The impact of agency organisation and natural support on supported employment outcomes

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Abstract. Data was collected on nine supported employment agencies over one financial year on staffing ratio, staff qualifications, job finding approach, management structure, supervision arrangement, referral and funding sources, and typicalness of jobs and job placement approaches, replicating elements of Mank et al. (1997). Data was also collected on individual client wage and hours worked outcomes. An ANOVA revealed strong differences among agencies in hours worked, wages in the extent to which they acquired Job Acquisition, Compensation packages, Work Roles and Orientation and induction and programmes that were typical for the company they were placing into.

An ANOVA on hours worked, wages earned and typicalness in these key processes revealed a significant independent effects of management model and job finding approach. Stepwise regression analysis was used to quantify the impact on wage and hours worked outcomes of management model. Job coach approach, staff ratio and typicalness in these four key areas. Significant Beta coefficients were found between monthly wage and hours worked and typicalness of Compensation, Work Roles and Orientation scores. Management model impacted only on monthly wages.

1. Introduction

Supported employment has grown significantly in the US with government patronage, to a point where it is a major sector of provision competing with sheltered workshop and other forms of employment provision for people with disabilities [1–3]. Supported employment has grown significantly in the U.K., with substantial growth through periods of high unemployment in the 1980 s [4–6]. Supported employment has been recognized as the approach of choice for people with learning disabilities in a number of policy documents in England [7], Scotland [8] and Wales [9]. Attention has turned to job coach quality with a search for standards [10].

The overall success of supported employment has been linked to increased benefits for disabled people compared with other forms of vocational rehabilitation.

The model of supported employment has matured from the original specification of a three step 'place, train and maintain' model to a process with a much greater number of steps [11]. These include profiling the individual to determine employment interests, motivators, strengths and needs; marketing to develop job opportunities; job site analysis and job match; systematic training, and monitoring and career development [12]. More detailed approaches suitable for employing people with more severe learning disabilities, such as customized employment, have been promoted as good practice to practitioners [7]. Effective delivery of supported employment for people with intellectual disabilities now requires those involved to adopt and implement procedures from a wide range of professional disciplines. These include applied behaviour analysis, rehabilitation, social work, sales and marketing to employers, and business management. At the most basic level, differences in supported employment practice could be found early on as group as well as individual placement models were enshrined in US legislation. Researchers have compared these group work

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crew, enclave and small business versions of supported employment with the individual placement model, and found more favourable outcomes in hours worked and financial outcomes for individual placement [13].

Many aspects of outcome have been studied in order to test whether the perceived benefits do flow from supported employment in all its forms. These include economic benefits of participation in supported employment [3]; the costs and benefits for taxpayers [14]; social integration and patterns of social interaction within the workforce [15]; the involvement of co-workers [16]; engagement in meaningful activity [17]; and employer satisfaction [18].

A number of studies have gone further, identifying good practice by defining each set of steps that agencies delivering supported employment should adopt [19]. Positive statistical relationships have been found between the degree to which agencies implement these steps and outcome for supported workers such as hours worked per week, weekly wages, time in job and level of social integration [20]. McDonnell et al. [21] looked at individual programme elements and found that the use of Individualised Programme Plans, which stressed meeting individual employment needs rather than indiscriminate placement, were strongly associated with wage, hours, time in job and integration. Formal job match was also strongly associated with positive outcomes. A number of job coach mediated factors also appeared to have an impact. These included comprehensive analysis of jobs to determine demands on workers, production of written training plans, and frequent review of worker performance. Organisational variables also had an impact, with regular staff meetings, marketing plans for developing job opportunities, contracts specifying roles and responsibilities with employers, and clear job descriptions for agency workers, all leading to increased worker outcomes. This approach to assessing good practice has been adopted in the UK and in a national study of 101 agencies in Britain [22] found that agencies that had operated for longer periods performed better than younger agencies in respect of the core outcomes mentioned above. Agencies unconnected with larger organisations with control over finance and operational policy and staffing, and favourable ratios of staff to supported workers, were also associated with better worker outcomes and larger number of jobs found. Beyer et al. concluded that agencies which maintained a clear focus on the needs of the individual are likely to vary their use of good practice approaches, such as job tasters and systematic training, with the needs of the individual.

