

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND RETENTION IN PUBLIC CHILD WELFARE
SERVICES ORGANIZATIONS

by

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Organizational Culture and Retention in Public Child Welfare Services Organizations

Abstract

By

DAVID CHENOT

Workforce turnover is a significant problem in Public Child Welfare Services Agencies (PCWS) with estimated rates higher than 20% nationally and retention directly addresses this problem. The research represented in this dissertation focused on the organizational dynamics that affect retention in PCWS organizations following previous research on organizational dynamics and retention.

A cross-sectional survey research design was employed with a convenience sample of 767-PCWS employees recruited from 11-agencies in Central California. Multilevel modeling was utilized to investigate relationships between organizational or group level constructs and retention in PCWS agencies and in the field of Child Welfare Services (CWS) as individual level outcome variables. Organizational culture was the primary focus of the study but service quality and organizational climate were included as group level constructs as well. Four individual level variables collectively termed “work attitudes” were also included in several analyses.

Findings from the study revealed that hypotheses concerning the effects of organizational culture and service quality on retention were not supported. However, three of the work attitudes variables did have significant relationships with the outcome variables on the individual level. Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and

commitment to the field of CWS all predicted organizational retention. Job satisfaction and commitment to the field predicted retention in the field of CWS. The relationships between job satisfaction and both retention outcome variables were moderated by organizational climate. Two specific types of organizational climate, stress and engagement, moderated relationships between job satisfaction and both criterion variables. When stress was high the relationships between job satisfaction and both types of retention were weaker. When stress was relatively low the relationships between job satisfaction and both types of retention were stronger. The relationships between commitment to the field and retention in the field of CWS were moderated in a similar manner by both the stress and engagement types of organizational climate.

The implications of the study findings for policy and practice, such as the need to streamline roles and provide role clarity in Public Child Welfare Services organizations are offered.

Dedication

For my Lord and savior Jesus Christ, in whom I live, breath and have my being.

To my wife and children, Joyce, Krysten and Julianna. No words can accurately represent the depth of love and support you have given me. Thank you for, "...the peaceful quiet you create for me, and the way you keep the world at bay for me..." (Robison, Maguire, Maines & Wilson).

To my father and mother, Richard and Lou Chenot. Thank you for your unflagging support through the years. Mom, sleep in peace in the arms of the Lord.

This research is also dedicated to the social workers and other personnel in the PCWS agencies throughout Central California. Thank you for your dedication to the demanding jobs you take on each day and most of all for the care with which you offer services to the children and families you serve.

I would like to thank each of my committee members who were very supportive and answered a multitude of never ending questions; particularly Victor Groza Ph.D and Miriam Landsman Ph.D. I am also very appreciative to Charles Glisson Ph.D for his willingness to share his work and his interest in my research. Finally, Ryan Howell Ph.D deserves special recognition due to his ongoing help with a variety of statistical matters.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Retention and Turnover in Public Child Welfare Services

Turnover has been a longstanding problem in Public Child Welfare Services organizations. Since retention directly counteracts the problem of turnover, retention was a primary focus of this inquiry. Another emphasis in the study was the impact of organizational dynamics on retention in Public Child Welfare Services organizations. The research represented here relies on Glisson's previous conceptual and empirical work concerning organizational dynamics and Landsman's research on work attitudes and retention.

In a general sense, retention may be viewed as the opposite of turnover. The focus of this study was retention in Public Child Welfare Services (PCWS) agencies. However, a great deal of past research on these two outcomes within PCWS agencies has focused on the problem of turnover and the factors leading to turnover rather than retention and the factors that lead to retention. Therefore, the opening discussion of the problem addressed in this study will emphasize turnover and research findings concerning turnover in Public Child Welfare Services agencies. The research explicated in this document, however, will focus on retention as a desirable outcome in PCWS agencies that directly addresses the problem of turnover.

Extremely high turnover rates have plagued Public Child Welfare Services historically and continue to do so currently. Turnover rates have ranged from 30-60% annually (Mor Barak, Nissly, & Levin, 2001) and from 46% to as high as 90% in a two-year period (Drake & Yadama, 1996). The most current national data reveals turnover

rates between 15%-22% among case managers and social workers in Public Child Welfare Services (PCWS) agencies (American Public Human Services Association, 2005). The rates vary by task classification with the turnover rates among “child protective service workers” listed as the highest at 22.1%. This represents an increase in turnover rates from year 2000 data that yielded a rate of 19.9% (APHSA, 2005). It is also taking longer to fill positions in PCWS agencies than it did in 2000. In 2000 it took an average of six to seven weeks to fill all types of PCWS service provision positions, in 2003, however, it took from seven to thirteen weeks to fill those positions in PCWS agencies (APHSA, 2005).

A recent study of the Public Child Welfare Services workforce in California yielded comparatively low turnover rates (California Social Work Education Center, 2004). Statewide in the year 2002-2003 the average turnover rate was just below 9.8%. In raw numbers this average represents 796 social workers (or case managers) who left their positions out of a total of 8160 social workers (or case managers) statewide. These figures represent a large movement out of the PCWS workforce in California in a one-year period. The most recent data reveals that it has been taking an average of 16-weeks to fill vacant positions in California (Clark, 2004). Comparatively, this is a substantially longer period than the nationwide average cited above.

The disparity between national and California turnover rates may be interpreted in a variety of ways. For instance, perhaps California does a better job of retaining social workers and case managers in PCWS agencies than much of the rest of the nation. If so, it is important to determine what the PCWS agencies in California are doing differently than the rest of the nation. However, it is possible California’s lower retention rate can be

partially attributed to the influx of the large numbers of professionals and others in the general workforce who wish to live and work in California (and obtain positions in PCWS) compared to many states in other regions of the country. Attributing the superior retention rate to sheer workforce population growth may be considered a cynical view of the drawing power exerted by PCWS agencies as they recruit and retain employees, especially those who have lived in California for many years prior to joining the PCWS workforce. No matter what conclusions one reaches concerning the factors that contribute to the turnover rates in PCWS in California, 10% annual turnover remains highly problematic for these agencies. As a result, PCWS agency and Human Resources administrators in California have complained for many years about high turnover rates and the difficulty they have had finding solutions to the problem of retaining child welfare social workers.

Unfortunately, recent evidence paints a grim national picture of the prospect for filling positions with the most qualified candidates (educated and licensed social workers). According to the National Association of Social Workers' (NASW) Center for Workforce Studies, the workforce of social workers is aging more rapidly than the general workforce nationally and, therefore, contains less young social workers who could potentially fill the positions in PCWS in the most competent manner (Stoesen, 2005). The result of this trend will be more turnover due to the impending wave of retirements over the next few decades and less qualified social workers to fill vacated positions. Alarm concerning this forecast, however, should be tempered since the study only queried licensed social workers and it takes many social workers into their late 20s or beyond to procure a license, especially post-Master of Social Work (MSW) licenses.

To some degree, the sample in the study reflects the normal professional developmental trajectory for licensed social workers who are normally “older” by the time they earn a license. The study also has limited applicability concerning PCWS agencies that tend to hire low numbers of licensed social workers in many areas of the country. However, the results of the study certainly do not forecast an optimistic future concerning efforts to professionalize PCWS organizations by adding educated and licensed social workers.

In financial terms, Public CWS agencies, which are traditionally woefully underfunded, suffer significant consequences for the turnover of social workers. According to Flower, McDonald, and Sumski (2005) the costs of employee turnover are estimated by the U.S. Department of Labor to total approximately one-third of an employee’s annual salary. In another study, research on the costs associated with turnover in PCWS agencies resulted in the finding that each vacated position costs a typical PCWS agency in the Midwest region of the U.S.A. \$10,000 (in 1995 dollars) annually (Graef & Hill, 2000).

In a more recent study, the costs of turnover in PCWS for approximately 18-states (8-18 states responded) were estimated (APHSA, 2005). The authors followed conservative estimation guidelines and estimated that replacing workers (and supervisors) costs 70% of their annual salaries. The average salaries of all positions were used to arrive at cumulative estimates across several states (once again taking a conservative approach). The estimated costs of turnover in 2003 for between 8-18 states, for the narrowly defined positions of “CPS Worker,” and “Foster Care/Adoption Worker” (2161 positions) came to 53.84- million dollars. The estimated costs for the turnover in “Multiple Program Worker” positions were 37.61-million dollars (APHSA, 2005). If the

states in this study are even minimally representative of other states, then the level of expenditures caused by turnover in PCWS organizations across the nation are staggering.

Beyond financial considerations, turnover has an adverse effect on the work experience and morale of the social workers and case managers who remain in PCWS agencies as large numbers of their peers depart. They must cover the caseloads of those who leave and assist in the training and mentoring of new employees. As Graef and Hill (2000) point out, the unfortunate reality for remaining social workers and case managers in many PCWS agencies has become the consistently experienced 'normal operating procedure' of having to cover the caseloads of those who leave in order to train new workers. Others have suggested that high turnover rates create a 'vicious cycle' in PCWS in that the remaining workers experience elevated frustration due to increased workloads and dissatisfaction with the services they are able to offer which, in turn, leads to more turnover (Cahalane & Sites, 2004).

Turnover also affects all of the other systems and service providers affiliated with PCWS agencies. For instance, the court system may experience rescheduled hearings and other delays due to changes in workers (Flower et al., 2005).

The greatest costs of the high turnover rates in Public CWS, though, are experienced by the children and families served by CWS agencies. These costs are inestimable since they are endured by vulnerable children and families who often must live with the decisions of a series of social workers whose training, years of experience and varying levels of competence may be suspect. Children who may already have difficulties concerning trust and attachment are forced to form relationships with new social workers who will make decisions that will affect them for the rest of their lives

(Bednar, 2003). Trust and attachment can become such pervasive issues for these children that a child in one study who had been assigned a tenth social worker chose to forego learning the worker's name, simply referring to the worker as "Number Ten" (Flower, et al., 2005).

In fact, there is growing empirical evidence that links worker turnover, service quality and actual client outcomes in child welfare oriented services organizations (Flower, et al., 2005; Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998; Glisson & James, 2002; Hess, Folaron, & Jefferson, 1992). Though Glisson and Hemmelgarn (1998) did not use turnover as a specific variable in their research of PCWS organizations, turnover was discussed and informed the context of the study. They did study job satisfaction, however, which has been viewed in many studies as having a marked effect on either the turnover or retention of social workers and case managers (Cahalane & Sites, 2004; Landsman, 2000, 2001). Job satisfaction, (as an aspect of organizational climate) in Glisson and Hemmelgarn's (1998) study, was found to have an effect not only on service quality but actual client outcomes as well. The children served by the agencies that had positive climates (and, therefore, overall greater job satisfaction among workers) were more likely to experience significant improvements in psychosocial functioning, and the services they received were more likely to be characterized by comprehensiveness, continuity, responsivity and availability by case managers (Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998).

In a more recent study, Glisson and James (2002) found an inverse, significant, weak relationship ($r = -.13, p < .05$) between turnover and service quality in a PCWS system. The researchers also found that constructive team culture within PCWS

organizations was the most important predictor of both, lower turnover and higher service quality (Glisson & James, 2002). The findings in Glisson & James' (2002) study and the relationships between the variables used in their study will be elaborated further later in this literature review.

A case review study in a PCWS system in a high turnover eight-county region in Indiana revealed an untenable situation in which turnover led to high and at times uncovered caseloads (Hess, et al., 1992). The results for families included: poor assessments due to limited time spent with family members and minimal training for workers, recurrence of abuse and neglect due to poor decision-making, inadequate preparation time for workers with families prior to reunification, gaps in services and case coordination, and, limited supervision due to high workloads and time constraints. Remarkably, decisions concerning reunification of families were made in 47% of the cases by workers with six months or less work experience in PCWS (Hess, et al., 1992).

In a recent study in Milwaukee, Flower and colleagues (2005) found a high incidence of children assigned to multiple case managers over time due to turnover. They studied the achievement of permanence for a large sample of children (n=679) and discovered an inverse correlation between the number of workers a child was assigned and the achievement of permanence. The children achieving permanency dropped precipitously as the number of case managers they were assigned rose. Those with only one worker had a 74.5% permanency achievement rate while the rates for those with more than one worker ranged from 17.5% (2-workers) to .1% (6-7-workers) (Flower, et al., 2005). The connection between the instability of not achieving permanence and poor outcomes can be asserted by reviewing the research on children who have been in long

term out-of-home care placements and aged out of that type of care. Courtney, Piliavin, Grogan-Kaylor and Nesmith (2001) have demonstrated that the outcomes experienced by many of these children are often less than healthy.

The previous studies focused primarily on turnover while the current study will focus instead on retention. There does not appear to be any extant research on the effects of service quality and client outcomes in PCWS on retention. Judging from the studies mentioned above, one may hypothesize that increased service quality and positive or healthy client outcomes are more likely when retention rates are high in an agency than when there is great deal of turnover. However, there is no empirical evidence to support this hypothesis. Glisson and James (2002) did find a correlation between turnover and service quality. Therefore, a positive relationship between increased service quality and retention is likely but, once again, no evidence on this specific relationship in PCWS exists.

There has also been a lack of research on the impact of organizational dynamics on the quality of services PCWS social workers provide, organizational performance and retention. Limited research has been pursued concerning some aspects of organizational dynamics in PCWS agencies and the retention of social workers (Ellett, 2000, 2004; Ellett & Millar, 2001; Ellett & Rugutt, 2005; Glisson & James, 2002; Landsman, 2000; 2001, 2002, 2005). One study has included organizational dynamics and their effects on both turnover and service quality in PCWS agencies (Glisson & James, 2002). However, there do not appear to be any studies on PCWS organizations that include organizational dynamics and their effects on service quality and retention.

The present study will begin to fill this gap in the social work research knowledge-base by investigating the effects of organizational dynamics on the retention of PCWS social workers and case managers. In addition, an examination of service quality in PCWS organizations will be included.

Study Aims

The purpose of this study is to explore the dynamics of organizational culture and the influence of organizational culture on the experiences of social workers and case managers in Public Child Welfare Services organizations. Since organizational culture appears to have an effect on the retention of social workers and case managers in PCWS organizations, the goal of this study is to investigate the relationship between organizational culture and retention in Public Child Welfare Services organizations in Central California. The specific aims of this study include: 1.) identify the prevailing cultural characteristics in PCWS agencies; 2.) investigate the relationships between cultural types and levels of retention; 3.) evaluate the potential predictive influence specific cultural types exert on levels of retention.

In addition to the organizational dynamics that are central to this exploration the attitudes of employees are likely to yield a great deal of information about individual experiences in PCWS organizations. Work attitudes are created from the perceptions social workers and case managers have about their PCWS agencies and the roles they play as employees in those agencies. They also serve as indicators of the “fit” social workers and case managers experience between themselves and their agencies. The cultures of PCWS organizations are likely to impact the work attitudes of the social workers and case managers who function within these organizations. Specific aims

concerning work attitudes include: 1.) identify work attitudes among social workers and case managers; 2.) investigate the relationships between organizational culture, work attitudes and retention; 3.) evaluate the potential predictive effects of organizational culture and work attitudes on retention.

Finally, service quality may be a powerful indicator of organizational outcomes. Organizational members' perceptions of service quality may play a particularly important part in employees' commitment to their organizations and willingness to remain employed there. In this study, the interplay between organizational culture and service quality will be examined. This relationship is likely to exert influence on the decisions social workers and case managers make concerning their willingness to remain in PCWS agencies in Central California. The current study include an inquiry into this relationship and the retention of PCWS social workers and case managers. Specific aims include: identify the views of social workers and case managers concerning service quality. Investigate the relationships between organizational culture, service quality and retention. Evaluate the influence organizational culture and service quality exert on retention.

In summary, the aims of this study are to investigate the relationships between types of organizational culture, work attitudes, service quality and retention in Central California PCWS organizations.

A note concerning an operational definition that will be assumed throughout this study may be informative at this juncture. Within PCWS agencies in Central California, employees who fulfill responsibilities as line workers in positions which require either bachelors or master's degrees may consider themselves either "social workers" or "case managers." Though those who were educated specifically in social work (with applicable

bachelors or master's degrees) are included in their ranks, many of these service providers are not formally educated as social workers. In order to remain inclusive of all workers who fulfill direct service positions at these levels in PCWS agencies in Central California, the terms social workers and case managers will be used together or interchangeably in this study.

CHAPTER II

MAJOR CONSTRUCTS AND THEORY

Many questions have not yet been addressed or resolved in studies concerning the retention of social workers and case managers in Public Child Welfare Services organizations. The major constructs that will be considered in the current study appear in Figure 1.

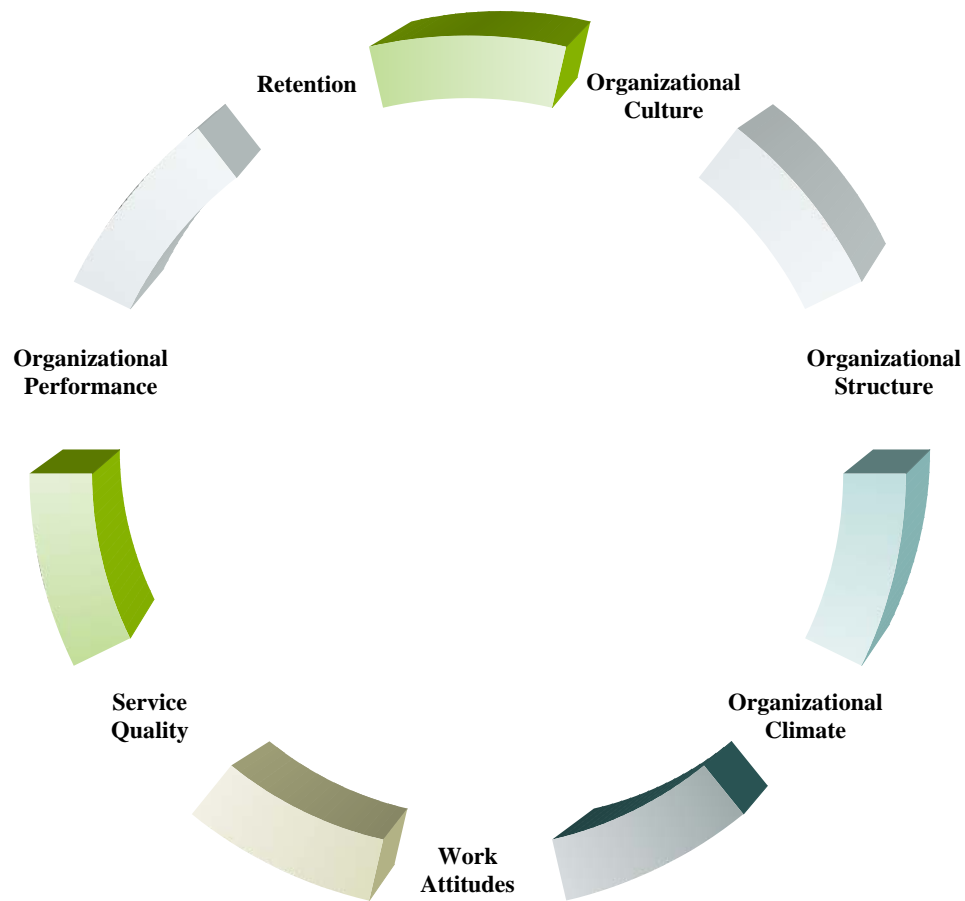


Figure 1. Major Constructs

The constructs in Figure 1 begin with organizational culture and end with retention as one reads the figure clockwise. When read in this manner, the progression of constructs in the circle, foreshadow the research questions in the study. The questions incorporate investigative emphases on organizational culture in PCWS agencies and the influence exerted by organizational culture on several variables, chief among them, the retention of social workers and case managers. However, two constructs included in Figure 1 will be considered conceptually but not examined empirically in the current study in order to narrow the focus of the research. They are organizational structure and overall organizational performance. All other constructs in Figure 1 will be both conceptually and empirically examined in the current study.

Conceptual considerations concerning all of the constructs highlighted in Figure 1 will be addressed in the following section, Chapter III, on theory and previous research concerning each construct will be presented in the subsequent section, Chapter IV. Those constructs that will be investigated in this study will be discussed in terms of their inclusion in the research design, operational definitions, specific measurement issues, etc. in Chapter VII.

Theory

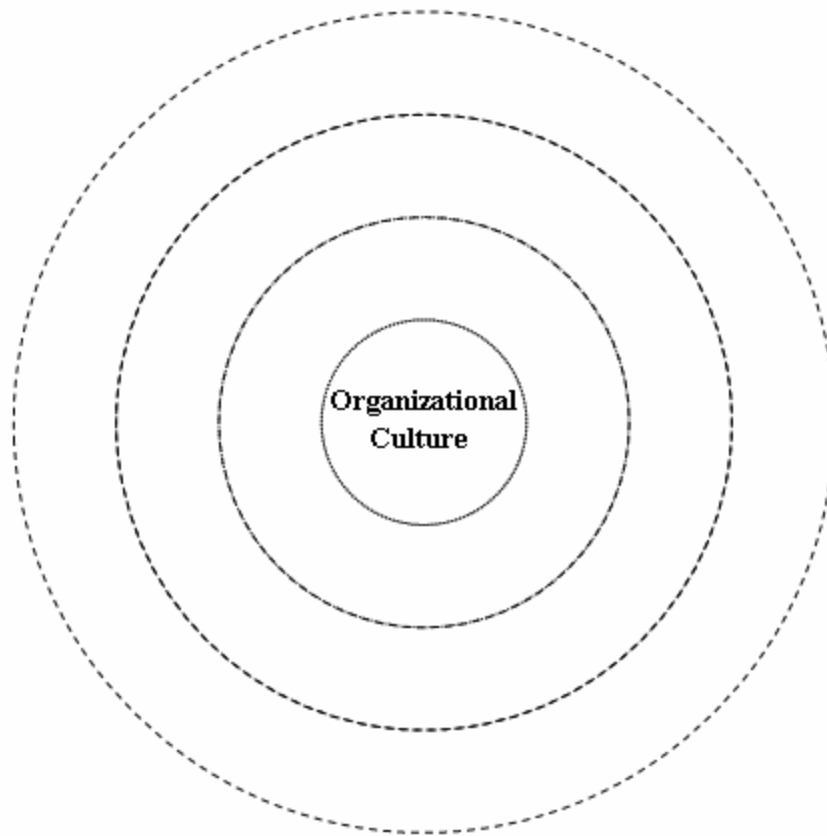


Figure 2. Progressive Conceptual Model - Culture

Organizational Culture

Figure 2 is the initial layer of a progressive conceptual model that displays organizational culture as the core construct in the current study. The model will develop as other key concepts are considered in the Theory section of this literature review within Figures 2-7 and Figure 9.

The construct of organizational culture has been the subject of a wide variety of conceptual perspectives and definitions (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Schein, 1990; Verbeke, Volering, & Hessels, 1998). Historically, most writers trace the origins of the construct to Pettigrew's (1979) article *On Studying Organizational Cultures* though the term organizational culture may have been used earlier (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000; Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990). Subsequently, a rich body of literature developed concerning organizational culture in many different disciplines, including psychology, sociology, anthropology, organizational behavior, economics, management, business and social work.

Organizational culture is normally conceived as a "deep" construct, since it is concerned with the meanings, assumptions, beliefs and values shared by those in organizations (Glisson, 2002; Glisson & James, 2002; Schneider, 2000). Culture is often viewed as the core construct that underlies and informs all other organizational constructs and variables in organizational studies (Glisson, 2002; see Figure 1). For instance, the essence of organizational culture lies underneath the layer of actual behavior among organizational members but includes shared expectations concerning behavior within the organization (Glisson, 2002; Hofstede, 1998). Anthropology has long been the discipline most concerned with the general notion of culture and anthropologists have been the researchers who immersed themselves in various cultures to try to identify shared meaning in those cultures. Therefore, some argue that organizational culture is most appropriately studied with ontological traditions often associated with anthropology, such as the social constructionist perspective, utilizing qualitative methods (Schein, 1990; Schein, 2000; Ashkanasy, et al., 2000). In fact, Schein (2000) argues that quantitative

methods, especially survey research, “force researchers to cast their theoretical nets too narrowly” (Schein, 2000, p., xxvii). Many researchers have agreed with Schein’s point of view and therefore, the research on organizational culture has often been characterized by qualitative studies and mixed methods studies among researchers from many disciplines (Ashkanasy, et al., 2000; Deem, 2003; Denison, 1996; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Globberman & Bogo, 2003; Haruta & Hallahan, 2003; Haugh & McKee, 2003; Hofstede, et al., 1990; Hong, 2001; Lewis, 2003; Milet, Cress, & Darlington, 2002; Snyder, 1995). However, researchers aligned more closely with a structural realist ontology have used quantitative methods to explore organizational culture as well (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000; Ashkanasy, Broadfoot, & Falkus, 2000; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Cooke & Szumal, 2000; Glisson & James, 2002; Rousseau, 1990a, 1990b). Interestingly, anthropologically oriented social workers have also studied organizational culture using quantitative methods (Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005).

Holistic, variable and cognitive theoretical perspectives have developed from diverse approaches to the study of organizational culture (Verbeke, Volgering & Hessels, 1998, following Sackmann). The holistic perspective is characterized by anthropological influences and involves both cognitive and behavioral patterns of culture. Organizational culture is viewed as consisting of traditional or historically selected ideas, behaviors and related values. Definitions of organizational culture that emerge from this perspective focus on concepts such as, the patterns that develop in organizations and the manner in which organizational members learn about these historically determined patterns. Traditions and patterns can be viewed as rituals that develop and become part of

normative experience within the organization. They develop from expectations shared among organizational members.

The variable perspective includes the notion that organizational culture is a variable that can be controlled and manipulated to promote change. This perspective includes behaviors and practices that are linked to underlying meanings in the organization. It is the perspective typified by the phrase, ‘this is the way we do things around here.’ This perspective is typically associated with the behavioral sciences and the theory of symbolic interactionism that originated in sociology. (See also, Smircich, 1983).

Finally, the cognitive perspective involves “what people have on their minds.” Organizational culture is viewed as a system of meanings and knowledge that develop into learned standards. These standards allow organizational members to evaluate their own behavior in relation to others and, conversely, others’ behavior in relation to organizational standards. The concepts linked most closely to the cognitive perspective are beliefs, norms and values (Verbeke, et al., 1998). Applying the categories explicated by Verbeke, et al. (1998), the approach taken in this study can most clearly be placed within the variable perspective. Some features of the cognitive perspective will be integrated as well.

Martin (1995, 2002) posited that three types of theoretical perspectives have emerged in the conceptualization of organizational culture in the literature: integration, differentiation, and fragmentation. The integration perspective involves the notion of consensus within an organization. This does not mean there must be unanimity in order

for attributes of the culture to be identified but that clarity about the prevailing culture is gained through consensus among organizational members.

The differentiation perspective wrestles with the inconsistent interpretations of culture that lead to ambiguity across the organization but locates consensus among subcultures within the organization. The sense of culture may be quite ambiguous and even conflictual or chaotic within the organization as a whole yet simultaneously it may be quite unified among subcultures within the organization. This, of course, leads to subgroup cultures that are quite different within the same organization.

The fragmentation perspective presents organizational culture as ambiguous in that the manifestations of culture are “neither clearly consistent nor clearly inconsistent.” Consensus from this point of view emerges but is fleeting and usually focused on specific issues for the time-limited period it exists (Martin, 2002).

Martin (1995, 2002) views all three perspectives as complementary and proposes utilizing all three in studies of organizational culture. In fact, Martin (1995) asserts that any cross-sectional research in an organization that is pursued in depth will inevitably turn up evidence that fits all three perspectives. However, in order to accommodate all three perspectives, the notion of organizational culture as shared meaning must be applied in a flexible manner. Indicators of shared meaning are accompanied by contradictions, conflicts and unstable consensus that must also be considered aspects of an organization’s culture in order to incorporate all three perspectives (Martin, 2002). In other words, in order to simultaneously account for all three types of culture, the interpretation of shared meaning must be applied in a liberal enough manner that it allows

for conflicts, contradictions and unstable, issue-specific consensus among organizational subgroups while identifying broad shared meaning among organizational members.

Organizational Culture - Definition

There is little consensus concerning the definition of organizational culture among theorists (Glisson, 2000; Schein, 1990; Verbeke, et al., 1998). In a content analysis of the literature on organizational culture, Verbeke, et al., (1998), discovered 54 definitions of the construct. The one element that virtually all definitions have in common is the notion that organizational culture is *shared* by those in the organization (Schneider, 2000). Beyond the shared nature of organizational culture, many definitions include most of the following four aspects: organizational culture is composed of the shared assumptions, values, beliefs and behavioral norms within organizations (Glisson, 2000). These shared values, beliefs and norms directly affect the manner in which participants in the organization interact and carry out tasks (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988).

Perhaps the most cited definition of organizational culture is the one provided by Schein (1985) in which he asserts that culture resides at the,

...deeper level of *basic assumptions and beliefs* that are shared by members of an organization, that operate unconsciously, and that define in a basic 'taken-for-granted' fashion an organization's view of itself and its environment. These assumptions and beliefs are *learned* responses to a group's problems of *survival* in its external environment and its problems of *internal integration*. They come to be taken for granted because they solve those problems repeatedly and reliably (p. 6, italics in the original).

Schein (1985) goes on to distinguish assumptions and beliefs from “artifacts” and “values” that he views as “manifestations on surface levels” of cultures that actually reside on deeper levels. Other scholars have adopted Schein’s perspective for their inquiries and view it as offering a “three-level typology” of assumptions and beliefs, values and artifacts and patterns of behavior (Ashkanasy, Broadfoot & Falkus, 2000).

Core beliefs and values inform all aspects of the organization and are realized in the attitudes and behaviors of those in the organization. From this perspective, the attitudes and beliefs of organizational members emerge as the primary manifestations of the culture within the organization.

There are at least two types of organizational culture; constructive and defensive (Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Cooke & Szumal, 2000; Glisson, 2002, Glisson & James, 2002). Constructive cultures are characterized by values, beliefs and shared behavioral expectations related to the fulfillment of higher order satisfaction needs. The norms and shared behavioral expectations that form in constructive cultures include; achievement and the motivation to excel, the quest for self-actualization, a humanistic orientation marked by supportive behaviors concerning coworkers, and primarily positive interpersonal interactions (Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Glisson, 2002; Glisson & James, 2002).

Defensive cultures may be viewed as typified by values, beliefs and shared behavioral expectations that fulfill lower order security and protection needs. The norms and shared behavioral expectations that develop in defensive cultures include; the need for approval from others (particularly those in authority), consensus among employees, conformity with the conventional manner of operating in the organization (accompanied by a rule-following orientation), high levels of dependency and even subservience, and

evasion of responsibility, blame and accountability (Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Glisson, 2002; Glisson & James, 2002).

Values, Attitudes and Behavior: Conceptual and Measurement Issues

Values, particularly in an organizational sense, can be defined as, “global beliefs” that form the basis for attitudes, choice-making and behaviors (Connor & Becker, 1994; Stackman, Pinder, & Connor, 2000). Hofstede, et al. (1990) place values at the core of their classification model concerning the manifestations of organizational culture (along with rituals, heroes, and symbols). This is the deepest aspect of their model that they link directly to behaviors. Shared values may be viewed, then, as the beliefs commonly held or “normalized” among those in an organization. Whether they are perceived as affecting actions through attitudes or as directly affecting attitudes and behavior simultaneously as Stackman, et al., (2000) assert, the key linkage is between values and behavior.

In a study unrelated to organizational culture, Homer & Kahle (1988) found what they termed a “hierarchy” between values, attitudes and behaviors, in that, values were correlated most strongly with attitudes that mediated the association between values and behaviors. Attitudes had a significant effect on behaviors. This is particularly important from an empirical standpoint since behaviors are clearly measurable and may be perceived as reflecting the attitudes and, therefore, the values that drive them. Attitudes are strongly affected by values and are also quite measurable. As Hofstede, (1998) states, “Virtually all surveys of employees in organizations cover attitudes...and information about attitudes is relatively easy to translate into practical conclusions” (p. 479). From this perspective, information about both behavior and attitudes will be elicited by the survey utilized in this study. Therefore, behavior and attitudes are not only valuable indicators but form integral aspects of what Cooke & Szumal (2000) posit as the directly

value-informed dimensions of organizational cultures: concern for people, concern for tasks, the fulfillment of higher order satisfaction needs (i.e., self actualization) and self preservation through fulfillment of lower order security needs. These dimensions and the attending behavioral norms that develop in organizations will be discussed further in the methods section since the measures used in this study are based on the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) that is composed of the dimensions mentioned above (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Cooke & Szumal, 2000).

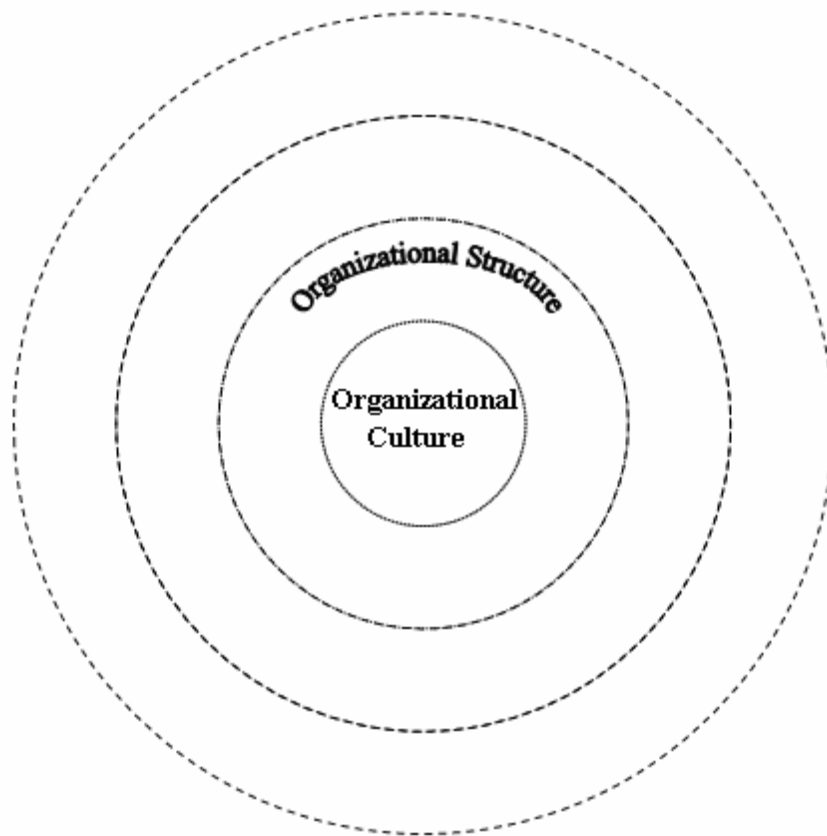


Figure 3. Progressive Conceptual Model - Structure

Organizational Structure

The structure of organizations is directly related to organizational culture and climate. Organizational structure is often included as a major aspect of studies on organizational design (Butler, 1995). As a construct, organizational structure refers to the rules concerning decision making that are established formally or informally in organizations and the authority to make decisions (Butler, 1995). Treatments of structure usually include discussions of the various dimensions of structure or types of structures found in organizations. Dimensions of structure are often delineated by variables such as formalization, specialization, centralization/decentralization of authority (to make decisions), hierarchy of influence, degree of role specification, etc. (Butler, 1995; Cooke & Szumal, 2000; Glisson, 2000).

According to Schein (1985), structure offers the members of an organization predictability. Structure reduces anxiety concerning ambiguity and uncertainty because members know what to expect. This is accomplished by offering a reliable quality to both hierarchical and collegial relationships within the organization (Schein, 1985).

Organizational culture seems to have a close relationship with organizational structure. Cooke and Szumal (2000) frame the relationship between structure and culture in the following manner; structure shapes the culture of the organization in that the structure shapes behavior among organizational members. Some behaviors are required or encouraged and others are forbidden or discouraged in order to maintain the structure.

Schein (1985) views an organization's structure as a "key element of the culture." The culture informs the development of the structure and the structure in turn "implies" through "assumptions" information about tasks, and relationships among members in the organization that emanate from the "content" of the culture (Schein, 1985). He points out

that two organizations with identical structures could have dramatically different cultures and organizations with similar cultures could develop quite different structures (Schein, 1985). In each case, the structure may develop in a variety of ways but the underlying assumptions and beliefs at the core of organizational culture directly affect structural development and maintenance in all organizations.

Most likely, the relationships between the dimensions of culture and structure are reciprocal in nature (Glisson, 2002; Lawler, 1992). Conceptually this makes sense and Cooke and Szumal's (2000) findings seem to bear this out. For instance, a structure characterized by decentralized influence in an organization may encourage proactive, positive behaviors but these types of behaviors also assist in maintaining a decentralized structure by justifying shared influence.

Organizational climate and organizational structure are also closely related. In fact, in the early decades of organizational climate research, many researchers considered structure an important aspect of organizational climate (James & Jones, 1974; Steers & Porter, 1975; von Haller Gilmer & Deci, 1977). Others have discovered high correlations between organizational climate and structure-specific variables (Payne & Mansfield, 1973).



Figure 4. Progressive Conceptual Model - Climate

Organizational Climate

A brief discussion of organizational climate is an important addition to the consideration of organizational culture. Organizational climate and culture are inextricably linked constructs both theoretically and in terms of empirical inquiry. The history of theory construction and the measurement of organizational climate predate the study of organizational culture by at least two decades (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974). In fact, the term climate appears to have been coined in an organizational context by Lewin, Lippitt & White in 1939 and was subsequently developed by researchers who were heavily influenced by Lewin's field theory (cited in Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson,

2000). Some of the seminal empirical inquiry concerning organizational climate was pursued by Likert in the 1950s-1960s, who developed some of his work on survey research using organizational climate studies (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000). In the subsequent decades a great deal of work has been carried out on organizational climate including many empirical studies that have been primarily quantitative in nature (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974; James & Jones, 1974; Denison, 1996; Payne & Mansfield, 1973; Payne, 2000).

Like definitions of organizational culture, definitions of organizational climate vary widely. Verbeke, et al., (1998) discovered thirty-two different definitions of the construct in their content analysis of relevant academic literature from 1960-1993. Generally, most definitions include conceptualizations of the “patterns of influence” exercised through the “prevailing environmental conditions” inherent in the organization on its members (Sells & James, 1988). The notion of prevailing organizational environmental conditions highlights reliance on the metaphor of the environmental impact exerted by weather patterns in the physical environment. This metaphor led to the use of the term organizational climate (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000).

