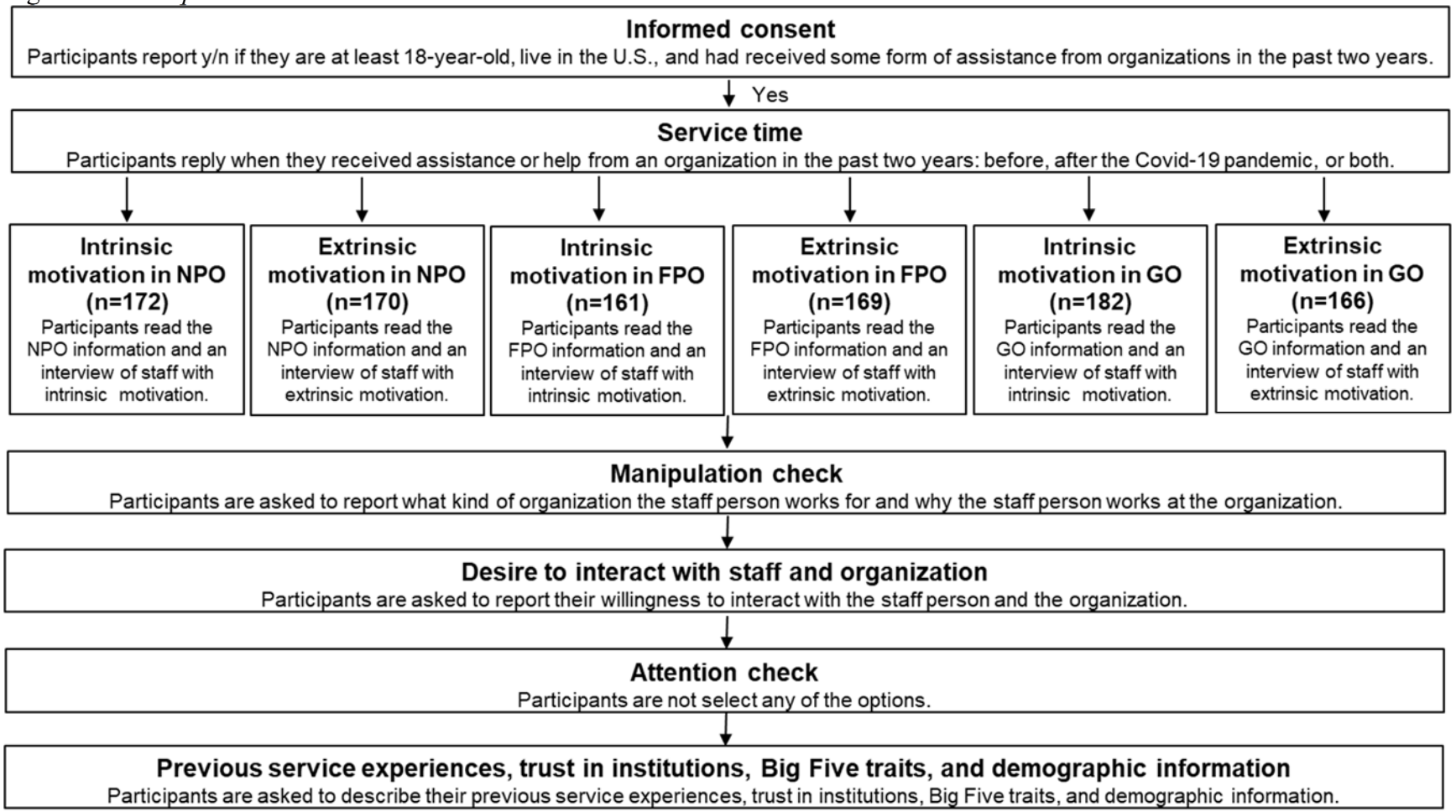
Procedure

Participants were redirected to take the online survey through a Qualtrics link. After reading the survey information and content, they responded "yes" or "no" if they are at least 18 years old, live in the United States, and have received some form of assistance or help from an organization in the past two years (e.g., "you have seen a doctor at a clinic" and/or "received food from a food pantry", etc.), and agreed to participate in this study. If "yes," participants then replied when they received the assistance or help from an organization: "before," "after the Covid-19 pandemic," or

"both." Then participants were randomly assigned to one of six conditions: (1) intrinsic motivation in a government organization; (2) extrinsic motivation in a government organization; (3) intrinsic motivation in a nonprofit organization; (4) extrinsic motivation in a nonprofit organization; (5) intrinsic motivation in a for-profit organization; and (6) extrinsic motivation in a for-profit organization. Separate vignettes were given in each of six conditions.

After reading the vignette, participants were asked to report the manipulation check questions of organizational type and motivation type. Then they reported their desires to interact with the staff person and the organization based on the vignette they read. In the middle of the survey, participants were asked the attention check question. Then participants were asked to use one or two sentences to describe their previous service experiences and responded to the field, organizational type, and satisfaction with their previous service experiences. Finally, participants were asked about their trust in various institutions in the United States, and they also report their personalities and basic demographic information, including their age, gender, race, education, and income. See Figure 1 for the experimental procedure.

Figure 1. *The Experimental Procedure*



Measures

Desire to interact with staff. Participants used a scale from 1 (*not at all true*) to 7 (*very true*) to respond to eight questions that were based on the relatedness portion of the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI; McAuley et al., 1989, for validity and reliability of this measure; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). These items were selected to assess participants' desire to continue interacting with the staff person, including "I felt really distant to this staff person" (r), "I really doubt that this staff person and I would ever be friends" (r), "I felt like I could really trust this staff person," "I'd like a chance to interact with this staff person more often," "I'd really prefer not to interact with this staff person in the future" (r), "I don't feel like I could really trust this staff person" (r), "It is likely that this staff person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot," and "I feel close to this staff person." We averaged responses across all 8 items ($\alpha = .81$).

Desire to interact with organization. Participants used a scale from 1 (*not at all true*) to 7 (*very true*) to respond to six questions based on the relatedness portion of the IMI (see the variable above; McAuley et al., 1989; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). These items were selected to assess participants' desire to continue interacting with the organization, including "I felt really distant to this organization" (r), "I felt like I could really trust this organization," "I'd like a chance to interact with this organization more often," "I'd really prefer not to interact with this organization in the future" (r), "I don't feel like I could really trust this organization" (r), and "I feel close to this organization." We averaged responses across all 6 items ($\alpha = .74$).

Organizational type. After reading the vignette, participants reported what kind of organization the staff person worked for (government/nonprofit/for-profit organization).

84 participants were excluded because they incorrectly answered the organizational type they were assigned to.

Motivation type. Participants responded to five items regarding the motivations of the staff person who worked at the organization using a scale from 1 (*not at all true*) to 7 (*very true*) after they read the vignette. Sample items included "the staff person enjoyed doing this job very much," "the staff person didn't really have a choice about doing this job" (r), "the staff person would be willing to do this again because it has some value to her/him/them," "the staff person did this job because s/he/they wanted to," and "the staff person would describe interacting with the patient as not very enjoyable" (r). These five items were based on the interest/enjoyment, perceived choice, value/usefulness portion of the IMI (McAuley et al., 1989, for validity and reliability of this measure). We averaged responses across all 5 items ($\alpha = .75$).

Previous service experience. Participants were asked to recall their most memorable service experience and use one or two sentences to briefly describe their service experience. They also reported the field and organization type they received the service from and their satisfaction with that previous service experience on a single item with an interval scale ranging from 1 (*extremely dissatisfied*) to 7 (*extremely satisfied*). The single item was "When you recalled the most memorable service experience, please tell us how satisfied you felt with this service experience."

Trust in institutions. Participants reported their trust in government organizations, nonprofit organizations/charities, and for-profit organizations/businesses in the United States (see Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2017), using an interval scale ranging from 0 (*you do not trust the institution at all*) to 10 (*you have*

complete trust). We averaged responses across all 3 items (α = .65). See Table 3 for the descriptive statistics of the variables.

Table 3. *Descriptive Statistics of the Variables*

Variable	*n*	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Dependent Variables					
Desire to interact with staff	1020	4.45	1.08	1	7
Desire to interact with org.	1020	4.47	1.09	1	7
Independent Variables					
Organizational type	1020	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Motivation type	1020	4.73	1.20	1	7
Covariates					
Previous service satisfaction	1020	5.82	1.34	1	7
Trust in institutions	1020	6.78	1.82	0	10

Note. Org. type is a categorical variable

Covariates and exploratory variables. We included several covariates that may influence the effects on clients' preferences to interact with staff or organization, such as Big Five traits (i.e., extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism), age, and gender. We also included race, education, and income as exploratory variables.

Results

We used SPSS to first examine correlations between interaction with staff, interaction with organization and the factor variables and other covariates and exploratory variables. We found that motivation type, previous service satisfaction, trust in institutions were positively correlated with their preferences to interact with staff (r = 0.31, r = 0.18, r = 0.06, respectively; $p < 0.01$, $p < 0.01$, $p < 0.05$, respectively), and to interact with organization (r = 0.21, r = 0.20, r = 0.16, respectively; $ps < 0.01$). However, organizational type was not significantly correlated with interaction with staff or interaction with organization (r = -0.03, r = -0.05, respectively; $p > 0.32$, $p > 0.13$, respectively). See Table 4 for the correlation matrix.

Table 4. *Correlations between Desire to Interact with Staff and with Organization and Independent Variables and Covariates*

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. InterStaff	-					
2. InterOrg.	.75**	-				
3. Motivation type	.31**	.21**	-			
4. Org. Type	-.03	-.05	-.03	-		
5. PSS	.18**	.20**	-.03	.03	-	
6. Trust in Inst.	.06*	.16**	-.06*	-.02	.26**	-

Note. InterStaff = interaction with staff. InterOrg. = interaction with organization. PSS = previous service satisfaction. Trust in Inst. = Average trust score in governments, nonprofits, and for-profits. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01

Manipulation Check for Motivation Type

We ran a t-test analysis on the variable of motivation type to confirm a successful manipulation to make sure participants correctly understand the vignettes. The result showed that extrinsic motivation to help has significantly lower scores than intrinsic motivation to help, $t(1018) = -16.10$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 1.07$ (M_{extrin}=4.19; M_{intrin}=5.27).

Main Effects of Conditions

We also ran a two-way ANCOVA with the covariates and exploratory variables (i.e., previous service experiences, trust in institutions, Big Five traits, and demographic information) to test the main hypotheses in order to examine the effects of organizational types and motivation types on clients' willingness to interact with a staff person or an organization.

Effects of Organizational Type

We only included the participants who correctly answered the information of organizational type they were assigned to read in the final analysis. There were significant effects of organizational type on participants' willingness to interact with the staff person, $F(2, 1001) = 4.60$, $p = .010$, $\eta^2 = .009$, and their willingness to interact with

the organization, $F(2, 1001) = 11.08$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .022$, after controlling for the effects of all covariates. See Figure 2 and Figure 3 for more information.

In particular, participants were significantly more willing to interact with a staff person in the condition of nonprofit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}} = 4.55$, $SE_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}} = .05$) than with a staff person in the condition of for-profit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted for-profit}} = 4.33$, $SE_{\text{adjusted for-profit}} = .05$), $p = .008$. However, there were no significant differences in clients' willingness to interact with the staff between nonprofit organizations ($M_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}} = 4.55$, $SE_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}} = .05$) and government organizations ($M_{\text{adjusted government}} = 4.47$, $SE_{\text{adjusted government}} = .05$), $p = .793$. There were also no significant differences in clients' willingness to interact with staff between for-profit organizations ($M_{\text{adjusted for-profit}} = 4.33$, $SE_{\text{adjusted for-profit}} = .05$) and government organizations ($M_{\text{adjusted government}} = 4.47$, $SE_{\text{adjusted government}} = .05$), $p = .172$.

Furthermore, participants were significantly more willing to interact with the organization in the condition of nonprofit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}} = 4.62$, $SE_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}} = .05$) than with the organization in the condition of for-profit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted for-profit}} = 4.28$, $SE_{\text{adjusted for-profit}} = .05$), $p < .001$. Participants were also significantly more willing to interact with the organization in the condition of government organization ($M_{\text{adjusted government}} = 4.48$, $SE_{\text{adjusted government}} = .05$) than with the organization in the condition of for-profit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted for-profit}} = 4.28$, $SE_{\text{adjusted for-profit}} = .05$), $p = .017$. However, there were no significant differences in clients' willingness to interact with the organization between nonprofit organizations ($M_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}} = 4.62$, $SE_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}} = .05$) and government organizations ($M_{\text{adjusted government}} = 4.48$, $SE_{\text{adjusted government}} = .05$), $p = .155$.

Figure 2. *The Main Effect of Organizational Type on Willingness to Interact with Staff*

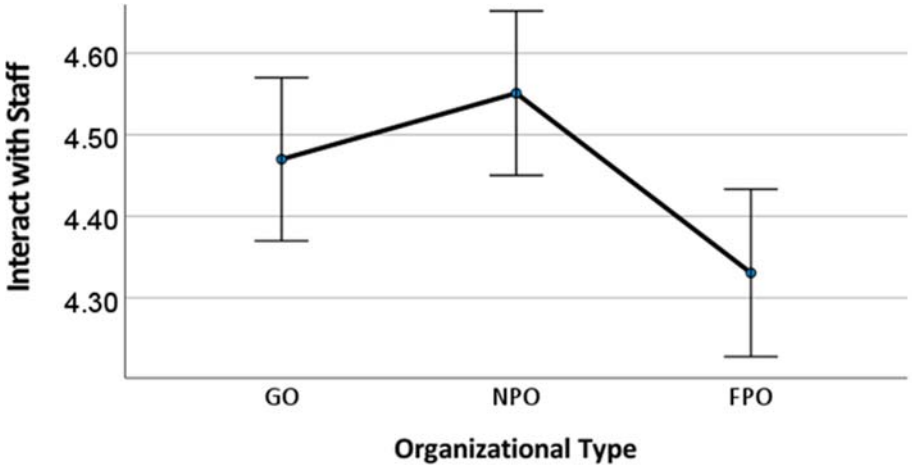
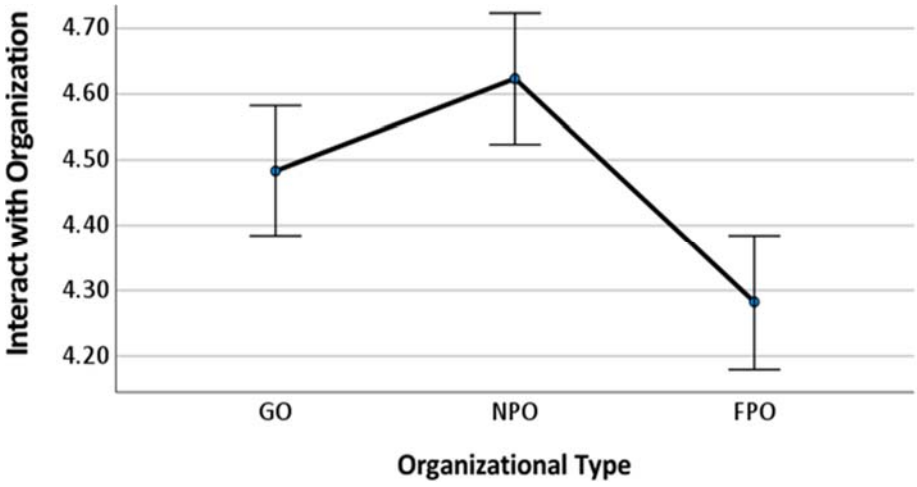


Figure 3. *The Main Effect of Organizational Type on Willingness to Interact with Organization*



Effects of motivation type. Participants were significantly more willing to interact with staff in the condition of staff with intrinsic motivations (M_{intrin} = 4.78, SD_{intrin} = 1.23) than with staff with extrinsic motivations (M_{extrin} = 4.12, SD_{extrin} = 1.02), $F(1, 1001)$ = 143.45, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .125$, after controlling for the effects of all covariates. Participants were significantly more willing to interact with organization in the condition of staff with intrinsic motivations (M_{intrin} = 4.69, SD_{intrin} = 1.08) than with staff with extrinsic motivations (M_{extrin} = 4.24, SD_{extrin} = 1.05), $F(1, 1001) = 76.52$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .071$, after

controlling for the effects of all covariates. See Figure 4 and Figure 5 for more information.

Figure 4. *The Main Effect of Motivation Type on Willingness to Interact with Staff*

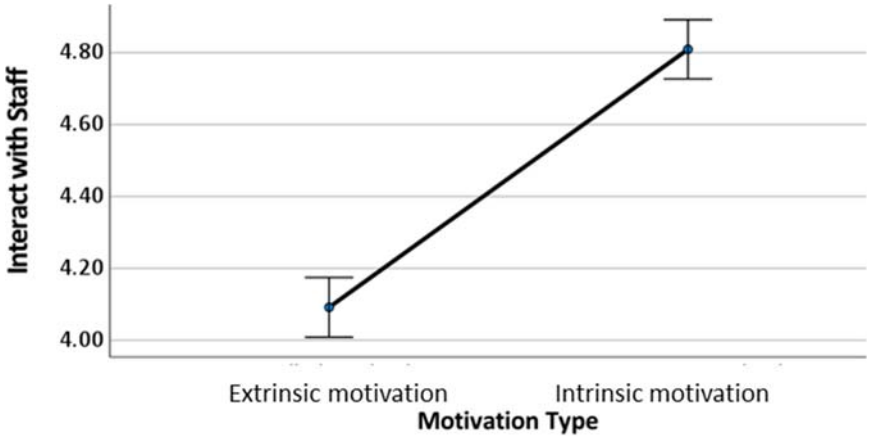
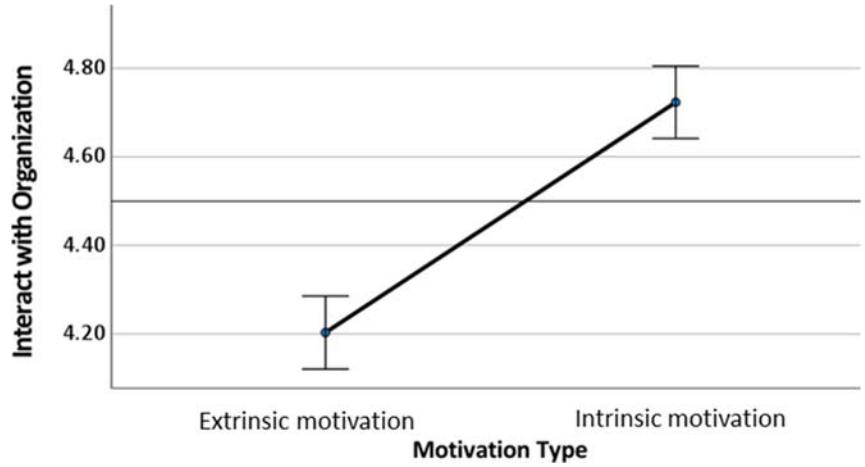


Figure 5. *The Main Effect of Motivation Type on Willingness to Interact with Organization*



Interaction between organizational type and motivation type. There was no significant interaction effect between organizational type and motivation type on participants' preferences to interact with the staff person, $F(2, 1001) = 2.46$, $p = .086$, $\eta^2 = 005$, or with the organization, $F(2, 1001) = 2.49$, $p = .083$, $\eta^2 = 005$, after controlling for the effects of all covariates. See Figure 6 and Figure 7 for more information.