The concept of natural supports has been a paradigm shift from a purely job coach support model [23, 24]. Natural support has been defined as "any assistance, relationships or interactions that allow a person to secure or maintain in a community job . . . in ways that correspond to the typical routines and social interactions of other employees" [25]. Research on natural supports tends to support the idea that wages and social integration will be greater for those disabled people who are supported using the internal training and supports that exist within the company that are used by non-disabled co-workers [26–29]. Others support the notion that the use of a natural supports approach is practical and cost-effective [30]. While adoption of a natural support approach has been slow to develop in the UK, employment training sources in the UK have incorporated natural support into job coach training over the last 10 years [31].

The factors influencing the outcomes supported employment agencies deliver for supported workers are complex. The preceding discussion would suggest that analysis purely at the level of the agency will not satisfactorily explain differences, as job coach performance appears central to outcome, particularly in the approach that they take to integrating their input with natural supports. So, as well as agency organisation, studies need to account for the way job coaches approach their task in order to understand the determinants of outcome better.

While the effects of government and local policy may influence the growth of supported employment as a service option and the outcomes it is able to achieve, success will also be related to the quality of the procedures operated by the services concerned. The purpose of this study is to determine whether differences in job coach role, organizational hierarchy, and natural support approaches promote positive worker outcomes through supported employment in the UK. The study provides an analysis of unpublished data collected for a number of agencies undergoing evaluation between 2000 and 2007 when the concepts of natural support were being incorporated into supported employment practice.

2. Method

2.1. Agencies

Data on service input, agency organisation and outcome was collected for nine agencies, four based in Wales UK, four in England and two in Scotland.

2.2. Study design

Data were collected by agencies on the following variables: agency staff : worker ratios; percentage of staff with post-school qualifications; job finding approach; management model; arrangements for staff supervision and team meetings, and referral and funding sources. Agencies were asked to collect data for 12 months on all clients in work at the beginning of their first month and all who were supported by the agency in the next 12 months. More detailed information was collected for all who were found jobs during the year. The 12 month periods were staggered, data collection beginning in January 2000 for Agency B through to January 2007 for Agency I. Agencies completed a questionnaire for each client, giving details of the person, the sources of their impairment and when a job was found, the employer, job title, wage details and in-work benefits received to calculate net income figures. Job coaches also completed a four-point integration scale for each person in a job.

2.3. Independent variables

Table 1 shows a list of independent variables for the 9 agencies involved. Staff : worker ratios for each agency were calculated by dividing the total number of clients in jobs or work-based placements in the year by the total number of front-line staff (job coaches, supervisors and job finders) in the agency. The percentage of staff with qualifications included all front-line staff with degrees or relevant professional qualifications (such as a diploma in social work, a teaching qualification or job coach diploma). Description of the 'Job Finding Model' in Table 1 included two models, the first where there were staff (job finders) who only found jobs separate to job coaches who placed and trained workers, the second where job coaches also found jobs as well as workplace support. Two 'Management Models' were specified, in one a single manager oversaw the work of all job coaches and in a second a tier of supervisors, or senior job coaches, played a role in supervising job coaches, increasing the density of advice available.

Individual job coach 'Supervision' and 'Team meetings' were both calculated as the number of meetings month normally occurring. 'Referral sources' were all those agencies, organisations, or people who had referred a named person to the agency in the past. A core included social services professionals (social workers, case managers), social services day centres, health professionals (community psychiatric nurses, occupational therapists), Employment Service (Disability Employment Advisors or other professionals), schools, the person themselves, and parents. Agencies were also asked to identify the number of funders who contributed 10% or more to their budget in the current financial year.