The key common aspect of climate definitions, according to Verbeke, et al., (1998), appears to focus on the, “...the way people perceive and come to describe the characteristics of their environment...” (pp. 319-320). These perceptions are shared and involve the individual’s common or similar perceptions of various aspects of their work environments. Verbeke, et al., (1998, following Moran and Volkwein), posit four perspectives on organizational climate in the literature. However, since they all include a strong emphasis on shared perceptions, the psychological element of each appears to be

central to any conception of climate. This is typified by James and colleagues' view of organizational climate as composed of the shared psychological climates experienced by individual organizational members (Glisson, 2000; James & Jones, 1974; Sells & James, 1988). Psychological climate can be defined as, "...an employee's perceptions of the psychological impact of the work environment on his or her own personal well-being" (Glisson, 2000, p. 197). This leads to a conception of organizational climate as composed of shared psychological climates. To summarize, organizational members' perceptions of their work environments and the effects their work environments have on them, whether they are positive, negative or a complex mix of these evaluations, comprise organizational climate.

Some variables which have been linked to organizational climate in past studies include the following: role related variables, such as role ambiguity, role conflict, etc., reward systems, job design (effectiveness), supervisor support, peer support, mentoring, professional development and training, have most often been considered aspects of organizational climate in the literature (Cahalane & Sites, 2004; Glisson, 2000; Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998; James & James, 1989; James & Jones, 1974; Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990; Sells & James, 1988; Wiley & Brooks, 2000). Many of these variables within organizations are undoubtedly influenced to varying degrees by the shared beliefs, values, and norms among the workforce (culture). However, they can be most closely linked to employees' shared psychological experience of these elements of the work environment (climate).

Differentiation Between Organizational Culture and Organizational Climate

There has been a great deal of conceptual confusion concerning organizational climate and culture in the literature that has, at times, included indiscriminate use of the terms (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000, Glisson, 2000, Verbeke, et al. 1998). This confusion has led some scholars to suggest that the true differences between culture and climate may be more about the theoretical foundations, methods of inquiry and the actual interpretations applied to the phenomena being analyzed than the phenomena themselves (Denison, 1996). In fact, Denison (1996) concludes that the two arenas of study, "...actually address a common phenomenon: the creation and influence of social contexts in organizations" (p. 646). On an abstract level, Denison's point appears to be accurate, however, the studies of culture and climate have quite different foci when levels of observation and measurement are taken into consideration. Differences in emphases concerning the aspects of "social contexts" in the organizations being studied differentiate well-designed, climate and culture studies.

Studies that simultaneously include elements of both culture and climate require clear delineation of the two constructs. In order to differentiate the two constructs in the current study, they will be framed in the following manner: Organizational culture is viewed as pertaining to the assumptions and beliefs that inform the values, attitudes and behavioral norms that develop in organizations. Perceptions concerning values, attitudes and behavioral norms are shared by organizational members. Overall consensus among respondents can be identified even if there is dramatic variation among subcultures.

Organizational climate related perceptions are also shared but can be distinguished from perceptions of assumptions, beliefs, values and behavioral norms

(Glisson, 2000; Glisson & James, 2002). Climate concerns the individuals' perceptions of various aspects of the actual work environment and the manner in which the environment affects them. Individuals' psychological perceptions of their work environment are shared and form an organizational climate.

In light of the definitions considered above, a complex reciprocal relationship between culture and climate in an organization appears to be unavoidable, though there has not been much empirical evidence to support theorized relationships between the two constructs (Glisson, 2000). This is undoubtedly due to the high level of complexity involved with such an undertaking. Interestingly, some scholars have proposed that the study of organizational climate is a way to access the measurement of organizational culture (Payne, 2000). It seems most helpful, however, to use construct-specific methodologies that target either culture or climate differentially even when they are included in the same study. When the two constructs have been measured simultaneously, there is empirical evidence that they are distinct in nature and can be differentiated in a manner that will eventually allow for investigations of the reciprocal dynamics involved as they are enacted in organizations (Glisson & James, 2002)

In the current study, organizational culture and climate will be viewed as distinct but closely related constructs. As will be explicated in the *Conceptual Model* section, organizational culture is viewed as having a primary effect on all of the other variables in the study. Organizational climate is seen as directly related to organizational culture in a manner that is stronger than the relationships between culture and any of the other variables in the study.



Figure 5. Progressive Conceptual Model - Work Attitudes

Work Attitudes

Another category of constructs that will be a focus in the current study have been collectively termed “work attitudes” related directly to “work behavior” (Glisson, 2002). This group of constructs includes the following variables: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, commitment to the field of Child Welfare Services, and service orientation.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been utilized as a primary variable in literally thousands of workforce and other work related studies over many decades. The general definition of the construct has been framed as: “the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience” (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). Arvey (1995) offers a definition that is quite similar yet allows for greater conceptual range (between the poles of satisfaction/dissatisfaction) by offering the following neutral terms: the affective/emotional state(s) resulting from the overall appraisal of one’s job experienced by an individual. The later definition is most helpful for measurement purposes. Obviously there is a cognitive aspect related to the appraisal element of these definitions, however, the notion of satisfaction connects more directly to affective states than cognitions.

Commitment

Commitment has to do with the level of attachment or loyalty an employee has to an organization or profession/occupation (Guest, 1995). Organizational commitment has been defined as the, relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). It includes the following conceptual aspects: “(a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values; (b) willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization” (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982, p. 27). Most uses of the concept of either occupational or professional commitment appear to apply the same or similar conceptual factors to occupations or professions that Mowday, Porter, and

Steers, (1982) apply to organizations (Giffords, 2003; Landsman, 2000; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993).

Commitment has been differentiated in many ways, most commonly as: affective, continuance, normative and behavioral commitment (Guest, 1995; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). All of these types of commitment have varying degrees of effects on turnover or retention (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). Affective commitment represents an affective attachment and identification with an organization or occupation/profession (Guest, 1995; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). Affective commitment has yielded the strongest correlations with job performance among the types of commitment (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). Normative commitment is connected to the perceived obligation to remain with an organization or in a field of work while continuance commitment has more to do with appraisal of the cost to the employee of leaving the organization or field (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). Behavioral commitment involves the explicit, public or social, intent to act that makes the decision to act difficult to change. This type of commitment increases the probability of subsequent action (Guest, 1995).

Service Orientation

Service orientation has been used as a concept of interest in studies of retention among Public Child Welfare Services case managers and social workers in the past (Landsman, 2000, 2001, 2005). The fundamental meaning of this concept involves the individual social worker/case manager's belief that social work is a valuable service to society (Landsman, 2000, 2001). Landsman (2000, 2001) views service orientation as an

essential component of “professional identification” among social workers. Service orientation may be contextualized as the individual social worker/case manager’s belief in the value of social work within the field of Public Child Welfare Services. This conceptualization resonates with some aspects of Ellett, (2000) and Ellett and Millar’s (2001) conceptualization of professional commitment among social workers employed in PCWS agencies.

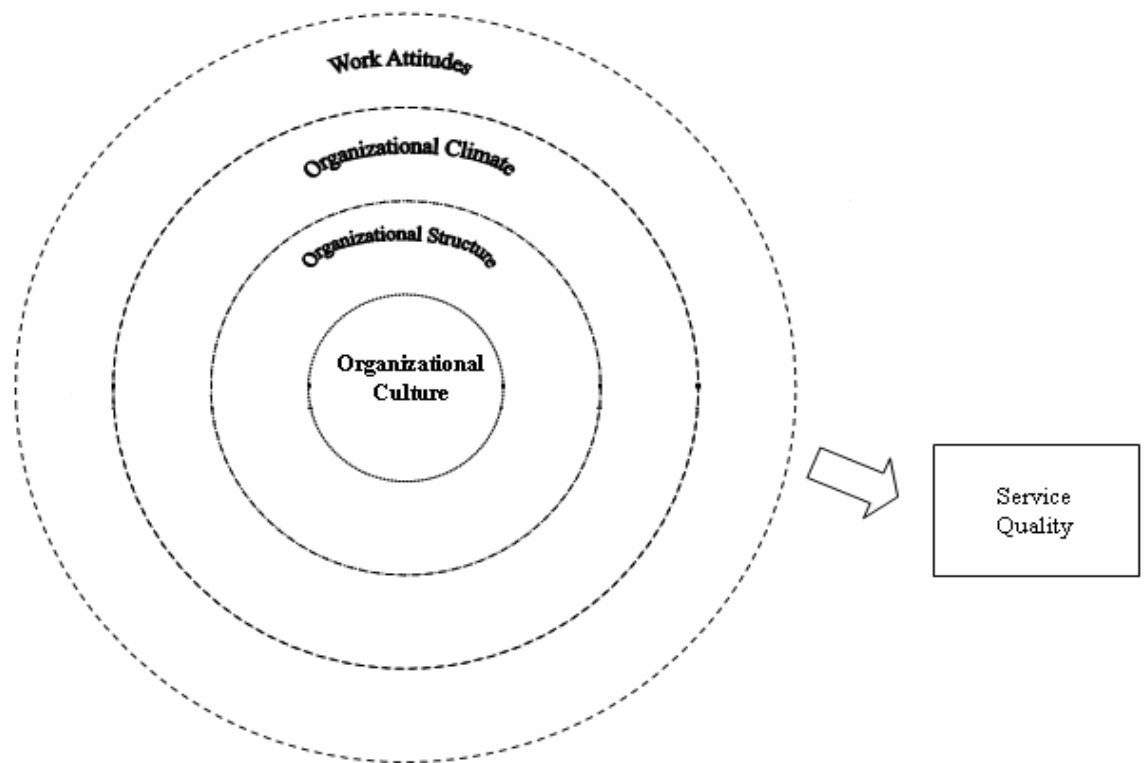


Figure 6. Progressive Conceptual Model - Service Quality

Service Quality

Service quality is an important aspect of social work in PCWS organizations on all levels (individual, team/unit or organizational). Service quality may be defined from

client satisfaction or process orientations (Cooke & Szumal, 2000; Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998; Martin & Kettner, 1996). In PCWS organizations it seems most appropriate to adopt a process approach to service quality in view of the difficulties surrounding the measurement of client satisfaction among those clients who are unwilling participants in the PCWS system.

From a process point of view, the concept of service quality has been defined as including the following dimensions: comprehensiveness of services offered, continuity of service provision, availability of services to those who need them and the responsiveness of providers offering services (Glisson, 2002; Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998; Glisson & James, 2002). Comprehensiveness denotes the quantity and range of services provided to children and their families, while continuity of services is required so the services offered by various providers are coordinated in an effective manner (Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998).

The notions of availability and responsiveness are particularly important in PCWS service delivery. These aspects of service quality affect the ongoing relationships social workers/case managers develop and maintain with clients while delivering services to them. Availability has to do with the amount of time (number and frequency of contacts) social workers/case managers spend with their clients and responsiveness signifies the ability to address clients' needs, particularly the effective exercise of problem solving skills by social workers/case managers when clients encounter difficulties (Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998).

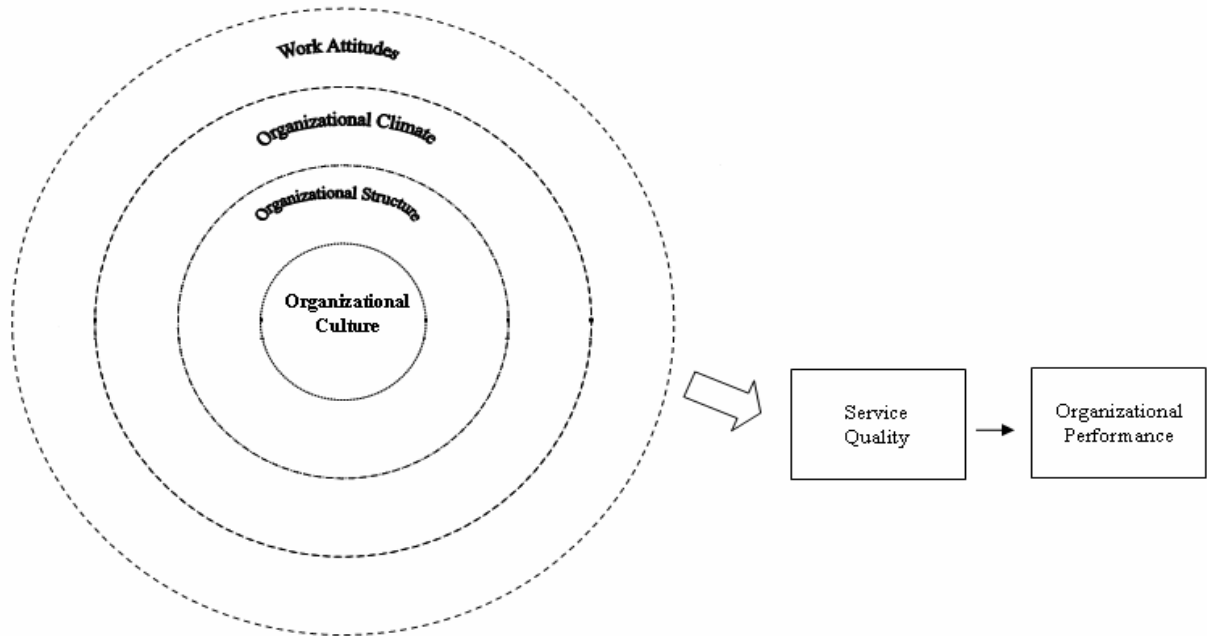


Figure 7. Progressive Conceptual Model - Performance

Organizational Performance

In some conceptualizations there is a great deal of overlap between service quality and organizational performance. In fact, they may be considered aspects of the same phenomena in some contexts (Martin & Kettner, 1996). However, there is also some evidence that they can be conceptualized and measured as unique phenomena depending on the manner in which the concepts are framed (Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998).

Most considerations of organizational performance focus on the measurement of performance. Measurement may be accomplished with various emphases. There are at least three major perspectives of performance in human services organizations that have

been the subject of measurement: outputs, quality and outcomes (Martin & Kettner, 1996). Performance, as it is often perceived in PCWS organizations, normally centers around outcomes oriented measurement, though aspects of structure and process may be important subjects of measurement as well (Barth, Courtney, Needell, & Jonson-Reid, 1994; Wells & Johnson, 2001). The advantage of using outcomes as the chief indicators of organizational performance is the inclusion of the impact the organization has on its clientele as an aspect of performance. Also, some writers have linked outcome measurement to organizational culture in PCWS. Wells and Johnson (2001) suggest that the use of outcome measurement can be seen as an “intervention in management and agency culture” that forces changes “at all staffing levels to a focus on achieving outcomes” producing accountability and potentially altering organizational culture in child welfare organizations (pp. 177-178).

Outcomes as measures of performance in human services organizations have been defined as, “...the results, impacts, or accomplishments of human services programs as measured by quality-of-life changes in clients” (Martin & Kettner, 1996, p., 51). The current emphases most commonly used for outcome measurement in PCWS practice, were established through the Child and Family Services Reviews (CFSR) process (effective March, 2000), which was an extension of the Adoption and Safe Families Act of 1997 (PL 105-89). They are: safety, permanence and child well-being (ASFA, 1997; Courtney, Needell, & Wulczyn, 2004). Key figures in PCWS research have been critical of the CFSR standards for several reasons including the validity of the measurement methodology applied to the state PCWS data for evaluative purposes (Courtney, et al, 2004). Nevertheless, since they have been federally mandated, these widely applied

guidelines for performance evaluation are used in PCWS organizations in California. Alternative frameworks for outcome measures in PCWS have also been established. Overall, they are complementary to the CFSR outcome guidelines.

Courtney, et al (2004) elaborate on the three key elements of the CFSR outcome guidelines in the follow manner:

Safety

Children are, first and foremost, protected from abuse and neglect.

Children are safely maintained in their homes whenever possible and appropriate.

Permanency

Children have permanency and stability in their living situations.

The continuity of family relationships and connections is preserved for children.

Family and child well-being

Families have enhanced capacity to provide for their children's needs.

Children receive appropriate services to meet their educational needs.

Children receive adequate services to meet their physical and mental health needs.

(p. 1144).

Though overall organizational performance may be an important factor concerning the relationships between organizational dynamics and the retention of social workers and case managers, it will not be examined as a factor in the research design of the current study due to the limited scope of the study.

Retention

The great need to recruit and retain social workers in Public Child Welfare Services has been the impetus behind research on turnover and retention in PCWS. Early

studies adopted a problem-oriented perspective and focused on the negative alternative to retention by emphasizing turnover and the problems caused by turnover (Mor Barak, Nissly, & Levin, 2001, Vinokur-Kaplan, 1991). Much of this literature grew out of the burgeoning conceptual and empirical literature on turnover in the fields of psychology and organizational behavior and was applied to a variety of populations (Abelson, 1987; Bartol, 1979; March & Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1982; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979; Porter & Steers, 1973; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Youngblood, Mobley, & Meglino, 1983). A specific set of literature on the phenomenon known as burnout and the influence of burnout on turnover also developed as one major aspect of turnover research (Edelwich & Brodsky, 1980; Farber, 1990; Farber, 1991; Freudenberger, 1974; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, 1982; Maslach & Jackson, 1986; Pines & Maslach, 1976; Shirom, 1989; Weisberg, 1994).

Borrowing from turnover research in other disciplines, researchers in the field of social work studied the role burnout plays in the turnover of social workers. Past studies have focused on social workers in various settings, including those in Public Child Welfare Services (Jayaratne & Chess, 1983; Jayaratne & Chess, 1984; Jayaratne, Himle, & Chess, 1991; Knapp, Harissis, & Missiakoulis, 1981; Poulin & Walter, 1993; Powell & York, 1992; Samantrai, 1992; Savicki & Cooley, 1994; Siefert, Jayaratne, & Chess, 1991; Soderfeldt, Soderfeldt, & Warg, 1995; Tollen, 1960, Vinokur-Kaplan, 1991). Recently, however, some have argued that continued research on burnout in PCWS social workers is a “distracter” from higher priority research, which includes discovering the factors that predict turnover and even more important, the factors that predict retention (Ellett &

Ellett, 2004). The intent to stay has been established as the most reliable indicator of retention in many studies (Steele & Ovalle 1984).

Intent to Stay

The intent to stay is an indicator of employees' projected plans to remain in their present employing organization or current field of work. Among PCWS social workers and case managers intent to stay in the organization can be viewed as the expected likelihood of remaining with the current employing organization and the intent to stay in the occupation can be defined as the expected likelihood of remaining in the field of Child Welfare Services (Landsman, 2000, 2001, 2005).

Conceptual Model

There are many possible theoretical points of view on the major constructs discussed here and the relationships between these constructs (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000). The progression of theory and research on the primary construct of interest in this study, organizational culture, has been characterized as "war games" in which each perspective on culture matched with varying methodological approaches has struggled for dominance (Martin & Frost, 1996). The conclusion Martin and Frost (1996) reach in their review of organizational culture research, is that after years of work by many scholars, no unifying theory has resulted from the struggle among researchers in the field of organizational culture and they hold out no hope for such a theory in the future. Since organizational culture is often viewed as the deepest of the organizational constructs (Glisson, 2002), and there is so much disagreement about the construct, it follows that the relationships between organizational culture and organizational climate,

organizational structure, and work attitudes have not been delineated in a manner that is commonly recognized as valid by scholars in the field. However, there appears to be more agreement among theoreticians and researchers concerning conceptualizations of climate and structure than there is about culture.

Glisson (2002) has presented a helpful model concerning the associations between the major constructs used in the present inquiry that he calls the “social context” of the organization (internal). See Figure 8.

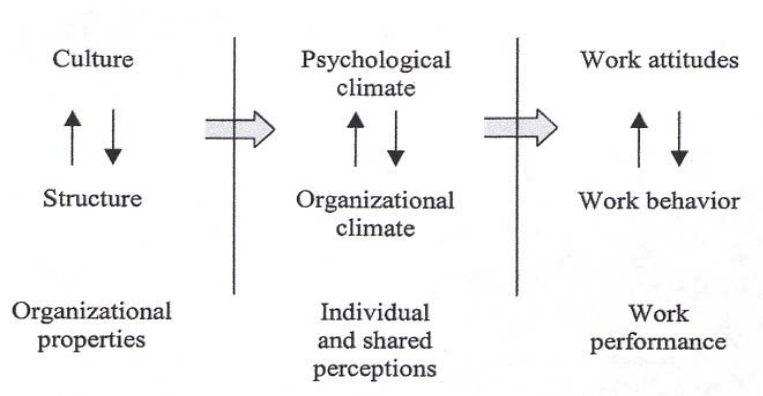


Figure 8. Glisson's Social Context Model

Organizational culture is foundational in the model and directly affects organizational structure. Organizational climate is viewed by Glisson (2002) as a construct that becomes a “function” of culture. Structure is viewed as shaping organizational climate, while climate mediates the effect of culture on work attitudes and behavior (Figure 8). Glisson (2002) points out that, though the relationships have not all been empirically specified, there are most certainly reciprocal facets to the relationships between these constructs and possibly among the specific variables involved with each construct. The

relationships in the model are replete with feedback loops and alternative pathways of effects between variables (See also Lawler, 1992).

In the current study, the conceptual model is similar to Glisson's (2002) model. However, the graphic representation has been changed in order to reflect some significant differences in conceptualization and the addition of key constructs (Figure 9).

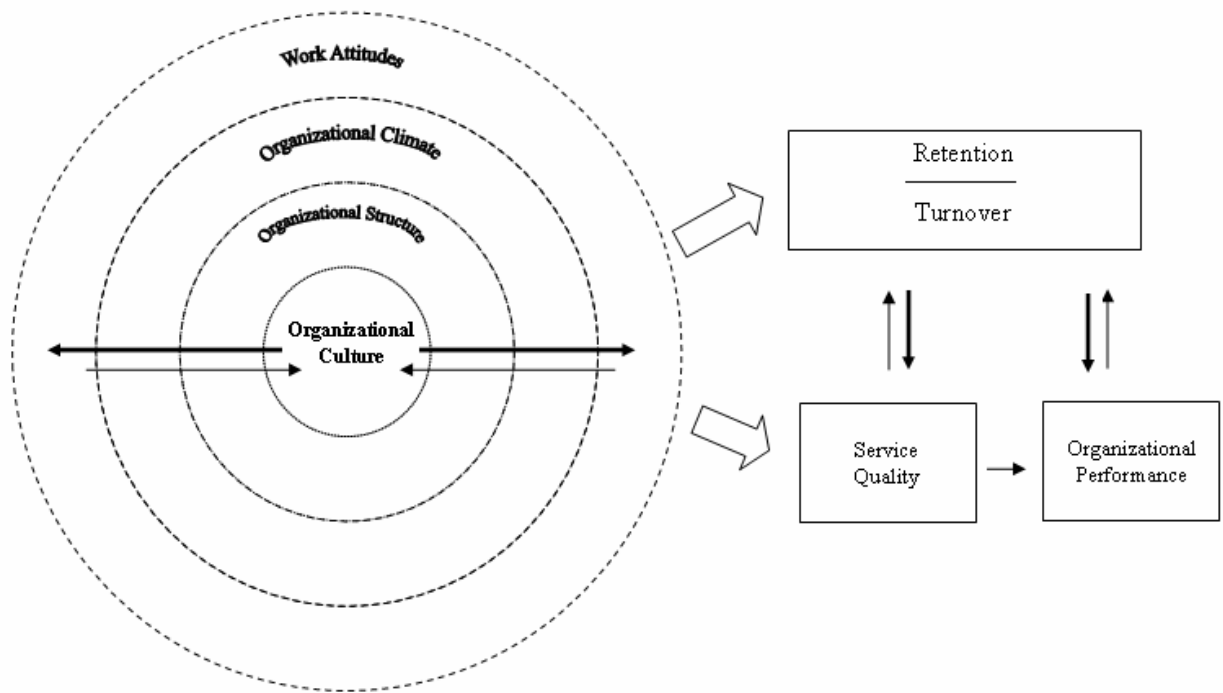


Figure 9. Conceptual Model

The circular portion of the figure represents the influence of organizational culture as the foundational or core construct that affects all other organizational level constructs. As in

Glisson's (2002) model, organizational culture affects structure which frames culture by shaping it within the organization. Culture and structure exert a great deal of influence on organizational climate that in turn affects work attitudes. This is not to suggest that culture and climate do not affect or only indirectly affect work attitudes. The perimeter that forms the circle around each construct is drawn with dashed lines representing the permeable nature of each boundary. This highlights the reciprocal nature of the interactions among all of these constructs. The thickest arrows emerge from organizational culture outward to represent the primary effect exerted by organizational culture on all other organizational constructs. Lighter arrows, representing a relatively weaker effect, stretch from the outer circle, work attitudes, through the organizational variables to the core construct, organizational culture. These arrows denote the reciprocal nature of the interactions between these constructs. Organizational culture is viewed as a 'group-level' construct since it represents shared phenomena by definition. Work attitudes is a construct that is composed of 'individual-level' variables such as, job satisfaction, commitment, and service orientation as they are experienced by individual social workers and case managers. Within organizational climate, the individual-level variable, psychological climate in Glisson's model, has been removed but is assumed to be the variable that composes organizational climate which is viewed as shared psychological climate.

Retention is affected by organizational culture and the primary effect of organizational culture is moderated by work attitudes, organizational performance and service quality. Retention or turnover are outcomes of the cumulative and disparate effects exerted by all of the constructs in the model. However, the greatest effects are

exercised by the organizational variables through individual work attitudes. Service quality and organizational performance have been added to the model in order to represent the influence of the organizational variables on these variables which may be considered the products of organizational operations. These constructs also appear to have an effect on retention or turnover among PCWS social workers and case managers as they experience the results of organizational performance, and the quality of services provided by the organization to clients. The wide, large arrows on the right side of the model represent the great influence exercised by the organizational constructs on retention/turnover and organizational performance. The organizational variables in the model are theorized to have a cumulative effect on the retention or turnover of social workers and case managers through work attitudes. Work attitudes moderate the effect of this cumulative influence. The effect extends through service quality and organizational performance, though in a diminished manner. Smaller, thinner arrows represent the effect exerted by organizational performance and service quality on retention/turnover. Retention or turnover, however, appear to exercise a marked and comparatively greater effect on organizational performance and service quality. This effect is represented by thicker arrows.

CHAPTER III

PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Organizational Culture in Public Child Welfare Services

Research has been carried out previously on the relationship between organizational culture and retention in general workforce studies, for instance, in studies on accountants (Sheridan, 1992) and fund raisers (Rousseau, 1990a). However, only two sets of researchers have explored the use of the organizational culture construct in studies of PCWS social workers and case managers that include turnover or retention as important criterion elements in the studies (Ellett & Millar, 2001; Glisson & James, 2002). Glisson and James (2002) studied the effects of both organizational culture and climate on commitment, job satisfaction, service quality and turnover in PCWS. The authors discovered a significant, negative effect (.025) of constructive team cultures on turnover. In other words, the more PCWS teams of social workers and case managers were characterized as constructive in nature, the less likely team members were to leave the agency (Glisson & James, 2002). Among these workers, Glisson and James (2002) also found that constructive cultures in teams significantly and positively affected work attitudes (.361) and service quality (.317) especially compared to teams characterized as having passive defensive cultures. In fact, among all of the culture and climate oriented variables in the study, constructive culture was the most important predictor of all three outcomes and the only variable that predicted all three: less turnover, more positive work attitudes and higher service quality.

The other researcher, Ellett (2000), has carried out a great deal of research with a particular focus on a construct she terms “human caring” and retention in PCWS (Ellett

& Ellett, 2004; Ellett & Millar, 2001; Ellett & Rugutt, 2005). However, Ellett and her colleagues have also included “professional organizational culture” in several studies (Ellett, 2000; Ellett & Ellett, 2004; Ellett & Millar, 2001; Ellett & Rugutt, 2005). The construct, professional organizational culture, is viewed by Ellett as constituted by three-dimensions: vision/leadership, collegial teaching and learning, and professional commitment (Ellett, 2000). It is important to note that the definition Ellett (2000) provides for professional organizational culture and the dimensions listed above are quite different than the definitions and dimensions of organizational culture posed in the literature traditionally. With these differences in conceptualization as the backdrop, in a study of PCWS case managers and social workers in Arkansas and Louisiana, Ellett and Millar (2001) found: somewhat weak correlations between “professional sharing and support” and the intent to remain (in the field) ($r=.26$) and “vision/professionalism/commitment” with the intent to remain (field) ($r=.26$). In a subsequent study, on a large sample of PCWS social workers and case managers in Georgia, Ellett and Rugutt (2005) employed structural equation modeling and found a moderate effect (.20) exercised by “professional organizational culture” on the intent to remain employed in the field of CWS.

Organizational Structure

There is a great deal of correlation between the dimensions of organizational climate and facets of organizational structure (Payne & Mansfield, 1973). In fact, some theoreticians and researchers have included structure as a facet of organizational climate (James & Jones, 1974).

Cooke and Szumal (2000) point out that many researchers have suggested organizational structure is an important “lever for cultural change” yet to these authors it is insufficient as the sole target of change strategies. They emphasize empirical findings from several of their studies in which they found correlations between structural dimensions and elements of organizational culture. For instance, greater distribution of influence in an organization was associated with “constructive” behavioral norms. They conclude from this that when members at all levels of the organization exercise influence, expectations among members are high that others will behave proactively, take initiative and engage in positive behaviors while fulfilling tasks (Cooke & Szumal, 2000).

Some writers make the case that social work in general fits Weber’s definition of bureaucracy (i.e., detailed rules and procedures to follow, enormous amounts of paperwork to complete) and that many social workers fulfill the roles of consummate bureaucrats (Brehm & Gates, 1997). PCWS organizations are often characterized as Weberian bureaucratic structures that are hierarchical in nature with a formalized set of policies, rules and procedures (Snyder, 1995). These bureaucratic structures appear to be fairly homogenous in nature. However, this is not always the case. There are obvious variations in structure among PCWS organizations that are affected by such variables as the immediate environment, the organization-environment fit, the size of the agency, etc. (Martin & Glisson, 1989). For instance, as one might expect, organizational size usually affects centralization in PCWS agencies (Martin & Glisson, 1989).

In studies which have included or focused on PCWS organizations, variables that compose organizational structures were used in analyses of their relationship to retention or longevity of employment. First, Martin and Glisson (1989) studied social service

organizations (including PCWS agencies) in three very different locations, Oahu, Hawaii, St. Louis, Missouri, and Guam. Though the structures of these organizations varied greatly, in terms of size, organizational age, formalization and centralization, these structural differences did not contribute to differences in “average worker tenure” among the organizations in the study (Martin & Glisson, 1989).

Formalization and autonomy were two of the organizational structure variables Landsman (2000, 2001) used in her study on PCWS workers in Missouri. Autonomy was utilized to denote “decentralization” in PCWS agencies. Both variables were found to have no significant effect on job satisfaction, commitment or retention among the social workers and case managers in the study. Due to the lack of significant findings in past research with PCWS populations and in an effort to limit the scope of the current study, organizational structure will not be a focus in the study.

Organizational Climate

Traditionally, organizational climate researchers have utilized quantitative methods and have concerned themselves with the impact organizational systems have on organizational members both individually and in groups (Denison, 1996). Most research on organizational climate has included a large number of variables that can be related to employees’ psychological experiences of their organizations (Cahalane & Sites, 2004; Glisson, 2000; Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998; James & James, 1989; James & Jones, 1974; Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990; Sells & James, 1988; Wiley & Brooks, 2000).

The research that has examined organizational climate linked variables among samples of PCWS social workers and case managers is most important in connection to

the current study. Cahalane and Sites (2004) compared social workers who remained in PCWS organizations to a group of social workers who had left PCWS agencies. They found that those who left reported significantly higher levels of emotional exhaustion, role conflict and role overload and significantly lower levels of perceived fairness within the agency than those who remained in PCWS agencies. Those who remained also endorsed significantly higher scores on cooperation in the agency and growth and advancement opportunities than those who left (Cahalane & Sites, 2004). Along with the differences the authors discovered concerning these organizational climate related variables, Cahalane and Sites (2004) found that those social workers who stayed perceived themselves as significantly more satisfied and committed to the organization.

In another study on PCWS social workers and case managers, Glisson and James (2002) found the organizational climate related variables (i.e., depersonalization, emotional exhaustion and role conflict) predicted variables associated with work attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction). Positive organizational climates predicted more positive work attitudes. However, organizational climate related variables did not predict turnover among PCWS workers (Glisson & James, 2002).

Other studies on retention in PCWS agencies have included many variables that have been traditionally linked to organizational climate without employing organizational climate as an overarching construct. For instance, Landsman (2000, 2001) used several variables that have been used as climate-specific concepts in previous workforce studies, such as; supervisor support, agency support, coworker (peer) support, promotional opportunities, role conflict, role ambiguity, work overload, job security, pay, distributive justice. Of these organizational climate related variables in a path analysis, only work

overload had a significant effect (-.044) on the intent to stay (in the occupation or field of CWS) that was direct in nature. All other significant effects exercised by these variables were indirect. For instance, work overload had an indirect effect (-.121) on the intent to stay (organization and occupation/field) through job satisfaction as did supervisor support (.200), promotional opportunities (.236) and role conflict (.255).

In the current study, organizational climate will not be a focus of the research. Organizational climate and related variables have received a great deal of attention over a long period of time in workforces studies, including studies on PCWS populations, compared to organizational culture. Therefore, in an attempt to further the knowledge-base concerning the retention of PCWS social workers and case managers and in order to limit the scope of this investigation, organizational culture will be the primary focus of the study.

Work Attitudes

A category of concepts that will be a focus in the current study have been collectively termed “work attitudes” (Glisson, 2002). This group of concepts includes the following variables: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, commitment to the field of Child Welfare Services, and service orientation.

Job Satisfaction

Organizational level variables have had a significant effect on job satisfaction among employees in various human services organizations, including PCWS social workers and case managers, in past studies (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998; Glisson & James, 2002). For instance, a mix of structural and climate related variables explained 62% of the variation in job satisfaction in a cross-

section of human service organizations (Glisson & Durick, 1988). More applicable to the current study, constructive organizational culture had a significant positive effect (.36) on work attitudes in PCWS organizations (Glisson and James, 2002).

Other relationships that have been demonstrated in the literature concerning job satisfaction among PCWS workers are those between job satisfaction, service quality, and actual service outcomes (Glisson, 2002; Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998). Job satisfaction appears to have an effect on both of these variables in children and family services organizations, agencies. A study of children and family services organizations (including PCWS) produced a path analysis in which, job satisfaction (grouped with several climate related variables) was a direct antecedent to service quality (.12) and service outcomes (changes in client problems, -.13) (Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998).

Additionally, the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover and/or retention has been empirically demonstrated repeatedly in the literature with a variety of workforce populations (Mor Barak, et al., 2001; Somers, 1996). Job satisfaction has been employed in numerous studies of turnover in PCWS (Cahalane & Sites, 2004; Freund, 2005; Jayaratne & Chess, 1984; Jayaratne, Chess, & Kunkel, 1986; Mor Barak, et al., 2001; Vinokur-Kaplan, 1991). Many retention studies on PCWS social workers and case managers have also included job satisfaction as a variable of interest. (Dickinson & Perry, 2002; Ellett & Ellett, 2004; Landsman, 2000, 2001, 2005; Mor Barak, 2001; Smith, 2005; Smith, McCarthy, & Kim, 2005, Weaver & Chang, 2004; Weaver, Rhee, & Chang, 2005). Findings among PCWS social workers and case managers have often resulted in job satisfaction having a significant association with or effect on either turnover or retention. However, questions still remain concerning the order of job

satisfaction in relation to other important variables. For instance, studies on the antecedent effect of job satisfaction on the intent to stay and therefore retention have yielded mixed results. See discussion included in the *Intent to Stay* section of this review.

Commitment

Investigations in various human services organizations, including PCWS agencies, have demonstrated the influence of organizational level variables on individual employee commitment (Glisson & Durick, 1988). For instance, many structural and climate specific variables explained 56% of the variation in commitment among employees of various human services organizations (Glisson & Durick, 1988). More importantly, constructive organizational culture had a positive influence on work attitudes (.36) in Glisson and James' (2002) study of PCWS organizational cultures.

Commitment is also important to consider in this review due to the past associations between commitment and the intent to stay that have been demonstrated in studies on PCWS samples (Landsman, 2001, 2005). Organizational commitment, occupational commitment and professional commitment have all been used in investigations regarding the retention of social workers and case managers in PCWS agencies (Ellett, 2000, Ellett & Ellett, 2004; Ellett & Rugutt, 2005; Landsman, 2000, 2001, 2005). In each of these studies support was demonstrated for an association between either organizational commitment, occupational commitment or professional commitment and retention.

The results of Landsman's (2000, 2001, 2005) research are particularly salient. Two types of commitment, organizational and occupational (field of CWS), were the antecedent variables that immediately preceded the intent to stay in path analyses in two

studies. Organizational commitment significantly affected the intent to stay in the organization in two PCWS samples on different levels (.60 and .34 respectively). Commitment to the occupation (field of CWS), on the other hand, exercised large effects on the intent to stay in the occupation in both of the samples (.60) and (.71). Another significant conclusion in Landsman's studies was that job satisfaction is the variable that immediately precedes both types of commitment and is directly affected by many of the exogenous variables used in her studies affect both types of commitment discussed here. See the *Intent to Stay* in this review for further exploration of variable ordering in causal pathways.

Service Orientation

The research on retention in PCWS that has included analyses of the relationships between service orientation and retention is found in the studies by Landsman (2000, 2001, 2005). Using path analysis, Landsman (2000, 2001) found that service orientation had a direct effect on both job satisfaction (.38) and occupational commitment (.30) among PCWS social workers and case managers in Missouri. Job satisfaction had a direct effect on the intent to stay in the occupation (field of CWS) and occupational commitment had a large direct effect on the intent to stay in the occupation/field of CWS (.61). Compared to other exogenous variables in the study, service orientation had the greatest impact on endogenous variables. The results of this analysis led Landsman to the conclusion that, "...there appears to be no single factor more important than the strength of service orientation in understanding commitment in public child welfare (Landsman, 2001, p. 409). This commitment stems from belief in the values of social work as a profession which promotes "affiliation with the field of child welfare," enhances job

satisfaction and leads to retention in Child Welfare Services organizations (Landsman, 2001).

A subsequent study of PCWS social workers/case managers in Iowa yielded quite similar results (Landsman, 2005). Service orientation had a direct effect on job satisfaction (.43) and on occupational commitment (.25) and occupational commitment exercised a very strong effect on the intent to stay in the occupation (.71). Clearly, Landsman's conclusion from the Missouri study cited above applies to the samples in both states which highlights the importance of service orientation for job satisfaction, commitment to the occupation and ultimately retention in the field of CWS.