However, looking at the main effect on the willingness to interact with staff, within the condition of extrinsic motivation, participants were significantly less willing to interact with the staff person in the condition of for-profit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted for-profit}}$ = 3.88, $SE_{\text{adjusted for-profit}}$ = .07) than with the staff person in the condition of nonprofit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}}$ = 4.22, $SE_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}}$ = .07), p = .004; so are less willing to interact with the staff person in the condition of government organization ($M_{\text{adjusted government}}$ = 4.18, $SE_{\text{adjusted government}}$ = .07), p = .013. There were no significant differences in the willingness to interact with the staff person between government organization and nonprofit organization within the condition of extrinsic motivation, p = 1.000. Within the condition of intrinsic motivation, there were no significant differences between for-profit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted for-profit}}$ = 4.78, $SE_{\text{adjusted for-profit}}$ = .08) and nonprofit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}}$ = 4.89, $SE_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}}$ = .07), or between for-profit organization and government organization ($M_{\text{adjusted government}}$ = 4.76, $SE_{\text{adjusted government}}$ = .07), or between government organization and nonprofit organization, p = .916, p = 1.000, p = .661, respectively.

Looking at the main effect on the willingness to interact with organization, within the condition of extrinsic motivation, participants were significantly less willing to interact with the organization in the condition of for-profit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted for-profit}}$ = 3.93, $SE_{\text{adjusted for-profit}}$ = .07) than in the condition of nonprofit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}}$ = 4.43, $SE_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}}$ = .07), p < .001, or the condition of government organization ($M_{\text{adjusted government}}$ = 4.25, $SE_{\text{adjusted government}}$ = .07), p = .007. There were no significant differences in the willingness to interact with the organization between government organization and nonprofit organization within the condition of extrinsic motivation, p =

1.000. Within the condition of intrinsic motivation, there were no significant differences between for-profit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted for-profit}} = 4.63$, $SE_{\text{adjusted for-profit}} = .07$) and nonprofit organization ($M_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}} = 4.82$, $SE_{\text{adjusted nonprofit}} = .07$), or between for-profit organization and government organization ($M_{\text{adjusted government}} = 4.72$, $SE_{\text{adjusted government}} = .07$), or between government organization and nonprofit organization, $p = .228$, $p = 1.000$, $p = 1.000$, respectively.

Figure 6. *The Interaction Effect on Willingness to Interact with Staff*

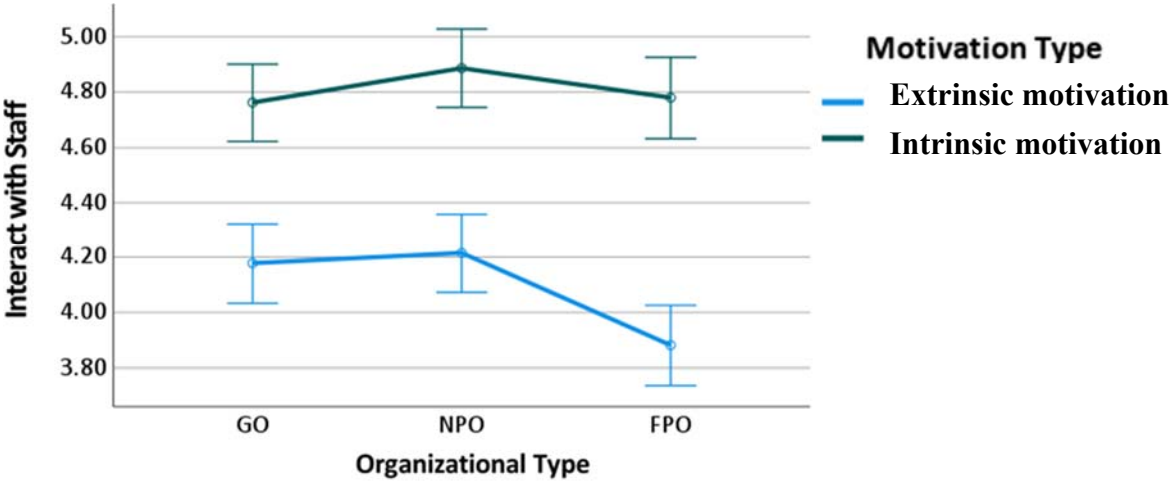
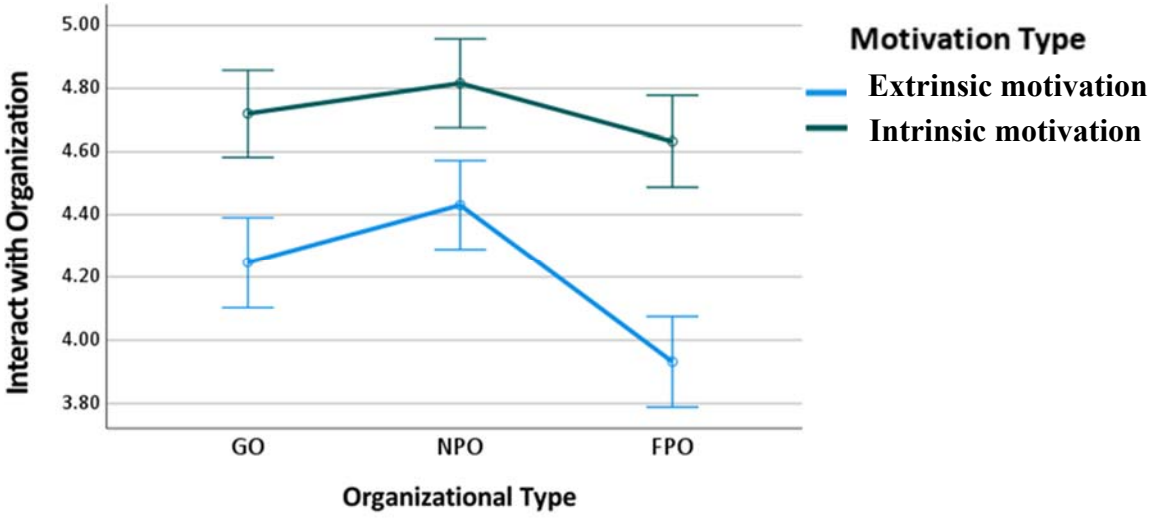


Figure 7. *The Interaction Effect on Willingness to Interact with Organization*



Effects of Covariates and Exploratory Variables

Previous service satisfaction. Participants who are more satisfied with their previous service experiences were more willing to interact with the staff person, compared to the ones who are less satisfied with their pervious experiences, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type, $F(1, 1001) = 5.85$, $p = .016$, $\eta^2 = .006$. However, participants' previous service satisfaction did not influence their preferences to interact with the organization, $F(1, 1001) = 2.96$, $p = .085$, $\eta^2 = .003$.

Trust in institutions. Participants who have more trust in institutions were more willing to interact with the staff person, $F(1, 1001) = 8.30$, $p = .004$, $\eta^2 = .008$, or with the organization, $F(1, 1001) = 38.4$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .037$, compared to the ones with lower trust in institutions, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type. See Table 5 for more information.

Table 5. *Analysis of the Main Effects and Covariates*

	Willingness to Interact with					
	Staff			Organization		
ANCOVA	*df*	*F*	η^2	*df*	*F*	η^2
Organizational Type	2	4.60*	.009	2	11.08***	.022
Motivation Type	1	143.45***	.125	1	76.52***	.071
Interaction Effect	2	2.46	.005	2	2.49	.005
Pre. Service Satis.	1	5.85**	.006	1	2.96	.003
Trust in Institutions	1	8.30**	.008	1	38.4***	.037

Note. $p < .05$*, $p < .01$**, $p < .001$***

Covariates and exploratory variables. Although there was mostly no significant effect of these variables, such as personalities, age, race, education, and income, this study found that gender has a significant effect on clients' willingness to interact with the organization. Women, rather than men, were more willing to interact with the organization, $F(1, 1001) = 4.41$, $p = .036$, $\eta^2 = .004$, regardless of staff motivations to

help or organizational type. However, there was no effect of gender on their preferences to interact with the staff person, $F(1, 1001) = 2.52$, $p = .113$, $\eta^2 = .003$. See Appendix for more information on the other variables.

Previous service experience. For open-ended questions, we asked the participants to describe their most memorable service experiences in the past two years as well as from the organizational type and the field they received the service. More participants (31.67%) reported their positive service experiences. For example, they mentioned that the organizations provided services to help them solve issues, such as medical care or financial assistance. They also felt supported when they were "treated with respect, kindness, and dignity" by the staff. For example, a participant described the support from a food pantry during the pandemic:

> I recall the moment during the pandemic when I was furloughed for 2 months and I didn't have a lot of money. Then I decided to go to a food pantry and get food to save money, and I got 2 boxes of food for free. The experience was great, they treated me with a lot of respect and helped me in a moment I really needed the help.

Another participant mentioned the feeling when s/he received the service: "They acted like I was important, took plenty of time on just me." Sometimes a follow-up phone call mattered for clients, which became their most memorable experiences. For instance, "one of the members of the organization reached out to me by phone to see how I was doing after I received help."

A few participants (3.8%) reported their negative experiences. For instance, a participant described that: "the lady at the desk was really rude and seemed like she hated her job, she always got an attitude with me and made me really anxious to continue my application." Two other participants mentioned that they were not treated with respect,

> I used a government program clinic to get a round of testing for STD's. This felt pretty routine and the way the staff treated me was rather cold. It wasn't a positive experience and I felt like I was putting them out by using this service.
>
> I received assistant from government organization it is a very bad experience i ever had. The employee not respect and care about the seriousness of the situation not only me he treat everyone like worst.

However, most participants (64.53%) did not take the question seriously.

Most participants received their service from nonprofit organizations (37.9%) and government organizations (37.7%). Only 21.2 % of the participants received services from for-profit organizations whereas nearly 3% of the participants did not recognize their organizations. As for the service fields, most participants received medical care (31.5%), employment procurement assistance and job training (26.4%), and food assistance (23.6%) within the past two years. Some participants received help with housing (6.1%), mental health (5.4%), alcohol, drug, and substance abuse (0.8%) and others, such as financial support (1.9%) and childcare (0.4%). See Table 6 for more details.

Table 6. *The Fields of Participants' Most Memorable Service Experiences*

Most Memorable Service Experiences.	Governments	Nonprofits	For-profits	Unclear	Total
Employment procurement assistance & job training	127	73	66	3	269 (26.4%)
Food assistance	80	128	28	5	241 (23.6%)
Housing	23	29	8	2	62 (6.1%)
Medical care	116	106	84	15	321 (31.5%)
Mental health	10	25	15	5	55 (5.4%)
Alcohol, drug, & substance abuse	3	4	1	0	8 (0.8%)
Other (please specify)	26	22	14	2	64 (6.3%)
Total	385 (37.7%)	387 (37.9%)	216 (21.2%)	32 (3.2%)	1020 (100%)

Note. Unclear data includes participants who selected "I'm not sure" or did not provide any organizational type.

Discussion and Limitations

Overall, our results show that sectoral differences and employee motivation have significant effects on clients' preferences to interact with staff and organization. Three findings regarding the main hypotheses are worth noting. First, our findings are consistent with previous studies on the economic prediction of organizational type that matters for the selection of service providers (e.g., Ben-Ner et al., 2018; Handy et al., 2010; Meier et al., 2022; Xu, 2020). That is, compared to for-profit organizations, clients are more willing to interact with nonprofit organizations or government organizations. Clients are also more willing to interact with nonprofit staff than for-profit staff. However, there are no significant differences comparing nonprofit staff or for-profit staff with government staff. Second, our results also confirmed studies that clients are more willing to interact with staff who are motivated by personal choice or work itself to carry out the job rather than the staff who are motivated by pressure or rewards (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). And third, the results show that there is no interaction effect of organizational type and employee motivation on clients' preferences to interact with staff or organization. However, when employees are all extrinsically motivated by pressures or rewards, clients are more willing to interact with the staff person at nonprofit organizations or government organizations than the staff at for-profit organizations. The effect of motivation type on clients' help-seeking preferences is not greater with nonprofit organizations, but the effect of organization type is significant with the condition of employees who are extrinsically motivated by pressures or rewards.

The findings also show that when clients are more satisfied with their previous service experiences, they are more willing to interact with the staff person, but not necessarily more willing to interact with the organization. In other words, the perception of clients' previous service experiences has effects on their willingness to interact with frontline staff, but not on organizations. Furthermore, when clients reported their previous service experiences, in most cases, whether they have positive or negative service experiences, they only mentioned their interaction with frontline staff, but not about the organization in general or other information. It implies that we might need to pay more attention to staff-beneficiary relationship than sectoral differences. Additionally, people who trust more in institutions (e.g., governments, nonprofits, and for-profits) tend to be more willing to interact with staff and organizations. That is, when clients trust any type of organization more generally, they tend to be more willing to interact with frontline staff and organizations.

This study has some important implications. First, the study finds that organizational type matters for clients' willingness to interact with the staff or organizations. Although the interaction effect of employee motivation and organizational types is not significant on the clients' help-seeking preferences, this study finds that when employees are motivated by pressure or rewards, clients are more willing to interact with the staff or organizations that are nonprofit or governmental in nature compared to for-profit organizations. These imply that clients have certain perceptions on organizational types in the U.S. context which is consistent with Meier et al. (2021) study that people tend to have anti-for-profit sector perception.

Second, it extends previous research on the effects of employee motivations to carry out a job in different types of organizational settings on clients' help-seeking preferences. Most previous studies on helper's motivations have been conducted to understand the effects on the helpers (e.g., volunteers, teachers, etc.), less on the recipients (i.e., beneficiaries, students, etc.) (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). This study focuses on the effects of employee motivations on clients' potential service preferences. It also applied staff motivations in organizational contexts to better situate how clients' selection of service providers and staff are influenced by different factors in organizations, such as their perception of how employees are motivated to help them in an organizational setting. Similar to Ritz et al. (2016) and Christensen et al. (2017) review studies that public managers should apply public service motivation to select public employees, our study implies that when managers are looking for frontline workers in GOs, NPOs, and FPOs, they should pay attention to their employees' motivation to help clients. More specifically, managers should hire intrinsically motivated employees.

Third, in addition to organizational differences and employee motivations, we also consider other factors that might influence clients' help-seeking preferences, such as previous service experiences and trust in institutions. To better understand how previous service experiences might influence clients' help-seeking preferences, rather than testing university students who might not have any service experiences, this study recruited participants who had some form of service experiences in organizations to investigate how previous service experiences impact their preferences to interact with potential staff and organizations. Their real-world previous service experiences provide some insights

because clients describe their positive or negative experiences with their interaction with frontline staff in most cases. This confirms our assumption that clients experience organizations through their interaction with staff. It suggests that staff contact with clients impacts on their potential service preferences.

And fourth, the findings confirm that clients' perception of employee motivations matters for their help-seeking preferences. That means, practitioners in social service providers should pay attention to how clients perceive the assistance and help they receive. It is likely that clients perceive why and how the staff does what they do matters more than other factors. For example, does clients' perception of service quality matter more than their perception of employee motivation? Future studies should focus on what other factors matter for clients' help-seeking experiences and what matters more for nonprofit practical implication.

The study has several limitations, but we offer some future directions. First, we acknowledge the limitations of this online experiment since we examined clients' perceptions of their willingness to interact with staff and organizations, and it might not be their actual preferences when they search for help from any type of service providers. Based on previous studies, we know that oftentimes clients approach service providers without recognizing which sectoral type the organization is (Handy et al., 2010). It is likely that clients select organizations according to their interaction with previous employees or other factors, but not organizational type. Although we asked participants to use two or three sentences to describe their previous service experiences in organizational settings, most participants did not take the questions seriously. More

qualitative studies, such as interviews or focus groups, are needed to examine detailed service experiences in different types of organizational settings.

Second, the study relied exclusively on participants' self-reports and participants reported their future actions based on their interpretation of hypothetical employee motivation vignettes. In real life, people would not be able to have access to employee job interviews. They would only judge employee motivation to help them by interacting with staff in organizational settings. Additionally, employees may have different motivations to carry out the job, e.g., they might care about clients and love the job (intrinsic motivations) meanwhile they anticipate better rewards (extrinsic motivations). Therefore, how employee motivation influences client's help-seeking preferences in the real world could be more complicated than what we found in the study.

Third, Amazon Mturk workers in this study might not be a generalizable population in the U.S. with regards to gender, race, education, and income. For example, more males and white people participated in the survey and participants tended to have more income and higher education. However, the population of the research subjects are still diverse in terms of these demographic characteristics (Buhrmester et al., 2011).

And fourth, we found that the source of employee motivations influences clients' help-seeking preferences in the study, but we might miss some other important employee related factors that also matter for clients' service experiences in organizations. For example, do clients prefer interacting with staff or organizations that make them feel they have more control during the service encounter in the organization? Do clients prefer interacting with staff who have similar experiences than the staff who do not? More

experimental studies on the effects of staff client relationships are needed (Benjamin, 2021).

Conclusion

Public management literature has rarely focused on the experiences of clients to understand whether to provide services directly or to contract out human services to private agencies. This article addresses the gap in the literature of organizational types by looking at one perspective of clients/citizens' experiences to examine how organizational types and employee motivations influence their preferences to seek assistance or help in organizations. We found that public management scholars and practitioners should not only pay attention to the effect of organizational types on clients/citizens' help-seeking experiences, but also their perceptions of employee motivation and staff-client relationship and interaction for future studies.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Experimental Vignettes

Muzumoko Center
Government Organization
56 REVIEWS

About: As a government organization, Muzumoko Center was established in 1990. We are committed to providing comprehensive and compassionate care to improve the health and wellbeing of every person we serve.

Could you tell me about your responsibilities in this position?
My job responsibilities at this government organization are to ensure the comfort and safety of the patients. I assist to prepare patients for examination and explain treatment procedures to patients. I communicate with them and their family members.
What brought you to the field?
I always wanted to work in the healthcare field. For me, this job just made sense. Since I feel like this is what I'm called to do in life, I take this job very seriously. I do my best because I care about the work I do with patients at this government organization. I love the work I do, so I want to work here for a long time.

Muzumoko Center
Government Organization
56 REVIEWS

About: As a government organization, Muzumoko Center was established in 1990. We are committed to providing comprehensive and compassionate care to improve the health and wellbeing of every person we serve.

Could you tell me about your responsibilities in this position?
My job responsibilities at this government organization are to ensure the comfort and safety of the patients. I assist to prepare patients for examination and explain treatment procedures to patients. I communicate with them and their family members.
What brought you to the field?
I entered the healthcare field by accident. For me, this is just a job. I do take this job very seriously since I don't want to lose the job and I need to make ends meet. I do my best because I don't want to let my patients down at this government organization. Unless I get a better job, I can see myself working here for a long time.