Table 1 shows that there was significant variation between agencies in these independent variables, agencies A, D and E being the largest agencies in terms of core staff. Agency F used non-disabled adults attending government training programmes as temporary job coaches, up to a total of 23 per year. This gave their project more placement resources but required core staff input to train and support long-term unemployed adults to become effective job coaches. The percentage of qualified staff varied from 20% to 60%. The agencies were unevenly split on job finding approach, 3 having dedicated job finders and 6 job coach carrying out both job finding and job support. Five agencies had single tier management structures and 4 two-tier structures. Numbers of supervisions and numbers of team meetings both varied from 0.7 to 2.0 per month. Variability was also present in number of referrers, ranging from 1 to 9 and funders of 10% or more of budget varying from 1 to 4.

This study replicated the approach of Mank et al. [26] using their 24 point questionnaire to determine the extent of typicalness in aspects of job finding, induction, training, remuneration, and other aspects of the job. Mank et al. carried out a factor analysis which determined four significant factors from their results relating to 462 individuals. The factors were job acquisition (comprising recruiting, job application, interviewing); compensation package (work schedule-hours per week, hourly pay, and company benefits); work roles (others do similar work, opportunities for job variety); and orientation (orientation or induction, initial job training). Here, as in the Mank et al. study, scores for each factor were obtained by averaging the 'typicalness' scores for its component independent variables, thereby retaining the 1 (not typical) to 7 (quite typical) dimension for interpretation purposes.

2.4. Dependent variables

Building on previous evaluations, outcome variables included hours worked, hourly rates of pay, monthly earned wage, increase in income, and degree of social interaction. The average worked over 4 weeks was used for hours worked per month, if variable shift patterns were in operation. Hourly rate of pay was that specified in the person's contract. If a fixed rate of pay was in

Table 1
Independent variables by agency

Agency	A	B	C	D	E	F*	G	H	I
Total staff	13.0	6.5	8.1	11.0	8.8	7.0 (+25)	7.0	5.0	7.0
Job coaching staff	11.0	5.0	6.5	10.0	7.8	5.0 (+23)	5.0	4.0	5.0
Workers per support staff	10.0	8.6	6.6	12.3	10.9	14.8 (2.6)	13.2	3.3	3.6
% staff with qualifications	55%	60%	43%	20%	26%	40% (7%)	40%	20%	20%
Job finding model									
Dedicated job finder(s)	–	√	√	√	–	–	–	–	–
Job coaches job find	√	–	–	–	√	√	√	√	√
Management model									
One manager	–	–	–	√	√	–	√	√	√
Senior supervisors	√	√	√	–	–	√	–	–	–
No. of supervisions/month	0.7	0.7	1.00	0.7	2.0	1.0	1.0	0.5	2.0
No. of team meetings/month	0.7	1.0	1.33	2.0	2.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	1.0
No. of referral sources	9	7	1	8	7	5	6	6	5
No. of funders providing >10% budget	2	3	1	4	3	3	1	2	3

*Agency F had a core staff support supplemented by non-disabled adults attending government training programmes as temporary job coaches. The quantities in brackets give the expanded scope to the agency that this arrangement brought.

operation, as in the case of therapeutic earnings where a small wage is earned while retaining welfare benefit income, the gross monthly wage was divided by the number of hours worked in the month. Income increase was represented by earned income plus in-work benefit, minus any pre-work income, which included welfare benefit income. Financial figures were inflated to 2010 prices for comparative purposes.

Interaction was reported by job coaches, and consisted of a four point scale [26] where '1' represented no interaction at work, '2' greetings only, '3' work and duties based interaction, and '4' full and on-going interaction, including at breaks and lunches.

2.5. Analysis

Data were analysed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Correlation was used to explore relationships between interval level data. Main outcome measures were related to independent variables using Multiple Analysis of Variance and Analysis of Variance for pairs of variables and stepwise regression using forward entry method and a significance for inclusion of $p = 0.05$ for difference in outcome. *T*-tests were also used for exploring significance of difference between two variables.