Service Quality

The quality of the services provided by general service organizations have often been measured with customer satisfaction surveys (Susskind, Kacmar, & Borchgrevink, 2003). Explorations of service quality in human services organizations has often been accomplished in a similar manner though the general term for the measurement instruments has been changed to "client" satisfaction surveys (Martin & Kettner, 1996). However, this can be problematic in human services organizations that serve many mandated or hostile clients such as Public Child Welfare Services agencies. Difficulties associated with this situation have led to alternate measurement methods in an attempt to gather data concerning service quality. One approach has been to query social workers and case managers about their perceptions of the level of service quality the team or unit in which they work offers clients (Children's Mental Health Services Research Center, 2000). Client satisfaction is only indirectly addressed with this approach which is based on a process orientation rather than the direct measurement of client satisfaction. This is a

particularly appropriate method, not only due to the problematic nature of the client satisfaction approach in PCWS agencies, but also because there is some evidence that PCWS social workers are concerned about the performance of their coworkers and the effect it may have on service quality. In a recent survey of workers in human services organizations that included PCWS agencies, 42 percent of the respondents estimated, “...more than a tenth of their co-workers were not doing their jobs well” (Light, 2003, p. 4). In addition, when respondents were asked to explain the poor performance they encountered among co-workers, 43 percent of them indicated an absence of ‘commitment to helping people’ as the primary problem among peers they perceived as poor performers (Light, 2003).

It is also informative to note that organizational variables have had significant effects on service quality (measured through customer satisfaction) in general service oriented organizations in past studies (Susskind, et al., 2003). In other study findings, organizational culture has been related to group and/or organizational level service quality. Constructive cultures were significantly correlated with group service quality variables, teamwork ($r=.44$), quality of work relations ($r=.20$) and unit level quality ($r=.59$) and with organizational level service quality, termed quality of customer service ($r=.58$) (Cooke & Szumal, 2000).

Studies using group member evaluations of group level service quality in populations similar to the one that will be sampled in the current study produced the following results. Among hospital Emergency Room professionals, including social workers, organizational culture affected service quality in terms of the emotional support staff members offered to patients (Hemmelgarn, et al., 2001). Also, in a study that

included workers in PCWS agencies, organizational climate had a significant effect (.12) on service quality (Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998).

The one organizational culture study that used the team/unit rating approach for service quality with a sample of PCWS social workers/case managers produced significant findings. Glisson and James (2002) found that constructive organizational culture explained 32% of the variance in service quality as rated by PCWS social workers/case managers' in their organizational teams.

The primary limitation of self-assessed service quality, on individual or on team levels, is the inability to "draw inferences about objective service outcomes" from the data (Guterman & Bargal, 1996). However, the subjectivity of such measures can be addressed by supplementing the data with additional objective measures of outcomes as indicators of individual, unit or organizational performance.

Organizational Performance

Service quality may be differentiated from organizational performance by highlighting differences in processes and outcomes. When service quality is viewed from a process orientation there is empirical evidence that it can be differentiated from outcomes in PCWS systems (Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998). In fact, Glisson and Hemmelgarn (1998) found that increased service quality is not necessarily related to improved outcomes. This is particularly true when service provision is standardized rather than individualized for clients. Organizational performance, viewed in terms of system outcomes, is qualitatively different than the process perspective of service quality.

Past research on organizational culture has resulted in significant findings concerning the relationships between culture and organizational performance indicators

in the form of outcomes (Rousseau, 1990a). For instance, in a study of fund raising organizations in which organizational performance was measured by the amount of money raised by organizations, Rousseau (1990a) found significant negative correlations between defensive cultures and fund raising performance. There do not appear to have been any studies of organizational culture in PCWS organizations or retention that have included organizational performance indicators.

The use of objective indicators to evaluate organizational performance in PCWS organizations is the primary emphasis of the Child and Family Services Reviews (Courtney, et al., 2004; USDHHS, 2003). Within the three major CFSR evaluative domains, safety, permanency, and family and child well-being, indicators have been chosen to signify organizational performance outcomes within each domain. For some of the safety and permanence indicators, national standards have been set for states and counties to compare themselves against. The national standards were established using a 12-month (or longer) time period for the collection of data from two possible sources: the Adoption and Foster Care Analysis and Reporting System (AFCARS) and the National Child Abuse and Neglect Data System (NCANDS) (USDHHS, 2003, 2005). Though there is more to the CFSR than the quantitative data that are used to compare to the indicators mentioned above, these seem particularly important since the data concerning PCWS agencies in California is aggregated and PCWS organizations throughout the state are held accountable to these standards. For instance, the last full review for the State of California resulted in an “estimated penalty” of \$18,244,430 (USDHHS, 2004). A comparison of the national standards and the California outcome data on the indicators that represent the three major evaluative domains in the 2002 CFSR study revealed that

statewide outcomes were widely divergent from the federal standards (USDHHS, 2003). In short, most of the federal standards were not met.

The 12 Central California counties that will be the focus of the current study also report differential data on the items considered in the federal CFSR which are aggregated and reported at the state level. The data concerning CFSR national standards, total State of California figures and the outcome figures for each of the counties allow comparisons on the indicators mentioned above (CDSS, 2004, USDHHS, 2003). The conclusion drawn from this type of review is that most of the Central California counties have a more difficult time meeting the national standards set for safety and permanence than California as a whole. Comparisons of the county and state outcomes highlight the potential usefulness of organizational performance indicators for studies that include organizational level data in the analyses.

There appear to have been no studies in the literature concerning the effects of organizational culture on retention in PCWS agencies that have utilized objective indicators of organizational performance as variables of interest. In the absence of past research, no findings are available to be considered here.

Retention

A developing body of qualitative research on retention in Public Child Welfare Services has been helpful in contributing the voices of social workers and case managers to the literature (Ellett, Ellett, Ellis, Westbrook, & Dews, 2004; Reagh, 1994; Rycraft, 1994; Wagner, Spence, & Burnstein, 2001; Wagner, van Reyk, & Spence, 2001). These studies relay some of the reasons social workers/case managers remain in the field of Child Welfare Services and/or their employing PCWS agencies. Interestingly, many

subjects mention a “calling” or sense of “mission” that sustains them in PCWS work (Ellett, et al., 2004, Reagh, 1994, Rycraft, 1994). This sense of mission seems to connect the values of these workers to the values of the field of CWS and their employing PCWS agencies through “mutual investment” (Rycraft, 1994). The mutual investment between the sense of mission shared by some social workers/case managers who remain and agency values appears to support the connection between organizational culture and retention. However, the findings of quantitative studies are most relevant to the present study since the methodology in this study will be quantitative.

Past cross sectional studies on the retention of social workers and case managers in PCWS have used the intent to stay or the intent to remain as the major antecedent variable that predicts actual retention (Ellett, 2000, Ellett & Ellett, 2004; Ellett & Rugutt, 2005; Landsman, 2000, 2001, 2005). Therefore, the intent to stay is the most important focus for a review of the research on retention.

Intent to Stay

Some researchers have employed a longitudinal approach to examine data on PCWS social workers and case managers who stay or leave at some point after the base line data is gathered concerning their employment (Cahalane & Sites, 2004; Dickinson & Perry, 2002; Weaver & Chang, 2004). However, others have used cross sectional methodology which creates the need to find a reliable predictor for retention or turnover beyond the point in time of data collection. A recent trend in research concerning the retention of PCWS social workers is a focus on the intent to stay as the most reliable predictor of actual retention (Ellett, 2000; Ellett, 2002; Ellett & Ellett, 2004; Ellett & Millar, 2001; Ellett & Rugutt, 2005; Landsman, 2000, 2001, 2005). The emphasis on the

intent to stay grew out of the organizational behavior literature and studies on populations other than social workers, such as, nurses, teachers, dental hygienists, hospital employees, television station employees, military personnel, etc. (Berg, 1991, Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Drews & Fisher, 1996; Gersten, Keating, Yovanoff, & Harniss, 2001; Littrell & Billingsley, 1994; Mueller, Boyer, Price, & Iverson, 1994; Mueller, Wallace, & Price, 1992; Price & Kim, 1993; Singh & Billingsley, 1996).

The intent to stay or the intent to remain, represent virtually the same phenomena; the likelihood subjects will remain employed in an organization or field of work. There is a difference, of course, between remaining employed in an organization or in an occupation, field of practice or profession. In some studies of PCWS populations, these foci have been differentiated in the following manner: intent to stay in the organization denotes remaining with the current employing organization and intent to stay in the occupation indicates the willingness to remain employed in the field of Child Welfare Services (Landsman, 2000, 2001, 2005). Through several studies, Ellett has maintained a focus on the intent to remain in the field of Child Welfare Services rather than the intent to remain in a specific PCWS organization (Ellett, 2000; Ellett & Ellett, 2004; Ellett & Rugutt, 2005).

Studies on turnover have established that the intention to leave employment is the most reliable predictor of actual turnover. Conversely, the key finding from empirical investigations on retention is that intent to stay is the greatest predictor of actual retention. The antecedent variable cannot be said to operate with absolute predictive accuracy in either case, however, they have proven to be the most reliable in multiple studies. For instance, in a 34-study metaanalysis Steele and Ovalle (1984) found a

negative correlation (-.50) between the intent to stay and actual turnover. Subsequent studies have produced similar results. In a longitudinal study, Mueller et al. (1992) found that negative correlations between the intent to stay and turnover increased over time as the tenures of new employees grew. The linkage demonstrated in these studies establishes solid empirical support for the use of intent to stay as the primary antecedent variable for studying retention in PCWS organizations. (Landsman, 2000, 2001, 2005; Mor Barak et al., 2001, Mueller et al., 1992; Mueller et al., 1994).

In addition, there has been an effort among retention researchers, in the organizational behavior literature, and in PCWS workforce studies, to discover which variables have the greatest correlations with the intent to stay and immediately precede the intent to stay in causal models. Studies that include this pursuit, however, have yielded conflicting results.

Although many independent variables were utilized in these studies, the variables that appear to repeatedly result in the greatest impact on intent to stay were: job satisfaction, organizational commitment and occupational commitment. However, the causal linkage between commitment and retention, and job satisfaction and retention, has not been definitively established much less the order of their differential or linked effects on the intent to stay (Glisson & Durick, 1988).

Among general workforce retention studies, three resulted in job satisfaction exhibiting the greatest influence on the intent to stay compared to all other variables studied (Berg, 1991; Mueller, et al., 1994; Singh & Billingsley, 1996). In contrast, three other studies demonstrated that, the types of commitment studied (organizational and occupational or professional) appear to exercise the greatest effect on intent to stay

(Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Gersten, et al., 2001; Landsman, 2001). Only one of these studies sampled PCWS social workers (Landsman, 2001). The populations the other studies sampled included, television station employees (Berg, 1991), dental hygienists (Mueller et al., 1994), and various teaching professionals (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Gersten et al., 2001; Singh & Billingsley, 1996). The following studies examined samples of PCWS social workers and, therefore, are the most important to this review.

Ellett (2000) studied PCWS social workers in Louisiana and Arkansas. Regression analysis revealed the total variance predicting intent to stay that resulted from combining all significant individual variables in the study was 20%. Concerning the variables most germane to this review, when Ellett (2000) among those social workers who had been employed in CWS for three-years or less, a composite variable entitled “vision/professional commitment” accounted for 10% of the variation in intent to stay (in the field of CWS).

In the largest CWS retention study to date, Ellett and Ellett (2004) examined a sample of PCWS social workers/case managers (n=1,423) in Georgia. Both professional commitment and “general job satisfaction” were included in the study. Using multiple regression, the authors found the single variable that had the greatest effect on the intent to remain in the field of CWS was professional commitment. Professional commitment accounted for 39% of the variance in the intent to remain while job satisfaction accounted for only 6%. This seems to support Landsman’s findings though the conceptualizations of the variables may vary significantly.

Ellett and Rugutt (2005) used the data collected for the Ellett and Ellett (2004) study but applied path analysis using structural equation modeling to analyze the data.

Job satisfaction was not included in the path analysis. Presumably this was due to the low predictive effect demonstrated by job satisfaction through regression in the first analysis (Ellett and Ellett, 2004). Professional commitment was represented as a facet of the professional organizational culture. The results of the path analysis revealed a strong direct effect from professional commitment on professional organizational culture (.80). However, the indirect effect of professional commitment on the intention to remain in the field of CWS was weak through professional organizational culture (.20).

In two separate large sample studies of PCWS social workers/case managers in Missouri and Iowa, Landsman (2000, 2001, 2005), utilized path analysis to find comparatively stronger direct effects exercised by commitment than job satisfaction on the intent to stay. Overall, a comparison of the studies reveals substantially stronger effects exercised by organizational commitment on the intent to stay in the organization in Missouri (.60) and Iowa (.34) than by job satisfaction on organizational commitment in Missouri (.18) and Iowa (.22). Occupational commitment exerted stronger effects on occupational intent to stay in both Iowa (.71) and Missouri (.60) than job satisfaction did in Missouri (.18) or Iowa. Job satisfaction had no significant direct effect on the intent to stay in the occupation in Iowa.

Conceptually, it is not surprising that occupational commitment directly affects occupational intent to stay most highly and organizational commitment has the greatest direct effect on organizational intent to stay. However, since job satisfaction demonstrated a primary effect in other studies, it is persuasive that both types of commitment resulted in direct causal effects in Landsman's (2000, 2001, 2005) studies. It should be pointed out that job satisfaction still played an important though primarily

indirect role concerning influence on the intent to stay. These findings contribute to establishing commitment as the variable which is the immediate antecedent to intent to stay in a causal sense among PCWS social workers and case managers.

The following general conclusions may be drawn from these studies on PCWS social workers and case managers. Some types of commitment (organizational, occupational and professional) and job satisfaction are the most influential variables on intention to stay and subsequent retention. Commitment is the direct antecedent to intent to stay and therefore retention, while job satisfaction plays an important role since many other variables affect commitment indirectly through job satisfaction in PCWS retention studies.

Limitations of Previous Studies

The studies reviewed here have many strengths that have made them valuable resources for the current investigation. The strengths of these studies have facilitated their contributions to a developing knowledge base concerning both organizational culture and retention in Public Child Welfare Services. However, there were also limitations in these studies. In the current study, the researcher addressed some of these limitations.

Ellett has engaged in a great deal of research on retention in Public Child Welfare Services organizations (Ellett, 2000; Ellett, 2001; Ellett, 2002; Ellett, 2004; Ellett & Ellett, 2004; Ellett & Millar, 2001; Ellett & Millar, 2004; Ellett & Rugutt, 2005; Ellett, et al., 2004). One of these studies has been published in a refereed journal (Ellett & Millar, 2004). However, dissemination of her research findings has been widespread through presentations at various nationwide conferences, particularly the Council on Social Work

Education: Annual Planning Meetings. Ellett deserves a great deal of credit for being the primary force in focusing PCWS workforce research on retention rather than turnover.

Ellett has also sampled very large numbers of PCWS social workers/case managers in various states in the southern portion of the U.S. In fact, as they report the results of one study, the authors caution that the sheer size of the sample ($n=1423$) could increase the significance levels of the results (Ellett & Ellett, 2004; Ellett & Rugutt 2005).

However, some limitations seem to emerge across several of the studies. Overall, some of the conceptualizations and linked operationalizations of concepts Ellett employees appear to include so many elements, they violate the principle of parsimony that is commonly viewed as essential in social scientific inquiry (Popper, 1959). This, of course, produces problems in the measurement of these variables. For instance, Ellett and her colleagues have included a construct called “professional organizational culture” in several studies (Ellett, 2000; Ellett & Ellett, 2004; Ellett & Millar, 2001; Ellett & Rugutt, 2005). The construct, professional organizational culture, is viewed by Ellett as constituted by three-dimensions: vision/leadership, collegial teaching and learning and professional commitment (Ellett, 2000). The definitions of these dimensions offered by Ellett (2000) include not only indicators of organizational culture but also seem to conflate culture with variables that have most often been considered aspects of organizational climate, such as, role-related variables, professional development, training, mentoring, supervisor support and peer support, etc. (Cahalane & Sites, 2004; Glisson, 2000; Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998; James & James, 1989; James & Jones, 1974; Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990; Sells & James, 1988; Wiley &

Brooks, 2000). Supervisor support, peer support, professional development and training within the organization are undoubtedly influenced to varying degrees by the shared beliefs, values, and norms among the workforce (culture). However, they can be most closely linked to employees' shared psychological experiences of these elements of the work environment (climate). Finally, Ellett's (2000) use of the term professional commitment is confusing. Her definition relates to organizational culture through shared professional ethics. However, an attempt is made to link the application of ethics to service quality and improved client outcomes, all in one brief definition.

The conceptualization of professional organizational culture carries a heavy conceptual load that appears to have presented difficulties in operationalization and measurement. The principle of parsimony seems to contraindicate this level of complexity in conceptualization and especially in operationalization. In addition, 'professional organizational culture' seems to be only partially related to the most commonly accepted core definitional elements of organizational culture which have emerged in the literature. Yet, in at least one presentation, research that included this construct was presented as linking organizational culture and retention (Ellett & Millar, 2001).

It should also be noted that in all of her research, Ellett (and colleagues) maintains an interest in the intent to stay in the field of CWS, but does not seem to use the intent to stay in the organization as a dependent variable in any of her studies. In doing so, differentiation of the two is ignored and data gathered on the intent to stay reflects this design choice. It may be there are those workers who intend to remain in their PCWS organizations but would not want to work in the field of CWS elsewhere or the obverse.

These distinctions are missed entirely when only one type of intent to stay is employed. Studies in which both types of intent to stay have been used as criterion with PCWS samples, have garnered a great deal of data on both types of intent to stay (Landsman, 2000, 2001, 2005).

Another researcher's studies of retention in PCWS share the strength of large sample sizes with Ellett's research. In separate studies, Landsman (2000, 2001, 2002, 2005) examined large samples of PCWS social workers/case managers in two states in the Midwestern U.S. The use of path analysis and structural equation modeling in the search for antecedent relationships between many important work-related variables and retention in PCWS populations was also an important addition to the knowledge base. However, although Landsman (2000, 2001, 2005) utilized many organizational variables, she did not study organizational culture and the relationship between culture and retention. Indeed, the absence of organizational culture as a construct of interest in PCWS retention studies is also an omission in other studies on the subject (Cahalane & Sites, 2004; Dickinson & Perry, 2002; Smith, 2005; Weaver & Chang, 2004). Ellett has made attempts to include aspects of organizational culture in some PCWS retention research with the limitations discussed above (Ellett, 2000; Ellett & Ellett, 2004; Ellett & Millar, 2001; Ellett & Rugutt, 2005).

The only research on PCWS organizations and social workers/case managers that has explored organizational culture was the study completed by Glisson and James (2002). However, Glisson and James (2002) did not focus on retention. They included turnover as a criterion variable in the study. One of the strengths of the research carried out by Glisson and James (2002) was the use of multilevel or cross-level methods of

analysis. No other studies on PCWS organizations and social workers/case managers have used cross-level analysis to analyze the relationships between variables on organizational and individual levels.

Although organizational culture has garnered little attention in the PCWS retention literature, some variables related to PCWS organizational culture have been studied in connection to retention. However, the methodologies applied in this research have relied upon aggregation of individual level data in what Chan (1998) views as a simple “additive” model (Cahalane & Sites, 2004; Dickinson & Perry, 2002; Ellett, 2000; Ellett & Millar, 2001; Ellett & Millar, 2004; Ellett & Rugutt, 2005; Landsman, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2005; Weaver & Chang, 2004). According to Hofstede, Bond, & Luk (1993) the additive form of analysis applied in studies that include organizational variables leads to a “cross-level fallacy,” that occurs when individual-level data are interpreted, “...as if they applied to social systems” (Hofstede, et al., 1993, p. 485). This leads to the application of conclusions drawn from one level of data to another level of data when no methodological allowances have been made to account for inherent cross-level dynamics.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

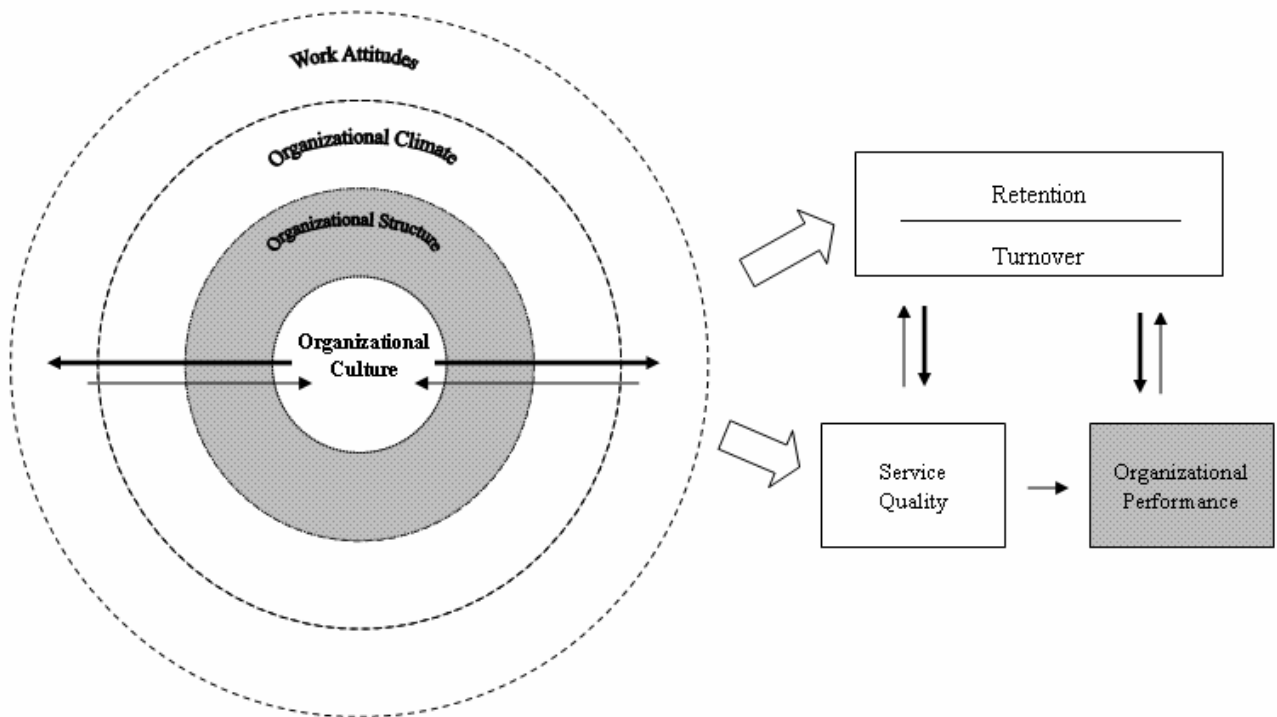


Figure 10. Constructs Included in the Study.

**Non-shaded areas represent those constructs examined in the study, shaded areas were excluded.*

The primary questions that were addressed in the current study focused on the major constructs highlighted in Figure 10. The following questions concerning these constructs were the research questions addressed in the study:

1.) Does organizational culture affect the retention of social workers and case managers in PCWS organizations in Central California?

A.) How do constructive cultures affect retention?

B.) How do defensive cultures affect retention?

2.) How does organizational culture combine with work attitudes to affect retention among PCWS social workers/case managers in Central California?

3.) Does organizational culture affect service quality in PCWS agencies in Central California?

A.) Does organizational culture combine with service quality to affect retention in PCWS agencies in Central California?

Organizational culture was viewed as either constructive or defensive in nature. Prior to the analysis in this study it was projected that cultures in PCWS organizations would vary between these two cultural types. The intent to stay was utilized as the key indicator of retention throughout the study. Retention was differentiated as retention in the organization (in which the participant was employed when data was collected) and retention in the field of Child Welfare Services. Therefore, the retention focused aspects of the study included both categories: the intent to stay in the current employing PCWS organization and the intent to stay in the field of Child Welfare Services.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses that guided the current study followed the research questions listed above. Each hypothesis connects directly to one of the research questions:

Hypothesis 1: Constructive organizational culture has a positive relationship with the intent to stay in the organization and in the field of CWS among social workers and case managers in PCWS organizations in Central California.

Hypothesis 2: Defensive organizational culture has a negative relationship with the intent to stay in the organization and in the field of CWS among social workers and case managers in PCWS organizations in Central California.

Hypothesis 3: Job satisfaction and organizational commitment moderate the positive relationship of constructive organizational culture and the intent to stay (in the organization) such that as the relationship increases job satisfaction and organizational commitment will increase. The inverse will be true of the negative relationship between defensive organizational culture and intent to stay (in the organization).

Hypothesis 4: Commitment to the field of CWS and service orientation moderate the positive relationship between constructive organizational culture and the intent to stay (in the field of CWS) such that as the relationship increases commitment to the field of CWS and service orientation increase. The inverse will be true of the negative relationship between defensive organizational culture and intent to stay (in the field of CWS).

Hypothesis 5: Constructive organizational culture has a positive relationship with service quality in PCWS agencies in Central California.

Hypothesis 6: Defensive organizational culture has a negative relationship with service quality in PCWS agencies in Central California.

Hypothesis 7: Service quality moderates the positive relationships between constructive organizational culture and the intention to stay (both in the organization and the field of CWS) such that as these relationships increase service quality increases. The inverse will be true of the negative relationship between defensive organizational culture and intent to stay (both in the organization and in the field of CWS).

CHAPTER V

METHODOLOGY

The research in this study investigated the relationship of organizational culture in Public Child Welfare Services organizations in Central California with the retention of social workers and case managers. Work attitudes and service quality were included in the study to determine if they had any effect on the hypothesized relationships between organizational culture and retention. Figure 10 graphically displays the concepts that were emphasized in this study.

Design

A cross-sectional survey research design was used to address the research questions listed previously concerning the relationship between organizational culture and the retention of Public Child Welfare Services social workers and case managers. In addition, this design promoted the exploration of related research questions concerning the potential moderating effects of work attitudes, and service quality with the relationship between organizational culture and retention.

Convenience sampling was used as the sampling method in this study. See the section entitled *Sampling Frame and Power Analysis* for a detailed discussion of sampling considerations.

Variables

The variables in the current study are highlighted in Tables 3 and 4, followed by the conceptual and operational definitions of each variable. Table 3 lists the primary

variables that were used in the study. Table 4 includes all of the control variables in the study and appears in the *Operational Definitions* section.

Table 1 *Concepts and Variables Included in the Study*

Concepts	Organizational culture	Service quality	Organizational climate	Work attitudes	Retention
Variables	<u>Independent</u>	Moderator	Moderator	<u>Independent</u>	<u>Dependent</u>
	Culture type: constructive	Unit/Team service quality	Climate type: engagement	Job satisfaction	Intent to stay: organization
	Culture type: defensive		Climate type: stress	Commitment to the organization	Intent to stay: field of CWS
				Commitment to the field of CWS	
				Service orientation	

Conceptual Definitions

Independent Variables

Organizational Culture

Constructive Cultures –

Constructive cultures are composed of normative beliefs and shared behavioral expectations that are directly related to the fulfillment of higher order satisfaction needs. The norms and shared behavioral expectations within constructive cultures correspond to achievement and the motivation to excel, the quest for self-actualization among employees, a humanistic orientation marked by supportive behaviors, and primarily positive interpersonal interactions.

Defensive Cultures –

Passive defensive cultures are composed of normative beliefs and shared behavioral expectations that are directly related to lower order security and protection needs. Norms and shared behavioral expectations in passive defensive cultures are linked to the need for approval from others (especially those in authority), and consensus among employees, conformity with the conventional manner of operating in the organization (includes a rule-following orientation), high levels of dependency and even subservience, and evasion of responsibility, blame and accountability.

Organizational Culture –

Organizational culture is composed of the assumptions, beliefs, values and behavioral norms shared within organizations. Normative beliefs and shared behavioral expectations in an organization are the manifestations of culture. Normative beliefs are

cognitions experienced by individuals in an organization concerning others' expectations for their behavior as members of the organization. These norms or standards guide the manner in which organizational members are expected to interact with each other and approach their work creating shared behavioral expectations.

Work Attitudes Variables

Commitment to the Field of CWS –

The extent to which the individual identifies with the field of Child Welfare Services and the amount of involvement the employee has working within the field of CWS.

Commitment to the Organization –

The extent to which the individual identifies with the organization and the degree to which the employee is involved in the organization.

Job Satisfaction –

The cognitive evaluations and affective/emotional state(s) resulting from the overall appraisal of an individual's work experience. There is a cognitive aspect related to the appraisal element of these definitions. However, the notion of satisfaction connects most directly to affective states related to satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Service Orientation –

The individual social worker or case manager's belief that the practice of social work in the field of Child Welfare Services is a valuable service to society.

Moderator Variables

Organizational Climate

Organizational Climate –

Organizational climate may be characterized as shared psychological climates. Psychological climates are employees' perceptions of the effects their work environments have on them. These perceptions may include the effects of the environment on a sense of their own well-being as well as the impact they have on the services they provide within the work environment.

Service Quality

Service Quality –

The concept of service quality includes the following facets concerning the nature of the services offered to clients by teams of social workers/case managers: availability and responsiveness to clients, dedication to improving the well-being of clients, the effectiveness of services offered to clients, and worker evaluation of the benefits clients receive from the services they are offered.

Dependent Variables

Retention

Retention –

Retention may not be defined as the diametric opposite of turnover by some theorists. However, in the current study the simplest view of retention will be adopted as; social workers and case managers remaining in PCWS employment in either their current employing organizations or the field of Child Welfare Services. All other alternatives will be considered turnover. The intent to stay will be employed as the direct predictor of retention in this study.

Intent to stay in the organization –

The likelihood that a social worker/case manager can be expected to remain in an organization.

Intent to stay in the field of Child Welfare Services –

The likelihood that a social worker/case manager can be expected to remain in the field of Child Welfare Services.

Note: In this study Public Child Welfare Services and Child Welfare Services were differentiated. The latter may include agencies that would not be considered “public” in nature (such as foster family agencies) yet serve the same population served by PCWS agencies. Public Child Welfare Services agencies are administrated by either the state or county in their localities. Other agencies focused on the welfare of children through prevention, protection and placement are not. All constructs and variables within this study refer to PCWS organizations, and the social workers and case managers who work in them with the exception of commitment to the field of Child Welfare Services, service orientation and intent to stay in the field of CWS. The word “public” has been deliberately omitted from these variables because there is evidence that when social workers and case managers leave PCWS agencies, they often take positions in non-public CWS agencies (Cahalane & Sites, 2004; Weaver & Chang, 2004). Therefore, if participants are queried concerning their plans to remain in Public Child Welfare Services it will be difficult to determine whether or not they make the distinction between public and non-public Child Welfare Services. This applies to participants’ commitment to the field of CWS and service orientation as well. It would be difficult to ensure that respondents understand survey items are limited to PCWS and not CWS as a larger field

of service provision concerning these two variables no matter how well designed the items might be. In order to avoid the validity difficulties associated with the public, non-public distinction, the items concerning these variables in the questionnaire used in the current study refer to the overall field of Child Welfare Services. Responses concerning these items will produce information concerning participants' commitment to CWS, service orientation concerning CWS and plans to remain in the general field of Child Welfare Services.

Operational Definitions

Independent Variables

Organizational Culture

Constructive Cultures –

Attitudes and behaviors that indicate: an achievement orientation and the motivation to excel, the pursuit of self-actualization through personal development, a humanistic, supportive orientation, and primarily positive interpersonal interactions.

Defensive Cultures –

Attitudes and behaviors that indicate: the need for approval from others (especially those in authority), consensus among employees, conformity with the conventional manner of operating in the organization (includes a rule-following orientation), high levels of dependency and subservience, and evasion of responsibility, blame and accountability.

Organizational Culture –

The assumptions, beliefs, values and behavioral expectations shared within organizations.

Work Attitudes

Commitment to the Field of CWS –

The extent to which the respondent identifies with and is involved in the field of Child Welfare Services.

Commitment to the Organization –

The extent to which the respondent identifies with and is involved in their employing PCWS organization.

Job Satisfaction –

The respondent's overall appraisal of satisfaction with their work experience.

Service Orientation –

The individual social worker or case manager's belief that the practice of social work in the field of Child Welfare Services is a valuable service to society.

*Moderator Variables**Organizational Climate*

Organizational Climate –

Attitudes and behaviors directly related to perceptions of the work environment and the manner in which it impacts employees and the services they provide to their clients.

Service Quality

Service Quality –

Attitudes and behaviors among team members that indicate: availability and responsiveness to clients, dedication to improving the well-being of clients, an emphasis on

the effectiveness of services offered to clients, and worker evaluations of the benefits clients receive from the services they are offered.

Dependent Variables

Retention

Intent to stay in the field of Child Welfare Services –

The likelihood that a social worker/case manager can be expected to remain in the field of Child Welfare Services.

Intent to stay in the organization –

The likelihood that a social worker/case manager can be expected to remain employed in their current PCWS organization.

(Definitions of organizational culture were adapted from Glisson, 2002, Glisson & James, 2002, and Cooke & Szumal, 1993. Work attitudes and retention definitions were adapted from Landsman, 2000, 2001. The service quality definition was adapted from CMHSRC, 2000 and Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998).

Control Variables

Age –

Respondent's age as of the birthday prior to the date they complete the survey.

Area –

Whether the county is in the San Joaquin Valley or on the central coast of California.

County –

County in which respondent's current employing agency resides.

Table 2 *Control Variables Included in the Study*

Control Variables	
Age (at last birthday)	Ethnicity –
Area: Valley/Coast	Respondent's race as defined by respondent.
County	Gender –
Ethnicity	Respondent's gender as defined by respondent.
Gender	Highest Educational Degree –
Highest Degree	The highest educational degree earned by the
SW Degree	respondent (BA, MA, etc.).
BSW, MSW, Ph.D-SW	Social Work Degree –
Tenure in Agency	Type of highest degree. Social work specific (BSW,
Tenure in Field of CWS	MSW, DSW or Ph.D. in Social Work) or other.
Title/Position	Title/Position –
	The exact title of the respondent's current position.

Tenure as a Social Worker/Case Manager in CWS Portion of Present Agency –

The number of years the respondent has worked in the agency in which they are currently employed as a social worker/case manager in the Child Welfare Services portion of the agency. The items corresponding to this definition will differentiate between social worker/case manager positions and other positions since some respondents may have worked in other positions (eligibility worker, support staff, etc.) within the agency prior to becoming social workers or case managers.

Tenure in the Field of Child Welfare Services –

The number of years the respondent has worked in the field of Child Welfare Services.

Demographic Information

The following are the categories of demographic information that were gathered from respondents.

Child Welfare Services in Agency–

This variable differentiated whether or not the respondent's current position is a part of the Child Welfare Services function of the agency. (Each of the county agencies in the study include units that provide services other than Child Welfare Services.).

Respondents were excluded from the study if it was clear that they did not work in the CWS portion of their agencies.

Direct Service Provider –

Whether or not the respondent provides direct services to clients or functions in another capacity in the agency (i.e., supervisor, administrative support, staff analyst, etc.).

Though data was gathered on this variable it proved to be invalid in many instances.

Conflicting information that was provided concerning other items on the survey allowed for verification and led to the realization that many respondents appeared to have been confused by the question or perceived the services they provide as indirect when the researcher would consider them to be direct services. For instance, many court workers indicated that they were not direct service providers. The researcher, however, considers their responsibilities as part of direct service provision. Instances like this were so common the decision was made not to use the responses to this item.

License –

Whether or not respondent has a professional license which is applicable to the field of CWS? If so, the name of the license (i.e., LCSW, etc). Originally, information on

license status was gathered but the number of respondents that had licenses was quite low. Also, among those who responded positively to this item, several had licenses in unrelated disciplines. Due to the low numbers and the potential unreliable nature of this data it was not used in the study. Interestingly, the low numbers of licensed social workers in this sample reflects the findings in a previous study both for Central California (5.9%) and statewide (14.3%) among the ranks of social workers in PCWS agencies (Clark & Fulcher, 2005). In their study, Clark and Fulcher (2005) were also concerned about the interpretations of some respondents concerning what constituted applicable licenses. This situation may be due to the fact that there are no incentives to become licensed for social workers who wish to remain in PCWS agencies. In fact, the licensing system at the state level in California includes disincentives for those in the field of CWS concerning licensing since the process is oriented toward those with mental health experience.

Name of Agency –

The name of the respondent's current employing PCWS agency. Agency name was very important for organization of the study, particularly for identification and formation of groups.

Team/Unit/Division Name –

The name of the respondent's current unit, team or division. In PCWS agencies the name of the unit or division normally indicates the primary function of the unit, i.e., adoptions, emergency response, family reunification, family maintenance, differential response, etc. This information was crucial for group identification and formation in the study.

Urban/Rural –

The urban or rural nature of the area in which the respondent works. This item on the survey turned out to be unreliable. Many participants commented that they worked in both urban and rural areas and marked both. However, this was not offered as a choice for the item. It is unknown how many respondents would have chosen both if formally offered that choice. Therefore, the data collected for this item was considered unusable.

Measures

Organizational Culture

The measure that was utilized to investigate organizational culture in PCWS agencies in Central California is entitled the *Organizational Culture Survey* (Children's Mental Health Services Research Center, 2000; Glisson and James, 2002). This measure was adapted for use in social services organizations from the *Organizational Culture Inventory* by the Children's Mental Health Services Research Center (2000) (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Cooke & Szumal, 2000; Glisson and James, 2002).

The multi-dimensional model that the measures used in this study are based on, from the original *Organizational Culture Inventory*, include conceptualizations of organizational culture as oriented to two major underlying dimensions among organizational members. The first differentiates between behavioral norms related to the concern for people and the concern for tasks (Cooke & Szumal, 2000). The second dimension distinguishes between behavioral norms concerning higher order needs for satisfaction (i.e., Maslow's, self actualization, etc.) and those related to lower order needs such as security and protection (Cooke & Szumal, 2000). Emerging from this

dimensional foundation are two major types of organizational cultures: constructive and defensive (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke and Szumal, 1993, 2000). Constructive cultural types are indicated by behavioral norms that encourage employees to interact with other employees and complete tasks in ways that meet their own higher order needs for satisfaction. The behavioral norms related to constructive cultures are: achievement, self actualizing, humanistic-encouraging and affiliative norms. Defensive cultural types include norms that influence employees to pursue tasks and approach others in ways designed to protect their own personal security. Passive defensive culture related behavioral norms are: approval, conventional, dependent and avoidance norms. Behavioral norms most closely linked to aggressive defensive cultures are: oppositional, power, competitive and perfectionistic norms (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke and Szumal, 1993, 2000).