Muzumoko Center
Nonprofit Organization
56 REVIEWS

About: As a nonprofit organization, Muzumoko Center was established in 1990. We are committed to providing comprehensive and compassionate care to improve the health and wellbeing of every person we serve.

Could you tell me about your responsibilities in this position?
My job responsibilities at this nonprofit organization are to ensure the comfort and safety of the patients. I assist to prepare patients for examination and explain treatment procedures to patients. I communicate with them and their family members.
What brought you to the field?
I always wanted to work in the healthcare field. For me, this job just made sense. Since I feel like this is what I'm called to do in life, I take this job very seriously. I do my best because I care about the work I do with patients at this nonprofit organization. I love the work I do, so I want to work here for a long time.

Muzumoko Center
Nonprofit Organization
56 REVIEWS

About: As a nonprofit organization, Muzumoko Center was established in 1990. We are committed to providing comprehensive and compassionate care to improve the health and wellbeing of every person we serve.

Could you tell me about your responsibilities in this position?
My job responsibilities at this nonprofit organization are to ensure the comfort and safety of the patients. I assist to prepare patients for examination and explain treatment procedures to patients. I communicate with them and their family members.
What brought you to the field?
I entered the healthcare field by accident. For me, this is just a job. I do take this job very seriously since I don't want to lose the job and I need to make ends meet. I do my best because I don't want to let my patients down at this nonprofit organization. Unless I get a better job, I can see myself working here for a long time.

Muzumoko Center
For-profit Organization
56 REVIEWS

About: As a for-profit organization, Muzumoko Center was established in 1990. We are committed to providing comprehensive and compassionate care to improve the health and wellbeing of every person we serve.

Could you tell me about your responsibilities in this position?
My job responsibilities at this for-profit organization are to ensure the comfort and safety of the patients. I assist to prepare patients for examination and explain treatment procedures to patients. I communicate with them and their family members.
What brought you to the field?
I always wanted to work in the healthcare field. For me, this job just made sense. Since I feel like this is what I'm called to do in life, I take this job very seriously. I do my best because I care about the work I do with patients at this for-profit organization. I love the work I do, so I want to work here for a long time.

Muzumoko Center
For-profit Organization
56 REVIEWS

About: As a for-profit organization, Muzumoko Center was established in 1990. We are committed to providing comprehensive and compassionate care to improve the health and wellbeing of every person we serve.

Could you tell me about your responsibilities in this position?
My job responsibilities at this for-profit organization are to ensure the comfort and safety of the patients. I assist to prepare patients for examination and explain treatment procedures to patients. I communicate with them and their family members.
What brought you to the field?
I entered the healthcare field by accident. For me, this is just a job. I do take this job very seriously since I don't want to lose the job and I need to make ends meet. I do my best because I don't want to let my patients down at this for-profit organization. Unless I get a better job, I can see myself working here for a long time.

Appendix 2. Additional Analysis of Control Variables

Big five traits. There were no effects of extraversion on participants' preferences to interact with the staff person, $F(1, 1001) = 0.00$, $p = .982$, $\eta^2 = .000$, or the organization $F(1, 1001) = 0.33$, $p = .566$, $\eta^2 = .000$. Participants who are more agreeable were more willing to interact with the staff person, $F(1, 1001) = 20.55$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .02$, or the organization, $F(1, 1001) = 47.27$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .045$, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type. Participants who are more conscientious were more willing to interact with the staff person, $F(1, 1001) = 16.74$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .016$, or the organization $F(1, 1001) = 14.42$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .014$, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type. Participants who are more emotionally stable were more willing to interact with the staff person, $F(1, 1001) = 5.99$, $p = .015$, $\eta^2 = .006$, or the organization, $F(1, 1001) = 4.54$, $p = .033$, $\eta^2 = .005$, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type. Participants who are more open to new experiences were more willing to interact with the organization, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type, $F(1, 1001) = 3.94$, $p = .047$, $\eta^2 = .004$. However, there was no effect of openness on participants' preferences to interact with the staff person, $F(1, 1001) = 2.00$, $p = .157$, $\eta^2 = .002$.

Age. There was no effect of age on participants' preferences to interact with the staff person, $F(1, 1001) = 0.01$, $p = .915$, $\eta^2 = .000$, or the organization, $F(1, 1001) = 2.98$, $p = .084$, $\eta^2 = .003$, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type.

Gender: Women, rather than men, were more willing to interact with the organization, $F(1, 1001) = 4.41$, $p = .036$, $\eta^2 = .004$, regardless of staff motivations to

help or organizational type. However, there was no effect of gender on their preferences to interact with the staff person, $F(1, 1001) = 2.52$, $p = .113$, $\eta^2 = .003$.

Race. There were no effects of race, such as white/non-white and black/non-black respectively, on participants' preferences to interact with the staff person, $F(1, 1001) = 0.06$, $p = .803$, $\eta^2 = .000$, and $F(1, 1001) = 0.65$, $p = .421$, $\eta^2 = .001$, or with the organization, $F(1, 1001) = 1.84$, $p = .175$, $\eta^2 = .002$ and $F(1, 1001) = 0.39$, $p = .533$, $\eta^2 = .000$, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type.

Education: There were no effects of education on participants' preferences to interact with the staff person, $F(1, 1001) = 3.18$, $p = .075$, $\eta^2 = .003$, or with the organization, $F(1, 1001) = 3.29$, $p = .07$, $\eta^2 = .003$, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type.

Income. There were no effects of income on participants' preferences to interact with the staff person, $F(1, 1001) = 1.76$, $p = .185$, $\eta^2 = .002$, or with the organization, $F(1, 1001) = 2.58$, $p = .109$, $\eta^2 = .003$, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type.

CHAPTER THREE. DOES BENEFICIARIES' PERCEIVED CONTROL MATTER? HELP-SEEKING PREFERENCES IN NONPROFIT AND FOR-PROFIT SOCIAL ENTERPRISES

Introduction

The emergence of social enterprises has been one of the most significant trends in the nonprofit sector over the past two decades. Social enterprises are viewed as part of a larger evolution of the nonprofit sector towards more like the for-profit sector. For example, nonprofit organizations might develop new programs to attract social investors and create for-profit ventures to support programming (Eikenberry, 2009; Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004; Galaskiewicz & Coleman, 2006; Maier et al., 2016). The growth in social enterprises has been supported by foundations and big donors who increasingly want to apply business principles to the social sector, but these trends also reflect the larger ideological agenda starting in the 1970s to use the market as a model for organizing the state (e.g., Osborne & Gaebler 1992).

Not surprisingly, this growth in the number of social enterprises has aroused scholarly interest with numerous articles in the three main nonprofit journals (*Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, and *Voluntas*) and newly launched specialized journals e.g., *The Journal of Social Entrepreneurship* and *Social Enterprise Journal* (Walk & Andersson, 2020). New courses and programs for social enterprises and social entrepreneurship have expanded at universities globally (Mirabella & Young, 2012; Wiley & Berry, 2015). The term *social enterprises* were drawn on Young and Lecy's study to refer to as an umbrella concept of different forms of organizations, e.g., commercial nonprofit organizations and social businesses that aim to

successfully make profits to achieve social benefits (Young & Lecy, 2014, p. 1309). One of the central questions animating the research on social enterprises is whether they can pursue financial success to make profits simultaneously achieve social and public benefits. For example, existing studies suggest that balancing these two different goals can negatively affect organizational performance, organizational legitimacy, and community building (Maier et al., 2016). Other studies suggest social enterprises can achieve both financial and social goals by applying different strategies to cope with potential conflicts and gain legitimacy (e.g., Ebrahim et al., 2014; Pache & Santos, 2013).

As the scholarship on social enterprises has grown, scholars have increasingly turned their attention to beneficiaries, those intended to benefit from these new organizational forms (Beaton & Dowin Kennedy, 2021; Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004; Mirabella & Eikenberry, 2017; Sandberg, 2013). Some scholars suggest that social enterprises cannot easily achieve social goals and meanwhile pursue the purpose of making profits without harming the needs of beneficiaries (e.g., Galaskiewicz & Barringer, 2012; Garrow & Hasenfeld, 2012, 2014). For instance, service users may be treated as a means to an end in the organizations embedded in the business-dominated field, where they are mainly seen as workers to help work integrated social enterprises generate revenues (Garrow & Hasenfeld, 2012). Beneficiaries are not only program recipients but also organizational actors that might impact their experiences and organizations (Benjamin, 2021, p. 6). The consequences of social enterprises on beneficiaries and their experiences are among the main concerns in achieving social missions with the pursuit of financial success, something that is increasingly recognized as an important but underresearched area in the management of all kinds of nonprofit

organizations, including social enterprises (Benjamin, 2021; Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004; Sandberg, 2013).

The purpose of this study is to examine how social enterprises matter for beneficiaries' experiences. The study first conducts a scoping review of the current literature on social enterprises to examine the experiences of beneficiaries in these organizations. The study refers beneficiaries' experiences not only to what beneficiaries encounter in organizations but also how that means to them or to what extent that influences them (Schwandt, 2011). Based on the preliminary findings of the scoping review, the study conducts an online experiment to test one of the key findings from the review: that beneficiaries' control seems to be an important factor that influences beneficiaries' positive service experiences. The research questions aim to ask: what matters for beneficiaries' experiences? More specifically, how do beneficiaries' perceived control or other factors impact their help-seeking experiences? The study focuses on beneficiaries' help-seeking preferences, i.e., their willingness to interact with, say positive things about, and recommend organizations as one way to understand beneficiaries' service experiences in organizational settings. The online experiment tests the effect of beneficiaries' perceived control on help-seeking preferences. And because social enterprises can be nonprofit or for-profit organizations, the experiment also tests the effects of these two social enterprise types on beneficiaries' help-seeking preferences.

The paper is organized as follows. The first section introduces and presents the results of the scoping study on beneficiaries' experiences in different types of social enterprises. The second section presents the research question and describes the experiment that tests whether beneficiaries' perception of their control over key service

decisions and social enterprise type affects their help-seeking preferences. The third section presents the hypotheses for the social enterprise experiment. This section also explains the research design, experiment procedure, and measures. The fourth section reports the experimental results, and the fifth section concludes by discussing the findings and implications for scholars and practitioners. Finally, the last section points out the limitations and suggests possible future studies. Throughout the study, the term *beneficiary* refers to the primary person to whom social enterprises provide services to achieve their organizational social missions, such as clients, service users, recipients, and participants (Benjamin, 2021; Battilana et al., 2015). The term *beneficiary's perceived control* refers to their perception of their control over the key service decisions in the provision process, such as whether they can decide which job replacement they prefer.

Literature Review on Beneficiaries' Experiences in Social Enterprises

This section aims to summarize the preliminary findings of the scoping review of the current literature. It first followed the five stages of the scoping review to utilize the key terms social enterprise and beneficiaries in the columns of title, abstract, and keywords to search for English-language articles before 2021 to identify articles on the database of Scopus. Out of 509 articles were included in the initial research with the deletion of two duplications. We then applied the exclusion criteria on the abstract review to exclude articles: (1) the study is not empirical; and (2) the keyword of 'beneficiary' does not refer to the intended beneficiary but something else (e.g., nonprofit is a client of an auditing firm). We also applied the inclusion criteria on the full-text reviews to select articles: (1) beneficiaries as study sample: the study draws on data about beneficiaries, such as interviewing or surveying beneficiaries. And (2) beneficiaries' experiences as the

primary research concern, e.g., the study examines some form of beneficiaries' experiences in organizations or programs. After identifying and selecting the literature on beneficiaries' experiences in social enterprises, the review included 69 empirical studies in the final analysis (see Appendix 1 for more information).

The 69 empirical studies reviewed mainly focus on beneficiaries' experiences in social enterprises using interviews of beneficiaries and/or surveys of beneficiaries as the primary study sample. These studies were published between 2008 and 2020, and most studies were conducted in the U.K. (19%), the U.S. (16%), Canada (10%), Australia (9%), and some European countries (16%). At least half of studies use qualitative research methods (67%), e.g., ethnography, interviews, participant observation, focus groups, etc. and some (14%) used quantitative methods to examine beneficiaries' experiences. See Table 7 for more information. The findings from the review are organized into four main themes: beneficiaries' roles in social enterprises, effects of social enterprises on beneficiary outcomes, beneficiaries' experiences in social enterprises, and social enterprise types. In addition to the preliminary findings, the scoping review includes some ancillary study characteristics to better interpret the studies (see Appendix 2 & 3 for more information).

Table 7. *Empirical Studies of Beneficiaries in Social Enterprises (n=69)*

1st Author	Pub. Yr.	Countries	Study Methods	Target Group	Social Enterprise Types	Beneficiary Roles
Ferguson	2008	US	Quasi-experiment: Social enterprise intervention	Homeless	Others	Service users
Ferguson	2008	US	Qualitative interviews, focus groups after the SEI quasi-experiment	Homeless	Others	Service users
Teasdale	2010	UK	Qualitative case studies	Refugee and immigrants	Commercial nonprofit	Members
Ohana	2010	France	Quantitative survey	Disadvantaged people	Social businesses-WISEs	Employees
Carrasco	2010	Spain	Qualitative case studies	Unemployed women	Cooperatives (three women-led coops)	Social Entrepreneurs
Battilana	2010	Bolivia, South America	Qualitative interviews	Poverty	Commercial nonprofit (microfinance NGOs)	Members of microfinance NGOs
Cooney	2011	US	Qualitative interviews, quantitative survey	Poverty	Commercial nonprofit	Employees
Boluk	2011	South Africa	Qualitative interviews	Fair Trade Tourism Entrepreneurs	For-profit business corporations	Social Entrepreneurs
Morote	2012	US	Qualitative interviews, quantitative survey	Youth	Others	Social entrepreneurs
Datta	2012	India	Qualitative case studies	Women	Cooperative	Social Entrepreneurs
Seddon	2013	UK	Qualitative interviews, quantitative cross-sectional surveys	Youth	Others	Employees
Munoz	2013	Scotland, UK	Qualitative interviews, quantitative community survey	Seniors	PPP	Community members
Lawthom	2013	UK	Qualitative interviews	Refugee and immigrants	Social business	Members
Kumar	2013	India	Qualitative research methods, e.g., case study, in-depth interviews	Women	PPP	Social entrepreneurs
Ohana	2013	France	Quantitative survey	Disadvantaged people	Social businesses-WISEs	Employees
Hayhurst	2014	Uganda	Qualitative ethnographic interviews, participant observation, document analysis	Women	Commercial nonprofit	Employees, social entrepreneurs
Dávila-Aguirre	2014	Mexico	Qualitative interviews, quantitative survey	Poverty	Social cooperative	Social entrepreneurs
Peredo	2015	Bolivia	Qualitative ethnography participant observation, interviews, focus groups, quantitative community survey	Indigenous people	PPP	Social entrepreneurs
Ishak	2015	Malaysia	Quantitative survey	Poverty	PPP	Social entrepreneurs
Walk	2015	Canada	Qualitative interviews, focus groups	Women	Commercial nonprofit	Service users

1st Author	Pub. Yr.	Countries	Study Methods	Target Group	Social Enterprise Types	Beneficiary Roles
Walk	2015	Canada	Qualitative interviews, focus groups	Refugee and immigrants	PPP	Service users
Hustinx	2015	Belgium	A qualitative case study	Poverty	Commercial nonprofit	Employees
Battilana	2015	France	Quantitative regression analysis and qualitative interviews	Low qualified individuals	Social businesses-WISEs	Employees
Scheiber	2016	Brazil	Qualitative interviews	Poverty	Others	Social entrepreneurs
Grace	2016	Australia	Qualitative interviews	Homeless	Others	Service users, employees
Chan	2016	Canada	Quantitative survey	Other	Commercial nonprofit	Employees
Wilton	2016	Canada	Qualitative interviews, focus groups	Health	Others	Employees
Adnan	2016	Malaysia	Qualitative interviews	Women	Others	Social entrepreneurs
Velvin	2016	Norway	Quailitative interviews	Farmers	For-profit business corporations	Social Entrepreneurs
Kummitha	2016	India	Qualitative case studies	Poverty, disabilities	WISEs in India, commercial nonprofit, others	Employees
Haugh	2016	India	Qualitative interviews	Women and poverty	Cooperative	Members & social entrepreneurs
Cieslik	2016	Burundi, East Africa	A mixed method study, document analysis, interviews	Children protection committees	Commercial nonprofit: NGO	Members of the NGO
Cater	2016	US	Qualitative interviews	Fair trade federation members	For-profit business corporations	Social Entrepreneurs
Smith	2017	East Africa	Qualitative interviews	Seniors	Social business	Social entrepreneurs
Otaka	2017	Japan	Qualitative case studies	Other	Social cooperative	Members
Hartley	2017	UK	Quantitative survey	Health	PPP	Service users
Chan	2017	Canada	Qualitative interviews, quantitative survey	Disability	Commercial nonprofit	Employees
Wongphuka	2017	Thailand	Quantitative survey	Youth	Others	Social entrepreneurs
Pret	2017	UK	Qualitative interviews	Craft makers	Social businesses	Social Entrepreneurs
Sarkar	2018	India	Qualitative interviews	Poverty	Others	Social entrepreneurs
Muralidhar	2018	India	Qualitative interviews	Poverty	Social business	Members
Haines	2018	Australia	Qualitative interviews, quantitative survey	Refugee and immigrants	Commercial nonprofit	Service users

1st Author	Pub. Yr.	Countries	Study Methods	Target Group	Social Enterprise Types	Beneficiary Roles
Ferguson	2018	US	Qualitative interviews, quasi-experiment: Social enterprise intervention	Homeless	Others	Service users
Ferguson	2018	US	Qualitative interviews, quasi-experiment: Social enterprise intervention	Homeless	Others	Service users
Berzin	2018	USA	Quantitative survey (pretest and posttest)	Youth	Commercial nonprofit	Social entrepreneurs
Shahidullah	2018	Canada	Quantitative surveys, qualitative case studies	Indigenous fisherman	Cooperative	Members
Hsieh	2018	Taiwan	Qualitative interviews	Disabilities, farmers	Social businesses, for-profit business corporations	Employees & Social Entrepreneurs
Suiter	2019	US	Qualitative ethnography	Women	Commercial nonprofit	Employees
Samuels	2019	N. Ireland, UK	Qualitative ethnography	Disability	Others	Service users
Kelly	2019	Scotland, UK	Qualitative interviews	Seniors	Social businesses	Service users, employees
Heyworth-Thomas	2019	UK	Qualitative interviews, participant observation	Health	Others	Service users, social entrepreneurs
Elmes	2019	Australia	Qualitative interviews, quantitative survey	Health	Social business	Employees
Darcy	2019	Australia	Qualitative interviews	Disability	PPP	Service users
Cook	2019	US	Qualitative interviews	Homeless	Commercial nonprofit or social business	Employees
Caló	2019	UK	Qualitative interviews	Health	PPP	Service users
Blake	2019	UK	Qualitative interviews, participant observation	Health	PPP or others	Service users & unpaid employees
Atencio	2019	US	Qualitative ethnography, interviews, participant observation, document analysis	Youth	Commercial nonprofit	Service users
Mitzinneck	2019	Germany	Qualitative interviews, observations	Residents	Cooperative (German Renewable Energy Source Cooperatives)	Members
Kleinhans	2019	England, the Netherlands, & Sweden	Qualitative case studies, interviews, observation, document analysis	Disadvantage groups, children, women, immigrants	Cooperative, hybrids, commercial nonprofits	Service users, employees
Jin	2019	Korea	Qualitative surveys	N/A	N/A	Employees
Ismail	2019	Middle East and North Africa	Qualitative case studies	Low-income groups	Social businesses, commercial nonprofit: NGO	Employees

1st Author	Pub. Yr.	Countries	Study Methods	Target Group	Social Enterprise Types	Beneficiary Roles
Cruz	2019	Honduras, Central America	A qualitative case study	Highly skilled migrants	Commercial nonprofit	Members
Ong	2020	Malaysia	Qualitative interviews	Youth	Social business	Employees
Lorenzo-Afable	2020	Philippines	Qualitative interviews, document analysis, fieldnotes	Poverty, youth, women	Social business	Employees
Kilpatrick	2020	Australia	Qualitative interviews, focus groups	Disability	Social business	Employees
Costa	2020	Italy	Qualitative interviews, focus groups, document analysis	Seniors	Social cooperative	Service users
Henderson	2020	Scotland, UK	Qualitative interviews	Seniors	Others	Service users, employees
Beaudry	2020	Canada	Qualitative interviews	Indigenous people	Commercial nonprofit	Service users
McKinnon	2020	Australia	Qualitative interviews, observations	Disabilities or other disadvantaged groups	WISEs, a SE supports some small social enterprises	Employees

Beneficiaries' Roles in Social Enterprises

Beneficiaries are often conceptualized as service recipients in traditional nonprofit service providers, but their roles are diverse in social enterprises. The scoping review identifies different roles of beneficiaries in the current literature on social enterprises and illustrates how these roles are different from or similar to the roles of beneficiaries in traditional nonprofit organizations more broadly. In the identified cases of social enterprises, beneficiaries can be seen: (1) as traditional service users who receive services and support from the organizations (43%), (2) as employees who work for the organization (41%), (3) as social entrepreneurs who are supported by social entrepreneurship programs or organizations to create their new businesses (28%), (4) as interns who are trained with skills in the organization (4%), and/or (5) as volunteers who participate in the organization (1%).