3. Results

3.1. Participants

The number of people in jobs through the previous actions of the agencies, or newly placed during the study period the 12 month study period, varied considerably across agencies from 13 to 123 people (Table 2). Job coaches worked with more people than they supported in, or found jobs for, some being maintained on waiting lists, others taking up alternative opportunities such as college places. Of those people who were supported in jobs, the majority were male, ranging from 60% to 75% of clients depending on the agency. This follows the national trend for supported employment clients in the UK to be more commonly male.

People with learning disabilities made up the majority of supported workers in 8 out of 9 agencies. Agency E had a more balanced caseload of people with learning disabilities, mental health problems, and young disaffected youth (32%). Where served, people with learning disability were largely described as having mild or moderate levels of disability in every agency. The number of people offering a challenge to agencies due to difficult behaviour varied in number and type. The most common forms of behaviour encountered among the agencies operating primarily with people with learning disabilities were poor hygiene and socially inappropriate behaviour. A large proportion of supported workers in Agency E experienced mental health problems, and these translated into a series of very specific behavioural difficulties, widely present among the supported workers with mental health problems.

3.2. Job types

Table 3 shows the type of placements operated by agencies. The agencies varied in their placement priorities in response to their funding profile. Three agencies, C, D and E, largely found paid jobs only. Of these

Table 2
Number and percentages of people served, by characteristic by agency

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
Total people in work in year	111	43	43	123	85	74	66	13	18
Number people supported	256	70	166	179	133	189	73	41	32
% female	37	30	40	25	26	35	36	27	25
(% male)	(63)	(70)	(60)	(75)	(74)	(65)	(64)	(73)	(75)
Disability									
Learning disability	84%	100%	98%	93%	22%	65%	100%	100%	66%
Mild	*49%*	*%*	*51%*	*76%*	*46%*	*54%*	*–*	*–*	*28%*
Moderate	*37%*	*40%*	*49%*	*20%*	*33%*	*31%*	*81%*	*7%*	*16%*
Severe	*1%*	*49%*	*–*	*2%*	*19%*	*15%*	*18%*	*93%*	*22%*
Unknown	*13%*	*2%*	*–*	*2%*	*2%*	*0%*	*1%*	*–*	*3%*
		9%							
Mental health	1%	–	–	–	28%	9%	3%	–	3%
Mobility	5%	–	–	2%	14%	1%	–	–	13%
Sensory	–	–	–	1%	2%	1%	4%	–	13%
Traumatic brain injury	2%	–	2%	2%	1%	7%	–	–	3%
Other	1%	–	–	1%	32%	14%	11%	2%	25%
Unknown	–	–	–	1%	–	3%	–	–	–
Behaviour problems (% of total in work)	33%	19%	9%	11%	44%	5%	12%	50%	33%

Table 3
Type of placement by agency

Job status	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
Paid work	58 (52%)	10 (23%)	42 (98%)	98 (80%)	34 (40%)	72 (97%)	21 (32%)	2 (15%)	17 (94%)
Job tryout	23 (21%)	21 (49%)	–	–	4 (5%)	–	2 (3%)	–	–
Work based training for adults	–	–	–	–	19 (22%)	–	–	–	–
Training for work	–	–	–	–	24 (28%)	–	–	–	–
Work experience	29 (26%)	8 (19%)	–	3 (2%)	–	1 (1%)	7 (11%)	7 (54%)	1 (6%)
WORKSTEP	–	–	1 (2%)	16 (13%)	–	–	7 (11%)	–	–
Other	1 (–%)	4 (9%)	–	1 (–%)	4 (5%)	1 (1%)	28 (42%)	4 (31%)	–
Don't know	–	–	–	5 (4%)	–	–	1 (2%)	–	–
Total	111	43	43	123	85	74	66	13	18

Table 4
Employment outcomes by agency

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
Average hours worked/month	59	40	68	74	99	48	24	34	66
Average hourly pay rate*	£4.07	£3.38	£4.36	£2.92	£5.58	£4.78	£5.81	£5.36	£4.20
Average monthly earnings*	£616.844	£442.500	£724.788	£637.10	£747.37	£427.81	£128.788	£148.511	£315.899
Level of integration									
None	8%	16%	–	1%	–	4%	2%	–	–
Work interaction	26%	8%	5%	–	–	3%	14%	15%	6%
Work & breaks	26%	47%	17%	17%	53%	82%	56%	70%	82%
Full interaction	40%	29%	78%	82%	47%	11%	28%	15%	12%

*All monetary values inflated to 2010 prices for comparison.