Glisson and James (2002) maintain Cooke and Rousseau (1988) and Cooke and Szumal's (1993, 2000) definition of constructive cultures as the promotion of positive, proactive behaviors and the encouragement of interactions that meet higher level satisfactions needs. The Organizational Culture Survey also, follows the original conceptualization of defensive cultures as norms that encourage protective and reactive behavior and promote interactions meant to meet lower security needs (CMHSRC, 2000; Glisson & James, 2002).

The *Organizational Culture Survey* measures organizational culture among groups (i.e., teams, units, organizations). As Glisson & James (2002) emphasize, when using the type of cross-level analysis that was employed in the current study, the manner in which questions are posed in the questionnaire is extremely important. For instance,

one cannot pose questions tailored to participants' perceptions of individuals and expect to receive valid responses that indicate the shared nature of cultural elements in groups. Therefore, the general query for all items on the questionnaire is: "For the items below, please indicate the extent to which members of your organizational unit are expected to..." (CMHSRC, 2000, p. B1; see survey instrument in Appendix B).

The *Organizational Culture Survey* is a 99-item measure that uses a five-point Likert scale format in which respondents endorse agreement with item statements ranging between: "Not at All, To a Slight Extent, To a Moderate Extent, To a Great Extent, To a Very Great Extent" (CMHSRC, 2000). The measure results in responses that indicate perceptions of shared cultural types: constructive, passive defensive and active defensive. However, in the current study the active defensive scale was not utilized. This omission was due to the results of construct validity analyses conducted on the original measure (the *Organizational Culture Inventory*). Though the three major scales performed well in terms of convergent validity, discriminant validity proved to be more of a challenge among the two defense scales across a large total sample over several studies (Cooke & Szumal, 1993). Factor analysis with varimax rotation was used to analyze both convergent and discriminant validity. Cross-loadings or dual-loadings occurred among four of the subscales between the aggressive defensive and passive defensive scales. Though they loaded high on the aggressive defensive scale as expected, both the oppositional and perfectionistic subscales of the aggressive defensive scale exhibited cross-loadings of $\geq .40$ on the passive defensive scale. Similarly, two of the subscales in the passive defensive scale, conventional and avoidance, demonstrated cross-loadings ($\geq .40$) on the aggressive defensive scale (Cooke & Szumal, 1993). The authors suggest that

cross-loadings for the oppositional (aggressive defensive scale) and avoidance (passive defensive scale) subscales may reflect some of the “subtle similarities” in conceptualization between the two subscales and that they may serve to “link” the aggressive and passive norms associated with defensiveness (Cooke & Szumal, 1993, p. 1314). However, the other cross-loadings mentioned above afford no such conceptual explanation. Overall in Cooke and Szumal’s (1993) extensive analyses, the aggressive defensive scale appeared to have performed slightly weaker than the passive defensive scale. For instance, the internal consistency statistics, Cronbach’s alpha, though generally acceptable with most samples studied, were somewhat lower overall for the subscales in the aggressive defensive scale (especially the oppositional subscale: $\alpha = .71, .67, .72, .75$ over four studies) than those for the passive defensive scales (with the exception of the dependent subscale: $\alpha = .73, .75, .65, .77$ over four studies). All other alphas on the other ten scales in the studies were $\alpha \geq .75$ across four studies. According to Pett, Lackey, & Sullivan (2003) Cronbach’s alpha may be useful for researchers as a guide to assist in the placement of cross-loading items with the factor that has the stronger alpha value.

In a subsequent study with a sample of nurses, Klakovich (1996) discovered a problem with multicollinearity between the passive defensive and aggressive defensive scales. The correlation between the two scales in that study was $r = .82, p \leq .001$. The researcher elected to address the problem by summing the scales and creating a composite variable comprised of both scales that she simply called the “defensive culture” scale.

Glisson and James (2002) report findings with the passive defensive scale but do not report use of the aggressive defensive scale, or what they have named the “active defensive scale.” The authors do not supply the reason for this choice. The only explanation offered is that they selected the constructive and passive defensive scales (omitting the active defensive scale), “...on the basis of our preliminary studies and understanding of the cultures of these systems...” (p. 777). However, the researchers did use confirmatory factor analysis that resulted in a two factor solution for organizational culture (constructive and passive defensive) with the sample they studied. Though they did not specifically say their CFA analysis contributed to the exclusion of the active defensive scale, this appears to be a logical conclusion (Glisson & James, 2002).

Since the organizational culture measures used in the current study are those used by Glisson and James (2002), a comparison of the alpha coefficients from the passive and active defensive scales produced may be helpful to guide decision making. The alpha values were acceptable for both scales. However, the mean of the four passive defensive subscale alphas ($\alpha=.83$) is somewhat higher than the mean of the four aggressive defensive subscale alphas ($\alpha=.80$) (CMHSRC, 2000). Using alpha levels as a guide, the passive defensive scales appear to be slightly stronger in internal consistency which contributes to the decision to utilize the passive defensive scale and exclude the active defensive scale (Pett, et al., 2003).

In summary, discriminant analysis reveals some conceptual and empirical overlap between the aggressive or active defensive scale and the passive defensive scale. These results have been demonstrated with several samples over time. Therefore, the active defensive scale was not used in the current study.

The internal consistency indicators (Cronbach's alpha) for the constructive and passive defensive scales of the *Organizational Culture Survey* were all in what DeVellis (2003) calls the "very good" range in previous studies. The following were alpha values for the constructive and passive defensive scales in a recent study: constructive culture scale= motivation - $\alpha=.84$, interpersonal - $\alpha=.91$, supportive - $\alpha=.87$, individualistic - $\alpha=.86$; passive defensive culture scale = consensus - $\alpha=.85$, evasion - $\alpha=.84$, conformity - $\alpha=.82$, subservient - $\alpha=.82$ (CMHSRC, 2000; Glisson & James, 2002).

Test-retest reliability was strong for the original measures (the *Organizational Culture Inventory*) with significant changes in only one cultural style over a two-year period (a minor decrease in achievement $z = -2.75$, $p < .01$) in one sample and relatively small changes on two cultural styles in another sample (humanistic $z = 3.36$, $p < .001$ and affiliative $z = 1.90$, $p < .05$). The three cultural styles mentioned were all part of the constructive culture scale in the OCI (Cooke & Szumal, 1993).

Overall, criterion analyses reveal significant associations in the expected directions between the cultural scales and several criterion variables. The constructive scale significantly correlated in a positive direction with "clarity of norms" ($r=.44$, $p < .001$), "person environment fit" ($r=.46$, $p < .001$) "overall satisfaction" ($r=.49$, $p < .001$), "recommended organization" (respondents would recommend employment in the organization to others, $r=.48$, $p < .001$) and most important to this study, "intention to stay" ($r=.30$, $p < .001$). Negative moderate correlations resulted from correlations between constructive culture with "normative inconsistency" ($r = -.35$, $p < .001$) and "person environment conflict" ($r = -.27$, $p < .001$) (Cooke & Szumal, 1993).

Criterion analyses also resulted in moderate correlations between passive defensive cultures in the negative direction with, clarity of norms ($r = -.29, p < .001$), person environment fit ($r = -.36, p < .001$), overall satisfaction ($r = -.35, p < .001$), recommend the organization ($r = -.39, p < .001$), and the intention to stay ($r = -.24, p < .001$). Finally, passive defensive cultures correlated in a positive direction with, normative inconsistency ($r = .36, p < .001$), and person environment conflict ($r = .31, p < .001$) (Cooke & Szumal, 1993). The correlations between constructive cultures and passive defensive cultures with the criterion variables were significant and in the expected directions providing support for the criterion validity of the measures.

Work Attitudes

The scales that were employed to measure job satisfaction, commitment to the field of CWS (occupation), commitment to the organization, and service orientation, were adapted from Landsman (2000, 2001). Each of these scales employs a Likert scale format with five response categories ranging between: “Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neither Agree nor Disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree” (Landsman, 2000). The scales concerning each variable mentioned above tend to be concise at approximately three-items per scale.

The internal consistency indicators for each scale in Landsman’s (2000) study were all in DeVellis’ (2003) “respectable” or “very good” range. The alphas for each scale were: job satisfaction - $\alpha = .81$, commitment to the occupation (field of CWS) - $\alpha = .76$, commitment to the organization - $\alpha = .76$, and service orientation - $\alpha = .83$ (Landsman, 2000).

The convergent and discriminant validity of these scales was investigated using confirmatory factor analysis. Convergent validity was supported for all of the scales that were used in the current study. The criterion of $\geq .30$ was used as the cut off for significant loadings. This is congruent with generally accepted guidelines for the inclusion of factor loadings (Pett, et al., 2003). On each of the scales used from Landsman's (2000, 2001) measures, the loadings from each item on relevant factors were well above .30. She states that no variables were excluded due to the inability to load together at the $\geq .30$ level. In fact, the lowest loading value was one of the items used for occupational commitment at .58. Landsman (2000) does not include all of the loadings in the tables that display the factor loadings so there is no way to verify the absence of cross-loading.

Discriminant validity was also confirmed utilizing multiple measures of goodness of fit for the whole model and confirmatory factor analysis. Absolute measures of fit resulted in a Goodness of Fit Index - .88, Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index - .85, and Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation - .034. Comparative measures of fit included a Comparative Fit Index - .92, Incremental Fit Index - .92, Nonnormed Fit Index - .90 and Bayesian Information Criterion (-10206.43) (Landsman, 2000). The confirmatory factor analysis was applied to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, commitment to the occupation (the field of CWS), intent to stay in CWS and intent to stay in the organization. After a null model was estimated, with each of these variables as independent factors, successively increasing factor models were estimated from a one-factor model through a five-factor model. The final five-factor model that assumed each of the variables were independent factors provided the best fit for the data. The results of

the CFA concerning the five models reveal that the five-factor model had the lowest X^2 of all the models ($X^2=1387.44$, a 584.28 decrease in X^2 from a 3-factor model with the next closest X^2 value) and the highest Goodness of Fit Index at .83 (Landsman, 2000).

Service Quality

The *ARC Service Quality* scale will be utilized in this study (CMHSRC, 2000).

The scale measures team or unit service quality. This is an eight-item scale that was developed specifically for Child Welfare Services and juvenile justice organizations (Glisson & James, 2002). The scale queries respondents for perceptions of their team or unit's service provision in terms of availability, responsiveness and continuity. No information was provided concerning the construct or criterion validity of the scale. However, face validity seems to have been achieved since the scale was constructed by "a group of experts." Internal consistency has been reported as higher than DeVellis' (2003) "very good" range, with an alpha of .92 (Glisson & James, 2002).

Retention

The intent to stay in the field of CWS and the intent to stay in the organization were gauged using measures from Landsman (2000, 2001). The measure for each of these variables consisted of three-items. The internal consistency indicators for both scales were in DeVellis' (2003) "respectable" range: intent to stay in the organization ($\alpha=.78$) and intent to stay in the occupation ($\alpha=.77$). The other psychometric properties of these measures have already been reported here in the *Work Attitudes* section. The CFA analysis reported in that section applies to these measures since both of them were included in that analysis.

Table 3 includes the measures that were utilized in the study. The specific item numbers from the survey used in this study are linked to the variables they were used to measure (see Appendix B). The measures used in the study are The Organizational Culture Survey (CMHSRC, 2000) for organizational culture, The Children's Services Organizational Climate Survey (CMHSRC, 2000) for organizational climate and Landsman's measures for the work attitudes variables and the two retention variables (2000, 2001, 2005 and M. J. Landsman, personal communication, February, 7th, 2006).

Table 3 *Measures and Survey Item Numbers for Primary Variables*

<i>Concepts</i>	Organizational culture	Service quality	Organizational climate	Work attitudes	Retention	Demographic
<i>Variables</i>	<u>Independent</u>	Moderator	Moderator	<u>Independent</u>	<u>Dependent</u>	Controls
<i>Survey Item Numbers</i>	Culture type: constructive	Unit/Team service quality	Climate type: engagement	Job satisfaction	Intent to stay: organization	Age, gender, agency, program, etc.
	7, 9, 13, 16, 17, 18, 21, 24, 26, 28, 30, 31, 33, 37, 38, 43, 50, 63, 64, 65, 66, 72, 75, 77, 78, 79, 81, 87, 93, 94, 95	29, 32, 45, 51, 59, 90, 97, 103	145, 147, 148, 150, 151, 152, 154, 155, 157, 158, 159	111, 112, 113, 114	120, 121, 122, 124, 125,	1, 2, 3, 4, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 133, 134, 135, 136
				Commitment to the organization		
				118, 119, 123		
<i>Survey Item Numbers</i>	Culture type: defensive		Climate type: stress	Commitment to the field of CWS	Intent to stay: field of CWS	
	5, 6, 11, 22, 36, 39, 40, 44, 46, 50, 52, 53, 54, 60, 61, 67, 71, 73, 74, 76, 83, 84, 86, 88, 89, 91, 92, 98, 101		144, 146, 149, 153, 156, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 167, 168, 169, 170, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176	128, 129, 131	126, 127, 130, 132,	
				Service orientation		
				115, 116, 117		
<i>Measures</i>	<i>Organizational Culture Survey</i>	<i>OCS</i>	<i>Organizational Climate Survey</i>	<i>Landsman</i>	<i>Landsman</i>	<i>Chenot</i>

Analytic Method

Table 4 *Levels of Variables in the Study*

Variable levels:	Individual	Group/Organizational
Variables by general category:	Work attitudes	Organizational culture
	Retention	Service quality
		Organizational climate

Table 4 illustrates the diverse levels of the variables employed in the current study. The analytic plan had to include an appropriate strategy to address the dissimilar levels of the study variables in order to enable simultaneous analysis of data across divergent levels. The appropriate strategy for this study was a composition model that is detailed below.

The method that was used to analyze the data concerning organizational culture in the current study was a cross-level method of analysis that allowed for group level (unit or team) data to be tested in analyses with individual level data that reference the same subjects but at different levels, composing “qualitatively different” constructs (Chan, 1998). In order to use this method, a composition model had to be used to “compose” the lower level (individual) data to the higher level data (unit or team) in the study sample.

Typical research, even when it is on organizational variables applies additive or aggregate models that simply sum individual (or lower) level scores, regardless of the variance among these scores (Chan, 1998). Unfortunately, this may lead to what has been called a “cross-level fallacy” (Hofstede, Bond, & Luk, 1993). According to Hofstede, et al., (1993) the most common and least recognized cross-level fallacy is the interpretation of individual level data as if they apply to social systems. The use of composition models, other than the simple additive approach, addresses this problem and allows the researcher to avoid the cross-level fallacy of misinterpreting individual level data as system/group level data. An example of the fallacy which often occurs in research was provided by Chan (1998) following Guzzo et al., who pointed out that using the summed means of team-members’ self-efficacy ratings to indicate team-level self efficacy is incorrect because the scores still indicate the individual team-members’ perceptions of their own self-efficacy not the efficacy of the team as a whole. This example highlights the importance of item wording on measures meant to elicit group level data. Appropriate item wording was addressed in this study.

In organizational studies the use of composition models is useful in order to determine if there is within group agreement or consensus in units or teams. Composition models utilize the individual perceptions of the organizational personnel queried. However, the individual level responses are transformed into constructs conceptualized to exist at the group level (Chan, 1998).

The composition model that will be applied in the current study has been called the *referent-shift consensus model* (Chan, 1998). In studies of organizational culture this is the appropriate composition model since organizational culture is by definition shared

among individuals, yet individuals must be queried in order to discover the extent and nature of consensus among them (Glisson & James, 2002). Therefore, a strategy is needed to transform data collected from individuals into a group level construct that may be used for hypothesis testing (Chan, 1998). The *referent-shift consensus model* facilitates that transformation, "...because the change in referent results in a new form of the original focal construct that is conceptually distinct from the original form" (Chan, 1998, p. 239). As Glisson and James (2002) put it, "...there is a shift in the referent of the lower-level attributes prior to consensus assessment. The referent is moved from the self to the collective" (p. 771). When using such a model, the manner in which questions are posed to the respondents in the survey is very important. If respondents are asked to refer only to themselves the data may still be composed but validity of the group level data is limited due to the nature of item wording on the survey. If the participants are posed questions about their units or organizations the focus of the questions themselves lends to the validity of the research. In the survey used in the current study, the questions concerning culture all began with a general prompt that asked respondents to rate "members of your organizational unit" in order to increase the validity of the results.

The *referent-shift consensus model* has been used once before to investigate the nature of cultures among teams of PCWS social workers and case managers (Glisson & James, 2002). Consensus was demonstrated and cultural types were identified among teams allowing for hypothesis testing with identified cultural types (constructive and defensive) as variables utilized for data analysis.

Human Subjects

The risk to the subjects in this study was minimal. Social work professionals would not be considered a vulnerable population by most observers. Participants were informed that their participation would contribute to the knowledge-base concerning the retention of social workers in PCWS and the possible relationships between organizational culture and the retention of social workers in PCWS agencies. Along with the investigation of these relationships, additional information would be gained concerning work attitudes and service quality. The information produced by this study was projected to help identify the factors that may contribute to alterations in the organizational cultures that surround all PCWS social workers/case managers in a manner that encourages an increase in retention, and improvements in service quality.

However, the immediate benefit subjects received was entry in a drawing for ten possible awards. Questionnaire completers were offered the opportunity to sign up for a drawing. Names and other identifying information submitted for the drawing were maintained independently from completed questionnaires and signed informed consent forms. Questionnaires were anonymously endorsed. The first prize in the drawing was \$100 and was awarded to a person whose number was drawn using a random number generator. The winner of the second prize (\$50), and the third and fourth prizes (\$25) were chosen in the same manner. The other prizes were awarded in the form of gift certificates (\$15 each) to Borders Bookstores. Awardees were chosen with a random number generator.

The questionnaire was administered on-site in agencies or established on a secure website on the internet. Each participant was invited to complete the survey through an e-

mail message sent via the agencies' administrators or Human Resources personnel. Prior to completing the survey in person or seeing the questionnaire on the survey website, all participants were provided a letter that included pertinent information about the study, the researcher's name and contact information, the name of the dissertation Chair, Victor Groza PhD and the contact information for the Case Western Reserve University Institutional Review in case participants had any questions about the research. Subjects who completed the website version of the survey were not able to move on to the survey without checking a "waiver of informed consent" box. Whether or not they chose to continue and respond to the questionnaire, no identifying information was gathered about them. On the hardcopy questionnaires that were administered at agencies, no identifying information was gathered concerning respondents other than demographic information which could not be linked to a name or any other specific identifiers. Queries concerning the respondents' agencies and the unit or team in which they work were included.

The data collected for this study was saved on two flash drives and locked in a filing cabinet in the researcher's office. It was also saved on the hard-drive of the researcher's computer which was password protected.

General IRB approval for this study and specifically the informed consent letter used in this study was granted by the IRB Committee at Case Western Reserve University on January 5th, 2006 (see Appendix C). Formal written approval to collect data had to be sought from each PCWS county agency's administration (see Appendix D). Subsequently, approval letters from each agency were submitted to the IRB Committee at Case Western Reserve University. IRB approval was processed differentially by the committee for each of the eleven county agencies that participated in the study. The

researcher did not collect data in any county prior to notification that approval was given by the IRB for each county specifically.

Survey Instrument Pilot Test

The survey instrument used in this study appears in Appendix B. The instrument was pilot tested on January 10, 2006 in Lancaster, California. Dr. David Cherin's first year Research class in the Master of Social Work program at California State University Bakersfield agreed to pilot the survey. Though seven of the students in the class were employed in a PCWS agency (the Los Angeles County Department of Children and Family Services), it was not one of the agencies included in the current study. Eleven responses were received. The results of the pilot test supplied the researcher with information about the length of time it took the average participant to complete the survey. In addition, feedback from the respondents and Dr. Cherin led to changes in some of the headings for items that were grouped by subject from Landsman's (2000, 2001, 2005) measures (see p. 5 of the survey in Appendix B). In order to neutralize the connotations of the original titles some of them were changed: *Job Satisfaction* was changed to *Job Appraisal*; *Supervisor Support* and *Peer Support* were changed to *Supervisors* and *Peers* (data from the last two categories were not used in this study). The responses from the pilot test were not included in this study or used for any other data analysis purposes.

Sample Frame and Power Analysis

Each of the 58-counties in California has its own county administered PCWS agency that functions under the umbrella of the California State Department of Social Services. The county agencies have a great deal of autonomy and tend to operate with county-specific discretion (within broad fiscal and operational parameters).

The sample for the current study was drawn from employees in the Public Child Welfare Services agencies in 11-counties in Central California. The following are the titles of the county agencies included in this study: Fresno County Department of Children and Family Services, Kern County Department of Human Services, Kings County Human Services Agency, Madera County Department of Social Services, Merced County Human Services Agency, San Joaquin County Human Services Agency, San Luis Obispo County Department of Social Services, Santa Barbara County Department of Social Services, Stanislaus County Community Services Agency, Tulare County Health & Human Services Agency, Ventura County Human Services Agency. For the remainder of this document they will be referred to by the names of the counties in which they are located.



Figure 11. Central California Counties Included in the Study

The counties that compose Central California span a great deal of geographic and demographic territory. The concerns and issues that affect PCWS agencies in the Central California counties are somewhat unique to the region and, therefore, have prompted the directors of eleven Central California counties to form an association with the three major

universities that serve Central California called the Central California Area Social Service Consortium (CCASSC).

The PCWS county agencies represented in the CCASSC are: Fresno, Kern, Kings, Madera, Mariposa, Merced, San Joaquin, San Luis Obispo, Santa Barbara, Stanislaus and Tulare counties. All of these county agencies were invited to participate in this study. The administration at the PCWS agency in Mariposa County was notified about the study but declined to participate. The agency is quite small (at the time of sample recruitment there were approximately five social workers employed in CWS positions) so the impact on the overall sample size was minimal. In addition, Ventura County was included in this study. Ventura County was included as within the “Central Region” in the CalSWEC Workforce study (Clark, 2004).

The unique issues in Central California encountered within these counties include high poverty rates. Nine of the counties in the central region of California are among the poorest counties in California (Clark & Fulcher, 2005). Child poverty rates in the region highlight the difficulties for children and families since child poverty rates in the San Joaquin Valley (23%), where nine of these counties are located, outpace child poverty rates throughout the state (18%) (Goodban, Ortiz, Hedderson, & Branton, 2004). In fact, several of the counties included in this study have the highest child poverty rates in California: Tulare (33%), Fresno (30%), Madera and Merced (29%) (Goodban, et al., 2004). In addition, the county PCWS agencies in this study have some of the highest child maltreatment substantiation rates in California (Clark & Fulcher, 2005). Since an association has been noted between poverty and child maltreatment, nationally and in California, there is a great need for well-staffed PCWS organizations in the region (Clark

& Fulcher, 2005; Courtney, 1998). (It is important to note that association does not establish causation.)

The total number of PCWS employees that formed the sampling frame for this study was approximately 1607 (in 2004 figures) within the county agencies included in this study (Clark, 2004; Clark & Fulcher, 2005). This figure was the total of those in all applicable positions sampled here. The selected county PCWS agencies employed approximately 1117-social workers and case managers in “child welfare social worker” positions and 200-“child welfare supervisors” in 2004 (Clark, 2004; Clark & Fulcher, 2005).

The sample in the current study was drawn primarily from the census of social workers/case managers and supervisors working in PCWS positions in the eleven county agencies mentioned above in Central California during the data collection period. The method of sampling was accomplished in a convenience sampling manner from multiple sites. Random sampling would have been cost prohibitive and would likely have minimized the quantity of PCWS workers in the study. In fact, it would have been difficult to get the names of all CWS social worker/case managers in each of the agencies in order to choose every n th person to invite into study participation. Also, relying on agency personnel to identify every n th social worker/case manager for the researcher and asking them to provide the survey to each of those selected in this process might have produced implementation infidelity and inconsistent results. Finally, in order to obtain ample statistical power for the data analysis, the larger the sample size recruited into the study the more statistical power would be achieved (Murphy & Myors, 2004). While random sampling would have limited the number of participants, convenience sampling

yielded the largest sample possible at the time and ensured adequate statistical power.

The implementation of multilevel modeling methodology in this study required a large enough sample to support the amount of statistical power needed to adequately complete the data analysis. Since convenience sampling was more likely to yield larger numbers of participants than random sampling, convenience sampling was used. This was particularly important since recruiting sufficient numbers from various units/teams within PCWS agencies was essential in order to use group level data for the analysis of organizational culture.

Prior to sample recruitment, the sample size required in order to achieve adequate statistical power for the study was estimated. In order to arrive at helpful estimates for the present investigation, data from studies that examined similar populations and one that included similar methodology were used as approximations. For some of the hypothesized relationships between variables in the study there were no previous empirical analyses from which to draw, so an appropriate power analysis could not be completed (hypotheses 1 and 2). Since hierarchical linear modeling is a special application of multiple regression, estimations of the sample size and power needed when using multiple regression can be used to approximate the statistical power and sample size required in this study. In order to estimate the sample size needed to achieve an acceptable level of power, 'variance explained' values from Glisson & James' (2002) study were used in Cohen's power analysis equation for multiple regression (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). The alpha value was set at $\alpha \leq .05$ and the desired power level was .80 for each of these estimations. Power levels of .80 or higher are considered acceptable (Cohen, 1988). In an analysis that included organizational culture as the

predictor and work attitudes as the criterion Glisson and James' (2002) found a variance explained figure of .155. Calculations with the following parameters for analyses concerning organizational culture and work attitudes, 5-IVs (hypothesis 3, includes interaction terms), and an explained variance figure of .155, resulted in a projected sample size of $n=76$. A moderate effect size can be detected when 5-IVs are utilized with a power of .80 and a sample size of $n=92$ subjects according to the rough guidelines provided by Newton and Rudestam (1999) concerning power in multiple regression analysis. Therefore, a sample size of approximately $n=76$ to $n=92$ would provide sufficient power in the present study. (Newton & Rudestam, 1999)

An analysis of organizational culture and service quality resulted in explained variance of .132 (Glisson and James, 2002). Therefore, 1-IV (hypotheses 5 & 6) and the explained variance figure (.132) were used to calculate a sample size of $n=54$ in reference to the relationship between organizational culture and service quality. With 3-IVs and the explained variance figure of .132 in a separate analysis of these variables and their relationships with the intent to stay (hypothesis 7, includes an interaction term), calculations using Cohen's power equation resulted in a required sample size of $n=75$ (Cohen, et al., 2003).

The same type of analysis can be carried out with the results reported in Landsman's (2000, 2001) study of PCWS social workers/case managers. She applied path analysis with structural equation modeling, therefore, the direct effect values which resulted for the endogenous variables may be considered partial r statistics, squared and used in Cohen's formula for estimating power (Cohen, et al., 2003). The alpha was set at $\alpha \leq .05$, and desired power at .80, in each calculation. For intent to stay in the field of

CWS, the direct effects of two variables in Landsman's (2000, 2001) study, that were also used in this study (hypothesis 4), were used to estimate desired sample sizes: with 5-IVs (includes interaction terms) occupational commitment ($.614^2=.377$) resulted in $n= 27$, and service orientation ($.30^2=.09$) resulted in $n= 136$. Similar calculations were processed concerning the intent to stay in the organization. Using the direct effect value from organizational commitment ($.597^2=.356$) with 5-IVs (includes interaction terms) yielded a desired sample size of $n= 29$ (hypothesis 3). However, job satisfaction had a low direct effect on intent to stay in the organization ($.178^2=.032$) so the resulting estimated sample size with 5-IVs (includes interaction terms) was $n= 395$.

The cross-level nature of the data in this study required an additional adjustment to the results of power calculations for the use of multilevel modeling (Hox, 2002). Once the sample size estimate was accomplished using Cohen's procedure calculated above, a correction for what Kish called the "design effect" in multilevel models had to be applied. This required use of the following equation to correct the sample size estimate: $n_{eff} = n/[1+(n_{clus}-1)p]$ (Kish cited in Hox, 2002). Where n_{eff} =the effective sample size or number of people per group, n_{clus} =the cluster size or number of groups, n =total sample size, and p = the intraclass correlation (Kish cited in Hox, 2002). In order to insert the values into this equation the cluster size or number of groups must first be estimated.

However, since Hox (2002) asserts that in multilevel models power increases more effectively due to an increase in groups than an increase in individuals, the way to calculate the largest number of groups is to view each program unit in each agency as a group. Each agency has a minimum of five-ten units that have the same purposes and similar titles. Clark and Fulcher (2005) name nine "child welfare program areas" in

California PCWS agencies but omit court units. To account for the differences in agencies, choosing five seems to be a conservative approach. So, multiplying the program units in each agency by the number of agencies yields $(5)(12) = 60$.

Using the sample size estimate for work attitudes gained from Glisson and James (2002) study of $n=76$, and the intraclass correlation they report for the work attitudes model $ICC = .178$, the correction equation yields an estimated total sample size needed of $n=420$ with 7-people per program unit. Correcting the service quality sample size estimate of $n=75$ with 60-groups and an $ICC=.111$ from Glisson and James' (2002) data, to achieve a power of .80, requires a total sample $n=596$ with approximately 10-people per group. However, the other sample size estimate for service quality was $n=54$. When submitted to the correction a new sample size of $n=429$ results with 60-groups of 10-people each.

These estimated sample sizes were quite large. However, according to Hox (2002), the intraclass correlations reported in Glisson and James' (2002) study were rather large values for organizational research. The high ICC values combined with the sample size in their study ($n=283$ with 33 groups and an average of 10 people per group) appear to be indications that Glisson and James' (2002) study was somewhat underpowered. A larger sample and lower ICC values in their study would have decreased the estimated sample size requirements for the present study.

With the estimates generated from previous studies as the context the sample size recruited in the current study appears to be adequate for multilevel modeling analysis. In this study, there were $n=767$ individual employees in $n=34$ groups included in the

sample. The number of groups was lower than estimated prior to sample recruitment. See the section on *Group Formation* for a detailed explication of the groups in the sample.

Data Collection

Data collection began in late January, 2006 and lasted from January-July, 2006. General IRB approval for this study and specifically the informed consent letter used in this study was granted by the IRB Committee at Case Western Reserve University on January 5th, 2006 (see Appendix C).

Prior to the initiation of data collection, agency approval for the study had to be gained from each of the 11-PCWS Agencies that participated in the study. As this process unfolded it was clear that the unique characteristics of the administrations at each agency required distinct strategies in order to garner approval for the study. The one common trait required to gain approval across all of the agencies was a great deal of perseverance. Separate approval letters were requested and received from each of the 11-PCWS Agencies that participated in the study. These letters were then sent to the IRB Committee at Case Western Reserve University. After IRB approval was granted for data collection at the agencies, arrangements were made with each agency to begin administering the survey to agency employees.

The researcher offered to administer the survey in a place and a format deemed least intrusive by administrators to the workday of the agency employees being surveyed. Nine of the agencies allowed the researcher to collect data on site. In most cases, the survey was administered at previously scheduled unit or division level meetings. In some cases the author was invited to administer the survey at training workshops or employee

appreciation meetings. Any invitation to collect data at a meeting deemed appropriate by agency administrators or supervisors was accepted. At one agency, meetings were scheduled with no other agenda than the administration of the survey (Merced County). In one instance, an employee appreciation meeting was held outdoors at a city park and the researcher administered the survey in that setting (Kern County, one division).

Administrators at two agencies elected not to have the researcher collect data in person. One of the agency administrators chose to have an agency staff member collect data within the agency (Fresno County). At the other agency, (San Joaquin County) the responsible administrator did not want the author to collect data on site but accepted the author's offer to collect data via a website on the internet. However, after the survey was placed on "Survey Monkey," only four successful responses were gathered before technical problems prohibited further responses from employees at the agency through the website. As a result, the administrator suggested the researcher mail hardcopies of the surveys to a staff trainer who would disseminate them to those interested in responding. The author agreed and mailed surveys to the agency.

Agency employees were recruited for the survey in a variety of ways. The most common of these were either e-mail messages sent to agency personnel in which they were invited to take the survey at a meeting they might be attending or a similar message spread by 'word of mouth.' A common alternative was the inclusion of a line on meeting agendas announcing survey administration at future staff meetings. In some cases, these were e-mailed to appropriate divisions or units prior to meetings and on other occasions they were not. At some agencies employees were not notified about the survey in any way until the researcher appeared at the meeting they attended and invited their

participation. Early in the data collection process it became obvious that attempts to control the notification process were not going to be successful. It was clear that agency personnel were going to notify potential respondents in their agencies about the survey in any way they deemed appropriate despite requests for uniformity from the researcher. Due to this eventuality, attempts to gain a count of how many employees were actually notified by e-mails, word of mouth or meeting agenda announcements yielded only general and inaccurate estimates. Since the methods of notification of potential participants were not under the control of the researcher and were heterogeneous across agencies (and often divisions within agencies), it is not possible to produce a reliable total number of employees who were notified about the survey.

The vast majority of completed surveys were gathered through in-person administration of the survey by the researcher or his research assistant. Out of the 831-completed surveys gathered, approximately 756-surveys or 91% were gathered through in-person administration. The number of surveys gathered by agency personnel was approximately 72 or roughly 9% of the total. The on-line version of the survey yielded only four completed surveys, three of which were usable.

In-person survey administration was normally accomplished at agencies during previously scheduled meetings or gatherings of many employees. At each meeting, the researcher (or his assistant) delivered a short introduction to the study, answered any questions about the study, distributed the surveys and collected the surveys when they were completed. The researcher was often present in the room while respondents completed the survey. If questions were raised during survey administration the author would either postpone answering until those that asked questions were finished with the

survey or, if they were persistent, the author would supply minimal answers and encourage them to continue completing the survey.

The researcher often brought cookies or other snacks to meetings and offered all participants entry to a drawing for cash prizes described in the section on *Human Subjects*.

The researcher administered the survey at 27-agency meetings from January to July 2006 and traveled 4101 miles during that time period to collect data. A research assistant gathered data at four additional meetings for a total of 31-survey administration sessions.

Inclusion Criteria and Response Rate

Inclusion criteria for the composition of the final sample in this study were informed by an emphasis on the retention of PCWS social workers and those who work directly with them in PCWS Agencies. Those who offer child welfare services and those who work directly with them are the key informants concerning the relevant dynamics that unfold in PCWS agencies and in the field of CWS. In this context, study participants had to either offer direct services or supervise or train those who do. The position titles included in the sample were human service aides (and equivalent titles), nurses, case managers, social workers, supervisors and administrative assistants. As data collection began it was evident that in some PCWS Agencies in Central California, registered nurses are employed in CWS Divisions and offer services with various units within CWS. Many human service aides also offer direct services on CWS teams with social workers. Since Glisson (CMHRC, 2000) recommends surveying all agency employees when using the organizational culture and organizational climate measures implemented in this study,

and both nurses and human services aides meet the criteria of offering direct CWS services, they were included in the sample. In addition, administrative assistants or staff analysts were included because in PCWS Agencies in Central California they are former line social workers who work with those offering direct services on a daily basis. They tend to have a great deal of knowledge about direct child welfare services in their agencies. Some analyses were completed differentially in order to yield results for social workers and case managers separately from supervisors and the other positions represented in the study.

Administrators were excluded from the study because they are often removed from the provision of direct services due to their positions and may have been for many years. Their positions also appear to contribute to a unique perspective of the agency that may lead to high levels of identification with the agency. Support staff, such as office assistants or other clerical personnel, were also excluded since they have never offered direct child welfare services to clients.

Participants had to be currently working in the child welfare divisions of their employing agencies at the time of survey completion in order to be included in the sample. Most of the 11-agencies have several divisions that include the delivery of services such as TANF, Medi-cal, Food Stamps, CalWorks and the provision of services to adults such as Adult Protective Services, IHSS, etc, all of which are considered separate from Child Welfare Services in most of the agencies. The sample contains only those who work in CWS Divisions. Table 5 illustrates the numbers of appropriate employees who were invited to take the survey.

Table 5 *Data Collection by County Agency*

Agency County	Number Invited	Surveys Completed		Usable Surveys		Unusable Surveys	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
Fresno	252	58	23	56	22	2	1
Kern	247	239	97	230	93	9	4
Kings	51	49	96	47	92	2	4
Madera	30	26	87	26	87	0	0
Merced	39	36	92	34	87	2	5
San Joaquin	172	17	10	15	9	2	1
San Luis Obispo	53	51	96	50	94	1	2
Santa Barbara	42	42	100	38	91	4	10
Stanislaus	72	71	99	64	89	7	10
Tulare	139	137	99	117	84	20	14
Ventura	108	105	97	90	83	15	14
Total	1205	831	69	767	64	64	5

% figures not exact due to rounding.

Surveys were considered “unusable” following data collection for several reasons.

Since e-mails and word of mouth invitations were broadly dispersed among agency employees, some of those who received notice of the survey via e-mail did not meet the

inclusion criteria for the study. Consequently, the responses of those who were not in the CWS part of their agencies yet completed the survey had to be excluded from the sample (8).

In addition, due to the nature of data collection for this study many meetings at which the survey was administered included agency personnel that were not appropriate for inclusion in the sample yet completed surveys. For instance, office assistants were present at many data collection meetings (especially in Tulare and Ventura Counties). Though the exclusion of office assistants was included in introductory remarks early in the data collection period, it became clear as data collection progressed that it was most expedient to allow anyone present who wished to complete the survey to do so. Subsequently, surveys completed by those who filled positions that were not appropriate for the study were removed from analysis. The group of those who were excluded by position title composed the largest proportion of the total in the “Unusable Surveys” column of Table 5. The numbers of surveys excluded due to respondents’ titles were: office assistants (31), administrators (7), eligibility workers (2) and educational interns that were not employees (5). Other surveys that were considered unusable simply contained such a large number of illegible or missing responses that they were eliminated from consideration (11).

The response rate in this study was 69% with a rate of 64% for usable surveys. However, if the two county agencies that opted for alternate methods of survey administration, Fresno and San Joaquin, are removed from the calculation, the response rate increases dramatically to 89%. In both of those agencies response rates were

deleteriously affected by the methods of data collection in comparison to the response rates at the other nine agencies.

In order to test for potential systematic bias in the data, the sample in the current study was compared to census data and response rates gathered in the recent CalSWEC workforce study (Clark, 2004, Clark & Fulcher, 2005). In order to enhance clarity in this comparison the current study will be referred to as the Organizational Culture and Retention or OCR study.