First, some beneficiaries of social enterprises are seen as traditional service users who receive services or support from nonprofit organizations. For example, an ethnographic case study in India was conducted to understand the experiences of rickshaw drivers using a mobile financial app created by a social enterprise (Muralidhar et al., 2018). These rickshaw drivers, as service users and/or members of the organization, received financial consulting services from organizations and paid contract loans to rent rickshaws to generate income for themselves. Another qualitative study described that a work integration social enterprise (WISE) in the U.K. provides education, training, and work opportunities for beneficiaries with mental health illnesses (Blake, 2019). The WISE trained beneficiaries with mental health issues to work (without payment) for the social enterprise to generate income and reinvest the revenues in the

organization to train and educate beneficiaries. Beneficiaries at this WISE are similar to service users who receive training services since they work for this organization without being paid. These studies show that beneficiaries in social enterprises receive services or training in an innovative or entrepreneurial way, such as through a mobile application or a business model.

Second, beneficiaries may work as employees for the social enterprise, earning a salary, at the same time that they receive training services from the organization. For example, beneficiaries in the study of Philippine social enterprises simultaneously serve as employees who complete administrative tasks, as contract suppliers who produce goods for social enterprises, and as clients who receive skills training from the organizations (Lorenzo-Afable et al., 2020). These beneficiaries see their employment as a fellowship and their relationship with managers, frontline staff, and volunteers as colleagues.

Third, some beneficiaries are social entrepreneurs who belong to underprivileged groups and receive training and funding from social entrepreneurship programs to establish their own social enterprises to address social issues. For example, a quantitative survey study examined the outcomes of low-income youth who were supported with training, financial funding, and mentoring to become social entrepreneurs (Berzin et al., 2018). Another study measured the motivations, attributes, and competencies of social activists and the study aimed to develop a competency development model to increase social activist ability (Wongphuka et al., 2017). These empirical studies aim to understand the characteristics of social entrepreneurs and the outcomes of social entrepreneurship programs. Apart from their acquired skills and knowledge as social

entrepreneurs, the reviewed studies examined the factors that helped beneficiaries become better social entrepreneurs, such as their motivations, personalities, and entrepreneurial orientation.

Finally, beneficiaries could sometimes serve in other roles in social enterprises. For example, a Malaysian study on youth development has found that youth participants served as co-founders, employees, interns, or volunteers in social enterprise organizations (Ong et al., 2021. Serving in these different roles helps youth participants cultivate awareness of social issues, engage in communities, develop skills and knowledge, etc. It has implied that social enterprises provide alternative ways to engage beneficiaries in organizations and help them build life purpose (Ong et al., 2021). In another qualitative study on people over fifty years old, these beneficiaries participated in social enterprise activities as service users, employees, caregivers, or volunteers (Henderson et al., 2020. Engaging in social enterprise activities helped these beneficiaries improve their health and well-being, generate a sense of purpose, and increase social connectedness and inclusion. Overall, in addition to serving as service users who receive assistance or support from social enterprises, beneficiaries could choose to participate in the social enterprise by working as social entrepreneurs, employees, volunteers, interns, etc.

Effects of Social Enterprises on Beneficiary Outcomes

Most reviewed studies have examined the intended outcomes for beneficiaries participating in social enterprises, such as positive effects on physical and mental health, acquired knowledge and skills, social connection, and social inclusion. First, several qualitative and quantitative studies have investigated the impacts of social enterprise on the well-being and self-improvement of beneficiaries. For example, a quantitative study

measured the self-esteem, self-efficacy, optimism, and vocational identity of the employees and interns in Canadian social purpose enterprises (Chan, 2016). It found that individuals with lower self-esteem enhanced their self-esteem and optimism when they perceived more social support, but with no effects on their self-efficacy and vocational identity. Another study also found that beneficiaries perceived that they improved their financial well-being, self-confidence, social interaction, and access to materials and services, such as computers, life coaches, and yoga classes (Chan et al., 2017). Another qualitative study found that beneficiaries' engagement in social enterprise activities enhanced their sense of purpose, social support, social connection, and inclusion (Henderson et al., 2020).

Second, beneficiaries acquire financial security, knowledge, working skills, and social skills through participating in social enterprises. For example, Ong et al. (2021) found that youths developed their knowledge and skills through working for social enterprises, such as entrepreneurial, technical, and life skills. In another example of a Canadian working skills center, immigrant women increased their job skills and time management skills after they participated in the job and skills training program (Walk et al., 2015a).

And third, beneficiaries develop social connections with the other beneficiaries, their family members, and the communities. For instance, a study compared the activities led by a social enterprise to those led by a public agency and found that the social enterprise connected with different community organizations and provided a social environment for beneficiaries to reconnect with their former social lives (Caló et al., 2019). Beneficiaries could regain their connection with their families and communities

through participation in this social enterprise. Beneficiaries working at social enterprises had the opportunity to connect with others from different cultural and social-economic backgrounds (Lorenzo-Afable et al., 2020). However, most studies seldom mentioned the detail of their connection or interaction with other stakeholders. Overall, studies suggest that working or participating in a social enterprise increases beneficiaries' well-being (e.g., self-esteem, self-confidence, self-efficacy, and sense of purpose), knowledge and skills, and social connection.

Beneficiaries' Experiences in Social Enterprises

In addition to the intended impacts, certain review studies have examined beneficiaries' broader experiences in these organizations. Three types of findings are evident here: beneficiaries' experience with staff, their experience participating in the organization broadly and their experience with the degree of control they had over important decisions. First, some studies have examined their relationship and interaction with managers and employees and their involvement in the programs. For example, Ferguson and Islam (2008) found that some homeless youths perceived that frontline workers in the social enterprise intervention program listened to them and treated them as 'people' rather than clients, so beneficiaries felt more willing to engage with the program. Beneficiaries working at a Canadian WISE perceived that frontline staff went above and beyond their job to help them, which can be seen as positive experiences (Walk et al., 2015b). These studies often found positive interaction between staff and beneficiaries and that helps with their positive service experiences.

Second, some studies have noted that beneficiaries encounter challenges in organizations. For example, a qualitative study on rural community social enterprises

reported that beneficiaries benefited overall from participation in a social enterprise, but due to the lack of sustainable funding, the social enterprise activities heavily relied on volunteers and a few professional workers and thus led to the burn-out of staff and termination of service delivery, which eventually caused negative experiences for beneficiaries as well as staff and volunteers (Kelly et al., 2019). A qualitative study on an ecotourism project in Bolivia found that beneficiaries had negative experiences in the organization due to the venture's poor coordination and communication and lack of technical assistance and training (Peredo & Wurzelmann, 2015).

And finally, studies suggest that beneficiaries who have more control over the decision-making process would have more positive experiences in social enterprises. For instance, a qualitative case study on a youth skateboarding organization mentioned that the leader of the organization tended to encourage youth skaters to take over the control of the park and set up the regulations themselves to maintain the space rather than rely on external policies (Atencio et al., 2019). Another qualitative study on individuals with mental health issues who worked for different types of social enterprises found that the social enterprise could provide a setting for beneficiaries to "exercise some degree of control over the nature and frequency of social interaction" (Wilton & Evans, 2016, p. 239). Furthermore, one study has shown that refugees and asylum seekers established a community social enterprise in the U.K., which adopted a collective decision-making approach at the beginning of the organization's founding (Teasdale, 2010). Within this positive encounter setting, beneficiaries were encouraged to consider their condition and life situation to participate in the decision-making process to arrange their service management. Throughout the process, beneficiaries became more self-determining and

had more control over the received services, which led to more positive outcomes. Furthermore, beneficiaries working as employees could participate in decision-making in different ways, such as setting goals for the organizations or designing the activities, and this might result in their commitment to the organizations and eventually help achieve the social mission (Ohana et al., 2013). These findings show that the degree of control beneficiaries have in decision-making shapes the experience of beneficiaries (e.g., Atencio et al., 2019; Wilton & Evans, 2016), a finding that is consistent with other scholarship that examines the experience of beneficiaries in nonprofit organizations more broadly (Benjamin, 2021, 2022). Overall, participation in social enterprises seems more likely to lead to positive impacts, but few studies have paid attention to some potentially negative impacts of organizational practices on beneficiaries, such as tensions between social and business goals on management.

Beneficiaries' Experiences in Different Social Enterprise Types

Social enterprises have diverse organizational forms, and one of the key concerns in social enterprise scholarship is whether an organizational form matters for the performance and impact of social enterprises. Young and Lecy's (2014) attempt to organize the diverse social enterprise forms into six main types: for-profit business corporations, social businesses, social cooperatives, commercial nonprofit organizations, public-private partnerships, and hybrids. The classification of social enterprises defines the organizational forms of each category and is summarized in Table 8. One of the central questions here is whether the social enterprise form matters for the experiences of beneficiaries. To better understand this question, this section first summarizes what we know about the different types, using Young and Lecy's categorization, and then

considers the findings related to beneficiaries' experiences in these different forms. The 69 articles retained in the scoping review include four types of social enterprises and some unidentifiable cases (25 %). First, some cases are *social businesses* (25%) that are traditional for-profit firms providing services to beneficiaries (i.e., social goals) and requesting service fees from beneficiaries (i.e., commercial purposes). For example, a for-profit social enterprise in India offers financial loans and consulting services for rickshaw drivers who pay a monthly fee (Muralidhar et al., 2018). Other social businesses hire beneficiaries as employees to work in their organizations (i.e., social and commercial purposes). For instance, Vanguard Laundry Services is a for-profit business that trains and educates community members with mental illness and hires them as employees (Elmes, 2019).

Table 8. *Young and Lecy's* (2014) *Six Types of Social Enterprise*

Social Enterprise Type	**Description**
For-profit business corporation	Activities or programs of corporate philanthropy, corporate social responsibility, cause-related marketing, and more.
Social business	For-profit companies that achieve balanced social and commercial goals.
Social cooperative	A form of cooperative that contains public benefit missions and aims to benefit its members.
Commercial nonprofit organization	Nonprofit organizations that engage in commercial activities or generate revenues from services or products.
Public-private partnership	Some nonprofit or for-profit entities that work with government entities to address public issues.
Hybrid	Some new forms of organization that contain social and commercial goals, e.g., for-profit businesses owned by nonprofits or that control nonprofit subsidiaries in the U.S. and community interest companies in the U.K.

Second, *commercial nonprofit organizations* (20%) are defined as organizations founded to support nonprofit organizations or run by nonprofit organizations to achieve commercial goals. For example, a for-profit company is established to benefit a faith-based organization and support its social services, such as providing jobs for the homeless (Cook & Willetts, 2019). Another example is the Canadian social purpose

enterprises that were often nonprofit organizations or supported by their parenting nonprofit organizations (Chan, 2016).

Third, *social cooperatives* (14%) refer to some form of member organizations that benefit members and carry out social missions. Social cooperatives are a common organizational form in Europe (Young & Lecy, 2014). For instance, an Italian social enterprise, a multi-stakeholder social cooperative that provides services to the elderly recruits their beneficiaries (the elderly), home care staff, and volunteers as members of the cooperative (Costa & Andreaus, 2020). Another study of a social cooperative examined how low-income farmers' psychological empowerment in the cooperative influenced their individual performance. These low-income farmers were milk producers and members of a sustainability initiative (i.e., a social cooperative) in Mexico that helped sell milk to multinational companies (Dávila-Aguirre et al., 2014).

Fourth, *public-private partnerships* (14%) include social enterprises that are nonprofit organizations or alternatively for-profit companies that contract with governmental agencies for social purposes. For instance, some social enterprises receive government funding to provide services for beneficiaries, e.g., Walk et al. (2015b), and to support social entrepreneurs, e.g., Ishak et al. (2015). Some social enterprises work with government entities to provide health services, e.g., Hartley (2017) and Caló et al. (2019).

The studies that (25%) did not provide enough information to identify the social enterprise type were diverse. For example, some cases of social enterprises include various economic activities or services that generate revenues such as catering, bakery, cleaning, etc. (Wilton & Evans, 2016). Another study on the Drake Music Project Northern Ireland in Samuels (2019) is a charity that offers services, but the article does

not mention if the revenues come from the service and/or product fees or government funding. Most empirical studies do not offer a detailed distinction between the different types of social enterprises due to the complexity of the definitions. Moreover, the types of *for-profit business corporations* and *hybrids* are missing in the current reviewed studies. This might be because scholars use different keywords to refer to these two types of social enterprises. For example, scholars often refer to the term for-profit business corporations as corporate social responsibility rather than social enterprises. The term hybrid is usually referred to as benefit corporations or community interest companies which were not included in this scoping review searching keywords.

In general, social enterprise types may influence the roles of beneficiaries, but not necessarily restrain the possibilities for serving different roles. For example, beneficiaries often work as employees in social businesses. That is, social businesses are for-profit companies that hire beneficiaries as workers and educate them to develop their skills and knowledge-base and eventually help them to find another job in society. Public-private partnerships usually provide funding to train social entrepreneurs to establish their small businesses or to offer services to support their service users. Beneficiaries could serve multiple roles in commercial nonprofit organizations, such as service users, employees, and social entrepreneurs. Service users or social entrepreneurs could often be members of social cooperatives since the organizational type aims to benefit its members.

To better understand the experience of beneficiaries in social enterprises, we designed an online experiment to test two of the key findings from the above review. The reviewed studies have shown that the degree of control beneficiaries have in decision-making within social enterprises may positively affect beneficiaries' experiences, which

is consistent with Benjamin's (2022) findings about beneficiaries' control over important decisions in their experiences in nonprofit organizations. The findings suggest that beneficiaries may prefer engaging in these social enterprises where they could have more control over key service decisions. In the reviewed studies, we also found that while almost one-fourth of empirical studies do not specify the legal status of social enterprises or their sources of revenue and organizational operations, nonprofit social enterprises (commercial nonprofit organizations and cooperatives) are more common than for-profit social enterprises (social businesses). Social enterprises take diverse organizational forms, but we do not know to what extent beneficiaries experience differently or whether beneficiaries prefer nonprofit or for-profit social enterprises. In order to understand whether there is a causal relationship between beneficiaries' perceived control in different forms of social enterprises, and their willingness to engage, we designed an online experiment to test how beneficiaries' perceived control and social enterprise type impact beneficiaries' help-seeking preferences. Therefore, in the following sections, this study focuses on the hypotheses of beneficiaries' perceived control and social enterprise type.

Hypotheses

Beneficiaries may not necessarily have more control over the service delivery process in social enterprise settings, but they may have more positive outcomes if they have more control. As noted above, instead of relying on external policies, the leader of a nonprofit youth skateboarding organization allowed their youth skaters to take over the control of the regulations themselves to maintain the park (Atencio et al., 2019); however, this is not always the case. While beneficiaries who work as employees could

take over tasks as regular employees do, they could be assigned to simpler jobs due to organizational performance requirements, leading to less autonomy and control in social enterprise settings (Benjamin, 2022). Beneficiaries may need to follow many rules in organizations, which increases their stress, with possible withdrawal of the services (Benjamin, 2022). On the contrary, organizations could also reduce rules or let beneficiaries set up rules to follow, leading to more control over organizational regulations, e.g., Atencio et al. (2019).

According to one of the sub-theories in the self-determination theory, people with more support for autonomy may increase their well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2017). That is, having control is seen as a basic psychological need for human beings. For example, some empirical studies have found that people with control over their received services are happier, healthier, and live longer (Hui & Bateson, 1991; Langer & Rodin, 1976; Rodin & Langer, 1977). Elderly residents who perceive having more personal autonomy or support for autonomy from their families, friends, and nursing home staff increased their physical and psychological well-being (Kasser & Ryan, 1999). More specifically, when receiving services in social enterprises, people feel it is important to have a bit of control over their lives, such as managing their life situations (Hartley, 2017). In general, when beneficiaries have more control over the service decisions, it may result in more positive impacts. Therefore, beneficiaries might be more likely to prefer having control during the service delivery process in social enterprises and even say positive things about the organization and recommend it to their families and friends since it will lead to positive impacts. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1-1: Beneficiaries will be more willing to interact with an organization that they perceive to have more control in service selection than with an organization that they don't perceive to have control in service selection.

Hypothesis 1-2: Beneficiaries will be more willing to say positive things about and recommend the organization that they perceive to have more control in service selection than an organization that they don't perceive to have control in service selection.

People perceive nonprofit service providers differently from for-profit service providers, especially in the U.S. For example, the current review study on beneficiaries' experiences in social enterprises has found that the most common social enterprise type is commercial nonprofit organizations and social cooperatives that are led and run by nonprofit organizations, i.e., nonprofit social enterprises. It is possible that more organizations chose the nonprofit status for social enterprises because clients usually perceive nonprofit social enterprises as warmer and slightly more competent than for-profit social enterprises (Xu, 2020).