3, Agency D made use of the government's WORK-STEP, a wage subsidy scheme where employers pay an agreed wage related to agreed levels of productivity of the employee was available. Agency A made significant use of job tryouts, short-term placements to determine the interests, motivations, abilities and support needs of prospective workers. Agency A also supported a significant number of people in work experience placements, which were longer-term placements. The majority of placements offered to Agency B were again job tryouts, linked to college courses and National Lotteries funding. Only 23% of its placements during the 12

Table 5
Analysis of variance for interval outcome variables with agency

Outcome variables	F (df)
Average hours worked per month	10.649** (8,527)
Average hourly pay rate	1.248 (8,527)
Average monthly earnings	5.246** (8,527)

**Significant at 0.01 Level.

Table 6
Correlation coefficients for dependent and typicalness data

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Hours worked	1						
2 Pay rate	0.09*	1					
3 Monthly wage	0.89**	0.09*	1				
4 acquisition	0.39**	0.05	0.38**	0.07	1		
5 compensation	0.53**	0.09*	0.55**	0.26**	0.65**	1	
6 work role	0.33**	0.05	0.32**	0.07	0.56**	0.73**	1
7 orientation	0.36**	0.07	0.35**	0.09*	0.54**	0.63**	0.61**

*Significant at $p < 0.05$; **Significant at $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed).

months were in paid employment. Agency E attempted to convert these short-term placements to real jobs at the end of the placement.

Table 4 shows the various outcomes achieved by agencies. There were significant variations in outcomes with Agency E generating more than four times the working hours of Agency H, with the lowest score, and in their early start-up phase. Agency E also generated the highest hourly rate of pay for its workers. With its emphasis on job tryouts, Agency B had the lowest hourly rate of pay. Gross monthly earnings ranged from £128.78 to £747.37. Data on integration scores showed a wide range of interaction outcomes, with 78% and 82% of workers in Agencies C and D achieving full interaction, compared to 11% and 12% in Agencies F and I. However, the great majority workers had either interaction in "work and breaks" or had "full interaction".

Table 5 shows the results of an analysis of variance comparing interval outcome scores and their relationship to Agency. This confirmed that hours worked per month and monthly wages are all significantly different between the agencies in the study, where hourly wage rates of pay are not related to agency. A Chi-squared analysis was used to compare interaction levels, using the four category scale across the agencies. Again significant differences were confirmed between agencies ($Chi^2 = 190.72$ (1,20), $p < 0.001$).

Figure 1 shows the range of scores agencies delivered on natural support dimensions, acquisition, compensation, role and orientation. This shows that significant differences do seem to occur in the extent to which the 9 agencies in the study utilize natural support approaches, with Agency C reporting the highest average scores in compensation and work roles, Agencies G and H the highest rates of Orientation, and Agency H reporting the highest average scores in Acquisition of jobs. However, it was instructive that many agency scores remained towards the least typical end of the continuum and were also not consistent across the four typicalness categories.