In the CalSWEC study the attempt to survey CWS personnel in PCWS agencies throughout California yielded a 43.3% response rate for social workers and supervisors statewide (Clark and Fulcher, 2005). However, when the overall response rate in the CalSWEC study is calculated for the 11-counties included in the OCR study, 63% of all CWS employees (in all categories including support staff) responded. In the OCR study the overall response rate of 64% is close to the response rate in the CalSWEC study. Central California response rates differentiated by position title in the CalSWEC study were as follows: social workers 42% and supervisors 13% (figured out of the total of all applicable employees) (Clark, 2004). Differential response rates were similar in the current OCR study for social workers and case managers 47% and supervisors 11%.

In order to produce a rough estimate of the numbers of respondents in the current study out of the entire census of applicable CWS personnel employed in Central California, census data from the CalSWEC study was used for comparison (Clark, 2004; Clark and Fulcher, 2005). The total of all applicable personnel in that study was 1607, in 2004 (Clark, 2004). (This figure represents applicable personnel in the 11-counties included in the current study.) The census total was used to calculate the percentage of

employees who responded in the current study out of all applicable employees. The number of valid responses in the current study compared to the total figure listed for applicable personnel in the CalSWEC study yields a response rate of 48%. However, this figure and the comparison that yielded this percentage must be viewed with caution since the data for the CalSWEC study was collected in 2004 and the data for the current study was collected in 2006 (Clark and Fulcher, 2005). The census of all applicable employees in 2006 in the eleven counties included in the current study may have changed substantially in the two year gap between data collection periods.

The following is a comparison of the samples included in both studies. Social workers and case managers comprise 76.7% of the sample in this study and supervisors make up 16.6% of the sample (see Table 13). In the CalSWEC study, for Central California, social workers composed 63% of the sample and supervisors comprised 11% of the sample (Clark, 2004). However, the employee figures for the 11 focus counties in the CalSWEC study included all CWS employees including support staff and administrators. Support staff and administrators were excluded from the OCR study. Therefore, the figures for the two samples may be closer in proportional comparison than these percentages appear to indicate. An additional point is that social workers and supervisors were actively recruited for this study whereas other CWS employees such as nurses, administrative assistants and human service assistants were not. They were only included if they were present during data collection meetings. All position types were included in the CalSWEC study.

The respondents in the CalSWEC Workforce Study were not prompted for information about employee gender. In the current OCR study the gender proportions of

the total sample: 81% female and 19% male appear to roughly match what most informed observers might expect to find among social workers in PCWS Agencies (see Table 14).

A comparison of the ethnic breakdown of the samples in both studies is provided in Table 8 below. The percentages for the CalSWEC study are out of 1065 Central California PCWS employees. In the OCR study the percentages are out of the total sample n=767 Central California PCWS employees. There was a difference in the two samples concerning the manner in which some ethnicity data was categorized. In the current study there was no “multiethnic” category included. When respondents did not choose at least one of the choices offered with this survey item (i.e., wrote in other ethnicities instead) they were included in the “other” category. (No response at all was counted as missing data.) In the CalSWEC study respondents who indicated more than one ethnicity were placed in a “multiethnic” category, or an “other” category if their responses were indeterminate. Figures from both categories in the CalSWEC study were combined for this comparison.

Table 6 *Ethnicity of Samples Comparison*

Study	White	Hispanic	African American	Asian	American Indian	Multiethnic/ Other
OCR	53.9	29.6	8.5	3.8	1.2	3
CalSWEC	54.7	35	7.9	4.5	2.8	5.8

%=All figures represent percentages of the sample in each study.

In order to compare the proportional differences between the samples for each ethnic category Fisher’s exact test was employed. There were no significant differences

between the samples in the two studies for White, African American or Asian employees. However, there were significant differences for Hispanic employees ($\chi^2=5.13, p <.05$), American Indian personnel ($\chi^2=6.88, p <.01$), and those in the multiethnic/other category ($\chi^2=8.10, p <.01$). The results that may be the most useful are the findings that there appear to have been a somewhat higher representation of Hispanic and American Indian employees in the CalSWEC study than in the OCR study. However, analysis by position or title within the agency offers more informative detail than analysis of the entire sample in both studies.

A comparison of ethnic identity by agency position/title of the two groups that composed the largest elements in both studies is represented in Table 7. The differences among social workers only and supervisors only, between the studies, were analyzed using Fisher's Exact test.

Table 7 *Ethnicity Comparison, Social Workers and Supervisors Only*

Position Title/ Study	White	Hispanic	African American	Asian	American Indian	Multiethnic/ Other
<u>Social Workers</u>						
OCR	51	30	8.8	3.7	1.5	3
CalSWEC	48	31.9	7.6	4.7	2.2	5.3
<u>Supervisors</u>						
OCR	61	21	7	5.5	0	3.2
CalSWEC	61	21	4.9	3.5	2.8	6.3

%=All figures represent percentages of the social workers or supervisors only in each study.

Proportional differences tests concerning social workers revealed there were no significant differences between samples concerning any of the ethnic categories. Among supervisors, analysis concerning one ethnic category, American Indian supervisors revealed a significant difference between samples ($\chi^2=6.24, p <.05$). This difference is obvious since there were no American Indian supervisors in the current OCR study. Other than this difference, the results lead to the conclusion that the samples were quite similar concerning the agency personnel of greatest interest in this study. These may be considered contextual elements when the findings in the current study are considered. No conclusions can be drawn concerning American Indian supervisors in this study.

The ages of employees in the CalSWEC Workforce Study and the current study were quite similar. Though data on age was gathered in a different manner in the two studies the results may still be compared. In the CalSWEC study data was gathered with values for the exact ages of respondents while in the current study age groups were arranged in categories in the survey item prompting for age. Clark (2004) found the average age (mean) to be 38.9 and the median age for Central California to be 38. The mean and median for the sample in this study fell within the category “30-39.” Analysis utilizing an ANOVA test with Bonferroni procedures for comparison revealed significant differences in the ages among social workers, supervisors and administrative assistants in the CalSWEC study with those in Kern and Kings Counties significantly younger than those in several other counties, particularly San Luis Obispo. The same procedure was used to analyze the ages (in categories) of the sample in the current study with identical results between some counties. PCWS employees in both Kern and Kings Counties were significantly younger than those in San Luis Obispo County ($F(10, 707) = 3.97, p <.05$).

Personnel in San Luis Obispo were also significantly older on average than personnel in Fresno, Tulare and Stanislaus Counties in the current study. The other difference in these analyses was that in the CalSWEC study, Kern and Kings County personnel were significantly younger than staff in some additional counties (Kern – Merced, Ventura; Kings – Merced, Santa Barbara, Stanislaus, Ventura) but these results were not found in the OCR study. This may be due to a loss of some analytic specificity due to the aggregation of ages into groups in this study. An alternative explanation is that the overall age differences of the staff between these counties may have grown closer in the two year period between data collection for the two studies.

Comparisons of highest educational attainment by agency position may also be informative. Table 8 includes findings on the differences in highest level of education among social workers and among supervisors in the two studies.

Table 8 *Highest Level of Education Comparison*

Position/Study	Bachelor's Degrees	BSWs	Master's Degrees	MSWs
<u>Social Workers</u>				
OCR	54.3	11.5	38.9	25.7
CalSWEC	58.1	5.2	36.4	23.5
<u>Supervisors</u>				
OCR	29.4	7.9	62.7	42.3
CalSWEC	36	4.5	55.2	35.1

%=All figures represent percentages of the social workers or supervisors only in each study.

Fisher's exact test was used to compare the proportional differences in the samples concerning each of the educational categories listed in Table 8 differentially for social workers and supervisors. The comparisons of supervisors revealed no significant differences in any of the educational categories. However, among social workers there was one significant comparison in the proportional differences between the samples concerning those with BSW degrees ($\chi^2=17.40, p <.001$). The OCR sample included greater representation of BSWs than the CalSWEC sample did. This finding could reflect a hiring trend among Central California PCWS agencies that has increased the employment of BSWs in the two year span between data collection periods for the studies. It is also possible that social workers with BAs were proportionally more likely to self-select to participate in the current study than the CalSWEC study. Since social workers form the largest segment of the sample in this study, it is important to note that the proportional difference in BSWs may be reflected in the findings.

The final comparison between the current study and the CalSWEC Workforce Study concerns the length of time respondents indicated they had worked in the field of CWS across different counties in Central California. Clark (2004) found significant differences concerning years worked in the field in various counties in the CalSWEC study. In order to investigate this in the OCR study, an Analysis of Variance test with Bonferroni post hoc comparisons was implemented for years in the field indicated by those employed in various county agencies. There were significant differences between counties for years worked in CWS ($F(10, 712) = 3.120, p, <.05$) in this study that were similar to those in the CalSWEC study. The differences for years in the field in the OCR study mirrored the differences previously noted concerning the ages of personnel

between counties: those in San Luis Obispo County have worked in the field of CWS significantly longer than those in Kern and King Counties. This finding is not surprising since age and years worked often correlate highly in studies of PCWS personnel (Landsman, 2001, 2002).

Overall, there appear to be more similarities than differences between the composition of the large sample in the CalSWEC Workforce Study and that of the comparatively smaller sample in the current study (Clark, 2004; Clark & Fulcher, 2005). Significant differences include the absence of American Indian supervisors and the proportionally higher representation of social workers with BSW Degrees in the current study than in the CalSWEC Workforce Study (Clark, 2004).

Sample

The sample in the current study was recruited from eleven county Public Child Welfare Services Agencies in Central California. The distribution of the sample across the county PCWS Agencies in which respondents were employed is illustrated in Table 9.

Table 9 *County of Employment (PCWS Agency)*

County	Frequency	Percentage of Sample
Fresno	57	7.4
Kern	232	30.2
Kings	45	5.9

Madera	24	3.1
Merced	32	4.2
San Joaquin	15	2
San Luis Obispo	50	6.5
Santa Barbara	36	4.7
Stanislaus	63	8.2
Tulare	128	16.7
Ventura	85	11.1
Total	767	100

The PCWS Agencies of Central California include many different programs that offer a wide variety of services to children and families. Most of these programs are structured to fulfill various specific legal mandates which have been adopted over many years in California such as the California Welfare and Institutions Code (i.e., the 300 or ‘dependency section’) (California Welfare and Institutions Code, n. d.). In order to categorize the sample in this study by agency program the program titles were limited to general categories.

Study participants were asked to identify the programs they work in within their employing PCWS agencies. The identification of programs by respondents on the majority of surveys was straightforward. At times, however, study participants identified programs by specific labels unfamiliar to the researcher and most likely specific to their particular agencies. In some of these cases the researcher was able to make “educated guesses” about the general nature of the program listed by the respondent due to the title

which revealed something about the function of the respondent within the program.

These researcher categorizations were made concerning less than 1% of the surveys. The “other” category was used when the decision making process described above was not possible with the program title or initials provided by the participant or when the respondent left the program item blank on the survey.

Each of the PCWS program titles represented by respondents in the sample and a short description of each program are listed in Table 10.

Table 10 *PCWS Agency Programs and Descriptions*

PCWS - Program Title	
Differential Response*	Related to Emergency Response in most agencies. When reported incidents of child abuse or neglect are assessed as moderate in risk, families are provided services and encouraged to voluntarily access assistance from available community resources. Service provision is tailored to preempt the need for legal action for child protection.
Emergency Response*	Initial intake services in response to allegations of child abuse, neglect, etc. Includes investigations and determinations concerning the existence or risk of child abuse, neglect, etc. and situation-specific preventative or remedial service provision and/or referrals for more intensive services.
Family Maintenance*	Time-limited service provision aimed at maintaining children in the homes of their parents/caretakers while lowering risk to children and protecting them from abuse, neglect, etc.

Family Reunification*	Service provision to families and children designed to reunite families with lowered risk for repeated abuse, neglect, etc. after children have been removed from their families for protection.
Family Preservation*	Normally voluntary services, targeted to maintain families while lowering risk to children through intensive in-home service provision.
Permanency Planning*	Provision of an alternative permanent home structure for children that cannot safely remain in their family environments. Permanent plans may include; adoptions, legal guardianship or long-term foster care.
FM/FR	Respondents offer both Family Maintenance and Family Reunification services, when appropriate, to the clients they serve.
FR/PP	Respondents offer both Family Reunification and Permanency Planning services, when appropriate, to the clients they serve.
FR/FM/PP	Respondents offer Family Reunification, Family Maintenance or Permanency Planning services, when appropriate, to the clients they serve.
Ongoing	In most counties that have programs with this title, respondents may serve children through several programs over time, particularly after they are placed in out-of-home care, or offer program-specific services to children depending on the legal status in their cases, for instance FR or PP.
Court	Services include legal interactions concerning the protection of children, when required, including petition and report filing in initial

	cases and for legal reviews of cases over time in dependency courts.
ER/Court	Respondents offer both Emergency Response and Court specific services, when appropriate, to the clients they serve.
Adoptions	Facilitation of new permanent family placements for children who have been permanently removed from their families or caretakers.
Home Studies*	Assessments of adoptive families/homes in order to find the most appropriate homes for children who must be permanently removed from their families or caretakers. Kinship homes and foster homes for children who must be removed from their families or caretakers, permanently or temporarily, must also be assessed for appropriateness.
Relative Assessment	Assessments of kinship homes in order to find the most appropriate homes for children who must be removed from their families or caretakers, either permanently or temporarily.
Independent Living Skills Program*	Voluntary programs designed to assist youth in transitioning from legal dependency and foster care to independent living.
Wraparound*	Comprehensive, coordinated services targeted to keep children out of high-level group home placements. Provide individualized services to children/families that often have multiple needs and complex problems.
Group Homes	Respondents place high-needs children in group homes, monitor their progress after they are placed and assist their transition back to less intensive services in alternate out-of-home care when appropriate.

Licensing	Assess and monitor all foster homes to initiate and/or maintain licenses through the state. Ensure foster homes meet licensing standards.
School Social Work	Respondents offer a variety of PCWS services in schools local to their agencies with a focus on prevention of child abuse, neglect, etc.
Training	Training services are provided particularly to new staff. Veteran staff receive training from these respondents on new programs, interventions, etc.
Nursing	Monitor and assist with care for the medical needs of children and families who are receiving services in one of the programs listed above.
Other	Respondents did not specify the program to which they were assigned or it did not fit into one of the program categories listed above.

* Adapted from (Clark and Fulcher, 2005).

Figure 12 illustrates the numbers of respondents that work in each PCWS Agency program represented in the study. Program titles are presented as initials or one word labels in Figure 12 that correspond directly to the program titles listed in Table 10. For ease of identification they are presented in the same order in both Table 10 and Figure 12.

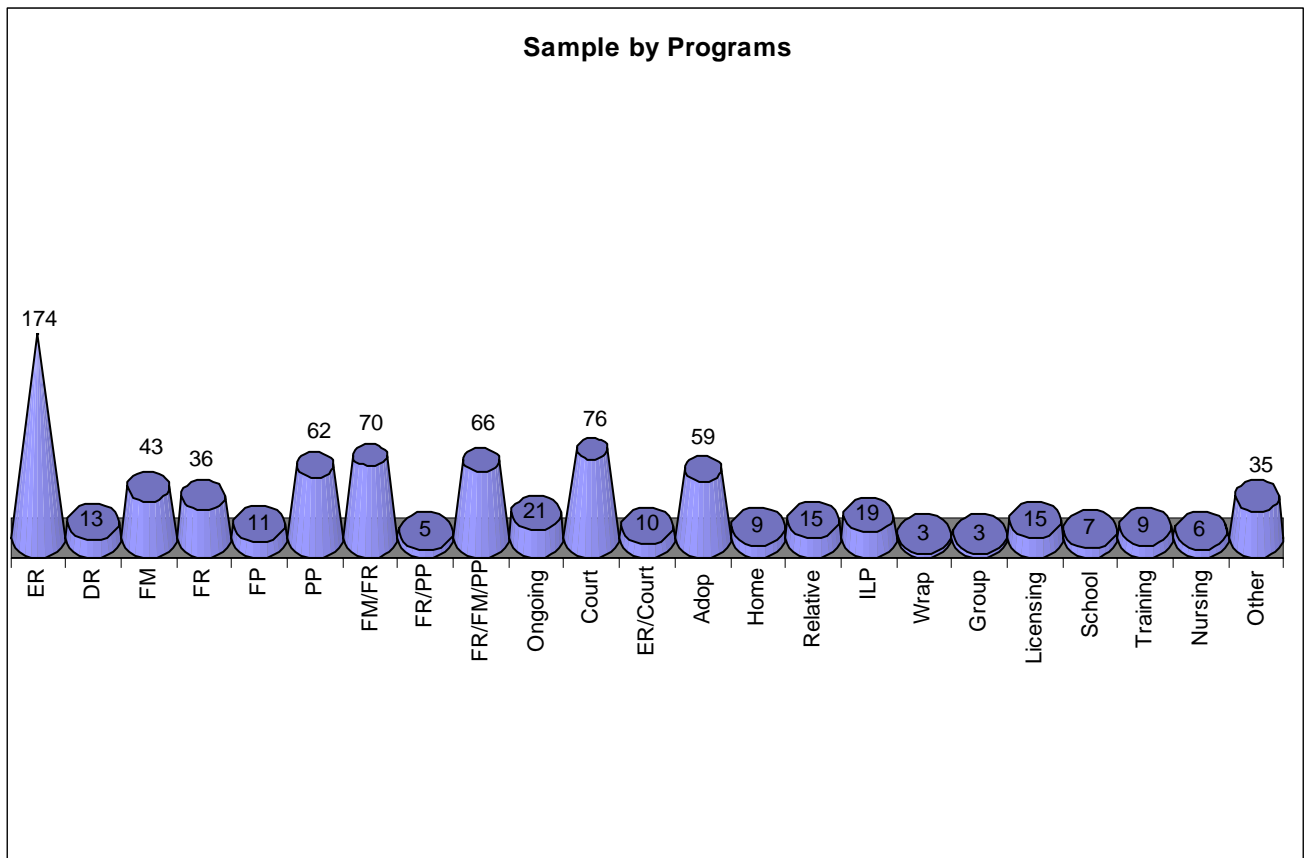


Figure 12. Number of Respondents in Each PCWS Program

The highest portion of the sample work in the Emergency Response programs – 22.7% in each agency. According to the results of the CalSWEC Workforce Study this proportional distribution by program may not reflect the overall distribution of staff in PCWS Agencies statewide (Clark & Fulcher, 2005) However, cross-classification by program category was allowed and “Intake/Information/Referral” was listed as a category

separate from Emergency Response in that study. In many agencies these functions are considered part of Emergency Response (i.e., CPS Hotline, etc.). If the numbers for social workers within these two categories in the CalSWEC Study are summed they form the largest proportion by program statewide at approximately 22% (Clark & Fulcher, 2005). When these figures are compared to the current study the similarity is obvious. Cross-classification was not allowed in the OCR study. Combined program choices were offered instead. The high proportional assignment of staff to Emergency Response in PCWS agencies in California appears to be accurately reflected in the current study.

The nature of the entries on the survey that led to the placement of respondents in the “other” category in the current study can be elucidated (see Figure 12). Eight participants simply left the item querying their program affiliation blank or chose “other” but did not specify an alternate program on the blank line offered next to the words “please specify.” Also, an item was included on the survey with a checkbox next to it worded “Combined Programs” that listed four combinations of programs thought to be some of the more commonly combined programs in Central California PCWS agencies. Respondents were asked to circle the combination of programs that identified their current work responsibilities and a blank line was offered for other options (See Appendix B). Seven participants checked the box indicating they worked in “Combined Programs” but did not choose any of the options or write in any alternatives. Though the arrangement of the item choices for “Combined Programs” fared well in the results of the survey pilot test, apparently it was confusing for some participants in the actual sample. Some responses that appeared to represent programs that were unique to specific county agencies were: COR or CORE (Collaborative Outreach & Response) in Fresno

County – three respondents, Quality Assurance or QA in Fresno County – two respondents, Supportive Services in Fresno County – two respondents, Placement Services or Placement in Fresno County – two respondents, and Team Decision Making in Ventura County – two respondents. (Team decision making is used in many PCWS agencies in California but the label may not be used as a title for an identifiable program in other agencies.) Other program names used in more than one agency were: Foster Care Services or Foster Care Programs – two respondents, and Specialized Placement or Specialized – two respondents. Finally, unique program affiliations included (one respondent each): Linkages-Healthy Beginnings; Probate, guardianships, ICPC, Courtesy Supervision; Placement Unit; Central Desk; AB 636; and one indecipherable entry.

Respondents in the “other” category for agency programs worked in six different agencies and were a mix of social workers (23), supervisors (5), HSAs (4), AAs (2) and other (1) (listed as position title).

Further examination of the participants in the “other” category reveals that out of 35 total, 12 or 34% were from Fresno County. This was the highest number from any county in the “other” category yet proportionally Fresno County is one of the least represented counties in the sample. There may have been a connection between the mode of data collection in Fresno County and the relatively high number of respondents in this category. Decision makers in Fresno County elected to administer the survey themselves, whereas, in nine of the other agencies the researcher or his assistant collected the data.

PCWS personnel that fill a variety of positions participated in this study. In order to clarify results concerning the numbers of respondents with various titles, some elucidation of staff titles in Central California PCWS Agencies and the manner in which

they are used here may be useful. The titles “social workers” and “case managers” are usually combined in this study and the personnel in these positions are referred to collectively as social workers. However, the option to select “case manager” was offered on the survey since some personnel in PCWS agencies may not consider themselves social workers by title though they occupy positions social workers often fill. On the other hand, the title social worker has gained such a diffuse meaning in many service delivery systems, especially in Public Child Welfare Services, that it is common for staff who are not educated as professional social workers to use the title. For instance, at the Kern County Department of Human Services the title “Social Service Worker” is the position classification for staff that fill positions similar to those with educations in social work. It is extremely common for this title to be shortened to “social worker” whether it is applied to someone with an education in social work or another field.

In short, in this study social workers and case managers will be blended under the title social worker since it is the most commonly used title among PCWS personnel. This does not mean those designated as “social workers” in the sample are all educated professional social workers. When descriptive statistics are displayed, social workers and case managers will be listed separately to enhance specificity within the information provided. They will be combined in one category for all other analyses.

Staff analysts and administrative assistants are simply different titles for similar if not identical positions. In Central California these types of positions are often occupied by veteran social workers who have offered direct child welfare services for many years and currently offer various programmatic, analytic and training services to line social workers and supervisors on the behalf of administrators and supervisors. They will be

designated as administrative assistants or AA in this study. Positions with titles such as human service assistants/aides, case management assistants/aides, and community service workers/coordinators (titles vary by county but are equivalent) are often filled by personnel who may not have 4-year college degrees. Personnel in these positions offer various services to children and families that assist case-carrying social workers such as, supervision during court mandated family visits, transportation assistance, etc. Staff in all of these positions will be indicated with the title human service assistants or HSA. The nurses in the sample were all registered nurses who work directly with children and families alongside social workers in the CWS Divisions of the agencies included in this study.

The sample in the current study is composed of 767 social workers, supervisors, administrative assistants, nurses, and human services assistants. The sample distribution by position title is depicted in Table 11.

Table 11 *Respondents by Title*

Title	Frequency	Percentage of Sample
Social Worker	569	74.2
Case Manager	19	2.5
Supervisor	127	16.6
Administrative Assistant (AA)	9	1.2
Nurse	15	2.0
Human Service Assistant (HSA)	24	3.1

Other	4	.5
Total	767	100*

* Total is not the exact sum due to rounding.

The category “other” includes a small number of respondents that did not identify their specific titles.

As illustrated in Figure 13, social workers and case managers form the greatest segment of the sample by a large proportion (76.7% combined). Supervisors are the second largest group, however, there are almost 5 times as many social workers as supervisors in the sample and all other categories compose a much smaller portion of the sample than supervisors.

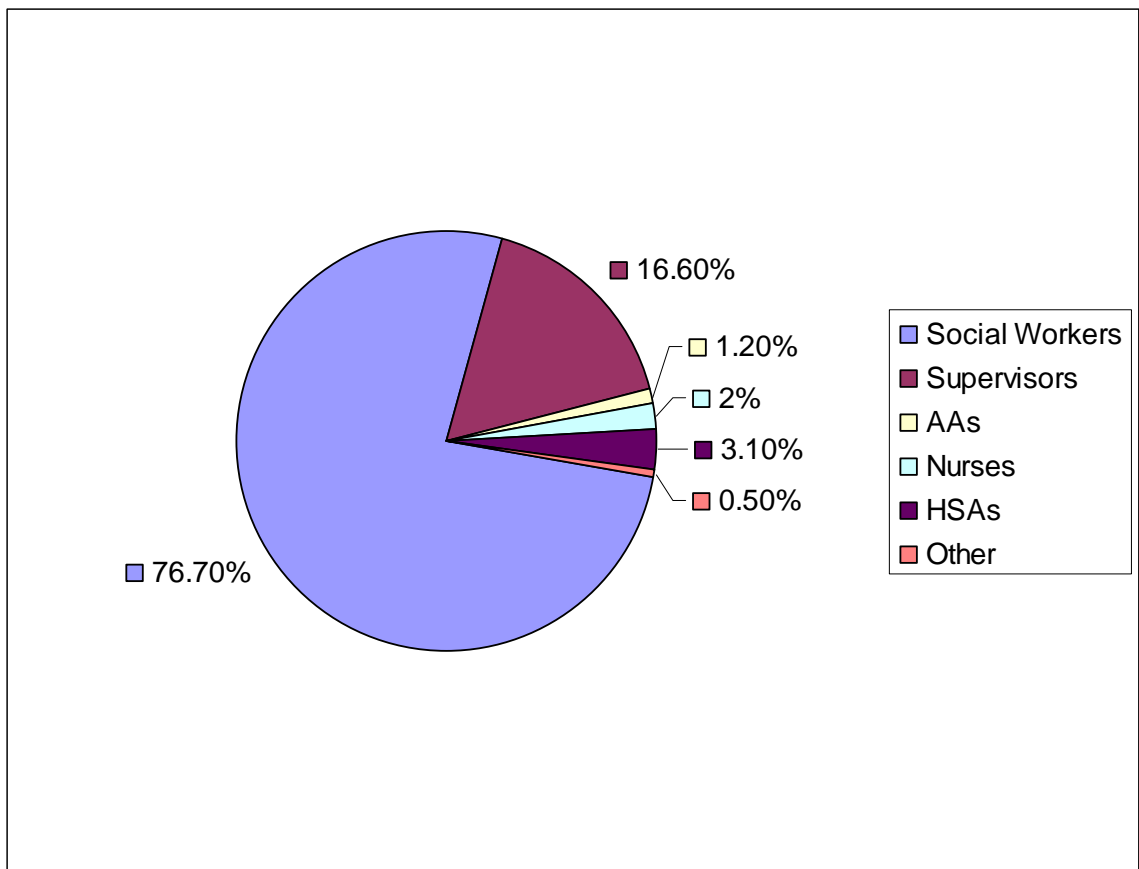


Figure 13. Proportion of Sample by Position Title

Description of the sample in terms of gender is predictable for people who choose to work in social services, particularly PCWS. The sample is largely female, see Table 12.

Table 12 *Gender in Sample*

Gender	Frequency	Percentage of Sample
Female	620	81.5
Male	141	18.5
Missing	6	—
Total	767	100

The ethnic composition of the sample is displayed in Table 6. The majority of the sample is White and Hispanic. Approximately half of the sample is White – 53.9 % and the next highest category is Hispanic – 29.6%. Black personnel make up 8.5% of the sample, Asian staff 3.8% and employees that identify themselves as American Indian 1.2%. For a discussion of ethnicity among social workers and supervisors in the sample see the previous section and Table 7.

Table 13 illustrates the distribution of the sample categorized by age groups. The modal age group is 30-39. The number of staff in the 40-49 and 50-59 age groups is exactly the same creating a large combined age group of 336 employees from ages 40-59.

Table 13 *Age Groups in the Sample*

Age	Frequency	Percentage of Sample
<25	32	4.2
25-29	129	17

30-39	222	29.2
40-49	168	22.1
50-59	168	22.1
>59	41	5.4
Missing	7	
Total	767	100

Participants were also asked to respond to items concerning education. Most of the sample had already earned a bachelor's degree or master's level degree (see Figure 14). This finding is not surprising since in most counties the eligibility criteria for those applying for social worker and case manager level positions usually include at least a bachelor's degree.

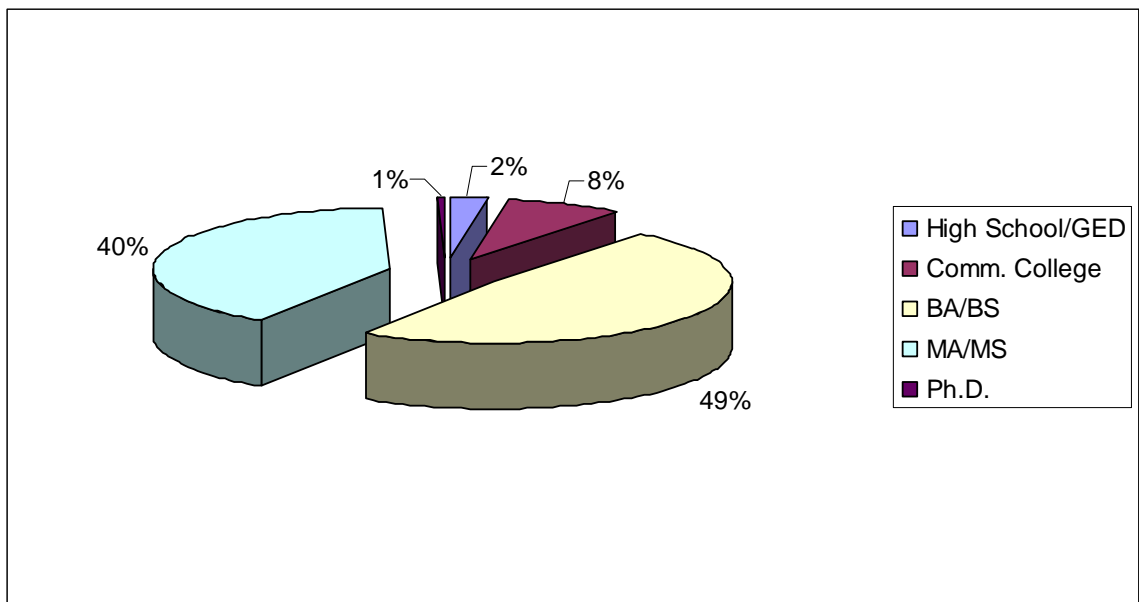


Figure 14. Highest Education Level

One surprising finding in the sample was the number of respondents who identified themselves as social workers and case managers and indicated High School or

a GED as their highest level of education (n=8, 1.4%, see Table 14). A larger segment of social workers and case managers selected Community College as their highest level of education (n=28, 4.8%) which is also surprising since a bachelor's degree is required in most counties for these positions. Even more unexpected, Supervisors and Administrative Assistants were represented among those who indicated their highest level of education was High School/GED (n=4, 2.9%) and some who endorsed Community College (n=9, 6.6%) as their highest educational level. There are various potential explanations for these results. For instance, one possibility is connected to the rural nature of several of the counties from which the sample was recruited. Some of those counties have gone through periods of great difficulty recruiting qualified employees (compared to urban areas) and may have accepted experience in lieu of education during those periods.

Table 14 *Highest Education Level by Agency Title*

	Highest Educational Level					
Title	High School/GED	Community College	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree	PhD	Total
Social Worker	6	25	310	223	2	566
Case Manager	2	3	8	5	1	19
Supervisor	3	6	38	79	1	127
AA	1	3	4	1	0	9

Nurse	0	8	7	0	0	15
HSA	7	13	4	0	0	24
Other	0	3	1	0	0	4
Missing						3
Total	19 (2.5)	61 (8)	372 (48.7)	308 (40.3)	4 (.5)	767

Numbers in () = % of total.

Among all respondents approximately 13% were currently enrolled in degree programs in higher education during the data collection period. Those currently pursuing degrees were in the following degree programs: BSW – 8, MSW – 32, other masters – 36, PhD in Social Work – 1, other doctoral – 6, other programs – 17.

BSW or BASW Degrees have been earned by those who identified themselves as supervisors, social workers, case managers and administrative assistants. Only respondents with position titles as supervisors, social workers and case managers indicated they had earned MSW Degrees (see Table 15). For a discussion of education among social workers and supervisors and the percentages of BSWs and MSWs within these groups specifically see the section entitled *Inclusion Criteria and Response Rate* (Table 8).

Table 15 *BSWs and MSWs by Agency Title*

Title	Degrees Earned		Total
	BSW/BASW	MSW	
Social Worker	66	146	212
Case Manager	2	4	6

Supervisor	10	52	62
AA	1	0	1
Total	79	202	281

Among those who have already earned BSW or MSW degrees, 165 indicated they participated in the California Social Work Education Center (CalSWEC, Title IV-E in California), program. CalSWEC support for BSW Degree programs began quite recently, in 2004. However, though the potential for those in BSW Programs to have participated in CalSWEC was low, 10-respondents with BSWs indicated they had received CalSWEC support. The rest of the CalSWEC recipients had earned MSWs – 155. Approximately 77% of those who earned MSWs received CalSWEC support during graduate school.

Respondents were asked how many years they had worked in their current employing PCWS agencies and how many years they had worked in the field of Child Welfare Services. It is possible that study participants could have worked longer in the agency than in the field of CWS or vice versa. For instance, a respondent could have been a TANF eligibility technician in an agency prior to becoming a case manager in the CWS Division in the same agency. It is also possible for respondents to have worked in a PCWS agency other than their current agency or to have provided services to children and families in an agency that may be considered part of CWS as a field of practice (i.e., in FFA^s, etc.) prior to working in their current agency. Overall, there was a close connection between the years of work most respondents endorsed for the agency and the field of CWS, (see Table 16). This appears to suggest that for many people in the sample the years they worked in the field have been within their current employing agencies.

Table 16 *Years in the Agency and Years in the Field of CWS*

Year Categories	Years in the Agency	Years in the Field
<1	152	124
2-3	129	137
4-5	133	123
6-10	195	199
11-15	62	69
16-19	45	50
>20	44	63
Missing	7	2
Total	767	767

The largest group falls in the 6-10 years of employment range in both the agency and the field of CWS, composing approximately 26% of the sample. However, a larger portion of the respondents in the sample are within the initial three-year period of their employment in both their employing agency (36%) and the field of CWS (34%). These figures may be viewed as indicators of the problems PCWS agency have with retaining personnel, particularly social workers. It may also hint at difficulties within the field of CWS concerning longevity among those who work in the field.

Data Analysis

Missing Data

After all data was entered into SPSS 14 (2006) an analysis was undertaken to determine the level and nature of data missing in the data set for this study. *Missing*

Values Analysis in SPSS 14 was used for this analysis. A descriptive analysis examining missing data in every item from the survey revealed that no single item had more than 4.5% data missing. Only one item reached that level with all others below 3%. When composite variables were analyzed the highest levels of missing data for any composite variable was organizational climate at 10%. This level is well within the range considered to be low levels of missing data in the literature, particularly in relation to the size of the sample in the current study (Little & Rubin, 2002). Study data was also examined to see if there were any systematic patterns among the missing data. Little's MCAR test accomplishes this by testing whether data is "missing completely at random" or if systematic patterns are present (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A non-significant p -value result on Little's χ^2 test indicates that missing data is MCAR and occurs at low levels in the data. The result of Little's MCAR test in the current study was: $\chi^2 = 554.882$, $df = 549$, $p = .422$, indicating an absence of systematic patterns among the missing data and acceptable levels of missing data.

With these results it would have been possible to engage in the analyses planned in this study relying on listwise deletion to remove inappropriate cases in specific analyses without losing large amounts of power if multilevel modeling was not included in the methodology. However, when multilevel modeling is applied, level two variables must be complete. This is the case when HLM is used for multilevel analyses; there can be no missing data on level-2 (Raudenbush, Bryk, Cheong, Congdon, & Toit, 2004). When level-2 variables include missing data in HLM, the result is often an unacceptable loss of data on level-1, since all individuals on level-1 that are associated with groups that include missing data on level-2 will be eliminated during the analyses (Heck & Thomas,

2000). Also, since a 20% or lower level of missing data is considered an acceptable level for data imputation and the level among the variables in the current study was much lower, the decision was made to impute data to replace the missing data (Little & Rubin, 2002). Imputation was accomplished using the expectation-maximization method (EM) within MVA in SPSS 14. This is the best option provided in MVA and is one of the stronger methods of imputation currently available (Saunders, Morrow-Howell, Spitznagel, Dore, Proctor, & Pescarino, 2006). The EM method uses an expectation-maximization algorithm to estimate means, covariances, and Pearson correlations. Through an iterative process E and M steps are computed for each iteration. In the E step, expected values are computed that are conditional upon the observed data and parameter estimates. Maximum likelihood estimates of the parameters in the M step are based on values computed in the E step (SPSS 14). Among the variables in the current study, only those that were used as group level variables in the multilevel analyses were imputed.

Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis was completed on the *Organizational Culture Survey* (CMHSRC, 2000) and Landsman's (2000, 2001, 2005) scales, which were the primary measures used in the current study. The analysis allowed for comparison with past studies and to aid with decisions concerning the inclusion or exclusion of items that may either strengthen or weaken the scales to which they belong. First, exploratory factor analysis was completed on the organizational culture scales. This analysis was on each of the subscales within the constructive organizational culture and passive defensive organizational culture scales. Subscale level analysis was undertaken in order to allow comparison of the results in the current study with those results reported by Cooke and

Szumal (1993). To facilitate comparison, the same types of extraction and rotation were used. Though the general title of the extraction process used by Cooke and Szumal (1993) is common factor analysis or simply factor analysis, the term used in SPSS is “principal axis factoring” (PAF) (Pett et al. 2003). This type of factor analysis focuses on shared variability and ignores unique and error variability (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). Since Cooke and Szumal (1993) used PAF with varimax rotation, this technique was also employed for the analysis in this study. The following presentation of results uses the titles for the subscales used by Glisson and colleagues (CMHSRC, 2000) that were adapted for use in public agencies from Cooke and Szumal (1993). The figures reported by Cooke and Szumal (1993) were aggregated over several studies on three forms of the OCI measures. The figures for the third form of the measures will be used here since that is the most recent version and the closest in configuration to the *Organizational Culture Survey* (CMHSRC, 2000).