People also perceive nonprofit organizations as more trustworthy (Handy et al., 2010) and warmer than for-profit organizations (Aaker et al., 2010; Xu, 2020). Furthermore, people tend to believe that nonprofit organizations can provide higher quality service than for-profit organizations (Amirkhanyan et al., 2008; Ben-Ner et al., 2012). While people perceive for-profit organizations as more competent (Aaker et al., 2010) and tend to select for-profit organizations when recognizing the organizational type (Ben-Ner et al., 2018), they perceive nonprofit social enterprises are slightly more competent than for-profit social enterprises (Xu, 2020). Thus, when both service provider

types have similar social missions, people still prefer nonprofit social enterprises over for-profit social enterprises (Xu, 2020). Therefore, people will be more willing to interact with nonprofit social enterprises and say positive things about nonprofit social enterprises and recommend them to their families and friends, compared to for-profit social enterprises. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2-1: Beneficiaries will be more willing to interact with a nonprofit social enterprise than a for-profit social enterprise.

Hypothesis 2-2: Beneficiaries will be more willing to say positive things about and recommend a nonprofit social enterprise than a for-profit social enterprise.

Method

Design

The researchers set up a study to conduct an online experiment to examine whether beneficiaries' perceived control and social enterprise type matter in determining beneficiaries' help-seeking experiences. A between-subject 2 (beneficiaries have control vs. beneficiaries don't have control) x 2 (nonprofit social enterprise vs. for-profit social enterprise) factorial design was used to test the effects of beneficiaries' perceived control over service decisions and social enterprise type on two levels of beneficiaries' help-seeking preferences: their willingness to interact with the organization and to recommend and say positive things about the organization. This study manipulated beneficiaries' perceived control over service decisions and social enterprise types through four vignettes that included hypothetical information about an employment center. The scenarios of nonprofit and for-profit social enterprises were designed based on the two most common social enterprise types in the scoping review: commercial nonprofit

organizations and social businesses. The job training industry was selected as the experimental context because the majority of social enterprises provide job training and employment opportunities to beneficiaries and the employment scenario is also one of the most common that people who seek jobs would experience. To improve the quality and transparency of the research, this study was pre-registered at the AsPredicted website before the data collection.

Participants

The final analysis included a total of 716 participants (59.6% female, age range: 18-86, M_{age}=45.41, 74.6% White). See Table 9 This study recruited participants over 18 years old, residing in the U.S., and with some form of service experience at any type of organization through the Prime Panels (see cloudresearch.com), such as having seen a doctor at a clinic, receiving food from a food pantry, or seeking help for employment. The sample characteristics appear in Table 9. We pre-registered to collect up to 787 participants from the Prime Panels according to the G power sample size analysis (effect size: 0.1; α err prob: 0.05; Power: 0.8). We also pre-registered the exclusion criteria to ensure data quality. Since the Prime Panels allows researchers to use data quality redirect, participants were reminded of the data quality check question on the platform before taking the survey. Participants were redirected to the end of the survey and were not paid by the researchers if they incorrectly answered the attention check question ("Instructions: Please select "Volunteering" for the answer; this item is for verification purposes. Volunteering, mentoring, providing monetary contributions, joining charitable organizations, donating for tax purposes, or other charitable activities"). If participants incorrectly answered the manipulation check question of social enterprise type (Question:

"What kind of organization was described in the previous paragraph? Please check what is true. Nonprofit social enterprise or for-profit social enterprise"), they were excluded by the researcher and replaced by other participants until the total number of participants reached 787 participants. The Prime Panel collected up to 804 participants at the end of this study. Although we included a question about participants' perceived control over their previous service provision process, we found that participants might ignore or not understand the question of whether they had control over decisions that were important to them in their previous service experiences. Therefore, although without pre-registration, we excluded 88 participants who answered that they did not know if they had control over decisions that were important to them during their previous service experiences. The number of participants totaled 716.

Table 9. *Sample Characteristics (N=716)*

Sample Characteristics		Frequency (%)
Gender	Male	285 (39.8%)
	Female	427 (59.6%)
	Unknown	4 (0.6%)
Age	18-20	11 (1.5%)
	21-30	99 (13.8%)
	31-40	218 (30.4%)
	41-50	139 (19.4%)
	51-60	106 (14.8%)
	61-70	100 (14%)
	71-80	36 (5%)
	81-90	7 (1%)
Race	Hispanic	24 (3.4%)
	White	534 (74.6%)
	Black/African American	88 (12.3%)
	American Indian/Alaska Native	6 (0.8%)
	Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander	2 (0.3%)
	East Asian	3 (0.4%)
	South Asian	7 (1%)
	Biracial or multiracial	50 (6.9%)
	Others	2 (0.3%)
Education	High school or under	225 (31.4%)
	Vocational school, associate's degree, or some college	227 (31.7%)
	Bachelor's degree	137 (19.1%)
	Master's degree or above	125 (17.5%)
	Other	2 (0.3%)
Income	Less than $10,000	86 (12%)
	$10,000- $19,999	104 (14.5%)
	$20,000- $34,999	140 (19.6%)
	$35,000- $49,999	97 (13.5%)
	$50,000- $74,999	116 (16.2%)
	$75,000- $99,999	68 (9.5%)
	$100,000 and above	105 (14.7%)

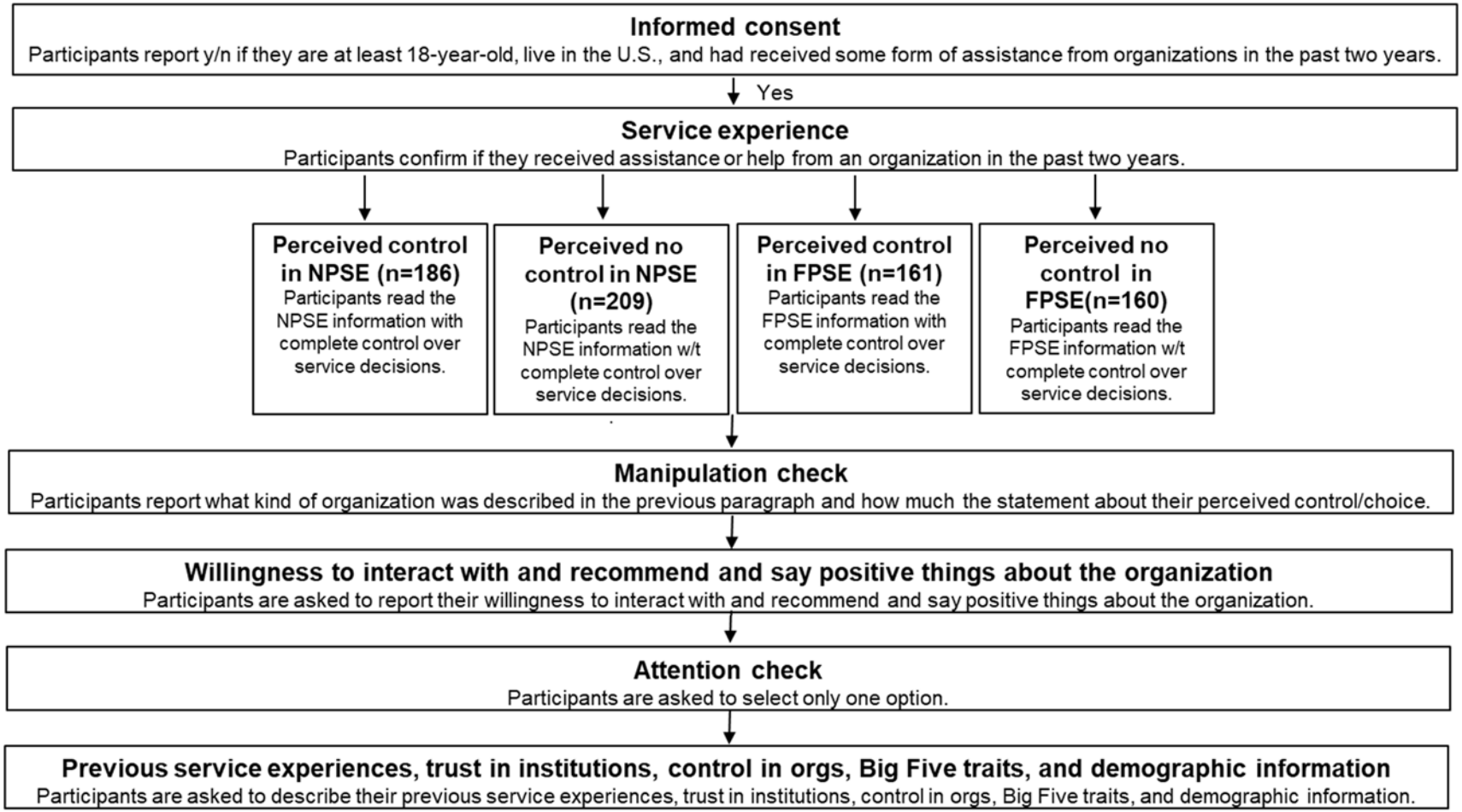
Procedure

Participants were redirected to take the online survey through a Qualtrics link. Participants responded "yes" or "no" if they were at least 18 years old, resided in the United States, and had received some form of assistance or help from an organization in the past two years (e.g., you have seen a doctor at a clinic, received food from a food pantry, or sought help for employment), and consented to participate in this study. If "yes," participants were then randomly assigned to one of four conditions: (1) beneficiaries' perceived control in a nonprofit social enterprise; (2) beneficiaries'

perceived no control in a nonprofit social enterprise; (3) beneficiaries' perceived control in a for-profit social enterprise; and (4) beneficiaries' perceived no control in a for-profit social enterprise. Separate vignettes were given in each of the four conditions (see Appendix 5).

After participants read the assigned vignette, they were asked to report the manipulation check questions on social enterprise type and beneficiaries' perceived control. Then they reported their willingness to interact with, say positive things about, and recommend the organization based on the vignette they read. In the middle of the survey, participants answered the attention check question. Then participants were asked to use one or two sentences to describe their previous service experiences and respond to the degree of control they had had in their experiences and the importance of their control over decisions. They also reported the field, organizational type, and satisfaction of their previous service experiences. Participants were asked about their trust in various institutions in the U.S., and their perceived control over decisions when seeking help from nonprofits and for-profits. Finally, they reported the Big Five personality traits and basic demographic information, including: age, gender, race, education, and income (see Figure 8 for the experimental procedure).

Figure 8. *The Experimental Procedure*



Measures

Willingness to interact with the organization. Participants used a scale from 1 (*not at all true*) to 7 (*very true*) to respond to six questions from the relatedness portion of the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI; McAuley et al., 1989; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). These items were selected to assess participants' desire to continue interacting with the organization, including: "I felt really distant to this organization" (r), "I felt like I could really trust this organization," "I'd like a chance to interact with this organization more often," "I'd really prefer not to interact with this organization in the future" (r), "I don't feel like I could really trust this organization" (r), and "I feel close to this organization." We averaged responses across all 6 items (α = .86).

Willingness to say positive things about the organization and recommend it. Participants reported three questions about how likely they are to say positive things about the organization and recommend it with an interval scale ranging from 1 (*very unlikely*) to 7 (*very likely*) (Eisingerich et al., 2015, for reliability of this measure, α = .92; Zeithaml et al., 1996). These items included: "How likely is it that you would say positive things about the organization to others?" "How likely is it that you would encourage friends and relatives to use the services in the organization?" and "How likely is it that you would recommend the organization to others who seek your advice?" We averaged responses across all 3 items (α = .95).

Beneficiaries' perceived control. Participants used a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with the following statement: "If you sought employment services from this ORGANIZATION,

you would decide which job placement is best for you and identify the types of support services you need to be successful in the job."

Social enterprise type. After reading the vignette, participants reported what kind of social enterprise they had read the information about (nonprofit/for-profit social enterprise). Participants who incorrectly answered the social enterprise type they were assigned to were excluded in the final analysis.

Previous service experience. Participants were asked to recall their most memorable service experience and used one or two sentences to describe it briefly. They also responded to two questions to indicate how much control they had in the organization. The two items include: "Did you have control over decisions that were important to you during this experience? Yes/No/Don't Know, please explain." and "How important was this control over these decisions in your overall experience? Please explain." Finally, they reported the field and organization type they received the service from and their satisfaction with that previous service experience on a single item with an interval scale ranging from 1 (*extremely dissatisfied*) to 7 (*extremely satisfied*). The single item was "When you recalled the most memorable service experience, please tell us how satisfied you felt with this service experience."

Trust in institutions. Participants reported their trust in government organizations, nonprofit organizations/charities, and for-profit organizations/businesses in the United States (see Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2017), using an interval scale ranging from 0 (*you do not trust the institution at all*) to 10 (*you have complete trust*). We averaged responses across all 3 items (α = .76) (see Table 10 for the descriptive statistics of the variables).

Table 10. *Descriptive Statistics of the Variables (N=716)*

Variables	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Dependent				
Willing to interact with org.	4.82	1.23	1	7
Willing to recommend and say positive things about org.	5.21	1.52	1	7
Independent				
Beneficiary has control or not	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Social enterprise type	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Covariates				
Previous service satisfaction	5.88	1.62	1	7
Previous service control	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Trust in institutions	6.52	2.11	0	10

Note. Beneficiary perceived control, social enterprise type, and their previous perceived control are all categorical variables.

Beneficiaries' perceived control in nonprofit organizations and for-profit organizations. Participants reported their perceived control when they sought help or assistance from a nonprofit organization and a for-profit organization, using an interval scale ranging from 0 (No control at all) to 10 (very much control).

Covariates and exploratory variables. We included covariates in the analysis that may influence beneficiaries' preferences to interact with staff or organization, such as Big Five traits (i.e., extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism) and gender. We also included age, race, education, and income as exploratory variables in the analysis.

Results

We used SPSS to first examine correlations with the willingness to interact with the organization and to say positive things about the organization and recommend it, the factor variables and other covariates. We found that social enterprise type, previous service satisfaction, and trust in institutions were positively correlated with the willingness to interact with the organization ($r = 0.21$, $r = 0.28$, $r=0.29$, respectively; $ps < 0.01$) and the willingness to say positive things about the organization and recommend it

(r = 0.19, r = 0.29, r = 0.42, respectively; ps < 0.01). Beneficiaries' perceived control in the treatment was marginally significantly correlated with their willingness to interact with the organization (r = 0.07; p =.062) and was positively correlated with their willingness to say positive things about the organization and recommend it (r = 0.08; p = .027). Beneficiaries' perceived control in the previous service was not significantly correlated with their willingness to interact with or say positive things about the organization and recommend it (r = 0.005, r=0.041, respectively; p = .889, p =.270) (see Table 11 for the correlation matrix).

Table 11. *Correlations between Dependent Variables, Independent Variables, and Covariates*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Interact w/ Org.	-						
2. Word of Mouth	.71**	-					
3. SE Type	.21**	.19**	-				
4. Control or not	.07	.08*	-.03	-			
5. PSS	.28**	.29**	-.02	.001	-		
6. PSC	.01	.04	-.04	-.003	.22**	-	
7. Trust in Inst.	.29**	.42**	-.02	.04	.32**	.16**	-

Note. Interact w/ Org. = willingness to interact with the organization. Word of mouth = willingness to recommend and say positive things about the organization. SE Type= social enterprise type. Control or not = control or not. PSS = previous service satisfaction. PSC= previous service perceived control. Trust in Inst. = Average trust score in governments, nonprofits, and for-profits.
*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01

Manipulation checks for beneficiaries' perceived control. We ran a t-test analysis on the variable of beneficiaries' perceived control to confirm a successful manipulation check. The results showed that beneficiaries who perceived that they have control over service decisions scored significantly higher than beneficiaries who perceived that they don't have control over service decisions, $t(714) = -9.20$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 1.71$ (M_{control}=5.67; $M_{\text{no control}}$=4.49).

We also ran a two-way ANCOVA with covariates and exploratory variables (i.e., previous service satisfaction, previous perceived control, trust in institutions, control in NPOs, control in FPOs, Big Five traits, and demographic information) to test the main hypotheses on the effects of social enterprise types and beneficiaries' perceived control on their willingness to interact with and say positive things about the organization and recommend it (see Table 12).

Table 12. *Analysis of the Main Effects and Covariates*

	Willing to interact with org.			Willing to recommend org.		
ANCOVA	*df*	*F*	η^2	*df*	*F*	η^2
Social Enterprise Type	1	45.51***	.061	1	40.30***	.055
Perceived Control	1	4.89*	.007	1	6.62*	.009
Pre. Service Satis.	1	39.14***	.053	1	31.47***	.043
Pre. Service Control	1	8.96**	.013	1	5.98*	.008
Trust in Institutions	1	12.59***	.018	1	45.67***	.062

Note. p <.05*, p <.01**, p <.001***

Effects of beneficiaries' perceived control. Participants were significantly more willing to interact with the organization in the condition of beneficiaries perceiving that they have control over service decisions (M_{control} = 4.91, SD_{control} = 1.18) than in the condition of beneficiaries perceiving that they don't have control over service decisions ($M_{\text{no control}}$ = 4.74, $SD_{\text{no control}}$ = 1.27), $F(1, 697) = 4.89$, $p = .027$, $\eta^2 = .007$, after controlling for the effects of all covariates. Participants were significantly more willing to say positive things about the organization and recommend it in the condition of beneficiaries perceiving that they have control over service decisions (M_{control} = 5.34, SD_{control} = 1.43) than in the condition of beneficiaries perceiving that they don't have control over service decisions ($M_{\text{no control}}$ = 5.09, $SD_{\text{no control}}$ = 1.59), $F(1, 697) = 6.62$, $p = .010$, $\eta^2 = .009$, after controlling for the effects of all covariates. See Figure 9 & 10.