A t-test of these variables using job finder approach revealed significant differences for hours worked ($t = 4.32$, $p = 0.000$), for Job Acquisition ($t = 2.02$, $p = 0.05$), Compensation ($t = 5.05$, $p = 0.000$), Work Role ($t = 9.20$, $p = 0.000$) and Orientation ($t = 2.42$, $p = 0.02$). Using Management structure showed significant differences in hours worked ($t = 3.98$, $p = 0.000$), monthly wage ($t = 2.44$, $p = 0.02$), and also for Job Acquisition ($t = 5.33$, $p = 0.000$), Compensation ($t = 4.26$, $p = 0.000$), Work Role ($t = 2.27$, $p = 0.02$) and Orientation ($t = 3.38$, $p = 0.001$). Using the two management measures again against the integration indicators for workers revealed significant differences in integration outcome for using a dedicated job finder (Chi-squared = 95.53, $p = 0.000$) where job coaches who did all aspects of job finding and placement had higher integration outcomes. Having a single manager led to lower integration outcomes (Chi-squared = 56.14, $p = 0.000$).

Table 6 shows the correlation between interval level dependent and typicalness of the job process across all agencies, where items 1 to 3 are dependent, and 5 to 7 are typicalness variables. A number of relationships are of interest. In terms of outcome variables, hours spent in work and monthly wage are related to all four typicalness measures. The natural support factors are all inter-correlated, suggesting that if jobs are typical (or atypical) in one aspect, they are likely to be typical (or atypical) in all aspects. Hourly pay rates were only correlated with monthly wage and Compensation typicalness. As hourly pay rate is a component of monthly wage this correlation is to be expected. While there are no significant differences in hourly wage rates between agencies overall, there are positive association between typicalness of the arrangements for Compensation and hourly wage rate. This is logical, with non-typical placement arrangements such as work trial and work experience pay rates being more prone to individual pay arrangements.

A National minimum Wage and many jobs being at entry level will tend to reduce the variance in hourly wage rates paid and leave the driver for overall monthly

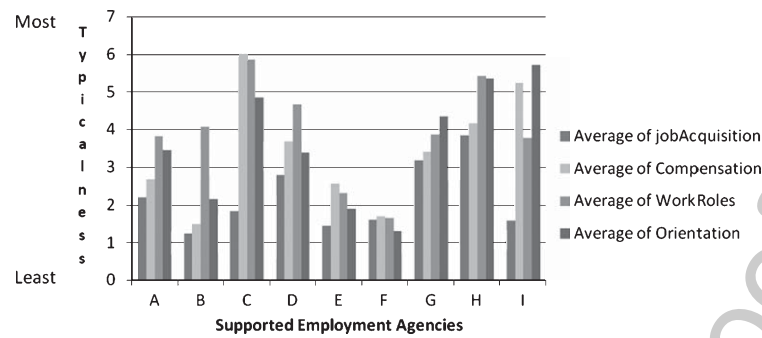|	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
Average of Job Acquisition	2.19	1.23	1.84	2.80	1.44	1.61	3.18	3.85	1.57
Average of Compensation	2.67	1.50	6.02	3.69	2.56	1.68	3.40	4.17	5.24
Average of Work Roles	3.81	4.08	5.85	4.67	2.32	1.65	3.87	5.42	3.78
Average of Orientation	3.45	2.14	4.86	3.40	1.89	1.30	4.35	5.35	5.72

Fig. 1. Four areas of job typicalness by agency.

earnings to be the number of hours worked. However, welfare benefit rules over the period were relatively inflexible, and many people and families have been loath to move fully from welfare benefit to earned income. Arrangements allowed people to earn £15–20 per week (if they worked under 16 hours per week) over the period without losing welfare benefits income and there is evidence that significant numbers in some agencies worked under these not typical "therapeutic earnings" arrangements limiting their income to £60–£80 per month. We return to this in the discussion.

3.3. Impact of natural support and management processes

What then is the overall impact of agency organization, such as management tiers, job coach approach and staff to worker ratio on wages, hours worked and typicalness delivered by agencies? A multivariate analysis was carried out to explore the combined effects of independent variables on monthly wage and hours worked. Overall, Job finding approach on its own was significant in some respects using Hotelling's T ($T = 0.215$, $F(1,525) = 14.9$, $p > 0.000$), as expected from the ANOVA analysis. Management model was powerful on its own ($T = 0.129$, $F(1,525) = 8.891$, $p > 0.000$). Staffing ratio was significant on its own ($T = 0.466$, $F(3,525) = 16.07$, $p > 0.000$).The models outlined here, also provided satisfactory explanations for the individual outcome items without joint effects which were not significant.