Communalities provide the total amount of variance in each item or subscale that is explained by each of the factors that are extracted (Pett et al. 2003). Rotated factor loadings above .40 indicate subscales that should be grouped together in common scales. A comparison of subscale communalities between the current study and Cooke and Szumal’s (1993) studies reveals a great deal of similarity in the variance explained by each subscale (see Table 17). The same pattern emerges in the studies with all of the subscales accounting for a high level of explained variance except the Evasion subscale which explains the least amount of variance. The range is somewhat more extreme among the OCR communalities with the Supportive subscale at .89 and Evasion at .57. Loadings on the primary scales are also quite similar with loadings well above .40 for all

subscales in the current study (OCR) on their primary scales. In addition, cross-loading is not a problem in the OCR study. All of the loadings among subscales on the opposite primary scale in the OCR study are below .40 and negative.

Table 17 *Communalities and Loadings on Organizational Culture Scales*

Scales (Glisson's Titles) Constructive	Communalities		Constructive Culture		Passive Defensive Culture	
	*C & S	OCR	C & S	OCR	C & S	OCR
Supportive	.76	.89	.85	.92	-.07	-.22
Interpersonal	.82	.83	.87	.90	.15	-.13
Individualistic	.81	.80	.88	.82	-.14	-.37
Motivation	.76	.74	.84	.86	-.12	-.05
Passive Defensive						
Subservient	.76	.80	-.03	-.21	.85	.87
Consensus	.72	.80	.05	-.04	.80	.90
Conformity	.78	.81	-.20	-.14	.80	.89
Evasion	.62	.57	-.39	-.38	.49	.65

*C & S=Cooke & Szumal (1993), OCR=Organizational Culture and Retention-current study.

This is a favorable comparison that demonstrates the consistency of the measures in the current study with the factor analyses conducted by Cooke and Szumal (1993). This consistency indicates the construct validity of the measures with the current sample in connection to many past samples. Convergent validity is supported by the high loading figures for the appropriate subscales on each of the major scales, constructive and passive defensive organizational culture. Support for the discriminant validity of the measures is

illustrated by differential loadings on distinct but related scales. Positive, high subscale loadings on the expected scale and negative, low subscale loadings on the opposite scale provide evidence of discriminant validity. The results of the factor analysis in the current study support the validity of the scales for use among the PCWS employees in this sample and project potential validity for the use of these measures with other PCWS employees.

Factor analysis was also completed on the scales utilized from Landsman's (2000, 2001, 2005) measures, that included job satisfaction, service orientation, organizational commitment, commitment to the field, intent to stay in the organization and intent to stay in the field of CWS. A direct comparison with similar extraction and rotation techniques is not possible since Landsman (2000) utilized confirmatory factor analysis. However, she does list positive loadings $\geq .30$ and a comparison to these loadings may be instructive. Exploratory factor analysis was completed on all of the items in each scale that were used from Landsman's (2000, 2001, 2005) measures. Principal components analysis extraction was used for this analysis because it accounts for all variance represented in each scale including unique, shared and error variance (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005, Pett et.al., 2003). Oblique rotation (direct oblimin in SPSS) was used as the rotation method since it accounts for correlations among items unlike orthogonal types of rotation (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005, Pett et.al., 2003). In the current study, an assumption of correlations among two or more of the factors being rotated supports the choice of oblique rotation (Pett et.al., 2003). All items were coded or reverse coded so Likert scale responses progressed in the same direction.

It should be noted that four optional items were included in the measures for this study and two of them appear in the same scale “intent to stay in the agency.” These items were not used by Landsman (2000, 2001, 2005) but were considered additional items that could potentially be included (M.J. Landsman, personal communication, February 7th, 2006). They are designated by the * symbol in the list of items included in Table 18 in the “Item #” column.

Table 18 presents the items arranged by the scales to which they belonged in past research (Landsman, 2000, 2001, 2005). The optional item designated as IntA-5 in Table 18 was placed in the intent to stay in the agency scale by the author. Landsman did not assign this item to a scale (M.J. Landsman, personal communication, February 7th, 2006).

This information promotes clarification of Tables 19 and 20. (Also, see page 5 of the survey in Appendix B.)

Table 18 *Items used from Landsman’s Scales*

Scale	Item #	Item
Job Satisfaction	JS-1	I find enjoyment in my job.
	JS-2	Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.
	JS-3	I feel dissatisfied with my job.
	*JS-4	I am usually satisfied with client outcomes.

Service Orientation	SO-1	By serving as a social worker/case manager, I feel I am making a difference in people's lives.
	SO-2	As a social worker/case manager, I am able to provide help to people who need my assistance.
	SO-3	I believe my work as a social worker/case manager is important to society.
Commitment to the Agency	CA-1	I speak highly of this county agency to my friends.
	CA-2	I am proud to tell others I am part of this county agency.
	CA-3	This county agency is the best of all possible places to work.
Commitment to the Field of	CF-1	I speak highly of child welfare to my friends.
	CF-2	I am proud to tell others I am a child welfare

Child Welfare Services		worker.
	CF-3	Child welfare is the best of all possible fields in which to work.
Intent to Stay in the Agency	IntA-1	I plan to stay in this county agency as long as possible.
	IntA-2	Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave this county agency.
	IntA-3	I plan to leave this county agency as soon as possible.
	*IntA-4	There is a good chance I will search for another job (outside this agency) within the next year.
	*IntA-5	Turnover is too high in this agency.
	IntF-1	I plan to stay in child welfare practice as long as possible.

Intent to Stay in the Field of Child Welfare Services	IntF-2	Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave child welfare practice.
	IntF-3	I plan to leave child welfare practice as soon as possible.
	*IntF-4	I plan to work in a different area of social work/case management (other than child welfare) as soon as possible.

* Designated as optional by Landsman.

Two analyses were completed, one with the optional four items and one without. The model without the optional items resulted in a four-component solution while the model with the optional items resulted in a five-component solution. The model fit for the five-component model improved somewhat compared to the four-component model due to a slight decrease in the percentage of residuals above the .05 level. Interestingly, while using CFA, Landsman (2000) arrived at a five-factor solution as the best model fit in her study. Factor loadings in the five-component solution in this study are presented in Table 19. All item loadings of $\geq .30$ are reported in the table.

The 'job satisfaction' scale items all loaded on component five with one item, ("I feel dissatisfied with my job") cross-loading on component one. However, the differential between the two loading figures clearly identifies component five as the strongest choice

for this item. Job satisfaction was the only scale to load on component five supporting both convergent and discriminant validity for this scale. ‘Service orientation’ scale items loaded together on component two. However, two items in the ‘commitment to the field of CWS’ scale also load on component two. The two scales are conceptually related since one’s orientation to provide services as a social worker is likely to be closely related to one’s commitment to remain in the field of CWS. In fact, in Landsman’s (2000, 2001, 2005) studies service orientation had a direct effect on “occupational commitment” (commitment to stay in the field of CWS). Other than ‘commitment to the agency,’ the rest of the scales all had at least two items load together and one item load on a different component. These are the closely related ‘commitment to the field’ and ‘intent to stay’ (agency/field) scales. The commitment to the agency items loaded together but the fourth component also included low end cross-loadings of two commitment to the field items. The most unexpected of the loadings was the low level cross-loading of the ‘intent to stay in the agency’ item IntA-1 (see Table 19) on components one and three. However, the item loaded somewhat higher with two items from the scale it is normally associated with on component one. Communalities for the items in the OCR study are also listed in Table 19.

Table 19 *OCR Factor Analysis, PCA with Oblique Rotation*

Item #	Communalities	Components				
		1	2	3	4	5
JS-1	.74					.65
JS-2	.74					.66

JS-3	.62	.35				.55
*JS-4	.51					.61
SO-1	.71		.75			
SO-2	.67		.73			
SO-3	.65		.78			
CA-1	.78				-.80	
CA-2	.75				-.75	
CA-3	.72				-.74	
CF-1	.72		.51		-.43	
CF-2	.73		.57		-.39	
CF-3	.67			.72		
IntA-1	.64	.39		.33		
IntA-2	.62			.68		
IntA-3	.77	.71				
*IntA-4	.71	.74				
*IntA-5	.32				.58	
IntF-1	.67	.35		.58		
IntF-2	.75			.90		
IntF-3	.73	.75				
*IntF-4	.59	.80				

All loadings $\geq .30$ reported. * Designated as optional by Landsman.

Some mixture of items across components and cross-loading among these items and the variables they represent makes sense conceptually. Landsman (2000, 2001) found high correlations and significant effects in the interactions among all of these scales in a path analysis. These constructs are also moderately to highly correlated in the present study (see Table 21), so it is not surprising that some items loaded with scales other than the ones they are most commonly identified with and that some cross-loading emerged in this analysis.

In addition, it is possible to imagine how some of the items in these scales may overlap for some respondents. This is particularly probable for those who have only worked in one PCWS agency. Their experiences of CWS as a field may be identified solely with one agency and this may be reflected in their responses in that their employing agency represents CWS as a field to them.

Most of the optional items included in the current study had high loading values and loaded with the majority of the items in their intended scales. The one exception is the IntA-5 item. This item had the lowest communality value of any item in the analysis so it explains the least amount of variance. Since it loaded on component four with the ‘commitment to the agency’ scale items, it may connect more closely to that scale in terms of the underlying structure of the measures than with the ‘intent to stay in the agency’ scale. This would be supported if it is used in future studies and continues to load with the ‘commitment to the agency’ scale over many studies. Due to these results, though, in this study the IntA-5 item was considered as a unique item separate from any scale and used differentially in any analyses.

The primary principle that was used concerning the utilization of the scales in this study was construct validity from past research. With that as the context, the scales were considered in terms of their convergent and discriminant validity. Overall, in this sample, convergent and discriminant validity appear to be somewhat problematic concerning some of the scales. However, job satisfaction clearly loaded on one component (5) demonstrating both convergent and discriminant validity. Commitment to the agency also loaded on one component (4) supporting both types of validity. (The IntA-5 item also loaded on component 4 but was considered a unique variable in this study). Loadings on component two are shared by service orientation and commitment to the field. These two underlying concepts appear to have melded somewhat for the respondents in this sample. However, due to the previous use of these items in the scales represented above, they were used as separate scales in this study. It may be useful to note in the *Multivariate Analysis* section that the service orientation scale did not produce significant results in the analyses with the other scales mentioned here, whereas, commitment to the field did.

The convergent and discriminant validity difficulties demonstrated by some scales are particularly evident concerning those scales that loaded on components one and three. Component three is primarily composed of intent to stay in the field-CWS items. When the optional item IntF-4 is removed from the scale, two out of three intent to stay in the field items load on component-3. One item each from commitment to the field and intent to stay in the agency also load on this component weakening the discriminant validity of this scale. In this study the IntF-4 item was removed from the scale and intent to stay in the field was composed of the other three items attributed to that scale in past studies. Component-1 included loadings of three intent to stay in the agency items and one intent

to stay in the field item (when IntF-4 is removed from the scale). It is understandable that there was some overlap for the respondents in this sample concerning these two variables. However, this component was most representative of intent to stay in the agency. The intent to stay in the agency scale was maintained in this study.

A comparison of factor loadings between Landsman's (2000) study and the current OCR study are displayed in Table 20. The highest loadings for each item on each scale in the current study are provided in the table.

Table 20 *Comparison of Landsman's and OCR Factor Loadings*

Scales												
Items	Job Satisfaction		Service Orientation		Commitment to the Agency		Commitment to the Field of CWS		Intent to Stay Agency		Intent to Stay Field – CWS	
	ML	OCR	ML	OCR	ML	OCR	ML	OCR	ML	OCR	ML	OCR
JS-1	.81	.65										
JS-2	.85	.66										
JS-3	.68	.55										
JS-4	*	.61										
SO-1			.90	.75								
SO-2			.77	.73								
SO-3			.70	.78								
CA-1					.72	-.80						
CA-2					.76	-.75						

CA-3					.70	-.74						
CF-1							.82	.51				
CF-2							.81	.57				
CF-3							.58	.72				
IntA-1									.72	.39		
IntA-2									.62	.68		
IntA-3									.87	.71		
IntA-4									*	.74		
IntA-5									*	.58		
IntF-1											.90	.58
IntF-2											.73	.90
IntF-3											.57	.75
IntF-4											*	.80

ML=Miriam Landsman (2000, 2001), OCR=Organizational Culture and Retention-current study.

* = Items not used by Landsman (2000) but considered as optional additions to the identified scales.

The highest loadings from the current OCR study are reported in Table 20, no matter which components they loaded with as they are displayed in Table 19. Table 20 facilitates comparisons with Landsman's (2000) reported loadings. The loading in the OCR study for the IntA-1 item was surprisingly low compared to the loading in Landsman's (2000) study. This was as an item that cross-loaded in the OCR study (see Table 19). Overall, however, the loadings in this comparison highlight the similarities between the scales in the two studies. The items all loaded highly enough to be included in the OCR study and demonstrate a connection to prior studies. Following the guiding principle of applying scales that have received support for use in past studies, the scales

were maintained (with deletion of some optional items) in the current study in the manner they were used by Landsman (2000).

Reliability

Internal consistency reliability in measures is evaluated by the intercorrelation between the items within the scales that compose the measures. Strong correlations indicate that the items within the scale are all measuring the same thing. In addition, when various types of validity are supported as discussed in the previous section, strong correlations imply that the scales are all measuring the latent variables they are meant to measure (DeVellis, 2003). Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is an efficient indicator of internal reliability and it is the most commonly used for this purpose (DeVellis, 2003). It will be used here to test the reliability of all scales used in the study. The alphas for the measures used in prior studies that were also used in the current study were reported in the *Measures* section previously.

The alphas for the scales used with the sample in the current study were within or above DeVellis' (2003) "respectable" (.70-.80) or "very good" ranges (.80-.90). The constructive organizational culture scales yielded the following alphas – individualistic - .91, interpersonal - .90, motivation - .85, supportive - .89. Passive defensive organizational culture alphas were – conformity - .81, consensus - .87, evasion - .85, subservient - .82. The alpha coefficient for the service quality scale in this study was – .90. The alpha values for the culture and service quality scales demonstrated high internal reliability within each scale.

Reliability coefficients for the scales that represent constructs considered to be aspects of "work attitudes" in this study were also quite strong. The job satisfaction scale

with an item considered 'optional' by M. J. Landsman (personal communication, February 7th, 2006) resulted in an alpha of .81. (In Table 18, the optional item is JS-4) This indicates high internal consistency, however, removing the item improved consistency substantially: alpha - .86. Therefore, job satisfaction will consist of three core items and be used without the optional item for the analyses in this study (JS-1-3 in Table 18). The service orientation scale yielded an alpha of .85. Alpha coefficients were also strong for both the commitment to the agency - .86 and commitment to the field of CWS scales - .82.

Analysis of the outcome variables in this study yielded the following results. The alpha for the intent to stay in the agency scale that included an optional item concerning "turnover" was - .68. (in Table 18, IntA-5) When this item was removed from the scale reliability improved considerably - .83. This improvement in consistency is further support for not including this item in the intent to stay scale. Additional reliability analysis was completed to discover what the consistency would be if the IntA-5 item was placed with the commitment to the agency scale. With this item the resulting alpha was .55 and without the item it was .86. Therefore, these results provide further confirmation for excluding the IntA-5 item from any scale in this study. The alpha for the intent to stay in the field of CWS scale was a bit lower than the others in the study - .76, however, it is within the high end of Devellis' (2003) 'respectable' range.

The results of the internal reliability analysis support the use of each scale with some items deleted. All of the constructive and passive defensive organizational culture scales and the service quality scales were used with each item in tact in this study. The work attitudes scales were used with the following configurations (see Table 18): job

satisfaction was composed of JS 1-3 and without JS-4; service orientation, organizational commitment and commitment to the field were composed of the three items differentially attributed to each scale by M. J. Landsman (personal communication, February 7th, 2006). One item was removed from both of the scales that represented the criterion variables in the study. The item identified as IntA-5 was removed from intent to stay in the agency and IntF-4 was removed from intent to stay in the field-CWS. Therefore, intent to stay in the agency was composed of IntA1-4 and intent to stay in the field included IntF-1-3.

CHAPTER VI

RESULTS

Bivariate Analysis

The data was entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Services 14 for analysis (SPSS, 2006). SPSS was used to analyze descriptive statistics for the sample, including ranges, means and distributions, etc., for each variable.

In order to achieve a preliminary understanding of the relationships between the variables in the current study all composite variables were analyzed in terms of their correlations with the other variables in the study. Pearson's r or zero-order correlations appear in Table 21. The correlations between all major variables in the study were significant at the $\leq .01$ level, (see Table 21). Jaeger (1990) offers the following guidelines for assessing the strength of correlations that are used by many researchers: coefficients of $<.30$ are indicators of small correlations, those from $.30-.70$ are moderate in magnitude, coefficients above $.70$ are high and $\geq .90$ are very large.

Table 21 *Correlation Matrix of OCR Variables*

Variables	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six	Seven	Eight	Nine	Ten
1- Intent to Stay-Agency	-									
2- Intent to Stay Field-CWS	.697	-								
3-Job Satisfaction	.567	.494	-							
4-Commit. to the Agency	.630	.465	.569	-						
5-Commit. to the Field	.499	.640	.514	.633	-					
6-Service Orientation	.291	.316	.458	.369	.478	-				
7-Const. Org. Culture	.357	.266	.339	.454	.320	.258	-			
8-Pass. Def. Org. Culture	-.313	-.229	-.325	-.390	-.210	-.140	-.432	-		
9-Org. Climate	-.448	-.383	-.498	-.489	-.384	-.215	-.300	.547	-	

10-Service

Quality	.300	.244	.263	.382	.286	.267	.866	-.353	-.236	-
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All correlations are significant at the $p \leq .01$ level.

Table 21 illustrates significant associations between virtually all of the major variables in the current study. In addition, the directionality produced in the correlational analysis resulted in the expected directions for all correlations. Several relationships suggest further examination. The two outcome variables have a high-end moderate intercorrelation (.697). Both of the scales that form these variables inquire about projected willingness to stay differentiating only between remaining in the agency and the field of CWS. Similarly, the two commitment variables, to the agency and to the field of CWS, have a high-end moderate correlation (.633). As mentioned previously in the discussion of the factor analysis results, for some portion of respondents, the only direct experience they have had in CWS as a field may have been in a single PCWS agency. Though items in the measures used in this study were worded to differentiate between the field of CWS and the respondents' current PCWS agencies it may be that for some respondents these experiences are difficult to differentiate. In order to discover how much time in the field and time in the agency overlap for the sample in the current study, reported "years in the agency" and "years in the field" were analyzed using a Spearman's *rho* correlation that resulted in a very high association, .877. This indicates the likelihood that a large portion of the sample has spent the majority of the time they have worked in the field of CWS in their current PCWS agencies. These results may also imply that ratings of current commitment to the agency and projections of intention to stay in the

agency are inextricably bound to ratings of commitment to the field and projections of remaining in the field of CWS for a fairly large portion of respondents.

Other significant relationships in Table 21 include a pattern of associations that reflect Landsman's (2000, 2001, 2005) findings concerning job satisfaction, commitment to the field, commitment to the agency and both outcome variables. The correlations between intent to stay in the agency and commitment to the agency are higher than those between either of those variables and job satisfaction. The same can be said of the association between intent to stay in the field-CWS and commitment to the field. The correlation between these variables is higher than the correlations between either of the variables and job satisfaction. Obviously, these correlations only indicate associations, not causation and only within the current sample. However, Landsman (2000, 2001, 2005) tested for causal effects in two other PCWS samples and found causal relationships that formed a similar pattern among these variables.

Service orientation has the weakest correlations with all other variables in the study, compared to the other work attitudes variables. Most of the correlations are in the small range. The highest correlation for service orientation with another variable is commitment to the field-CWS, in the moderate range (.478). This association is consistent with the findings from the factor analysis concerning these two variables. Conceptually, the connection is logical since service orientation is closely connected to altruistic values often espoused within the greater field of social work, including the field of CWS. Other correlations that appear to be consistent with this conceptual consideration are those between service orientation and intent to stay in the agency (.291) and service orientation and intention to stay in the field-CWS (.316). The only other

variable that has a higher correlation with intent to stay in the field-CWS is commitment to the field (CWS=.640. vs. Agency =.499). All other variables in the study maintain the opposite pattern: higher correlations with intent to stay in the agency than intent to stay in the field-CWS. Service orientation, then, appears to be related more to the field than the agency among the sample in this study. However, service orientation is also moderately correlated with job satisfaction (.458). This may imply a connection between being oriented toward providing helpful services to children and families in CWS and being satisfied with the job.

Correlations of the variables that were used as the primary group level predictor variables with the two outcome variables in this study were also significant. Constructive organizational culture (constructive OC) correlated at a moderate level with intent to stay in the agency (.357) and at a lower level with intent to stay in the field-CWS (.266). These correlations are in the expected positive direction. Passive defensive organizational culture (passive defensive OC) had negative associations with both outcome variables as expected and they were: moderate with intent to stay in the agency (-.313) and relatively small with intent to stay in the field-CWS (-.229). The highest correlations the organizational culture variables had with any of the work attitudes variables were with commitment to the agency: constructive OC (.454) and passive defensive OC (-.390). Most of the other correlations between the organizational culture variables and work attitudes variables were in the moderate range with the exception of passive defensive OC and commitment to the field (-.210), and the correlations between both of the organizational culture variables with service orientation (const. OC =.258, pass. def. OC=

-.140). The two organizational culture variables intercorrelate at a moderate level in the expected negative direction (-.432).

Along with the organizational culture variables, the other variables that were used at the second or group level in the multilevel modeling (MLM) analyses in this study were organizational climate and service quality. Organizational climate had moderate correlations with most variables in the study, including the outcome variables, intent to stay in the agency (-.448) and intent to stay in the field-CWS (-.383). The correlations between organizational climate and all other variables were in the expected negative direction with the exception of the positive correlation between organizational climate and passive defensive organizational culture (.547). In this study, organizational climate was composed of subscales such as role conflict, role overload, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Passive defensive OC included subscales such as evasion, subservience and conformity. Overall, high scores on these subscales were considered indications of rather negative perceptions of agency dynamics. Therefore, a positive correlation between these two composite variables and negative correlations between these variables and all others in the study are expected outcomes. Organizational climate also correlated in the moderate range with all but one work attitudes variable. The one exception was the small correlation between organizational climate and service orientation (-.215). It correlated most highly with job satisfaction (-.498). The relatively high correlation with job satisfaction foreshadowed an important relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction and the roles they play in the organizational-individual dynamics that contribute to employees' intentions to stay in PCWS agencies and the field of CWS.

Correlations between service quality and the outcome variables were low (CWS = .244), and moderate (Agency = .300) in strength. Service quality also correlates low to moderately with the work attitude variables in the study. However, the striking correlation was with another variable that was used in the MLM analyses at the group-level; constructive OC (.866). This high correlation indicated multicollinearity existed between the two variables. Multicollinearity was confirmed through further inspection with preliminary hierarchical regression analyses. These regression models included all variables that were used as group or level two variables in MLM analyses in the study and resulted in high variance inflation factor indicators and low tolerance values for service quality and constructive OC compared to relationships with the other variables. Therefore, multicollinearity between these variables was addressed by using constructive OC and service quality differentially in subsequent analyses in this study.

Group Formation

In order to prepare the data for analysis with multilevel modeling, the individuals who responded in the study were considered members of groups within their agencies. Group membership within agencies for all individuals in the study characterized the data as ‘nested data.’ This was accomplished within the sample by asking each participant which program they currently work in within their agency (see Figure 12) and which agency employees them. The original plan for group formation was to consider program affiliation as the groups for the study. In other words, the programs in which respondents indicated they currently work were to be summed, across all of the agencies, to get the total number of groups for this study. However, program affiliation in the sample was quite uneven. The naturally occurring groups in the sample had so many or so few

members that some reassignment of individuals to create mixed program groups was necessary (groups in which individuals were from a mixture of agency programs). The principle that prescribed this effort was the need for adequate statistical power in multilevel modeling studies. A rule of thumb used in multilevel modeling to ensure adequate power is the 30/30 guide. The suggestion is that 30 or more groups with 30 or more individuals each will ensure adequate power (Hox, 2002). Maximizing the number of groups, however, is of greatest importance for power particularly when the goal is to test for cross-level interactions (Hox, 2002). Power considerations were balanced with group membership as indicated by respondents (agency program) during group formation.

The criteria followed for group formation in this study were as follows: 1.) all individual respondents were maintained within groups in their employing agencies, 2.) whenever possible individuals were maintained by group membership with others in the program they indicated as their current agency program (naturally occurring groups) 3.) when this (#2 above) was not possible and program identification was mixed in groups, the attempt was made to blend individuals from programs that have some similarities in terms of the work responsibilities required within those programs.

Conceptually, organizational culture is viewed as shared by individuals in all groups within organizations so these criteria are not necessary. However, respondents are likely to rate their organizations' cultures most reliably by considering the immediate context of their workgroups as they fit into the remote context of the larger organization. With this conceptual backdrop informing the process, the groups that were largest initially were maintained or split in half in order to keep those who do similar jobs together. It was

deemed important to try to remain consistent with that approach when composing blended groups. This was accomplished by combining individuals in blended groups from programs that have similar responsibilities whenever possible. Due to the low numbers of participants in various programs identified in some agencies, respondents from quite disparate programs had to be combined to form some groups for this study. Examples of group formation include the following: The number of respondents from emergency response in Kern County was so large (49) that they were split into two groups. The entire sub-sample from San Joaquin County was of such diminutive size (15) that they formed one group no matter what their program affiliation was in the agency in accordance with criteria #1 above. The resulting blended group of participants from San Joaquin County was composed of individuals from the following agency programs: emergency response (6), adoptions (2), family maintenance (2), relative assessment (2), court (1), permanent placement (1), and group homes (1). The tasks performed in this mix of programs can vary widely. A more common example of a group that was blended by program is a group in Stanislaus County composed of respondents from the following programs: family maintenance (10), family reunification (4), family preservation (1), and combined programs – FR/FM/PP (2), FR/PP (2), and FM/FR (1) – for a total of 20 respondents in the group. Respondents in all of these programs perform roughly similar or related though certainly not identical tasks. See Appendix-A for detailed reporting of group composition.

The total number of groups that were formed through this process was $n = 34$. Every agency represented in the study had at least one-group within the sample of

groups. The lowest number of individuals in any group was 15 and the highest number was 30 with a mean of 22.6.

Referent Shift Consensus Analysis

In order to consider perspectives on culture among participants in groups as shared but not identical in their organizations, two characteristics must be present in the sample: overall consensus among group members and enough variation between groups to provide evidence of identifiable cultural types (Glisson & James, 2002; Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). The data from the sample was analyzed to see if these characteristics emerged from the results concerning constructive and passive defensive organizational culture. Other constructs that were group level variables in the MLM analyses in this study, organizational climate and service quality, were scrutinized in a similar manner. Consensus within units or teams was analyzed through the use of the r_{wg} statistic for within group consistency concerning the level of consensus that exists among unit or team-members concerning organizational culture specific variables (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1993; Glisson & James, 2002).

The tests used for between group variance were type-one ICCs and eta-squared analyses. The statistic that was used to test the proportion of variance between teams explained by unit or team membership was the type 1 intraclass correlation test. The test that was used for the proportion of total variation between units or teams across the entire sample of groups was the eta-squared value from a one-way analysis of variance

First, the within team consensus analysis was completed. The r_{wg} values were calculated for each of the 34-groups in the sample concerning the group level variables. Average r_{wg} scores $\geq .70$ indicate consensus within groups in the sample concerning the

variables in question (James et al. 1993). Table 22 displays the overall results of these calculations.

Table 22 r_{wg} values for 34 groups ($n=767$)

Construct	Minimum	Maximum	Average
Constructive Org. Culture	.78	.99	.96
Passive Defensive Org. Culture	.42	.97	.92
Org.Climate	.64	.98	.96
Service Quality	.31	.96	.88

Though there is substantial variation in within group consistency concerning some variables (especially service quality and passive defensive organizational culture) the group averages are all well above the $\geq .70$ guideline suggested by James et al. (1993). This provides evidence for overall within group consensus that suggests participant "... responses represent the properties of the group or organizational unit" (Aarons & Sawitzky, 2006, p. 293). Consensus emerged concerning all four of the constructs that were included as group level variables in the MLM analyses.

Between group variation was assessed with eta-squared tests and type 1 ICC tests. Eta-squared values should have significant F scores and they should be higher than the ICCs (Glisson & James, 2002; Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). As Klein and Kozlowski (2000) point out, the significance of eta-squared values are affected by sample size. So, the larger the sample, the more likely eta-squared values are to be significant. However,

type 1 ICC scores are not affected by sample size. This provided a corrective to the effect of the large sample size in this study on the eta-squared statistic.

Eta-squared tests were accomplished using one-way ANOVA analysis in SPSS to produce sum of squares figures and subsequent calculations across all groups. The equation that completed the eta-squared calculation was: $\eta^2 = \text{SS between} / \text{total SS}$, with $\text{SS} = \text{sum of squares}$ (Newton & Rudestam, 1999). These calculations generated the eta-squared values displayed in Table 23 across all groups in the sample for each of the four group level constructs in the study. ICC figures across all groups are also represented in Table 23. These were produced using HLM 6 and subsequent calculations. Each of the variables was placed on level 1 in a “random one-way ANOVA” model. The resulting variance components were then included in the following equation which generated ICC values: $\rho = \tau_{00} / (\tau_{00} + \sigma^2)$.

Where τ_{00} = Level-2 or group-level variance and σ^2 = Level-1 or individual-level variance. This equation generates the proportion of variance that lies between groups or $\rho = \text{ICC}$ (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

Table 23 *Between-Groups Analysis*

Construct	Team Variance	Residual Variance	ICC	MS _{BG}	MS _{WG}	Eta- Squared
Constructive Org. Culture	.01485	.45536	.03	.776	.456	.07
Pass.Def. Org. Culture	.00775	.46312	.02*	.626	.464	.06*
Org.Climate	.01869	.51293	.04	.930	.512	.08

Service						
Quality	.02048	.52523	.04	.975	.526	.08

All ICC and η^2 values significant at the $p < .01$ except * $p \leq .10$. MS_{BG} = Mean square between groups, MS_{WG} = Mean square within groups.

As expected the ICC values are lower than the eta-squared values. The significant eta-squared figures combined with significant and lower ICCs indicate acceptable levels of variability between groups in the study for three of the variables. However, the analyses revealed one variable with problematic significance levels, passive defensive organizational culture. Both the F -score significance of the eta-squared statistic ($p = .092$) and the significance of the variance across groups of the ICC test ($p = .085$) were higher than the desired $p < .05$ level. Though there was acceptable consensus within groups concerning passive defensive organizational culture (see Table 22), the problematic nature of the variance across groups must be acknowledged. This leads to the conclusion that characterization of passive defensive organizational culture as a cultural type is questionable in this sample. Since passive defensive organizational culture cannot definitively be considered a cultural type in the sample, it was excluded from the MLM analyses in this study.

The consensus within groups indicated by high r_{wg} scores (within group similarities) along with the variance between groups indicated by significant eta-squared figures and comparatively lower ICC scores (between group differences) support the composition of the participant responses by their group membership (Glisson & James, 2002). Therefore, a significant proportion of the total variance in responses is explained by group membership concerning three of the variables: constructive organizational culture, service quality and organizational climate (Glisson & James, 2002). This is

particularly important in order to connect the conceptual perspective of constructive organizational culture to the data in this study. Culture is, by definition, shared among groups in PCWS agencies. There is also a significant amount of between group variance concerning constructive organizational culture that, when combined with within group consensus, supplies statistical support for shared yet not uniform perspectives of constructive organizational culture among the organizational groups in the study.

In summary, the outcome of the referent shift consensus analysis was that tests of three of the constructs generated acceptable results. The constructs were constructive organizational culture, service quality and organizational climate. They were included as group level variables in the MLM analyses in this study. Analyses on one of the constructs, passive defensive organizational culture, did not yield acceptable results. Consequently, passive defensive organizational culture was excluded as a group level variable in the MLM analyses.

Multivariate Analysis

Hierarchical Linear Modeling 6 (HLM) was used for some of the bivariate analyses and all of the multivariate analysis in this study (Raudenbush, Bryk, & Congdon, 2005). HLM has the capability to perform analyses in studies such as this one that include a multilevel modeling design (Raudenbush, & Bryk, 2002).

In order to test the hypotheses in the current study the Hierarchical Linear Modeling 6 (Raudenbush, Bryk, & Congdon, 2005) software program was utilized while applying multilevel modeling analysis to the data. Various two-level models were used to estimate the relationships between constructive organizational culture, organizational climate and service quality on level-two with the outcome variables on level one:

intention to stay in the agency and intention to stay in the field-CWS. These analyses estimated the effects of the culture, climate and service quality shared in agency programs by the groups in this study on individual employee's intentions to remain either in the agency or in the field of CWS. Additional analyses included estimations of the relationships between the work attitude variables on level one; job satisfaction, service orientation, organizational commitment and commitment to the field-CWS, with both outcome variables, and finally the effects of the level two variables on these relationships. Grand-mean centering was used for the predictors in this study and all level two variables were standardized unless otherwise specified.

The initial models used in the analysis were "one way ANOVA with random effects" models for each outcome variable (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). This model is often referred to as an "unconditional" model since no predictors are specified on either level one or level two and the focus is the intercept. The only second level parameter used in this model is the intercept of the grand mean of groups with individual level responses. The group effects are considered to be random in nature. The formula for the one way ANOVA model on level one is: $Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij}$. Where Y_{ij} is the intent to stay in the agency or field within each group with the intercept, β_{0j} for employees i in group j , as the only parameter plus error, r_{ij} . On level two the equation is: $\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \mu_{0j}$. Where β_{0j} = each group's mean on intent to stay in the agency or field is represented as a function of the grand mean, γ_{00} , plus a random error term, μ_{0j} . When the levels are combined a mixed model equation is formed: $Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \mu_{0j} + r_{ij}$. The combined equation includes a fixed effect, the grand mean, γ_{00} , and random effects for groups, μ_{0j} , and for individual employees, r_{ij} , in each group (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

The model produces variance estimates at both levels. The level-one variance estimate σ^2 represents within groups variability and the level-two variance estimate τ_{00} indicates variability between groups (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). The coefficients and variance estimates produced for the two outcome variables in this study are reproduced in Tables 24 and 25.

Table 24 *ANOVA Model Results-Intent to Stay in the Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p</i>
Intent to Stay-Agency γ_{00}	3.22	.04	79.03	.000
		<i>Variance</i>		
Random Effects	Variance Component	<i>df</i>	X^2	<i>p</i>
Group Mean μ_{0j}	.02	33	44.75	.083
Level one-Individuals r_{ij}	.95			

Table 25 ANOVA Model Results, Intent to Stay in the Field-CWS

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p</i>
Intent to Stay Field-CWS γ_{00}	3.36	.03	105.23	.000
		<i>Variance</i>		
Random Effects	Variance Component	<i>df</i>	X^2	<i>p</i>
Group Mean μ_{0j}	.006	33	39.07	.216
Level one Individuals r_{ij}	.68			

The weighted least-squares estimate for the grand mean of intent to stay in the agency is 3.22 and for intent to stay in the field-CWS it is 3.36. The estimated variance of true group means for intent to stay-agency is .02 and for intent to stay-CWS it is .006. These variance levels were quite low across groups and, consistent with these low values, neither of them were significant. In fact the ICC values that represent the proportion of variance across groups yielded by these variance components were quite low: (Agency = .017 and CWS = .008). The ICCs indicated only about 1.7% variance across groups concerning the intent to stay in the agency and approximately .8% variance across groups related to intent to stay in the field-CWS.

The next model used to further analyze the data was a “regression with means-as-outcomes” model (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). This model is considered a conditional

model due to the addition of predictors on level two. The model allows for testing of the relationships between the level two or group level variables and the outcomes variables. In this study, the group level variables were constructive organizational culture (Const. OC), organizational climate (Org. Clim.) and service quality (Serv. Qual.). The criterion variables were intent to stay in the agency and intent to stay in the field-CWS. Due to the level of multicollinearity between constructive organizational culture and service quality, these variables were analyzed separately but each was entered into the model in combination with the other level two variable, organizational climate, in order to control for the potential effects of organizational climate in each model. All level two variables were standardized for these analyses and all results are reported with robust standard errors.

The means as outcome model was used to examine whether or not average group means for the outcome variables were predicted by the level two variables. The level one equation remained the same as it was for the one way ANOVA model. The level two equation included the group level predictors, ie., $\gamma_{01}(\text{Const. OC})$, so each group's mean (on one of the outcome variables) is potentially predicted by constructive organizational culture, $\gamma_{01}(\text{Const. OC})$. The combined equation used for means as outcomes models is provided in an example as follows: this equation was used to produce the model results presented in Table 28 below: $Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(\text{Const. OC}) + \gamma_{02}(\text{Org. Clim.}) + \mu_{0j} + r_{ij}$ (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

The level one results from the unconditional model presented above changed only slightly in the means as outcomes model results and this is reflected in the coefficients for

the outcome variables and the level one variance components which remained the same in both types of models.

The results of the means as outcomes model that included constructive organizational culture and organizational climate as predictor variables and intent to stay in the agency as the outcome variable results are displayed in Table 26.

Table 26 *Means as Outcomes, Constructive OC, Org. Climate and Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p</i>
Intent-Agency γ_{00}	3.22	.04	82.14	.000
Const. OC γ_{01}	.068	.05	1.41	.170
Org. Clim. γ_{02}	.004	.04	.09	.927
		<i>Variance</i>		
Random Effect	Variance Component	<i>df</i>	X^2	<i>p</i>
Group Mean μ_{0j}	.02	31	41.62	.096
Level-one Individuals r_{ij}	.95			

The values in Table 26 signify that there were no direct predictive relationships between either of the level-two predictors and the intent to stay in the agency. The predictors yielded non-significant coefficients. The *p* values for the coefficients in Table 26 indicate

the null hypotheses that the group means for each predictor might = 0 cannot be rejected. Therefore, constructive organizational culture among groups arranged by programs in the PCWS agencies in the study did not have a direct effect on individuals' intentions to stay in their agencies. The same can be said of organizational climate.

There was no change from the ANOVA with random effects model in the level-one variance explained in this model due to the absence of level-one predictors (see Table 24). Level-two variance also remained the same since neither of the predictors explained any variance due to group membership.

Service quality was substituted for constructive organizational culture with intent to stay in the agency as the criterion variable in a means as outcomes model and the results appear in Table 27.

Table 27 *Means as Outcomes, Service Quality, Org. Climate and Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p</i>
Intent-Agency γ_{00}	3.22	.04	82.66	.000
Serv. Qual. γ_{01}	.072	.06	1.303	.202
Org. Clim. γ_{02}	-.005	.04	-.142	.888
		<i>Variance</i>		
Random Effect	Variance Component	<i>df</i>	X^2	<i>p</i>
Group Mean μ_{0j}	.02	31	41.47	.099

Level-one				
Individuals r_{ij}	.95			

As expected, the results are quite similar to the previous model with no significant coefficients among the two predictors. Therefore, service quality along with organizational climate did not have direct relationships with intent to stay in the agency due to group membership. The level-two variance component was the same as it was in the previous model (due to rounding) and still non-significant in this model.