Figure 9. *The Main Effect of Beneficiaries' Perceived Control on Willingness to Interact with the Organization*

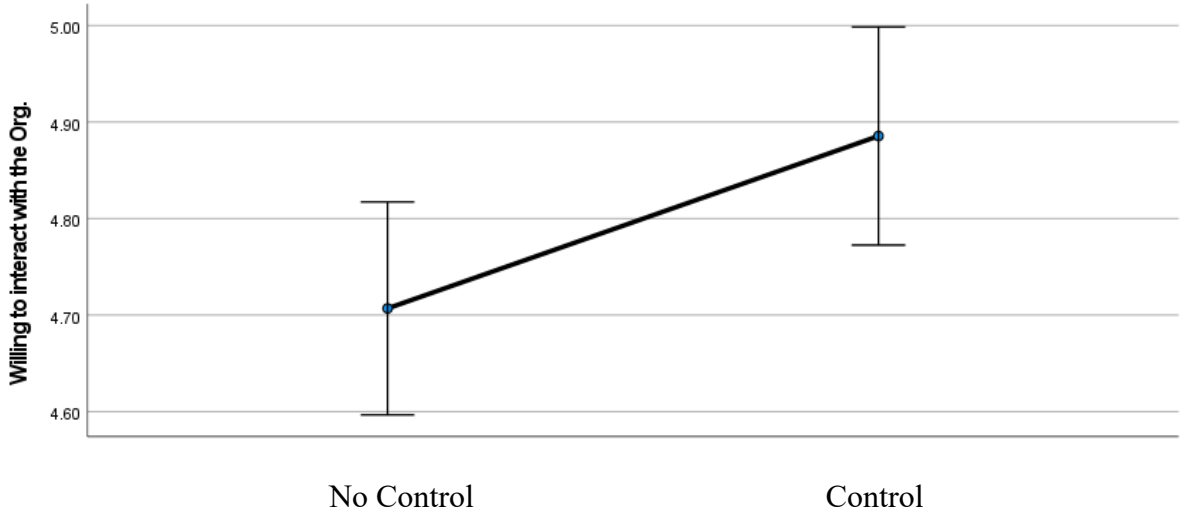
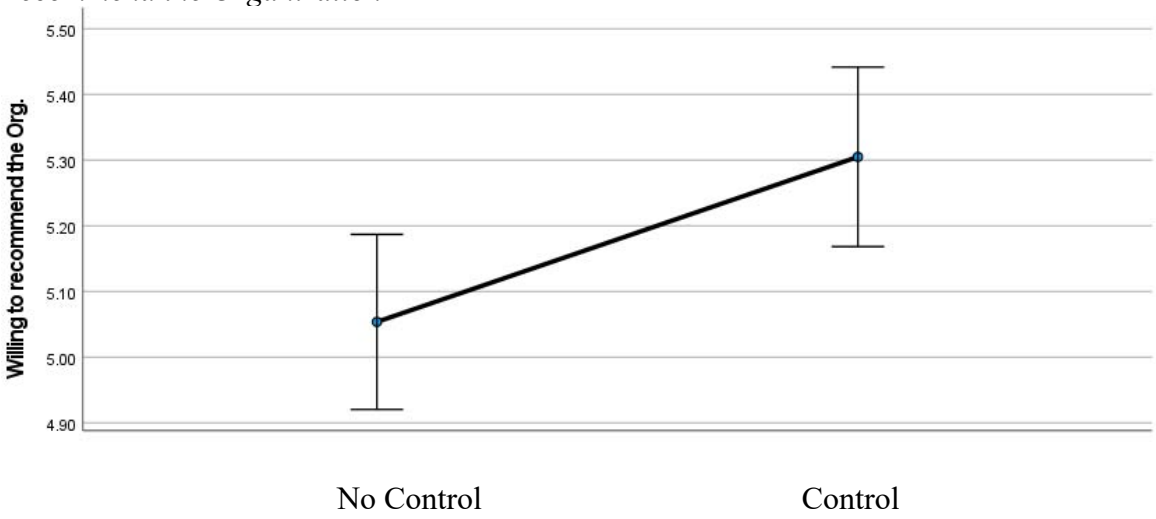


Figure 10. *The Main Effect of Beneficiaries' Perceived Control on Willingness to Recommend the Organization*



Effects of social enterprise type. Participants were more willing to interact with nonprofit social enterprises ($M_{\text{nonprofit}} = 5.05$, $SD_{\text{nonprofit}} = 1.06$) than for-profit social enterprises ($M_{\text{for-profit}} = 4.54$, $SD_{\text{for-profit}} = 1.36$), $F(1, 697) = 45.51$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .061$, after controlling for the effects of all covariates. They are also more willing to say positive things about and recommend nonprofit social enterprises ($M_{\text{nonprofit}} = 5.47$, $SD_{\text{nonprofit}} = 1.33$) than for-profit social enterprises ($M_{\text{for-profit}} = 4.90$, $SD_{\text{for-profit}} = 1.67$), $F(1, 697) = 40.30$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .055$, after controlling for the effects of all covariates.

Previous service satisfaction. Participants who are more satisfied with their previous service experiences were more willing to interact with the organization $F(1, 697) = 39.14$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .053$, and say positive things about the organization and recommend it, $F(1, 697) = 31.47$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .043$, compared to those are less satisfied with their previous experiences, regardless of social enterprise type and their perceived control or not. See Figure 11 & 12.

Figure 11. *The Main Effect of Social Enterprise Type on Willingness to Interact with the Organization*

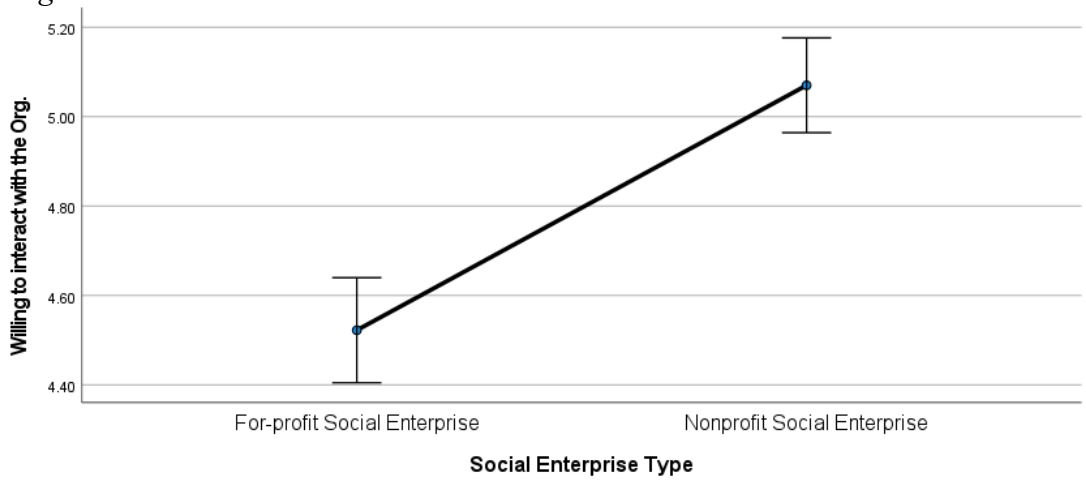
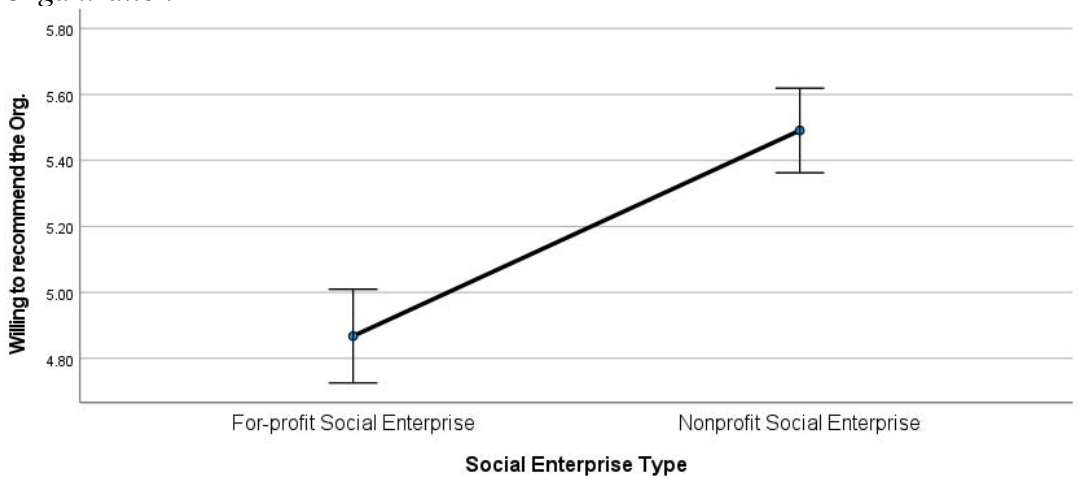


Figure 12. *The Main Effect of Social Enterprise Type on Willingness to Recommend the Organization*



Previous service control. Participants who perceived that they had more control over their previous service experiences were more willing to interact with the

organization $F(1, 697) = 8.96$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2 = .013$, and to say positive things about the organization and recommend it, $F(1, 697) = 5.98$, $p = .015$, $\eta^2 = .008$, compared to those who had less control over their previous service experiences, regardless of social enterprise type and their perceived control or not.

Trust in institutions. Participants with more trust in governments, nonprofits, and for-profits were more willing to interact with the organization, $F(1, 697) = 12.59$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .018$, and say positive things about the organization and recommend it, $F(1, 697) = 45.68$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .062$, compared to those with lower trust in these institutions, regardless of social enterprise type and their perceived control or not.

Interaction effect between social enterprise type and beneficiaries' perceived control. There was a significant interaction effect on participants' willingness to say positive things about the organization and recommend it, $F(1, 697) = 4.90$, $p = .027$, $\eta^2 = .007$, after controlling for the effects of all covariates. Especially, within the condition of for-profit social enterprises, participants were significantly more willing to say positive things about and recommend the organization that they perceived to have complete control over service decisions ($M_{\text{adjusted for-profit+ control}} = 5.10$, $SE_{\text{adjusted for-profit+ control}} = .10$) than those that they do not perceive to have complete control over service decisions ($M_{\text{adjusted for-profit+no control}} = 4.63$, $SE_{\text{adjusted for-profit+no control}} = .10$). However, there was no significant interaction effect on participants' willingness to interact with the organization, $F(1, 697) = 2.07$, $p = .151$, $\eta^2 = .003$, after controlling for the effects of all covariates. See Figure 13 & 14.

Figure 13. *Interaction Effect of Social Enterprise Type and Beneficiaries' Perceived Control on Willingness to Interact with the Organization*

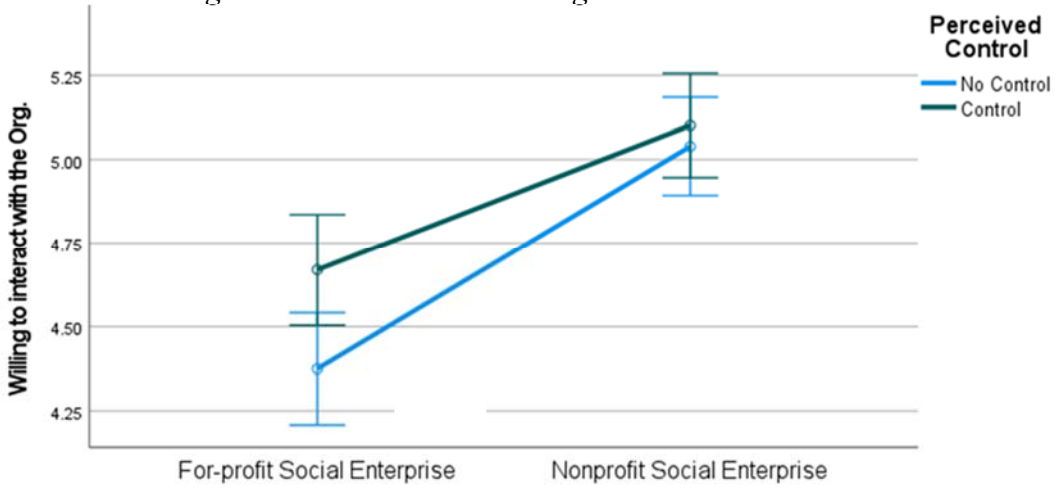
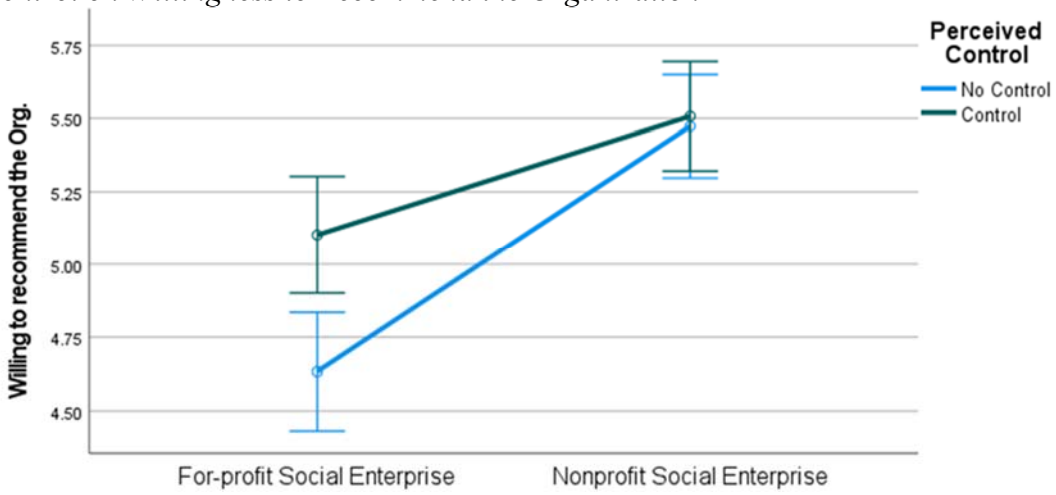


Figure 14. *Interaction Effect of Social Enterprise Type and Beneficiaries' Perceived Control on Willingness to Recommend the Organization*



Beneficiaries' general perception of control over service decisions in nonprofits and for-profits. People who perceived that they could have more control over service decisions in for-profit organizations are more willing to say positive things about the organization and recommend it, $F(1, 697) = 4.87$, $p = .028$, $\eta^2 = .007$, regardless of social enterprise type and their perceived control or not. However, there were no significant effects of beneficiaries' perception of control over decisions in nonprofits or for-profit on their willingness to interact with the organization or their perception of control in

nonprofits on their willingness to say positive things about the organization and recommend it.

Covariates and exploratory variables. We found that participants who are older, more agreeable, and had higher scores on neuroticism are more willing to interact with the organization, $F(1, 697) = 15.02$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .021$, $F(1, 697) = 35.77$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .049$, $F(1, 697) = 8.21$, $p = .004$, $\eta^2 = .006$, respectively, and to say positive things about the organization and recommend it, $F(1, 697) = 7.99$, $p = .005$, $\eta^2 = .011$, $F(1, 697) = 8.78$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2 = .012$, $F(1, 697) = 4.06$, $p = .044$, $\eta^2 = .012$, respectively, regardless of social enterprise type and their perceived control or not. However, there was mostly no significant effect of the other variables, such as most personality traits, race, education, and income (see Appendix 5 for more information).

Previous service experience. We asked participants about their general experience, their perceived control, the organizational type, and the field of their most memorable experiences in the past two years. Participants reported their most memorable service experiences from nonprofit organizations (46.8%), for-profit organizations (21.8%), and government organizations (20.5%) whereas nearly 10.9% of the participants did not recognize their organizations. Most participants received food assistance (39.5%), medical care (25.1%), employment procurement assistance and job training (15.5%) within the past two years. Some participants received assistance with housing (7.5%), mental health (4.9%), alcohol, drug, and substance abuse (1.3%), and others (4.3%), such as financial support (see Table 13).

Table 13. *The Fields of Participants' Most Memorable Service Experiences*

	Governments	Nonprofits	For-profits	Unclear	Total
Employment procurement assistance & job training	28	40	32	11	111 (15.5%)
Food assistance	67	178	22	16	283 (39.5%)
Housing	18	28	3	5	54 (7.5%)
Medical care	20	51	81	28	180 (25.1%)
Mental health	6	12	11	6	35 (4.9%)
Alcohol, drug, and substance abuse	1	2	3	3	9 (1.3%)
Others	5	18	2	6	31 (4.3%)
Didn't respond	2	6	2	3	13 (1.8%)
Total	147 (20.5%)	335 (46.8%)	156 (21.8%)	78 (10.9%)	716 (100%)

Note. Unclear data includes participants who selected "I'm not sure" or did not provide any organizational type.

69.41% of the participants reported their somewhat positive service experiences and 4.61% of the participants described their negative service experiences, while a quarter of participants did not pay attention to, or seriously respond to, the questions about their previous service experiences (25.98%). Most participants shared their positive service experiences and explained the importance of having control over service selections. For example, a participant said:

> Just recently received help from our local food bank, through Nourish. They were very kind and helpful. Knowledgeable about what was needed to apply for assistance, and generous in what was given. They also had flyers for other assistance programs, if needed. Many of their staff are volunteers and love what they do.

One "was asked about food preferences and dietary restrictions, which were accommodated," and that would allow her/him to "make better use of our benefit, with less possible waste of resources." For those who were looking for the job assistance, they mentioned having control over the job replacement or training: "because I need a job that allows me to schedule my own hours and this was available with this service," and "I was encouraged to ask questions and provide my own input." Those participants felt the control over service selections is important because "it made me feel welcome and that

they cared as much as I do." Some participants had positive service experiences because they had control over their medical decisions, e.g., "I was able to discuss what I wanted and was provided with options that got me there," or "I didn't feel dehumanized and just another number. I felt like a person that was important." They felt very important because:

> I felt like I had a say in my own health decision.
>
> I don't want to be pushed in a way I don't want to go, such as strictly medications instead of the root of the problem.
>
> I am aware of what medicines work for me and which ones make me sick or don't do anything. They take my experience in consideration and we came up with a plan together to get me feeling well enough to get back to work.

Overall, those with positive service experiences often felt they had control over their service decisions.

Some participants who had positive experiences but did not perceive that they have control over their services, felt fine because they expected to have professionals' expertise to help them decide. This might be more important if professionals listened to the client's needs. For example, a participant noted that "I had a positive experience because they worked hard to help me find employment and constantly kept in touch with me," and "they always listened to my input." S/he thought that control over service decisions is somewhat important, but s/he did "look to them for their expertise." Or when the participants received some medical services, it is more important to make the right decision than their own decisions. For instance, a participant noted that: "I had little control because I was sick and needed guidance as to how to get well. It was not important to have control; it was important to do what they told me to do in order to not

get worse." However, participants in general thought having control over services is important.

Only very few participants reported their negative service experiences, and most of them perceived that they had relatively little control over the service selections and sought more control if possible. For example, a participant complained: "I have many negative experiences with doctors not listening to my concerns. But more issues with insurance companies not paying for care." S/he thought control over service selections is very important; however, s/he felt that "I cannot control tests/medication I need." Another participant also recalled that: "I was belittle and told i wasn't homeless if i had a car to sleep in and told i didn't really need the help. I will never go bk there." And "they picked food for me." However, s/he thought: "It was important because of my living arrangements." Some participants even noted that no control over service selections is the biggest issue for the entire service experience. For instance, a participant mentioned:

> I went through the workforce. My experience was very terrible. I will never do that again. It made me feel like nothing and the way they helped, i wasn't even qualified to be." "They didn't let us change things and that was the entire problem.

S/he believed that control over service decisions "that was the biggest factor; I wanted to pick something that I know I would stay and grow at, not a place where I'm annoyed and don't really want to do that." Those who had negative service experiences had control over service selections only when they decided not to accept the services. For example, a participant received food that is expired or not safe to eat, but s/he could decide not to eat the food. Or another participant decided not to take the "crappy job" and was "able to reply with interested or not."