Statistics from a multiple analysis of variance relating interval outcome measures with organisational factors are shown in Table 7. Hourly rates of pay were not included because of the lack of variation in the data. The analysis shows that hours worked per month were higher in agencies which had a single manager rather than a two-tier management system, and having a job coach that did job finding and placement did not make a difference. Staffing ratios did seem to have a significant impact with the lowest staff to client ratios achieving higher number of hours than those with more workers per staff member.

Single manager agencies did not perform better generating higher average monthly wages than those with more supervisor posts. The involvement of job coaches in all aspects of supported employment including job finding again appeared to have no effect on monthly earnings either. Staffing ratio was significant however, agencies with lower staff-worker ratios achieving higher monthly earned incomes.

Table 7 also shows the impact of management approach and staff ratios of typicalness measures. Job Acquisition is related to management hierarchy (higher average score for single managers) and to job coach model (higher score for dedicated job coach). However, in terms of the average scores these are both towards the non-typical end of the continuum.

Compensation is related to job coach model (higher score for dedicated job coach) and staff ratio (higher score for lower staff : worker ratio), in both cases highest Compensation typicalness scores being over 3.5 and therefore positive in terms of normative working practices.

Worker roles appear to relate to management hierarchy, job coach model and staff ratio with association to

Table 7
Multiple analysis of variance for interval outcome measures with organisational independent variables[+]

Outcome variables	Independent variables	Mean	F (df)
Average hours worked per month	Management model		0.08 (1,5)
	One manager	53	
	Senior supervisors	34	
	Job finding model		0.32 (1,525)
	Dedicated	58	
	Job coaches	38	
	Staffing ratio		15.59*** (2,525)
	1–89	62	
	10–16	**42**	
Average monthly earnings	Management model		2.27 (1,525)
	One manager	£209.27	
	Senior supervisors	£142.74	
	Job finding model		1.63 (1,525)
	Dedicated	£200.20	
	Job coaches	£174.00	
	Staffing ratio		11.89*** (2,525)
	1–9	£294.44	
	10–16	£208.62	
Acquisition	Management model		6.63** (1,525)
	One manager	2.11	
	Senior supervisors	1.91	
	Job finding model		5.85* (1,525)
	Dedicated	2.27	
	Job coaches	1.90	
	Management × job finding model		2.93 (2,525)
	Staffing ratio		
	1–9	2.13	
	10–16	1.75	
Compensation	Management model		0.11 (1,525)
	One manager	2.88	
	Senior supervisors	3.15	
	Job finding model		9.62** (1,525)
	Dedicated	3.72	
	Job coaches	2.55	
	Staffing ratio		52.20*** (2,525)
	1–9	5.50	
	10–16	2.76	
Work Role	Management model		19.84*** (1,525)
	One manager	3.19	
	Senior supervisors	4.31	
	Job finding model		60.73*** (1,525)
	Dedicated	4.79	
	Job coaches	2.89	
	Management × Job finding model		26.98*** (2,525)
	Staffing ratio		
	1–9	5.27	
	10–16	3.33	
Orientation	Management model		16.60*** (1,525)
	One manager	2.79	
	Senior supervisors	3.03	
	Job finding model		6.97** (1,525)
	Dedicated	3.44	
	Job coaches	2.79	
	Staffing ratio		40.99*** (2,525)
	1–8	5.16	
	9–12	2.66	
	13–15	2.76	

[+]All monetary values inflated to 2010 prices for comparison; *Significant at 0.05 level; **Significant at 0.01 level; ***Significant at 0.001 Level.