The same sets of predictors were also entered into means as outcomes models in the same combinations with intent to stay in the field-CWS as the criterion variable. The first model included constructive organizational culture and organizational climate. The results appear in Table 28.

Table 28 *Means as Outcomes, Constructive OC, Org. Climate and Intent-CWS*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p</i>
Intent Field-CWS γ_{00}	3.36	.03	105.64	.000
Const. OC γ_{01}	-.02	.03	-0.56	.577
Org. Clim. γ_{02}	-.02	.03	-.58	.568
		<i>Variance</i>		
Random Effect	Variance Component	<i>df</i>	X^2	<i>p</i>
Group Mean μ_{oj}	.008	31	38.64	.163

Level-one				
Individuals r_{ij}	.68			

The results in Table 28 indicate there were no significant direct predictive relationships between either of the level two predictors and the intent to stay in the field-CWS. The p values for the coefficients in Table 28 indicate the null hypotheses that the means for each predictor might = 0 cannot be rejected, leading to the conclusion that both predictors yielded non-significant coefficients. Therefore, constructive organizational culture and organizational climate, in the PCWS agency program groups in the study, did not have a direct effect on individual employees' intentions to stay in the field of Child Welfare Services. The level-two variance component was the same as the value in the ANOVA with random effects model and was not significant since the predictors did not explain any variance due to group membership (see Table 25).

When service quality was entered and constructive organizational culture removed from the model the results were similar (See Table 29).

Table 29 *Means as Outcomes, Service Quality, Org. Climate and Intent-CWS*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p</i>
Intent Field-CWS γ_{00}	3.36	.03	105.32	.000
Serv. Qual. γ_{01}	-.02	.04	-0.55	.586
Org. Clim. γ_{02}	-.15	.03	-.51	.616
		<i>Variance</i>		

Random Effect	Variance Component	df	X^2	p
Group Mean μ_{oj}	.008	31	38.61	.163
Level-one Individuals r_{ij}	.68			

No significant relationships emerged between the level two predictors and intent to stay in the field-CWS. The effects tested in the model included service quality controlling for the potential effect of organizational climate and vice versa. The resulting variance component was not significant.

Model fit tests were applied to each of the means as outcomes models discussed above and revealed that there was no improvement in the model fit resulting from any of the means as outcomes models elaborated above.

In order to test the relationships between work attitudes variables and the two outcome variables a “random-coefficients model” was employed (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). When using this model it is possible to enter only the level one variables as predictors, to test within groups effects without adding any level two variables. Both the intercepts and slopes in the results from analyses using this model are important indicators of the relationships between the variables. The level one intercepts and slopes vary randomly across level two groups. The combined equation for this model is: $Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10}(X_{ij} - X_j) + \mu_{0j} + \mu_{1j}(X_{ij} - X_j) + r_{ij}$ (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). The unique features in the equation for this model can be described using the equation for the model results in Table 30 as an example: γ_{00} represents the average of the group means on intent to stay in the agency across all groups, $\gamma_{10}(X_{ij} - X_j)$ is the average regression slope for service

orientation (job satisfaction = γ_{20} , organizational commitment = γ_{30} , commitment to the field-CWS = γ_{40}), μ_{0j} is the unique increment to the intercept associated with a specific group (j) and μ_{1j} is the unique increment to the slope associated with a specific group (j) (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

All of the level one variables included in these analyses were grand-mean centered. The first model included all of the work attitudes variables on level-one, job satisfaction (Job Sat.), service orientation (Serv. Orient.), organizational commitment (Org. Comm.), commitment to the field-CWS (Comm-CWS) and no predictor variables on level-two with intent to stay in the agency as the criterion variable. The results appear in Table 30.

Table 30 *Random Coefficients, Work Attitudes and Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p</i>
Intent-Agency γ_{00}	3.22	.03	122.37	.000
<i>Slopes</i>				
Serv. Orient. γ_{10}	-.067	.06	-1.17	.251
Job Sat. γ_{20}	.356	.05	7.41	.000
Org. Comm. γ_{30}	.403	.04	9.33	.000
Comm-CWS γ_{40}	.142	.05	3.14	.004
		<i>Variance</i>		
Random Effect	Variance			

	Component	<i>df</i>	X^2	<i>p</i>
Group Mean μ_0	.005	33	41.03	.159
<i>Slopes</i>				
Serv. Orient. μ_1	.044	33	35.30	.360
Job Sat. μ_2	.028	33	45.79	.068
Org. Comm. μ_3	.021	33	50.29	.027
Comm-CWS μ_4	.014	33	45.65	.070
Level one r_{ij}	.48			

The results reveal that service orientation is not a significant predictor of intent to stay in the agency. However, the three other work attitudes variables all resulted in significant relationships with intent to stay in the agency, controlling for each of the other predictors in the model. The coefficients in this model represent the following: the coefficient for the outcome variable 3.22 is the same as it was in the one-way ANOVA model because it represents the estimate of the average mean of intent to stay in the agency for all groups in the study. All other coefficients represent the estimated average slopes for the criterion variable regressed on the specific work attitudes variables that correspond to each coefficient, controlling for each of the other work attitudes variables. Therefore, job satisfaction is significantly positively related to intent to stay in the agency on average (3.22) within the groups in the study. This indicates that on average within groups, for every one unit increase in job satisfaction there will be a corresponding .36 increase in intent to stay in the agency. The same interpretation applies to the slopes for organizational commitment and commitment to the field-CWS since they resulted in

positive significant relationships as well. As commitment to the agency (organization) increases one unit, intention to stay in the agency increases by .40 on average within groups in the study. This is the highest value among the slopes and represents the strongest prediction of intent to stay in the agency. Also, on average within groups, when commitment to the field-CWS increases one unit, intent to stay in the agency increases by .14. Job satisfaction, commitment to the agency and commitment to the field all contribute to the average intentions to stay in the agency among groups in the PCWS agencies in this study.

As was the case in the previous models, the variance among groups concerning intercepts is not significant and yielded a very small coefficient (.005). Variance for the slopes within groups for the relationship between service orientation and the outcome variable were also non-significant. Though job satisfaction had a significant coefficient, the variance component was not significant. The X^2 statistic is high at 33 *df* but the significance value did not reach the $\leq .05$ cut off level. This means there appears to be little variance in the regression slopes that remains to be explained in the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency among the groups in this sample. The same can be said of commitment to the field which did not yield a significant level of variance in the slopes concerning its relationship with the intent to stay in the agency. However, organizational commitment yielded a significant variance component. The relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay in the agency varies significantly (.021) concerning the slopes within groups. Though unexplained variance remains, the range of that variance is fairly narrow as evidenced by the 95% plausibility values that may be calculated with the results in Table 30 concerning organizational

commitment (.362, .444). This is a .082 difference between the lowest and highest variance within the groups. However, it is important to note that of all the predictors the only one that resulted in significant slope variance was commitment to the agency. This is consistent with the result that commitment to the agency had the strongest estimated effect on intention to stay within groups.

A comparison of the random coefficients models results to the means as outcomes models results reveals level one effects (job satisfaction, commitment to the agency and commitment to the field-CWS) but no level two effects on intent to stay in the agency. Also, some variance is explained by level one variables but the means as outcomes models yielded no significant explanation of variance in intent to stay in the agency by the group level predictors. This leads to the conclusion that much of the variance in intent to stay in the agency appears to exist among individual employees rather than between groups.

Finally, a model fit test, known as a “variance covariance components test” in HLM 6, when applying the restricted maximum likelihood method, was used to examine whether or not the random coefficients model (Table 30) improved the model fit with the data (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). The results revealed model fit improvement as the deviance statistic declined significantly $\chi^2=487.42$, df 14, $p=.000$.

A random coefficients model was also utilized with intent to stay in the field-CWS as the criterion. The results of the random coefficients model with the work attitudes variables entered as predictors on level-one and intent to stay in the field-CWS as the outcome variable are displayed in Table 31.

Table 31 *Random Coefficients, Work Attitudes and Intent-CWS*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p</i>
Intent Field-CWS γ_{00}	3.36	.02	146.53	.000
<i>Slopes</i>				
Serv. Orient. γ_{10}	-.063	.04	-1.44	.160
Job Sat. γ_{20}	.228	.04	5.73	.000
Org. Comm. γ_{30}	-.001	.04	-.04	.971
Comm-CWS γ_{40}	.520	.04	11.92	.000
		<i>Variance</i>		
Random Effect	Variance Component	<i>df</i>	χ^2	<i>P</i>
Group Mean μ_0	.005	33	34.12	.414
<i>Slopes</i>				
Serv. Orient. μ_1	.017	33	41.68	.143
Job Sat. μ_2	.020	33	50.44	.026
Org. Comm. μ_3	.011	33	41.65	.144
Comm-CWS μ_4	.024	33	45.15	.077
Level one r_{ij}	.35			

The significant intercept coefficient represents the estimate of the average mean of intent to stay in the field-CWS for all groups in the study (3.36). This estimate is the

same as the coefficient in all previous models for this variable. The estimated average slopes coefficients were not significantly greater than zero for service orientation or commitment to the agency. However, the slopes coefficients were significant for both job satisfaction and commitment to the field and their predictive relationships with intent to stay in the field-CWS, controlling for the other predictor variables in the model. Job satisfaction is significantly positively related to intent to stay in the field on average within the groups in the study. This indicates for every one unit increase in job satisfaction there will be a corresponding .23 increase in intent to stay in the field of CWS. Commitment to the field, though, had the largest predictive effect on intent to stay in the field. For every one unit increase in commitment to the field of CWS, intent to stay in the field increases .52 on average within groups. This finding is similar to the findings concerning the comparatively strong relationship between commitment to the agency and intent to stay in the agency. Commitment to the field had the strongest significant relationship with intent to stay in the field compared to any of the other individual level predictors. Though job satisfaction had a relationship with both outcome variables, the significant relationships between each of the commitment variables and the corresponding intent to stay variables (agency or field) were stronger than the relationships job satisfaction had with each of the outcome variables. This is similar to the pattern of causal relationships Landsman (2000, 2001, 2005) found between these variables in two other samples.

Among the variance components only job satisfaction yielded significant variance. The relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the field resulted in significant variability concerning the slopes among groups. The range of that variance

among groups can be represented by the 95% plausibility values calculated with the results in Table 31 concerning these variables (.032, .424). These values represent a substantial difference (.392) between those groups with the lowest job satisfaction and those with the highest. This indicates there is variance remaining in the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the field-CWS that has not been explained. However, there was no significant variance in the regression slopes within groups for the other predictors in their relationships with intent to stay in the field-CWS.

As was the case with intent to stay in the agency, a comparison of the random coefficients model results to the means as outcomes models results reveals level one effects (job satisfaction, and commitment to the field-CWS) but no level two effects on intent to stay in the field-CWS. Also, some variance is explained by the individual level variables but the means as outcomes models yielded no significant explanation of variance in intent to stay in the field by the group level predictors. This leads to the conclusion that much of the variance in intent to stay in the field-CWS appears to exist among individual employees but not between groups.

Finally, there was improvement of the model fit as indicated by decreased deviance ($\chi^2=465.48$, df 14, $p=.000$).

Results and Study Hypotheses

The research hypotheses may be considered in light of the results provided in the previous section. Overall, the hypotheses in this study were not supported by the results of the data analyses. The primary reasons for this outcome were twofold. The first factor was the lack of relationship between constructive organizational culture with either of the criterion variables explained by group membership among the sample. The other major

factor was the exclusion of passive defensive organizational culture as a group level variable in the data analysis (due to the lack of significant variability between groups). These two factors apply to hypotheses one-four, six and seven. Each hypothesis either assumed a significant relationship between constructive organizational culture and one or both of the criterion variables or assumed passive defensive organizational culture would be a recognizable cultural type among the groups in the study.

The multicollinearity between constructive organizational culture and service quality in this study was the factor that precluded testing hypothesis five (constructive organizational culture has a positive relationship with service quality in PCWS agencies in Central California). From one perspective it can be concluded that the hypothesis is supported since there is a high positive correlational relationship between constructive organizational culture and service quality, $r = .87$ (see Table 21). Additional simple linear regression analysis between the two variables yielded a high significant $R^2 = .75$. However, the variables have such a high positive relationship that they appear to represent a significant overlap in measurement of similar phenomena. This led to differential application of these two variables within the multivariate analyses in this study.

Exploratory Analysis

Though the hypotheses in this study were not supported by the results of the data analysis, significant results emerged from the within group or individual level analyses. These results raise the possibility that further analysis of the data may be fruitful. In order to explore potential relationships among the variables in the study that were not hypothesized, further analyses were carried out using HLM 6.

In the previous analyses, significant relationships resulted on level 1 between three of the work attitude variables and intent to stay in the agency. In order of relationship strength, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and commitment to the field all predicted intent to stay in the agency. When intent to stay in the field of CWS was examined as the criterion, the analysis resulted in two significant predictive effects. The strongest predictor was commitment to the field and job satisfaction predicted intent to stay in the field to a lesser extent. The group level variables did not explain either criterion variable. However, with the individual level or within group relationships established, the question arises whether or not any of the group level variables might have a moderating effect on the relationships between the work attitudes variables and the retention (intent to stay) variables.

Moderation Analysis: Constructive Organizational Culture, Organizational Climate and Intent to Stay in the Agency

An investigation of individual level relationships that vary as a function of group level variables can be accomplished with an “intercepts and slopes as outcomes” model (Nezlek, 2001; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Significant relationships tested in this manner may be viewed as representing moderation by group level variables of relationships between individual level predictors and outcome variables (Nezlek, 2001).

In this model the level two equation expands to include main effects by the level two predictors and interaction effects. The combined equation using the results presented in Table 32 with one set of level one and level two predictors as an example of the equation utilized to produce this model is: $Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(\text{Const. OC})_j + \gamma_{10}(\text{Org. Commit.}) + \gamma_{11}(\text{Const. OC})_j(\text{Org. Commit.}) + \mu_{0j} + \mu_{1j}(\text{Org. Commit.}) + r_{ij}$ (Raudenbush & Bryk,

2002). The outcome of this model is viewed as the function of the intercept (γ_{00}), the main effect of constructive organizational culture (γ_{01}), the main effect of organizational commitment (γ_{10}), and a cross-level interaction involving constructive organizational culture with organizational commitment (γ_{11}) plus random error (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

The first analysis with this type of model included the three work attitude variables that resulted in significant relationships in the random coefficients model; organizational commitment, job satisfaction and commitment to the field, with intent to stay in the agency as the criterion. The level two variables included in the model were constructive organizational culture and organizational climate. For clarity of presentation, significant coefficients will be signified with asterisks and the significance values will not be shown in all subsequent model depictions.

Table 32 *Intercepts and Slopes as Outcomes, Const. Org Culture and Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-Agency γ_{00}	3.22***	.03	116.58
<i>Intercepts</i>			
Const. OC γ_{01}	.02	.03	.66
Org. Clim. γ_{02}	.01	.03	.17
<i>Slopes</i>			
Org. Commit. γ_{10}	.394***	.05	8.71
Const. OC γ_{11}	.039	.05	.82
Org Clim. γ_{12}	.072	.05	1.51

Job Sat. γ_{20}	.362***	.04	8.93
Const. OC γ_{21}	.029	.04	.74
Org Clim. γ_{22}	-.174**	.05	-3.52
Comm-CWS γ_{30}	.160**	.05	3.13
Const. OC γ_{31}	.021	.05	.42
Org Clim. γ_{32}	-.024	.05	-.51
Serv. Orient. γ_{40}	-.084	.06	-1.53
Const OC γ_{41}	-.103	.07	-1.54
Org Clim. γ_{42}	.074	.05	1.60
		<i>Variance</i>	
Random Effect	Variance		
	Component	<i>df</i>	χ^2
Group Mean μ_0	.007	31	40.96
<i>Slopes</i>			
Org. Comm. μ_1	.024*	31	48.56
Job Sat. μ_2	.007	31	29.11
Comm-CWS μ_3	.030*	31	45.41
Serv. Orient. μ_4	.037	31	28.21
Level-one r	.48		

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, ** $p \leq .01$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level.

The model displayed in Table 32 reveals the results when the group level variables were tested for potential moderating effects. The relationships between individual level predictors, commitment to the agency, commitment to the field, and service orientation

with intent to stay in the agency were not moderated by either of the group level variables, constructive organizational culture or organizational climate. However, the effect of job satisfaction on intent to stay in the agency was moderated by organizational climate controlling for all other variables and potential moderators included in the model. The significant negative coefficient ($-.174$) indicates that in the context of high organizational climate, the positive predictive effect of job satisfaction weakens. As organizational climate decreases, the predictive effect of job satisfaction on intent to stay in the agency increases in strength.

The slope variance components indicate that job satisfaction is no longer significant. This suggests the variance in the slopes between groups has been explained in the model. However, variance for the slopes of organizational commitment and commitment to the field (across groups) with the criterion variable all remained significant. There appears to be unexplained variance remaining between groups concerning these relationships in the model. Service orientation was not significant.

In the analyses reported in this section, organizational climate is composed of four subscales; emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, role conflict and role overload. The first two might be viewed as providing an indication of the sense of “burnout” shared by group members and the later two subscales indicate group members’ perceptions of negative role dynamics. So, high scores on the overall scale signify negative perceptions of the climate in the organization.

The significant moderation of the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency by organizational climate across all 34 groups may be depicted as overall regression lines (see Figure 15).

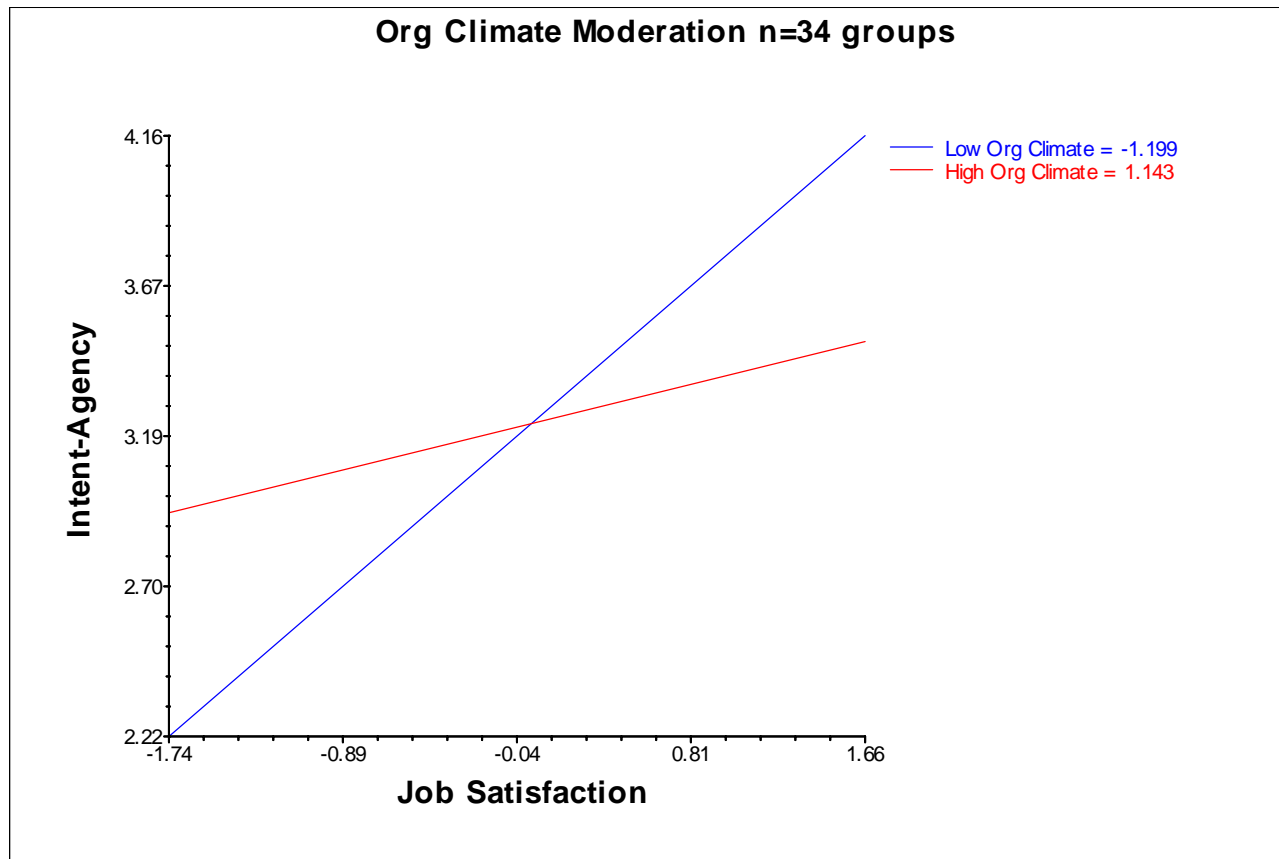


Figure 15. Job Satisfaction and Intent to Stay-Agency, Moderated by Org. Climate

In Figure 15, the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency (+/- 2 std errors) is represented by the x-axis and the y-axis respectively, while the averaged upper and lower quartiles of organizational climate are used to represent high and low organizational climate. The blue line represents the slope of job satisfaction predicting intent to stay in the agency when organizational culture is low and the red line represents the slope across groups when organizational climate is high. Clearly, the relationship represented by the slope is strongest when organizational climate is rated as low and weakest when organizational climate is high.

As illustrated in Figure 15, when organizational climate is low or relatively positive in nature, the regression line is quite steep denoting that the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency is strongest among groups that perceive organizational climate as low. When organizational climate is high (group members rate the climate as relatively negative), the slope is not as steep indicating a much weaker relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay. In order to highlight how dramatic the difference was between groups that rated organizational climate as high verses those who rated it as low Figure 16 illustrates the same relationships but organizational climate was allowed to vary to two-standard deviations in each direction instead of being represented by averaged upper and lower quartiles.

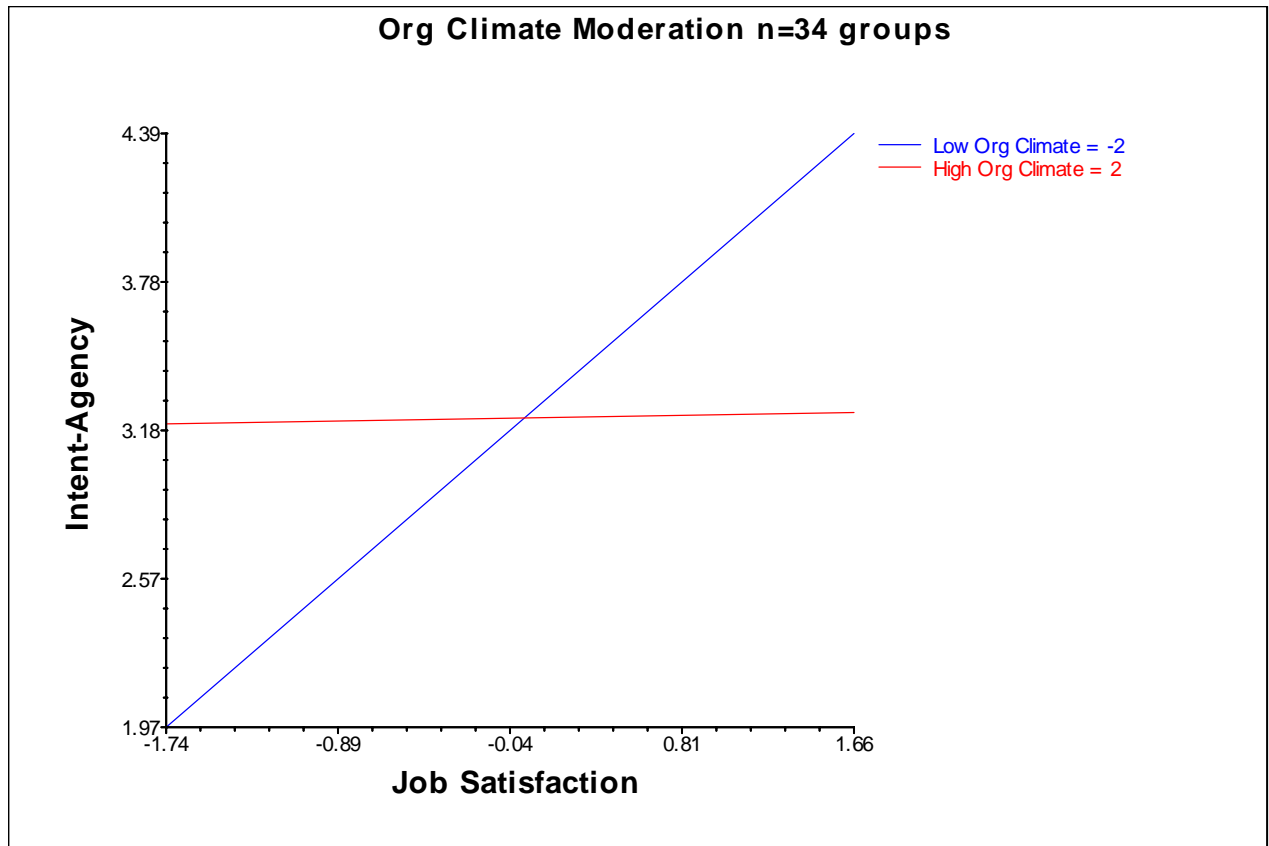


Figure 16. Moderation by Organizational Climate: Two Standard Deviations

When all values within two standard deviations (positive and negative) for organizational climate are included as illustrated in Figure 16, the differences in the moderating effect are dramatic. The slope in the context of high organizational climate virtually flattens. This indicates little, if any, increase in intent to stay predicted by job satisfaction when the climate is perceived as negative. However, the slope for the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency remained steep among groups that rated organizational climate lower or as less negative.

A note may be helpful concerning intercepts. The figures presented above may appear to indicate intercept bias. However, the level-one predictor was grand mean centered and the level two moderator was standardized and grand mean centered. The intercept for organizational climate is actually at .01 on the x-axis (see Table 32). In order to demonstrate the relationship between group intercepts, Figure 17 compares the intercept medians across groups.

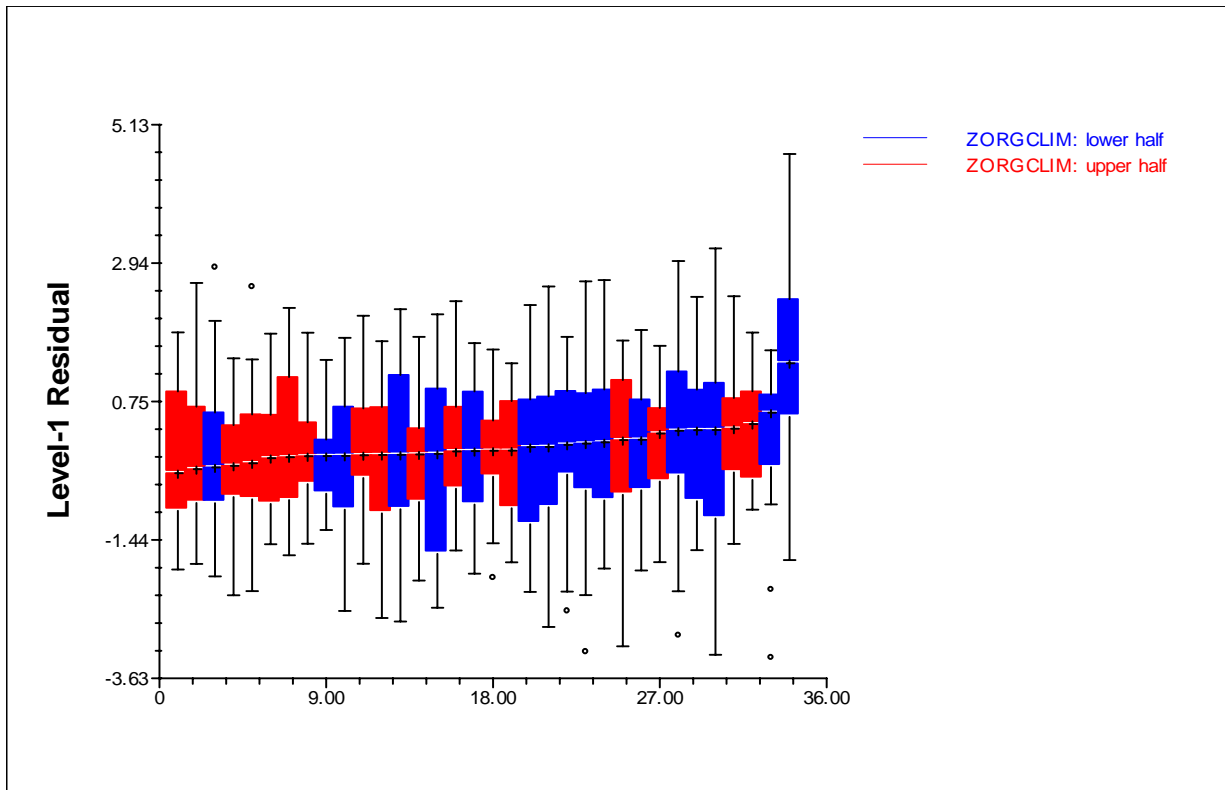


Figure 17. Organizational Climate Intercept Median Comparison n= 34 Groups

Figure 17 illustrates that there is not a great deal of variance between group intercepts and residuals concerning organizational climate. The 34th group is somewhat of an outlier. However, the groups all vary within a small range.

Model fit results indicated that the model did not produce a significant decrease in the deviance statistic ($\chi^2=22.75$, $df 0$, $p>.500$). Therefore, this model may not be considered an improvement over the random coefficients model that included all of the level one variables (Table 30).

Moderation Analysis: Service Quality and Organizational Climate and Intent to Stay in the Agency

Service quality was inserted and constructive organizational culture deleted from the intercepts and slopes as outcomes model in order to determine what effect service quality might have as a moderator. The full model that included service quality instead of constructive organizational culture is presented in Table 33.

Table 33 *Intercepts and Slopes as Outcomes, Service Quality and Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-Agency γ_{00}	3.22**	.03	115.87
<i>Intercepts</i>			
Service Quality γ_{01}	.013	.03	.35
Org. Climate γ_{02}	.001	.03	.015
<i>Slopes</i>	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Org. Commit γ_{10}	.396***	.05	8.71
Serv. Qual. γ_{11}	-.028	.06	-.44
Org. Clim. γ_{12}	.063	.05	1.34
Job Satisfaction γ_{20}	.364***	.04	9.57

Serv. Qual. γ_{21}	.052	.04	1.49
Org. Clim. γ_{22}	-.177*	.05	-3.94
Commit-CWS γ_{30}	.151	.05	3.07
Serv. Qual. γ_{31}	.072	.06	1.132
Org. Clim. γ_{32}	-.027	.05	-.56
Service Orient. γ_{40}	-.08	.05	-1.56
Serv. Qual. γ_{41}	-.120	.06	-1.95
Org. Clim. γ_{42}	.091*	.04	2.23
		<i>Variance</i>	
Random Effect	Variance Component	<i>df</i>	χ^2
Group Mean μ_0	.007	31	41.05
<i>Slopes</i>			
Org Commit μ_1	.025*	31	50.53
Job Satisfaction μ_2	.002	31	28.88
Commit-CWS μ_3	.030	31	44.00
Service Orient μ_4	.036	31	29.00
Level-one r	.48		

Significant coefficients*** $p \leq .001$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level.

Service quality did not have a moderating effect on any of the relationships between the predictors in the model and the intent to stay in the agency. The highest moderating effect in the new model remained the significant negative moderation of organizational climate on the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency. The coefficient for organizational climate ($-.177$) in the new model was very close to the value in the previous model ($-.174$) that included constructive organizational culture instead of service quality. The coefficient for the significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency ($.364$) was also slightly higher than it was in the previous model ($.362$, see Table 32). Therefore, the relationship depicted in Figure 18 below is only a minor alteration from the model shown in Figure 15 with slightly higher values in the current model.

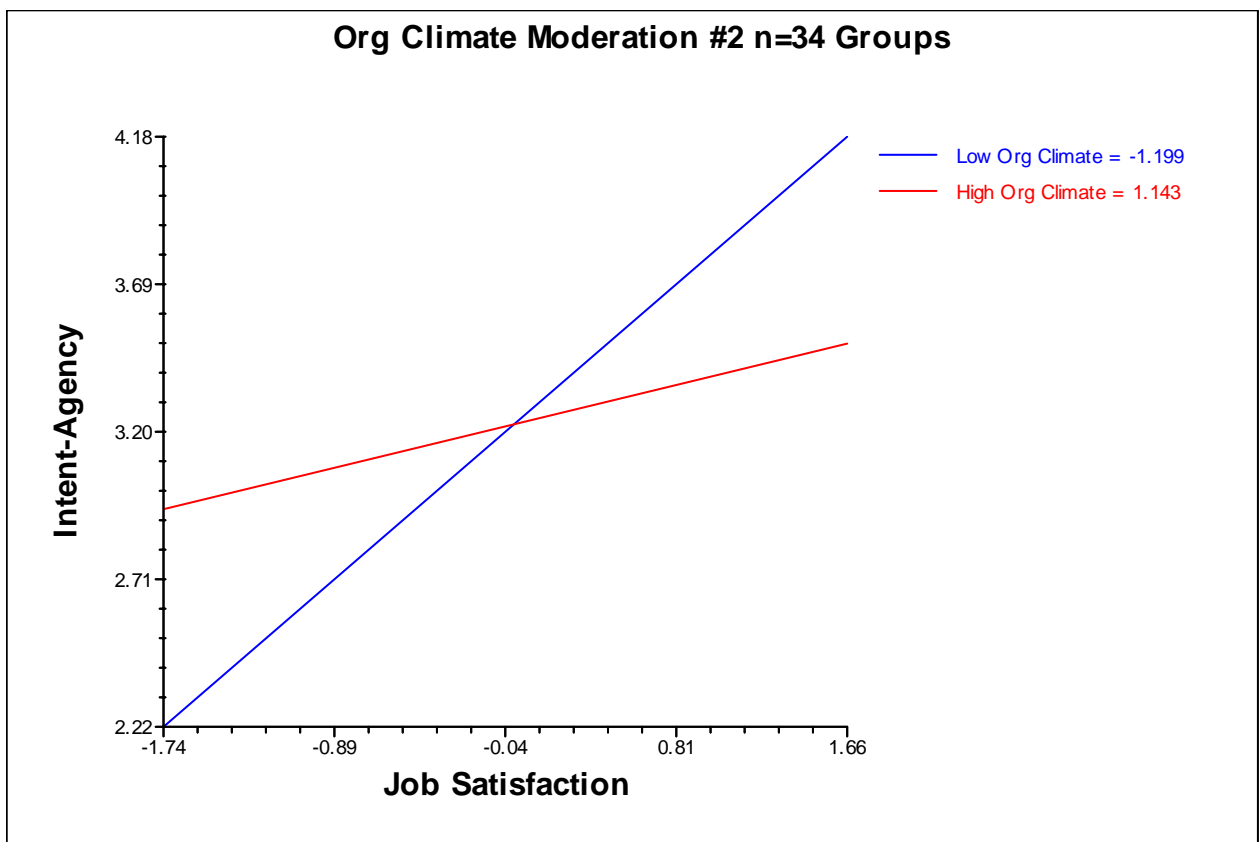


Figure 18. Job Satisfaction and Intent to Stay-Agency, Moderated by Org. Climate-2

In Figure 18 the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency (+/- 2 std errors) is represented by the x-axis and the y-axis respectively, while the averaged upper and lower quartiles of organizational climate are used to represent high and low organizational climate. The blue line represents the slope of job satisfaction predicting intent to stay in the agency when organizational climate is low and the red line represents the slope when organizational climate is high. The relationship represented by the slope is strongest when organizational climate is rated as low and weakest when organizational climate is high.

A change that emerged in the relationships between variables due to the inclusion of service quality and exclusion of constructive organizational culture bears consideration. The difference that occurred between the two models was a significant moderating effect by organizational climate (.091) on the non-significant relationship between service orientation and intent to stay in the agency. Service orientation did not have a significant relationship with intent to stay in the agency in any of the models in this study. Also, though it is not significant, the coefficient is in a negative direction which is a counterintuitive finding. Taken at face value this would mean as service orientation (a conceptually positive phenomenon in this study) increases, intent to stay in the agency decreases. A plausible explanation might be offered for such a relationship when the moderation of organizational climate is considered as the context. The positive coefficient for organizational climate may mean that those groups that rated organizational climate highest had the strongest negative relationships between service orientation and intent to stay in the agency and those that rate organizational climate

lowest had the weakest negative relationships between the two variables. This would mean as things were perceived as highly negative (in terms of role difficulties and shared burnout characteristics) those groups that were higher in service orientation were less likely to project that they would stay in the agency. The opposite would be true of those who perceived climate less negatively; these groups were lower on service orientation and more likely to stay in the agency. The interpretation would be that those who were more dedicated to service provision and viewed the climate negatively were less likely to project remaining in the agency. The explanation offered may make conceptual sense. However, due to the non-significant relationship between service orientation and intent to stay in the agency, it is likely that the significant moderating effect of organizational climate is a statistical interaction which does not lead to a meaningful conclusion. It bears mentioning in connection to this discussion that the potential moderating effect of service quality on service orientation and intent to stay in the agency was very close to significant in a negative direction. The only change in this model and the one represented in Table 32 was the substitution of the group level variable service quality for constructive organizational culture. The statistical interaction between the individual level variable service orientation with the two group level variables, organizational climate and service quality (near significant), appears to have led to the interactions that do not offer helpful explanatory information.

As in the prior model, the variance component for job satisfaction was not significant indicating that the moderating effect of organizational climate explains much of the variance in the between groups slopes. The organizational commitment variance component was the only significant coefficient in the model. This appears to indicate that

there is unexplained variance remaining among group slopes concerning the relationship between commitment to the agency and intent to stay in the agency in the model.

Notably, the variance component for commitment to the field is not significant whereas it was significant in the previous model. In this model there appears to be no remaining variance in the group slopes to be explained concerning the relationship between commitment to the field and intent to stay in the agency.

The model did not produce a significant decrease in the deviance statistic according to model fit test results ($\chi^2=24.50$, $df 0$, $p>.500$). This model, then, may not have improved the fit to the data over the random coefficients model that included all of the individual level variables (Table 30).