Discussion and Limitations

Our study contributes to an important question of concern to nonprofit scholars and leaders: what are beneficiaries' experiences with social enterprises? The existing scholarship paints a mixed picture of social enterprises and their impact on beneficiaries, suggesting that beneficiaries may have more negative experiences in social enterprises because the organizations cannot balance social and business goals to meet the needs of beneficiaries, or more positive experiences because beneficiaries can apply some strategies to cope with the conflicts or challenges in social enterprises. Our scoping review identified one variable that might help explain beneficiary experience: control over important decisions in the service process (Atencio et al., 2019; Ohana et al., 2013). Our experimental study confirmed the importance of control for beneficiaries' experience. Our findings show that beneficiaries prefer some control over important dimensions of the service encounter that significantly impact them but may be willing to defer to the service provider when they have important expertise. Our findings also suggest that despite the growth of for-profit providers in human services, people still have more positive perceptions of nonprofit than for-profit organizational forms.

This study makes three contributions to nonprofit scholarships and its practical implications. First, this study tests beneficiaries' perceptions of control over service decisions in the context of nonprofit and for-profit social enterprises that provide employment services, one of the most common social enterprise settings. Most people might have had employment experiences in different types of organizations in the United States. Previous studies have examined people's perceptions of trustworthiness, warmth, and competence in nonprofit and for-profit organizations (e.g., Aaker et al., 2010) and

applied experiments to nonprofit and for-profit social enterprises (e.g., Xu, 2020). This study extends the nonprofit and for-profit settings to test another important factor that affects beneficiaries' existing experiences in social enterprises: the degree of control beneficiaries perceive they have over service decisions. Our findings confirm that people prefer having control over their service provision process (see also Benjamin, 2018, 2022). The results echo Hartley's (2017) study, that people generally prefer having control over their life situations, which is consistent with the prediction of the basic psychological need theory in the self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2017). When people are encouraged to have more autonomy over their service experiences, they increase their well-being (Hui & Bateson, 1991; Kasser & Ryan, 1999; Langer & Rodin, 1976; Rodin & Langer, 1977). The overall results help scholars and practitioners in the nonprofit and business fields as well as the other fields that care about service management to understand how organizations should engage their citizens, clients, consumers, and beneficiaries in the service delivery process.

Second, this study explores the potential interaction effect of social enterprise types and beneficiaries' control over services. In the current literature, there is no consensus that either nonprofit social enterprises or for-profit social enterprises offer beneficiaries more control over service decisions. Therefore, we have no specific prospective results in the experiment on the interaction effect of social enterprise types and beneficiaries' perceived control on their willingness to interact with or orally recommend organizations. The findings have shown that people tend to be more willing to recommend for-profit social enterprises where they perceived having complete control over service selections than where they did not perceive having complete control.

Overall, the results can help scholars and practitioners understand how to engage beneficiaries with the service decisions, especially for-profit service providers. We still need more studies to understand to what extent nonprofit and for-profit social enterprises engage beneficiaries in service decisions similarly or differently and how that would matter for their service experiences.

Third, this study tests the effect of social enterprise type and beneficiaries' perceived control on two levels of beneficiaries' help-seeking preferences: their willingness to interact with the organization and their further action to orally recommend the organization. The results would help scholars in public, nonprofit, and business studies to understand how beneficiaries' preconceptions of organizational type and their control over service decisions affect social networking and marketing, which is important for marketing management within organizations. This study sheds light on the consequences of social enterprises on beneficiaries' prospective experiences, i.e., beneficiaries' help-seeking preferences, and helps scholars and practitioners in nonprofit and business fields better understand how the ownership of social enterprises may affect beneficiaries' selection of service providers. We confirm that generally, beneficiaries prefer interacting with and orally recommending nonprofits than for-profits.

This study should be understood in light of some limitations. First, the study might not include a comprehensive understanding of beneficiaries' experiences in social enterprises. Since the literature on social enterprises is still emerging, most empirical studies are exploratory studies focusing on individuals' intended impacts, but less on their comprehensive experiences (Lorenzo-Afable et al., 2020), such as beneficiaries' interaction with other stakeholders or their engagement in social enterprises.

Second, the study acknowledges the limitation of online experiments that might exclude some individuals without internet access and time to take online surveys and may ignore potential factors influencing beneficiaries' help-seeking preferences, such as locations, recommendations, etc. However, compared to lab experiments, online experiments are generally more accessible to individuals.

Third, the limitation of online participant recruitment practices may exist. Prime Panels participants are more diverse and resemble the U.S. population in general compared to Amazon Mturk participants (Chandler et al., 2019; Rosenzweig, 2019). Although this study did not exclude participants who had taken our previous Mturk survey for the last experiment, participant overlap is unlikely between the Prime Panels and Amazon Mechanical Turk since the two platforms differ in various ways. That is, Prime Panels participants are recruited from different market research providers the CloudResearch platform has partnerships with. We paid attention to the qualitative answers to monitor the participant overlap issue and found no concerns.

Finally, the study is limited to these hypothetical vignettes on organizational information and beneficiaries' perceived control. Beneficiaries often decide whether they would like to interact with or recommend the organization based on a variety of factors, such as locations and physical environments. Beneficiaries might also not be able to comprehend the term *social enterprise* or distinguish the differences between nonprofit and for-profit social enterprises since social enterprise is a new organizational form. Additionally, the vignettes may oversimply the real-life decision-making situations when beneficiaries experience service selections in organizational settings. For example, while beneficiaries have control over their service selections, some beneficiaries described their

previous experiences that they prefer considering staff's suggestions to make service decisions when they trust the staff's expertise. Thus, this study encourages more future qualitative studies to examine how different social enterprise types and other factors influence beneficiaries' help-seeking preferences in the real-world contexts.

Conclusion

This study first reviewed the current literature to understand a broad picture of beneficiaries' comprehensive experiences in different types of social enterprises. Then it leveraged the important findings of beneficiaries' perceived control over service selections in social enterprises to conduct an online experiment to examine the effect of social enterprise type and beneficiaries' perceived control on their help-seeking preferences. The findings imply that beneficiaries still prefer the nonprofit form over the for-profit form in social enterprise settings. Beneficiaries' perceived control over service provisions impacts beneficiaries' help-seeking preferences in different circumstances. The results call for more future studies to explore how the degree of beneficiaries' perceived control and other factors impact their service experiences in different organizational settings.

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Appendices

Appendix 3. The Scoping Study on the Beneficiaries' Experiences in Social Enterprises

A scoping study was conducted to identify and select articles and summarize the studies to understand how the current literature studies beneficiaries' experiences in social enterprises, (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Levac et al., 2010). A scoping study aims to answer a broad research question to identify the gaps in the existing literature on beneficiaries' experiences in social enterprise, social entrepreneurship, and hybrid organizations and summarize the research findings. The process of conducting this scoping study was described in the five following stages.

Stage One: Research Question

The research question of the study was, "What are the experiences of beneficiaries at social enterprise, social entrepreneurship, and hybrid organizations?"

Stage Two: Identification of Relevant Studies

To answer the research question, this study searched for English-language articles before 2021 to identify articles on Scopus (containing >25,800 peer-reviewed journals from 7,000 publishers and most used in the previous systematic review studies on social enterprise) by utilizing both organization and beneficiary terms in the columns of title, abstract, and keywords. See Table 14 for all the search terms. And the articles were categorized in the fields of sociology, business, and economics. The initial search yielded 511 articles in Scopus. Two duplicated articles were identified on Endnote, which were excluded from the abstract review.

Table 14. *Literature Search Terms*

Organizations	Beneficiaries
"social enterprise" "social entrepreneurship" "hybrid organization"	"beneficiar*" "client" "constituent" "participant" "recipient" "target population" "user" "member"

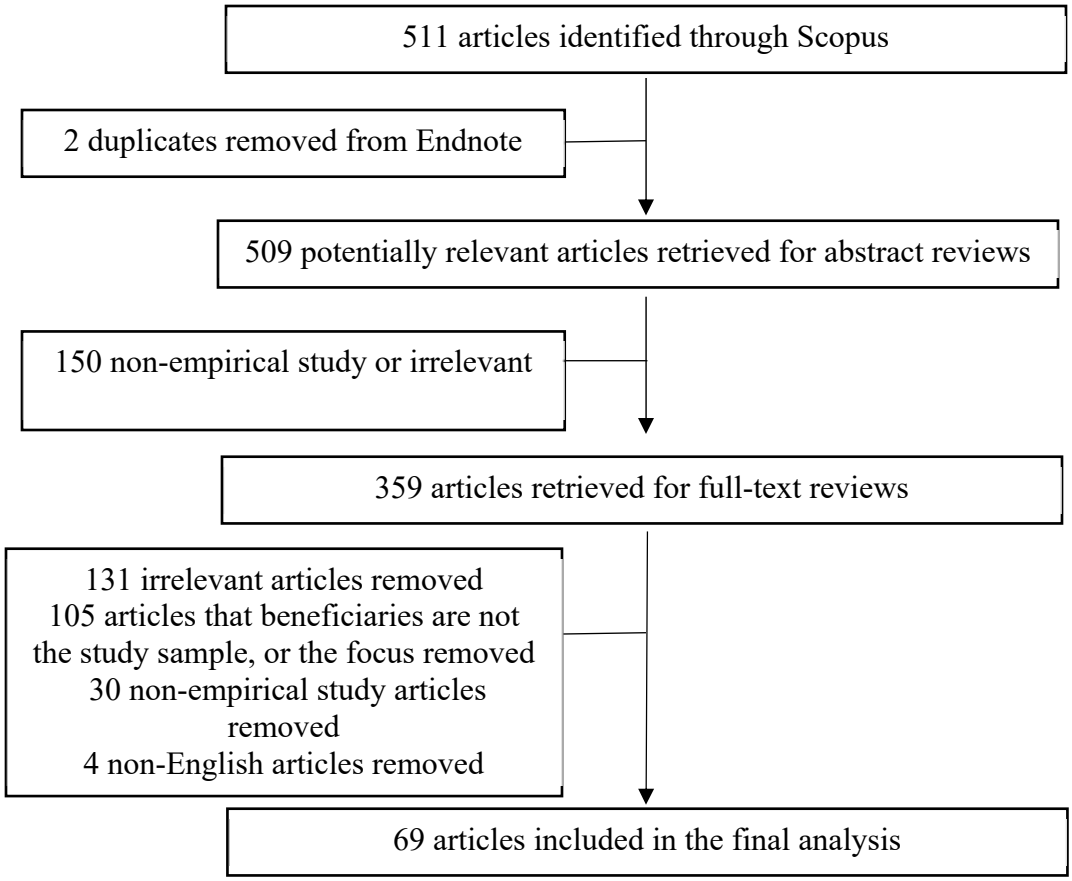
Stage Three: Study Selection

Then the author screened 509 abstracts of the articles through Covidence (i.e., a systematic review software) with two other master's students at Indiana University as the second reviewers by using these two exclusion criteria: (1) the study is not empirical; and (2) the keyword of 'beneficiary' does not refer to the intended beneficiary but something else (e.g., nonprofit is a client of an auditing firm). 150 non-empirical studies and/or irrelevant articles were removed from the corpus. By then, the author had included 359 articles for the full-text reviews.

Stage Four: Charting the Data

The following inclusion criteria were applied to the full-text reviews: (1) Beneficiaries as study sample: The study draws on data about beneficiaries, such as interviewing or surveying beneficiaries. And (2) Beneficiaries' experiences as the primary research concern: The study examines some form of beneficiaries' experiences in organizations or programs. For example, Suiter (2019) explores the working experiences of low-income employees in one work integration social enterprise (WISE). After reviewing the full texts, 290 articles were removed. See Appendix 1 for more information on the eliminated literature. In total, 69 beneficiaries-related articles were identified in the final review. See Figure 15 for the search process and Appendix 2 for the entire corpus of the included articles.

Figure 15. *The Selection Process of Articles in the Study* (n=69)



Stage Five: Collating, Summarizing, and Reporting Results

The study reports the study characteristics of each included article in the table: the first author, year of the publication, study country, study method, beneficiaries' roles, type of social enterprise, and target group. To summarize the emerging themes in the findings, the author first coded the selected articles to identify study characteristics: study methods, study countries, study fields, and study theories. The author also coded the articles based on the roles of beneficiaries in organizations (e.g., service users, employees, interns, volunteers, social entrepreneurs, and others) and social enterprise types using Young and Lecy's six categories (e.g., for-profit corporations, social

businesses, social cooperatives, commercial nonprofit organizations, public-private partnerships, and hybrids). Drawing on the ideas of beneficiaries' experiences from Benjamin (2021), the author considered a more comprehensive beneficiaries' experiences, an approach beyond the intended impacts of participation in social enterprises that most studies have paid attention to. So, the author finally coded the articles based on the intended impacts of beneficiaries, such as self-improvement, self-esteem, skills, knowledge, etc., and their comprehensive experiences with others and organizations, such as social connection with managers, other beneficiaries, and communities, interaction with frontline staff, participation in decision-making processes, and challenges and tensions in organizations.

Appendix 4. References for the 69 Included Studies

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Appendix 5. Ancillary Study Characteristics

This appendix first reported on the countries where all the selected studies have been conducted. It then summarized the fields of the selected articles that have been studied, such as health, homelessness, poverty, and more. It also identified the study methods that were used to study beneficiaries' experiences in social enterprises.

Study countries. The earliest study among these 69 articles was published in 2008. Scholars have increased their attention recently to the perspective of beneficiaries in social enterprises in the past five years. This increased attention corresponds to the growth in systematic reviews on the impacts of participation in social enterprises on different groups of beneficiaries (e.g., Barton et al., 2021; Caló et al., 2021; McClean et al., 2021). Among these 69 studies, more than one second of the studies was conducted in English-speaking countries: the U.K. (19%), the U.S. (16%), Canada (10%), and Australia (9%). The remainder were conducted in non-English speaking countries in Europe (16%), Asia (12%), Africa (9%), and central and south America (4%). Commercial nonprofit organizations, cooperatives, and social businesses are the most popular forms of social enterprise in the U.S., Canada, the U.K., and Europe

Study fields. These 69 studies focus on a variety of target groups, such as people in poverty (17%), women (13% of women entrepreneurs, women at working skill centers, women recovery from addiction, etc.), people with health or mental health issues (9%), homelessness (9% including homeless women or youth), youth (9%), seniors (7%), people with disabilities (7%), refugees or immigrants (6%), some disadvantaged groups (6%), and others, such as farmers, craft makers, fair trade entrepreneurs, etc. (16%).

Study methods. Since the studies on beneficiaries in social enterprise and social entrepreneurship have just emerged in the past decade, most studies have applied exploratory research approaches to study beneficiaries' experiences. More than half of the studies use qualitative research methods (67%), such as ethnography, interviews, participant observation, focus groups, etc., to examine beneficiaries' experiences. For example, a two-year ethnographic study examines participants' experiences at a recovery community that serves women recovering from addiction with medical care, dental care, and employment training (Suiter & Wilfong, 2019). In another qualitative study on co-producing care services, the researcher first interviewed community members and set up meetings to gather information and decide the goals and objectives of services, then collected surveys to understand the needs and preferences of community members, and lastly executed the services and collected the perceived impacts of services from beneficiaries (Munoz, 2013).

In addition to examining the impacts of beneficiaries participating in social enterprises and related organizations, one-fifth of the studies applies quantitative research methods to measure the outcomes of beneficiaries' experiences in social enterprises (14%), including surveys and experiments. For instance, a study measured beneficiaries' self-esteem, self-efficacy, optimism, and career identities in social purpose enterprises (Chan, 2016). Another study surveyed the well-being of beneficiaries in social enterprises (Hartley, 2017). Despite the lack of experimental studies in the research of beneficiaries' experiences, some studies use quasi-experiments to examine the service outcomes of beneficiaries (Ferguson, 2008a, 2008b; Ferguson, 2018a, 2018b; Walk et al., 2015b). For example, one of Ferguson's (2018) studies randomly assigned 72 homeless youth with

mental health illness to either the condition of ‘social enterprise intervention’ or the state of ‘individual placement and support’ to examine how the two different employment interventions influence their employment outcomes.

Finally, it should be noted that some studies apply mixed methods to understand the experiences of beneficiaries better (20%). For instance, a survey of immigrant beneficiaries collected pre-test and post-test results of beneficiaries who had or had not participated in a training program at a Canadian work integration social enterprise and then conducted follow-up focus groups and interviews after the program (Walk et al., 2015b).

Appendix 6. Experimental Vignettes

Sunflower Employment Center
Nonprofit Social Enterprise
66 Reviews 💛 💛 💛 💛 💛

About: Sunflower Employment Center was established as a social enterprise run by Sunflower Nonprofit Organization in 2006. We help adults of all ages and all backgrounds. Our Nonprofit Social Enterprise includes a variety of services designed to support each person to succeed in their job placement, including on-the-job training, skill building, job readiness, and wraparound support services (counseling, mentoring, and tutoring) to enable every person to attain and maintain employment. Sunflower Nonprofit Social Enterprise cares deeply about each of our clients and works to ensure everyone is working in a job that they love. In our Nonprofit Social Enterprise, clients are in complete control. Clients are the ones who decide which job placement is best for them and identify the types of support services they need to be successful in the job.

Sunflower Employment Center
Nonprofit Social Enterprise
66 Reviews 💛 💛 💛 💛 💛

About: Sunflower Employment Center was established as a social enterprise run by Sunflower Nonprofit Organization in 2006. We help adults of all ages and all backgrounds. Our Nonprofit Social Enterprise includes a variety of services designed to support each person to succeed in their job placement, including on-the-job training, skill building, job readiness, and wraparound support services (counseling, mentoring, and tutoring) to enable every person to attain and maintain employment. Sunflower Nonprofit Social Enterprise cares deeply about each of our clients and works to ensure everyone is working in a job that they love. In our Nonprofit Social Enterprise, we have everything under control. We are the ones who decide which job placement is best for clients and identify the types of support services they need to be successful in the job.

Sunflower Employment Center

For-profit Social Enterprise

66 Reviews 💛 💛 💛 💛 💛

About: Sunflower Employment Center was established as a for-profit social enterprise in 2006. We help adults of all ages and all backgrounds. Our For-profit Social Enterprise includes a variety of services designed to support each person to succeed in their job placement, including on-the-job training, skill building, job readiness, and wraparound support services (counseling, mentoring, and tutoring) to enable every person to attain and maintain employment. Sunflower For-profit Social Enterprise cares deeply about each of our clients and works to ensure everyone is working in a job that they love. In our For-profit Social Enterprise, clients are in complete control. Clients are the ones who decide which job placement is best for them and identify the types of support services they need to be successful in the job.

Sunflower Employment Center

For-profit Social Enterprise

66 Reviews 💛 💛 💛 💛 💛

About: Sunflower Employment Center was established as a for-profit social enterprise in 2006. We help adults of all ages and all backgrounds. Our For-profit Social Enterprise includes a variety of services designed to support each person to succeed in their job placement, including on-the-job training, skill building, job readiness, and wraparound support services (counseling, mentoring, and tutoring) to enable every person to attain and maintain employment. Sunflower For-profit Social Enterprise cares deeply about each of our clients and works to ensure everyone is working in a job that they love. In our For-profit Social Enterprise, we have everything under control. We are the ones who decide which job placement is best for clients and identify the types of support services they need to be successful in the job.