Table 8
Summary of stepwise regression analysis- significant variable models

	Monthly wage		Hours worked	
	Beta coefficient	T	Beta coefficient	T
Manager + senior supervisor	−62.82	−3.94***	–	–
Staff : Worker ratio	–	–	20.24	7.37***
Compensation	48.91	12.35***	11.79	11.44***
Work roles	−9.09	−2.21*	−2.81	−2.61**
Orientation	–	–	2.00	2.40*
Constant	129.97	5.59***	−30.77	−4.12***
Adjusted R^2	0.333		0.351	

*Significant at 0.05 Level; **Significant at 0.01 Level; ***Significant at 0.001 Level.

elements of the models being the same as seen before with the exception of management model where senior supervisor models score more highly. Again highest scores are positive from a typicalness perspective.

Orientation is significantly related to management model (favouring senior supervisor model), job coach model (favouring all purpose job coaches) and lower staff ratios. However differences between management and job coach types are all in the least typical areas of the Orientation scale. In the case of staff ratios, the highest Orientation scores are on the most typical part of the scale.

The correlation matrix in Table 4 suggested that the extent to which job coaches and job finders tried to maintain some reference to within-company procedures for hiring and inducting people may have an impact on hours worked and wages. Table 8 provides a stepwise regression analysis exploring the impact of typicalness factors and management factors (as dummy variables) together on wage and hours worked data. It shows that the only Beta coefficients reaching significance for monthly wages were for management model (negatively related to the senior supervisor model) and typical Compensation and Work Roles. For monthly hours worked, more factors were significant, including staff-worker ratio (positively related to lower ratios) and typical Compensation, Work Roles and Orientation. Typical Job Acquisition did not seem to have a major effect on either monthly hours worked or earnings. These two equations account for 33.3% of the variance in the case of monthly wage, and 35.1% in the case of monthly hours worked (based on adjusted R^2).

4. Conclusion

The study found significant differences in wage and hours worked variables between agencies, which must be a concern for anyone wishing for social justice in the support of ordinary life chances, irrespective of where one lives. Some aspects of agency organisation did have an impact on outcome, particularly whether the service operated a single rather than a two-tier management system, which impacted upon wage outcomes. Management model appeared to have an effect on outcome, and single manager agencies did seem to use more regular team meetings and supervision sessions than. Management model impacted on Compensation (where single managers scored more highly), Work Role and Orientation (where senor supervisor models scored more highly). Job coach time management, positive supervision, empowerment of front line staff are all likely to be requirements of an agency wishing to maximise advantage from use of natural support strategies. Job coach model (specialist job finders of job coaches that did everything) did not generally effect wage or working hours outcomes. However, job coach model did impact on the typicalness measures Acquisition, Compensation, Work Role and Orientation, where dedicated job finders had higher scores.

Data on the extent to which typicalness is being achieved also show significant differences between agencies, with few workers in the sample overall having been placed in completely typical environments. The most significant relationships were found between wage and typicalness of compensation package. Generally typicalness scores were disappointing averages tending towards atypicalness. The data show a majority of agencies served people with intellectual disabilities and only a minority were working with people in the severe range. It is also clear from the data that accommodations were provided for many people which established departures from the typical, not least the use of therapeutic earnings arrangements to allow people to retain welfare benefit and earn relatively small wages for small numbers of hours. A creative tension exists between the provision of specialist support and working

through the ordinary processes of the company in order for people to be placed in jobs and perform successfully. The analysis here does appear to show a benefit in terms of wages from greater typicalness and variation for people without significant requirement for job and process adaptation does not appear unjustified in terms of outcome.

Supported employment is a successful model but variability and benefit to people with disabilities differs. How supported employment operates matters. While there is awareness of the importance of typicalness and the importance of harnessing natural support has been in the system for many years, it does not seem to be impacting on the ground as much as might be expected in the UK. A coherent framework of government funding that commissions supported employment in ways that evidence suggests provide better outcomes is needed. Greater availability and use of technical assistance to assure that agency operation is up to best practice standards may be a way to change the availability of support for disabled people wishing to go into work radically, and to help agencies capitalise on the potential of effective approaches for enhancing outcomes.

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