Appendix 7. Additional Analysis of Control Variables

Big five traits. There were no effects of extraversion, conscientiousness, or openness on participants' preferences to interact with the organization, $F(1, 697) = 0.019$, $p = .891$, $\eta^2 = .000$, $F(1, 697) = 1.216$, $p = .271$, $\eta^2 = .002$, $F(1, 697) = 2.309$, $p = .129$, $\eta^2 = .003$, respectively, or recommend and say positive things about the organization $F(1, 697) = 0.050$, $p = .823$, $\eta^2 = .000$, $F(1, 697) = 0.074$, $p = .786$, $\eta^2 = .000$, $F(1, 697) = 0.541$, $p = .462$, $\eta^2 = .001$, respectively, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type.

Gender: There was no effect of gender on their preferences to interact with or recommend and say positive things about the organization, $F(1, 697) = 0.072$, $p = .788$, $\eta^2 = .000$, $F(1, 697) = 2.724$, $p = .099$, $\eta^2 = .004$ respectively.

Race. There were no effects of the race (white/non-white), on participants' preferences to interact with or recommend and say positive things about the organization, $F(1, 697) = 0.547$, $p = .460$, $\eta^2 = .001$, $F(1, 697) = 0.767$, $p = .381$, $\eta^2 = .001$ respectively, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type.

Education. There were no effects of education on participants' preferences to interact with or recommend and say positive things about the organization, $F(1, 697) = 0.001$, $p = .979$, $\eta^2 = .000$, $F(1, 697) = 0.820$, $p = .365$, $\eta^2 = .001$ respectively, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type.

Income. There were no effects of income on participants' preferences to interact with or recommend and say positive things about the organization, $F(1, 697) = 0.076$, $p = .784$, $\eta^2 = .000$, $F(1, 697) = 0.622$, $p = .431$, $\eta^2 = .001$ respectively, regardless of staff motivations to help or organizational type.

CHAPTER FOUR. CONCLUSION

This research was motivated by the following overarching question: *Does organizational type matter for the service experiences of clients?* One of the central questions in nonprofit studies was why nonprofit organizations exist and whether they are distinct in significant ways from government agencies and for-profit firms. This concern has become more acute as governments contract out public services to nonprofit organizations, more nonprofit organizations adopt market-driven values and strategies, and for-profit organizations compete with nonprofit organizations for government contracts. This dissertation examined to what extent organizational types and other factors impact the service experiences of clients in organizational settings.

In the first part of my dissertation, I conducted an online experiment to examine the effects of organizational type and employee motivation on clients' help-seeking preferences. I focused on a comparison of nonprofit organizations, government organizations, and for-profit organizations to examine one issue that has been theorized and empirically researched: nonprofit employees, often intrinsically motivated by the work, are distinct from government or for-profit employees who are more likely to be extrinsically motivated by such as the financial remuneration of the job or the pressures. In the second part of my dissertation, I used a scoping review, i.e., a method to study knowledge gaps, to examine the current literature on clients' experiences in social enterprises. Then I conducted an online experiment to examine the effects of social enterprise types (nonprofit/for-profit) and clients' perceived control over the key service provision process which is a crucial factor in affecting clients' help-seeking preferences based on the preliminary findings of the scoping review.

The dissertation revealed that clients prefer nonprofit organizations to for-profit organizations in the U.S. context which is consistent with previous studies (Witesman et al., 2022; Xu, 2020). In chapter 2, the experimental result showed that people are more willing to interact with nonprofit organizations and government organizations than for-profit organizations. They are also more willing to interact with nonprofit employees than for-profit employees while there is no difference between government employees and the employees in the other organizational types. In chapter 3, the experimental result pointed out that individuals are more willing to interact with nonprofit social enterprises than for-profit social enterprises. They are also more likely to take further actions to recommend and say positive things about nonprofit social enterprises than for-profit social enterprises. While previous studies have shown that people are often unaware of organizational types (Aaker et al., 2000; Handy et al., 2010; Schlesinger et al., 2004), they still perceive nonprofit organizations, government agencies, and for-profit firms differently. Overall, individuals perceive nonprofit service providers are different from for-profit service providers while there is not much difference between nonprofit and government organizations, and more specifically, individuals still perceive for-profit firms more negatively in the U.S. context.

The dissertation extended knowledge about the effects of employee motivations and clients' perceived control over the service provision process on clients' help-seeking preferences, specifically their preference for interacting with employees and organizations as well as recommending organizations. In chapter 2, the results showed that clients' perceptions of employee motivations turn out to be a stronger determinant of their service preference than their perceived differences among organizational types.

Although the experimental results did not show any significant interaction effect between organizational type and employee motivation to help, the study found that employees' extrinsic motivations might affect people's preferences for the organizational types. For example, when clients perceive that employees are extrinsically motivated by financial incentives to carry out the job, clients prefer to interact with nonprofit and government organizations compared to for-profit organizations. Additionally, in the open-ended survey responses about their previous service experiences, people reported their interaction with frontline workers and how that interaction affected their feelings and their next visits. In chapter 3, the experimental results found that clients' perception of their control over key decisions in the service provision process has positive effects on their willingness to interact with the organization and their further recommendations and positive things about the organization. When the services are provided in for-profit social enterprises, people are more likely to choose the organizations they perceive to have control over the service provision process than those they perceive to have no control. Overall, these findings provide several implications which are described in the following section.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

These findings advance nonprofit theory and practice in three ways. First, according to the online experiments, the findings confirm the distinctiveness of nonprofit organizations from for-profit organizations, but its differences from government organizations need further examination. This dissertation found that individuals tend to perceive that nonprofit organizations are distinct from for-profit organizations but similar to government organizations, which is consistent with Frumkin and Galaskiewicz's

(2004) findings. When organizations compete in a mixed market, the findings suggest that individuals prefer nonprofit or government service providers over for-profit service providers. Overall, the findings suggest that sectoral differences affect clients' help-seeking preferences, but other factors also matter, such as employee motivation to help clients and clients' perceived control over the key service selection in their service provision process, which leads to the next point.

Second, in general, the dissertation finding suggests that no matter which type of organization, managers should hire mostly intrinsically motivated employees or focus on developing employees' intrinsic motivations to carry out the work. This is even truer when the services are provided by for-profit service providers because clients tend to choose other service providers, such as nonprofits or governments, when the employees are extrinsically motivated. Additionally, despite the organizational types, individuals tend to be more willing to interact with the service providers that provide them with more control over the key selections in the service provision process. The effect of clients' perceived control over key service decisions is stronger when the services are provided by for-profit social enterprises.

And third, the findings suggest that we should pay more attention to the interaction between staff and beneficiaries. The experimental results in both online experiments have shown that higher previous service satisfaction has positive effects on their future help-seeking preferences. According to open-ended survey responses in both experiments, individuals reported their previous service experiences mostly about their interaction with frontline workers. These imply that their previous interaction with

frontline workers significantly matters for their potential help-seeking experiences. In the following section, I acknowledge that this dissertation is not without limitations.

Limitations

The findings should be considered in light of some limitations. First, the two online experiments recruited participants from the two online platforms, e.g., Amazon Mturk and the CloudResearch Prime Panels. The participants were limited to residents in the U.S. who have access to online surveys. While the participants from the Amazon Mturk are diverse in different demographic characteristics (Buhrmester et al., 2011), the results show that the participants from the CloudResearch Prime Panels are relatively more diverse and resemble the recent population in the U.S. (Chandler et al., 2019; Rosenzweig, 2019). Despite the resemblance with the U.S. population, the experimental results should be interpreted more limited to the population who have access to the internet. More field experiments in the U.S. context or similar experiments in other countries should be conducted to replicate the results or to generalize the findings.

Second, I used hypothetical organizations with limited organizational information to examine the effects of beneficiaries' help-seeking preferences. Although I developed experimental vignettes of organizational information that resemble some organizational online websites in real fields to describe their services and employees, I acknowledge that in reality, people might ignore organizational types and usually select service providers based on a variety of factors, such as locations, friends' recommendations, and reputations.

Third, the experimental results are limited to two hypothetical service fields, one healthcare, and the other job replacement in the U.S. I chose the healthcare field to

examine the effects of nonprofit, government, and for-profit organizations and the job replacement to test the effect of nonprofit and for-profit social enterprises because these are the most common fields in the real world where these organizational types coexist. Although both experiments present consistent results that people prefer nonprofit organizations to for-profit organizations, the results might not be generalized to other service fields where nonprofit and for-profit organizations coexist.

Fourth, the experimental results are limited to self-report outcomes. Clients may be biased to report their help-seeking preferences based on their perceptions of the hypothetical scenarios of employee motivation and clients' perceive control. The vignette examples may oversimply the real-life situations on employee motivation to carry out the job and clients' perceived control over key service selections.

And fifth, the methods of experiments and scoping reviews are limited to some perspectives of clients' service experiences. In chapter 3, I conducted a scoping review to have a broader understanding of the general experiences of clients in social enterprises. However, the experiences of clients in most empirical studies are constrained to their intended impacts. The method of a scoping review is limited to discovering the research gap in the emerging literature on social enterprises to understand the service experiences of clients, but not to answer a clinical or practical research question (Munn et al., 2018). Moreover, due to the constraints of both experiments, I can only include limited factors to examine the effects on clients' help-seeking preferences. More qualitative studies should focus on exploring the other perspectives of clients' experiences, such as their interaction with frontline staff in organizations. Additional future studies are mentioned as follows.

Future Directions

Based on this dissertation research, I discussed four areas for future studies to explore the experiences of clients in different types of organizations.

First, future studies should explore whether the effects of employee motivations or service quality matter more on clients' help-seeking experiences. Previous studies have shown that people perceive nonprofit organizations are warmer and more trustworthy than for-profit organizations and nonprofit organizations would not take advantage of information asymmetry and would provide a better quality of service than for-profit organizations (Aaker et al., 2010; Amirkhanyan et al., 2008; Ben-Ner et al., 2012). Although clients are sensitive to information that reveals consumer ratings about service quality, organizational type still matters for clients' help-seeking preferences. For example, clients prefer nonprofit or government service providers when they have little information about service quality (Witesman et al., 2022). In addition to service quality, this dissertation study found that employee motivation matters more than organizational types for clients' help-seeking experiences. However, we do not know either clients' perception of employee motivation or their perception of service quality matter more when they make decisions to choose services. Thus, future studies could conduct experiments to test the effects of clients' perceptions of employee motivation and service quality on clients' help-seeking experiences. The results could shed light on to what extent public and nonprofit managers should market their services and train their employees.

Second, future studies should pay attention to the effects of the assistance provided by volunteers and paid staff on clients' help-seeking experiences. The first

dissertation study found that people prefer working with paid staff who has intrinsic motivations to help them than those who have extrinsic motivations to help. Volunteers are often motivated to work in nonprofit organizations due to their intrinsic motivations, and people perceive volunteers are warmer but less competent than paid staff (Li & Liu, 2021). One of the significant differences between nonprofit and for-profit organizations is the existence of volunteers. Since people often prefer working with staff who has intrinsic motivations to help them and volunteers are more like to be motivated by intrinsic motivations, people might be more willing to choose nonprofits rather than for-profits because of volunteers. A future study could focus on the effects of staff/volunteers on clients' help-seeking preferences to examine the distinctiveness of nonprofits and volunteers.

Third, future research should conduct some field experiments to examine the other factors that affect clients' service experiences. For example, people may prefer being helped by someone who shares the same social identity (e.g., race) or similar lived experiences, and being helped by those who share commonalities could increase people's self-esteem, etc. (Benjamin, 2022; Schneider et al., 1996). Future studies should be conducted to investigate what kind of commonalities between frontline staff and clients share matter more for clients' service experiences.

And fourth, we need more qualitative studies to explore the other factors that matter for the experiences of clients in organizational settings. Applying qualitative studies to understand the detailed experiences of clients in different organizational settings are needed to explore more factors that influence clients' service experiences, such as physical environment, interaction with staff, geographical area, etc.

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CURRICULUM VITAE

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Education

2023 Ph.D., Philanthropic Studies (Minor in Sociology)
Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy, U.S.A.
Dissertation title*: Does organizational type matter for clients' experiences? A comparative study of nonprofit organizations, government organizations, for-profit organizations, and social enterprises*
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2013 M.A., Nonprofit Management and Governance, Heidelberg University Centre for Social Investment, Germany

Peer-reviewed Publications, Professional Reports, and Pressbooks

Shaker, G. G., **Ho, M.H.**, Ji, C. (2023). Expanding knowledge about E-service learning: The case of a general education philanthropy course during Covid-19. *Journal of Nonprofit Education and Leadership*. (Under review)

Ho, M.H., Duffy, B., & Benjamin, L. M. (2023). Documents in a field of action: Using documents to address research questions about nonprofit & voluntary organizations. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, 34*(1), 133-139. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11266-021-00413-y (SSCI; 2021 Impact factor: 2.794).

Shaker, G. G. & **Ho, M.H.** (2022). *Giving and Volunteering in America*. Retrieved June 15, 2023, from https://iu.pressbooks.pub/phstp105/

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Konrath, S., **Ho, M.H**., & Zarins, S. (2016). The strategic helper: Narcissism and prosocial motives and behaviors. *Current Psychology*, *35*(2), 182-194. (SSCI; 2021 Impact factor: 2.387).

Selected Conference Presentations

Ho, M.H. (2023). "How beneficiaries' perceived control matter for help-seeking preferences in nonprofit and for-profit social enterprises." Presented at the Annual Meeting of the *Taiwanese Social Welfare Association*, Chiayi, Taiwan.

Ho, M.H. (2022). "A Review Study of Beneficiaries' Experiences in Social Enterprises." Presented at the 51st *Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action* Conference, Raleigh, NC, U.S.A.

Shaker, Genevieve G., Chen, Ji, & **Ho, M.H.** (2022). "Expanding knowledge about E-service learning: The case of a general education philanthropy course during Covid-19." Presented at the 51st *Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action* Conference, Raleigh, NC, U.S.A.

Ho, M.H. (2022). "An experimental study on the beneficiaries' experiences in NPOs, FPOs, and GOs." Presented at the Annual Meeting of *the Taiwanese Social Welfare Association*, Chiayi, Taiwan.

Ho, M.H., Benjamin, L. M., & Dwyer, P. C. (2021). "Does employee motivation matter in the selection of service providers? An experimental study of beneficiaries' help-seeking preferences in government, nonprofit, and for-profit organizations." Presented at the 50th *Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action* Conference, Atlanta, GA, U.S.A.

Ho, M.H. (2019). "The effect of nonprofit marketization on clients' experiences: A comparative study of American and Taiwanese nonprofit organizations, for-profit organizations, and social enterprises." Presented at the 3rd *ARNOVA-Asia* Conference, Taichung, Taiwan.

Ho, M.H. (2019). "The effect of nonprofit marketization on client experiences: A comparative study of American and Taiwanese nonprofit organizations, for-profit organizations, and social enterprises." Presented at the Annual Meeting of *the Taiwanese Social Welfare Association*, Taipei, Taiwan.

Ho, M.H. (2018). "The experiences of clients in nonprofit, for-profit, and hybrid organizations." Presented at the 47th *Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action* Conference, Austin, TX, U.S.A.

Ho, M.H. (2016). "Beyond the home: German-American women's empowerment and volunteering before the end of World War I." Presented at the 45th *Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action* Conference, Washington D.C., U.S.A.

Ho, M.H. (2016). "Social capital and power dynamics in cross-sector partnerships." Presented at the 12th *International Society for Third-Sector Research* Conference, Stockholm, Sweden.

Ho, M.H., Hansen, R. K., & Konrath, S. (2016). "Free gifts also matter: Effects of giving on happiness, social connection, and charitable donations." Presented at the *Workshop in Multidisciplinary Philanthropic Studies*, Indianapolis, IN, U.S.A. (*Invited*).

Ho, M.H., Hansen, R. K., Danahey Janin, P.C., & Konrath, S. (2015). "Free gifts also matter: Effects of giving on happiness, social connection, and charitable donations." Presented at the 44th *Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action* Conference*,* Chicago, IL, U.S.A.

Konrath, S. & **Ho, M.H.** (2015). "The strategic helper: Narcissism and prosocial behavior." Poster presented at the 27th *Association for Psychological Science* Conference, New York, NY, U.S.A.

Ho, M.H. (2014). "When money is taboo: A comparative study of non-profit business collaboration in Germany and Taiwan." Presented at the 43rd *Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action* Conference, Denver, CO, U.S.A.

Ho, M.H. (2014). "Social capital and non-profit business collaboration: Case Study on the Social Marketplaces in Germany." Presented at the 11th *International Society for Third-Sector Research* Conference, Münster, Germany.

Ho, M.H. (2013). "How and why do nonprofits and businesses collaborate without monetary consideration: Case study on the Marketplace project in Germany." Presented at the 42nd *Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action* Conference, Hartford, CT, U.S.A.

Ho, M.H. (2012). "The collaborative relationship between faith-based organizations and businesses." Presented at the 18th *NCVO/VSSN Researching the Voluntary Sector* Conference, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, U.K.

Grants, Fellowships, and Awards

2022	**2022 Penn Doctoral Fellows Program**, Center for Social Impact Strategy, University of Pennsylvania, U.S.A.
2022	**Doctoral Student International Travel Award**, Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy, U.S.A.
2022	**Block Grant for Ph.D. Students**, Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy, U.S.A.
2021-22	**Open Educational Resources Course Material Fellow**: a fellowship to transform traditional course materials to be more effective and affordable to students, Indiana University, Bloomington/Indianapolis, U.S.A.
2021	**School Research Fund**, Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy, U.S.A.
2020	**Teaching Award for Doctoral Students**, Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy, U.S.A.
2020	**Ph.D. Seminar**, International Society for Third-Sector Research (ISTR), Montreal, Canada.
2019	**School Research Fund**, Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy, U.S.A.
2019-20	**Eugene R. Tempel Fellowship**, Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy, U.S.A.

2019	**IUPUI Elite 50**: an honor for IUPUI 50 graduate students who demonstrate excellence in university leadership, academic work, and community engagement, Indiana University Purdue University Indianapolis, U.S.A.
2018	**IUPUI Graduate Student Travel Fellowship**, Indiana University Purdue University Indianapolis, U.S.A.
2018	**Doctoral Seminar Scholarship**, Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA), Austin, TX, U.S.A.
2016-17	**Freie Universität Berlin – Indiana University Joint Funding**, FUB-IU joint research workshops and short-term research stays, Berlin/Bloomington.
2015	**Graduate - Professional Educational Grants**, Indiana University Purdue University Indianapolis, U.S.A.
2015-17	**IUPUI Max Kade Graduate Fellowship**, Indiana University Purdue University Indianapolis, U.S.A.
2014-22	**Graduate Assistant Fellowship**, Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy, U.S.A.
2014	**Diversity Scholars and Leaders Professional Development Grants**, Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA), Denver, CO, U.S.A.
2013, 2015, 2019, 2020, 2022	**Conference Scholarships and Travel Grants**, Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA), U.S.A.