Moderation Analysis: Constructive Organizational Culture, Organizational Climate and Intent to Stay in the Field of Child Welfare Services

Intent to stay in the field of CWS was also tested as the criterion in an intercepts and slopes as outcomes model. This model type was used to test moderation by the group level variables. The first model was a test for the potential moderating effects of constructive organizational culture and organizational climate on the relationships between the work attitudes variables and intent to stay in the field-CWS. The results are displayed in Table 34.

Table 34 *Intercepts and Slopes as Outcomes, Const. Org Cult, Intent-CWS*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-CWS γ_{00}	3.36***	.02	152.38
<i>Intercepts</i>			
Const. OC γ_{01}	-.040	.02	-1.82
Org. Climate γ_{02}	-.040	.03	-1.36
<i>Slopes</i>			
Commit-CWS γ_{10}	.530***	.04	12.72
Const. OC γ_{11}	.031	.05	.64
Org. Clim. γ_{12}	-.095	.05	-1.86
Job Sat. γ_{20}	.232***	.04	5.84
Const OC γ_{21}	.006	.04	.16
Org. Clim. γ_{22}	-.083*	.04	-2.22
Org Commit γ_{30}	-.007	.04	-.205
Const OC γ_{31}	.024	.04	.56
Org. Clim. γ_{32}	.074	.04	1.96
Serv. Orient. γ_{40}	-.065	.04	-1.49
Const OC γ_{41}	-.043	.04	-.98
Org. Clim. γ_{42}	.054	.04	1.23
		<i>Variance</i>	
Random Effect	Variance Component	<i>df</i>	χ^2

Group Mean μ_0	.005	31	32.28
<i>Slopes</i>			
Commit-CWS μ_1	.022	31	39.13
Job Sat. μ_2	.017	31	41.65
Org Commit μ_3	.010	31	36.95
Service Orient. μ_4	.015	31	39.04
Level-one r	.345		

Significant coefficients *** $p \leq .001$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level.

The model depicted in Table 34 reveals that both job satisfaction and commitment to the field (CWS) were significant predictors of intent to stay in the field, as they were in the random coefficients model (see Table 31), and organizational commitment and service orientation were not. Constructive organizational culture did not exhibit a moderating relationship with any of the level-one variables and their associations with the criterion variable. Organizational climate did not moderate the relationship between commitment to the field and intent to stay in the field-CWS. However, the analysis did result in a significant moderating effect by organizational climate on the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the field-CWS. This result occurred while controlling for all other level one relationships and the potential moderating effects on these relationships by both constructive organizational culture and organizational climate. Organizational climate had a negative moderating effect on the relationship (-.083) between job satisfaction and the criterion. This moderating relationship is depicted in Figure 19.

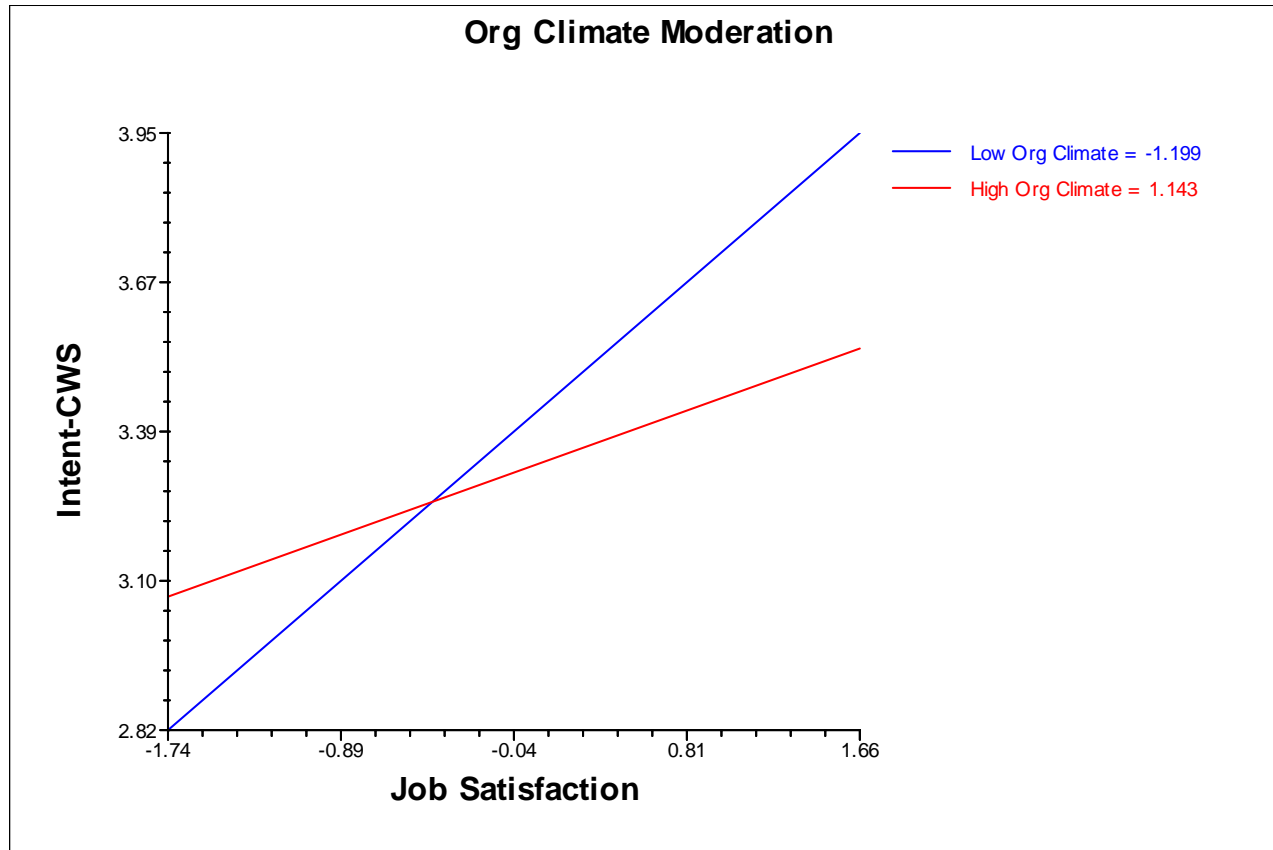


Figure 19. Job Satisfaction and Intent to Stay-CWS, Moderated by Org Climate

In Figure 19 the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the field-CWS (+/- 2 std errors) is represented by the x-axis and the y-axis, while the averaged upper and lower quartiles of organizational climate are used to represent high and low organizational climate. The blue line represents the slope of job satisfaction predicting intent to stay in the field when organizational culture is low and the red line represents the average slope among groups when organizational climate is high. The relationship represented by the slope is strongest when organizational climate is rated as low (blue

line). The dynamics represented in Figure 19 indicate that among those groups that were less likely to perceive the climate as negative (lower organizational climate) the positive relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the field was stronger. The opposite is also the case. Those groups that perceived the climate more negatively (higher organizational climate) tended on average to have weaker relationships between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the field.

Virtually none of the variance components in the model were significant. This means that most of the variance in the primary intercept and the slopes for each predictor with the criterion included in the model seems to have been explained by the model.

Model fit test results concerning this model revealed that this model was not a significant improvement in fit in comparison to the random coefficients model as the deviance statistic did not decline significantly ($\chi^2=27.81$, $df\ 0$, $p=.500$). The implication is that the simpler model is preferable.

Moderation Analysis: Service Quality, Organizational Climate and Intent to Stay in the Field of Child Welfare Services

A final test of the potential moderating effects of group service quality was analyzed removing constructive organizational culture and inserting service quality into an intercepts and slopes as outcomes model with intent to stay in the field-CWS as the criterion variable. The results were so similar to the previous model that they are not presented here. The only significant moderating relationship was the same as the one that emerged in the previous model. Controlling for all other relationships between level one variables and the criterion, and the potential moderation of those relationships by service quality and organizational climate, a significant negative moderating effect by

organizational climate on the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the field-CWS emerged in the model. The significant positive coefficient for job satisfaction with intent to stay in the field (.234) was slightly higher but close to the value of the coefficient in the previous model (.232, see Table 34). The intercepts for intent to stay in the field were the same, (3.36) and the intercepts for organizational climate were only slightly different (-.04 in Table 36 verses -.03 in the current model). The moderating effect of organizational climate on the level one relationship in this model (-.082) was almost identical to the coefficient in the prior model (-.083, see Table 34). Therefore, the illustration of the model under consideration would be only slightly altered from the one depicted in Figure 19. The interpretation is identical to the explanation of the previous model results. Among those groups that were less likely to perceive the climate as negative (lower organizational climate), the positive relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the field was stronger. The opposite is also the case. Those groups that perceived the climate more negatively (higher organizational climate) tended on average to report weaker relationships between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the field.

None of the variance components in the model that included the test of potential moderation by service quality were significant. The findings concerning variance components in this model were almost identical to those in the previous model. Therefore, it appears that most of the intercept and slopes variation was explained in the model. In short, when service quality was substituted for constructive organizational culture in an intercepts and slopes as outcomes model similar to the one used previously, there was negligible change in the results of the analysis.

Model fit tests for this intercepts and means as outcomes model did not demonstrate improvement over the random coefficients model ($\chi^2=32.16$, $df 0$, $p=.500$).

Organizational Climate: Engagement and Stress

Further examination of the role played by organizational climate may be useful since organizational climate had a moderating effect on some of the main effect relationships in previous models. According to Charles Glisson, organizational climate can be differentiated along at least two conceptual dimensions (Children's Mental Health Services Research Center, 2006). The two that are most applicable in this study are engagement and stress. Engagement has to do with the sense of “personal accomplishment” employees get from their work and the “personalization” they experience in work relationships with clients (C.A. Glisson, personal communication, 11/16/06). Examples of items on the survey instrument (see Appendix B) that related to these two facets of engagement were: “I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job” (# 157) and “Its hard to feel close to the children I serve” (#159). Stress relates directly to the general effects of the work environment on employees. An example of the items that queried respondents about stress on the survey was: “How often do your coworkers show signs of stress” (#167). Stress is also indicated by the difficult aspects of the role requirements employees experience in PCWS agency settings. For instance, an item on the survey that represented role overload was: “No matter how much I do, there is always more to be done” (# 160).

These aspects of organizational climate can be measured with subscales that were used in this study. The engagement scale can be created by reverse coding depersonalization to make a “personalization” subscale. Personalization can be combined

with the personal accomplishment subscale to form the engagement scale. The stress scale of organizational climate can be composed by adding the following subscales: emotional exhaustion, role conflict and role overload (CMHSRC, 2006). The engagement and stress scales were both formed for further analyses in this study.

For the analyses in this section, full model results are not displayed in order to emphasize the most important aspects of the results. Model results in this section include only the main intercepts and significant slopes coefficients.

First, engagement and stress were included in intercepts and slopes as outcomes models to test for potential moderation of significant relationships between level one predictors and intent to stay in the agency. The predictors included in these models were significant predictors in the previous analyses: job satisfaction, organizational commitment and commitment to the field. No moderating effects by engagement or stress emerged concerning the predictive relationships of either organizational commitment or commitment to the field-CWS with intent to stay in the agency. However, both types of organizational climate moderated the effect of job satisfaction on intent to stay in the agency. The results are listed in Tables 35 and 36.

Table 35 *Moderation-Engagement, Job Satisfaction and Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-Agency	3.21***	.03	96.42
<i>Intercepts</i>			
Engagement	-.001	.03	-.032
<i>Slopes</i>			

Job Satisfaction	.646***	.04	16.05
Engagement	.105**	.03	3.32
		<i>Variance</i>	
Random Effect	Variance		
	Component	<i>df</i>	X^2
Group Mean	.013	32	41.96
<i>Slopes</i>			
Job Satisfaction	.020*	32	46.26
Level-one	.62		

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, ** $p \leq .01$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level.

Engagement positively moderated the predictive effect job satisfaction had on intent to stay in the agency. Therefore, among groups with higher overall engagement scores, the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency was stronger than among those groups with lower ratings of engagement. Ratings of engagement in the organizational climate reflect variation in the sense of shared personal accomplishment and “personalization” in the organization. Job satisfaction predicted intent to stay in the agency as a function of engagement in this model. The relationship is illustrated in Figure 20 below.

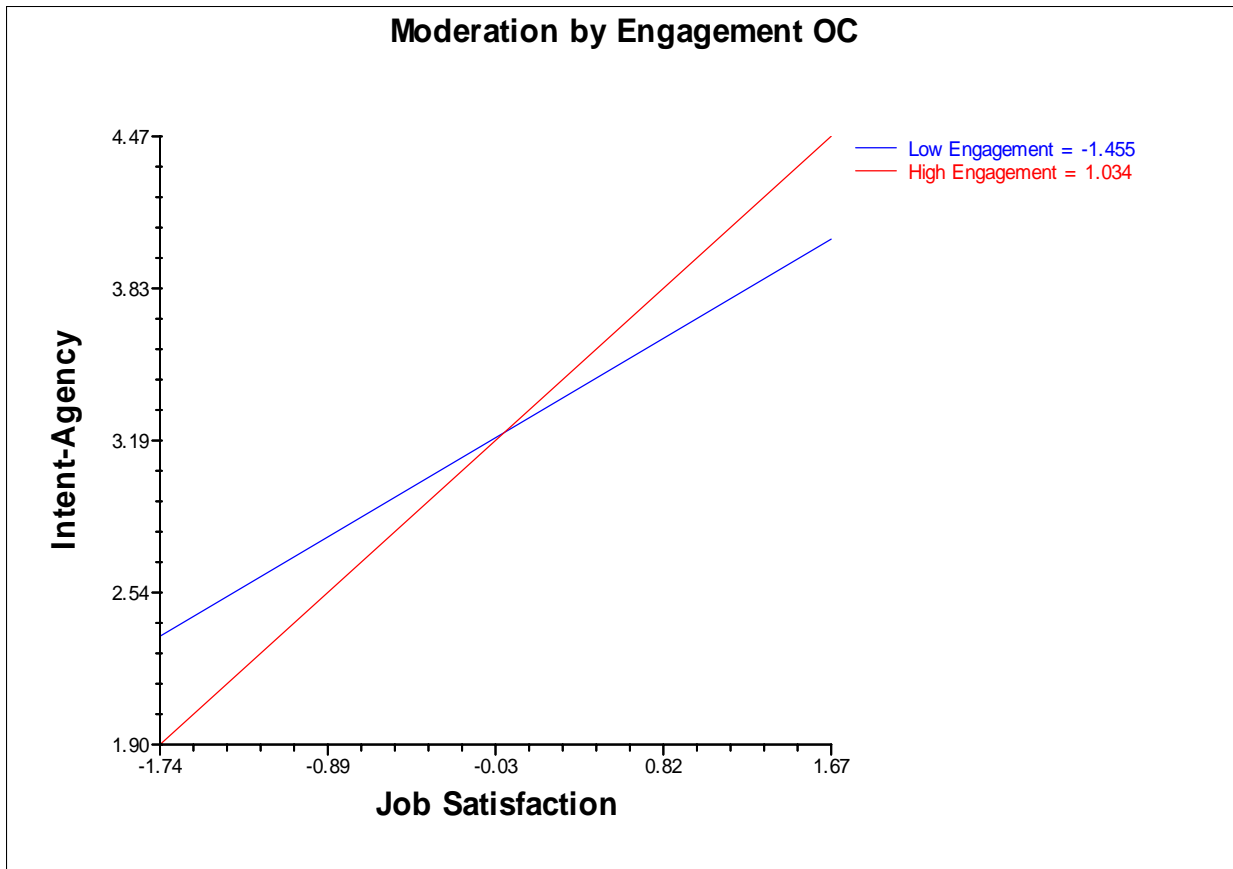


Figure 20. Moderation by Engagement: Job Satisfaction and Intent-Agency

The red and blue lines in Figure 20 are the averaged upper (red) and lower (blue) quartiles of engagement and represent the moderating effect of engagement on the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency. Comparison of the two lines reveals that the steeper regression line (red) indicates a stronger relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency as a function of engagement in the climate of the organization when engagement is perceived as higher in the agency.

Stress as a type of organizational climate also had a moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency although the effect was negative and slightly stronger than the moderating effect of engagement.

Table 36 *Moderation-Stress, Job Satisfaction and Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-Agency	3.21***	.03	97.13
<i>Intercepts</i>			
Stress	-.027	.04	-.702
<i>Slopes</i>			
Job Satisfaction	.643***	.04	14.94
Stress	-.109*	.05	-2.16
		<i>Variance</i>	
Random Effect	Variance Component	<i>df</i>	χ^2
Group Mean	.009	32	41.01
<i>Slopes</i>			
Job Satisfaction	.024*	32	53.14
Level-one	.621		

gnificance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level. Si

Table 36 reveals the negative moderating effect stress had on the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency. This moderating effect is illustrated in Figure 21.

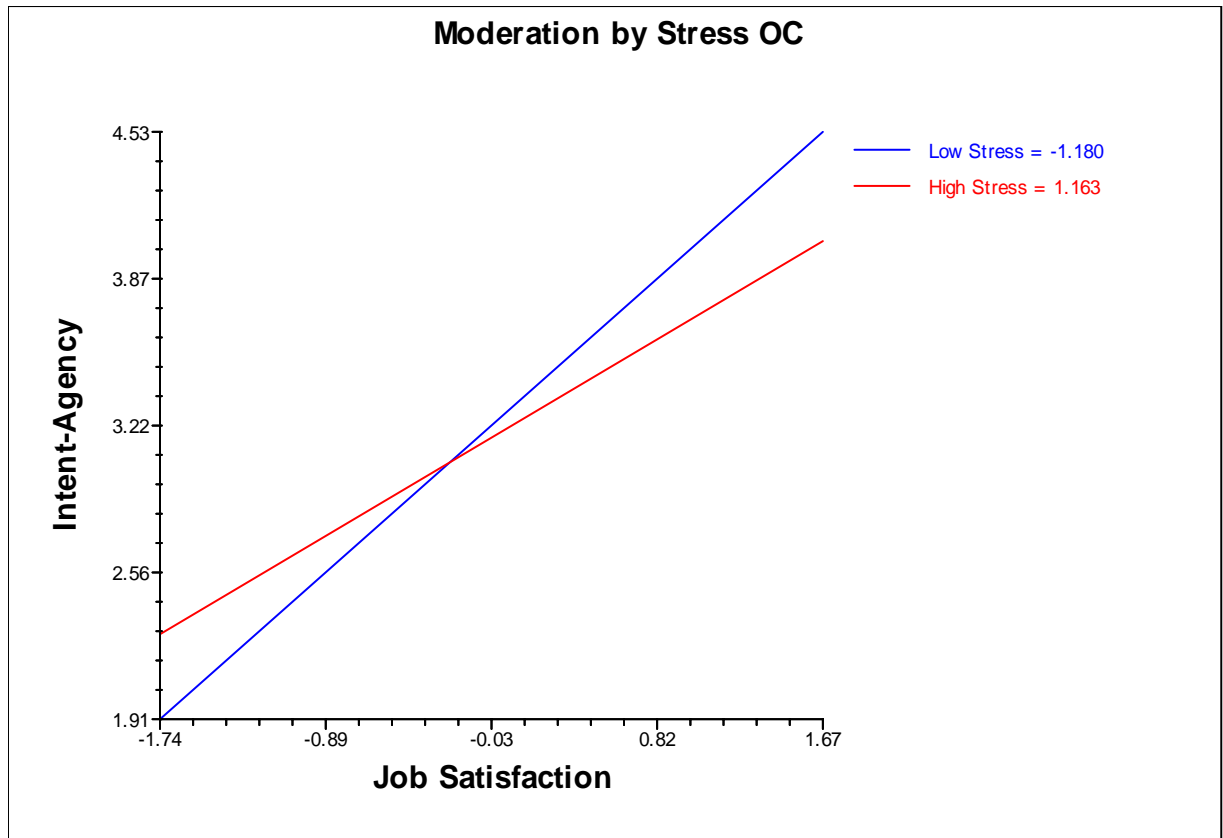


Figure 21. Moderation by Stress: Job Satisfaction and Intent-Agency

The colored lines represent the averaged upper (red) and lower (blue) quartiles of stress. So the red line represents higher stress and the blue line represents lower stress. Figure 21 illustrates that when the organizational climate was perceived as more stressful, the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency was weaker. Among those groups in which the climate was perceived as less stressful, the relationship

between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency was stronger. Job satisfaction predicted intent to stay in the agency as a function of stress in this model.

In both of the models presented in Tables 35 and 36 the variance components for job satisfaction were significant with low coefficients (.020 & .024 respectively). Consequently, there was a small amount of variance remaining in the slopes between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency that moderation by the engagement and stress types of organizational climate did not explain. Other predictors or moderators that are not in these models may explain the remaining variance.

In addition, both models resulted in significant improvement over the random coefficients model presented previously (Table 30) concerning decrease in the deviance statistic ($\chi^2=24.87$, $df\ 5$, $p=.000$) and ($\chi^2=25.02$, $df\ 5$, $p=.000$) respectively. Therefore, both models may be viewed as improvements in modeling the data over the simpler random coefficients model.

Analyses concerning the potential moderating effects of the engagement and stress facets of organizational climate on the relationships between level one predictors and intent to stay in the field of Child Welfare Services were also completed. The two significant predictors of intent to stay in the field in previous models were job satisfaction and commitment to the field (see Table 31). Models that included the main effect of job satisfaction on intent to stay in the field did not reveal any significant moderation by either engagement or stress. However, analyses with commitment to the field did result in moderation.

The engagement aspect of organizational climate moderated the relationship between commitment to CWS on intent to stay in the field. As displayed in Table 37, the

coefficient that indicates the moderating effect was positive in direction and small in strength (.045).

Table 37 *Moderation-Engagement, Commitment-Field and Intent-CWS*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-CWS	3.36***	.02	142.17
<i>Intercepts</i>			
Engagement	.001	.02	.051
<i>Slopes</i>			
Commit-CWS	.617***	.03	20.05
Engagement	.045*	.02	2.33
		<i>Variance</i>	
Random Effect	Variance Component	<i>df</i>	X^2
Group Mean	.002	32	39.80
<i>Slopes</i>			
Commit-CWS	.010*	32	49.65
Level-one	.39		

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level.

The moderating effect of engagement on commit to the field and intent to stay in CWS is illustrated in Figure 22. Due to the relatively low indirect effect size the differences between high and low moderation are not as great as they have been in previous models.

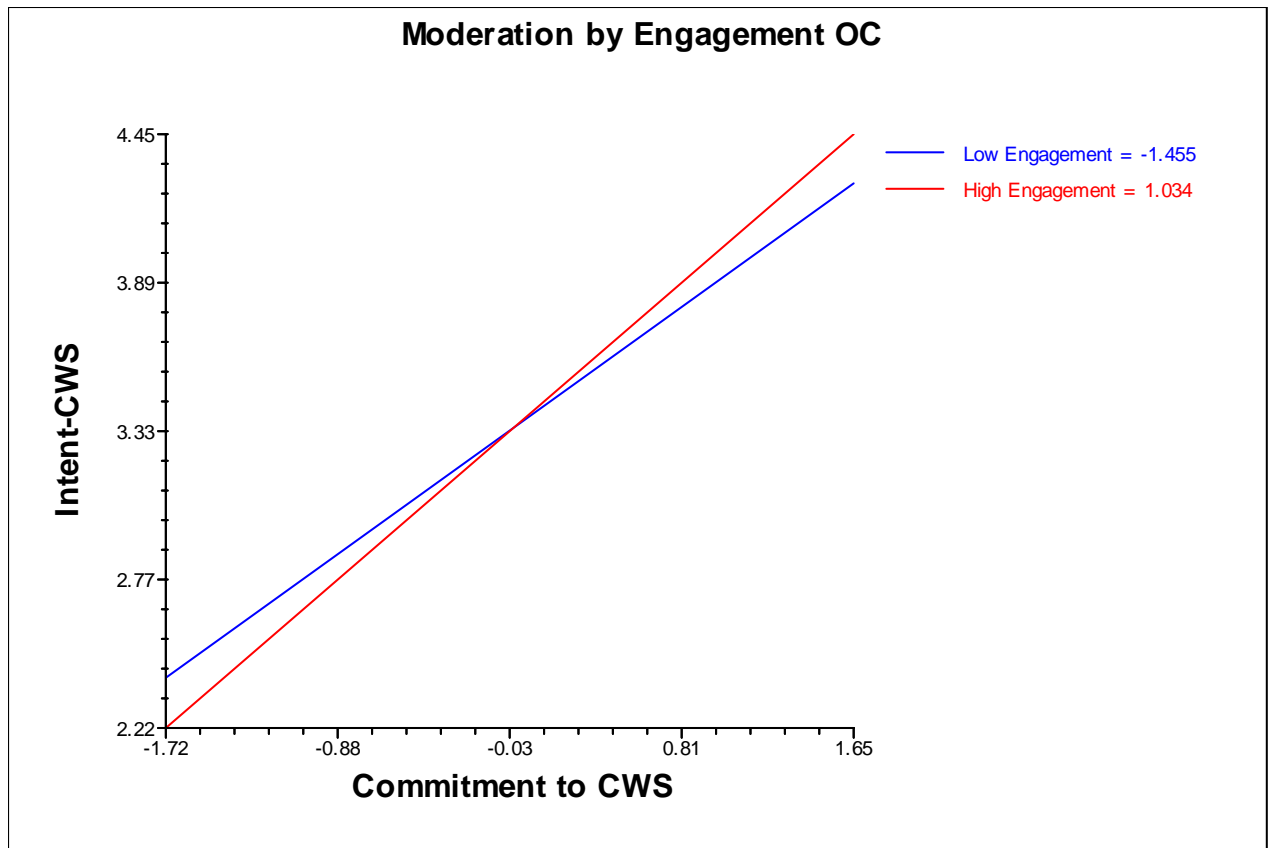


Figure 22. Moderation by Engagement: Commit Field and Intent Field-CWS

As in similar illustrations, the red line represents the averaged upper quartile and the blue line represents the averaged lower quartile of the moderator. In Figure 22, among groups that perceived the climate of their organizations as higher (red line) in engagement, there was a stronger relationship between commitment to the field and intent to stay in the field-CWS. Among those who viewed the climate as lower in engagement (blue line) there tended to be a weaker relationship between commitment to stay in the field and the

intent to stay in the field-CWS. Commitment to the field predicted intent to stay in the field-CWS as a function of engagement.

Model fit tests demonstrated that this model improved significantly over the random coefficients model (Table 31) due to a decline in the deviance statistic ($\chi^2=40.96$, $df\ 5$, $p=.000$). The conclusion drawn from this result is that this model offers a preferable fit to the data.

Stress was also tested for possible moderation of the effect commitment to the field had on intent to stay in CWS. As is demonstrated in Table 38 a significant indirect effect emerged in the model that included stress.

Table 38 *Moderation-Stress, Commitment-Field and Intent-CWS*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-CWS	3.36***	.02	144.45
<i>Intercepts</i>			
Stress	-.013	.03	-.50
<i>Slopes</i>			
Commit-CWS	.615***	.03	20.30
Stress	-.077*	.04	-2.12
		<i>Variance</i>	
Random Effect	Variance Component	<i>df</i>	χ^2
Group Mean	.002	32	39.53

<i>Slopes</i>			
Commit-CWS	.009*	32	48.09
Level-one	.391		

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level.

The coefficient for stress represents a negative moderating relationship on the predictive effect of commitment to the field on the intent to stay in the field. These findings indicate that commitment to the field significantly predicts intent to stay in the field-CWS as a function of stress (organizational climate). This relationship is graphically depicted in Figure 23.

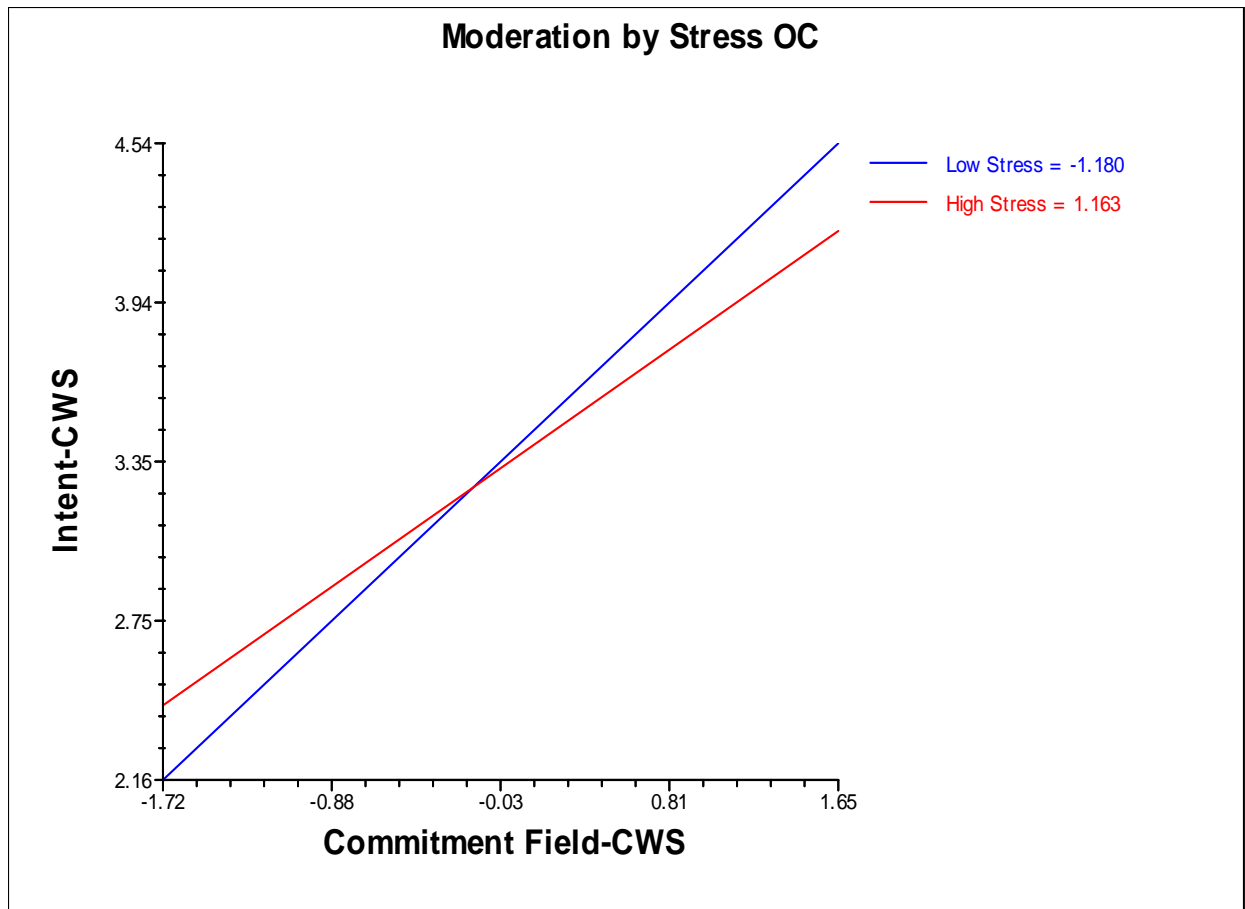


Figure 23. Moderation by Stress: Commitment to the Field and Intent Field-CWS

Once again, the colors of the lines represent the averaged upper (red) and lower (blue) quartiles of stress. The lines represent the differences in moderation when stress is viewed as higher or lower (respectively), on average, among groups in the sample. Those groups that perceived stress in the organization as high had weaker predictive effects of commitment to the field on intent to stay in CWS than those groups that viewed stress comparatively lower. The latter groups produced stronger predictions of intent to stay in the field-CWS by commitment to the field in the context of lower stress.

In both of the models depicted in Tables 37 and 38 the variance components for commitment to the field were significant. However, the coefficients were very small (.010 and .009). This means there was some variance left in the models that was not explained by the predictors or moderators concerning the relationship between commitment to the field and intent to stay in the field-CWS.

This model improved significantly over the random coefficients model (Table 31) due to a decline in the deviance statistic ($\chi^2=32.12$, $df\ 9$, $p=.000$). The results of model fit tests lead to the conclusion that this model offers a preferable fit to the data.

Control Variables

Several control variables were included in the study that have not yet been included in the multivariate analyses. First, the effects of the control variables on the two criterion variables in the study will be considered. Subsequently, those variables that presented significant direct effects on the outcome variables in previous models and seem conceptually important to the overall analysis in this study were included in analyses with control variables. For instance, commitment to the field of Child Welfare Services was a significant predictor of intent to stay in the agency in previous models. However, it was

the weakest predictor in those models. It was the strongest predictor of intent to stay in the field-CWS, and conceptually, it is much more important to the intent to stay in the field than intent to stay in the agency. Therefore, commitment to the field-CWS will be excluded from further analyses that include intent to stay in the agency as the criterion.

The first control variable to be tested was gender. No significant differences resulted from the analyses including gender with the criterion variables.

Race

Race was also included in analyses with the outcome variables using intercepts and means as outcomes models with HLM 6 in order to test for individual level or within groups effects. The largest racial representation in the sample was by white personnel. Employees from all other racial groups (including those in the “other” category) were compared to white employees concerning intent to stay in the agency and intent to stay in the field-CWS. There were no significant differences between these groups’ ratings on the outcome variables. This included a comparison between whites and the second largest group, Hispanic employees. However, the coefficients concerning black employees were close to significant in the model that included intent to stay in the agency. Therefore, further analysis was conducted to isolate a comparison of black and white employees. Black employees were significantly less likely to endorse intentions to stay in the agency than white employees in that analysis. This difference remained when controlling for both job satisfaction and commitment to the agency (see Table 39).

Table 41 *Comparison of Black and White Employees' Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-Agency	3.21***	.03	122.82
Engagement	-.028	.02	-1.24
Stress	-.017	.03	-.50
Slopes	-.357***	.10	-3.76
Black Employees			
Engagement	-.075	.07	-1.06
Stress	-.062	.10	-.638
Job Satisfaction	.365***	.05	7.50
Org. Commit.	.462***	.04	11.90

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level. Variance components not shown.

The coefficient listed for intent to stay in the agency is the average for white employees across groups. Controlling for job satisfaction and commitment to the agency, black employees rate themselves (-.36) less likely than white employees to stay in the agency or, on average, 2.85 compared to 3.21 for whites. These figures represent the average or grand means for black and white employees respectively concerning intent to stay in the agency. Both the engagement and stress types of organizational climate were included in the model to see if they moderated the relationships between black or white employees and the intent to stay in the agency but no significant moderation resulted for either group by these types of organizational climate.

The only variance components that were significant in this model were the coefficients for job satisfaction and commitment to the agency. The variance component for black employees was not significant. This indicates that no other predictor is needed to explain the variance in slopes when black employees rated intent to stay in their agencies.

The comparison of black and white employees concerning the intent to stay in the agency without significant moderation by either the stress or engagement types of organizational climate is graphically depicted in Figure 24 below.

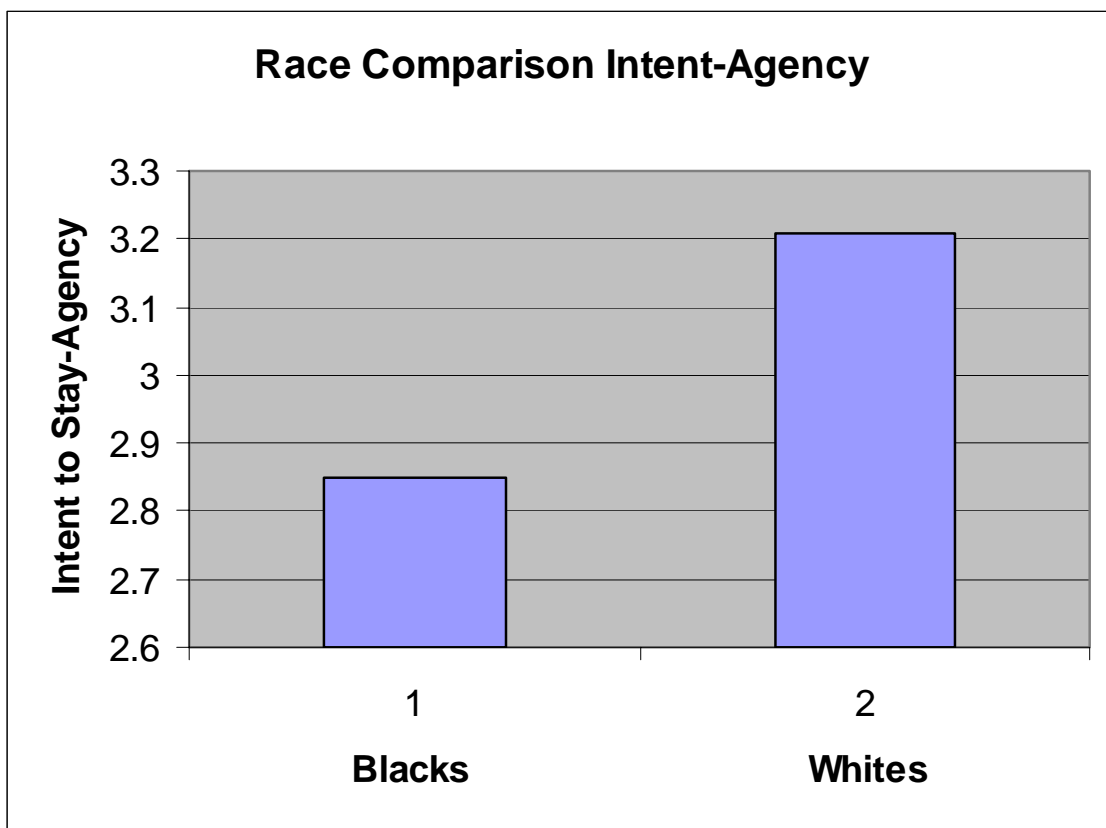


Figure 24. Comparison between Black and White Employees

Interestingly, though there were differential effects for these two groups on intent to stay in the agency, similar results did not emerge when a comparable analysis was

undertaken concerning intent to stay in the field-CWS. There was no significant difference between black and white employees concerning intent to stay in the field. The differential effect for black employees involved the PCWS agencies in which they work but not the field of CWS. Since black and white employees share similar retention intentions in the field of CWS an issue that arises from these results concerns the organizational factors that negatively influence black employees' intentions to remain in their PCWS agencies.

Highest Level of Education

The educational category with the largest proportion of participants in this sample was composed of those with bachelors' degrees of any kind. This was expected since the greatest numbers of respondents by position title in the study were social workers and in the county agencies represented in the sample a bachelors' degree is often a prerequisite for employment as a social worker. In the following exploration all other educational categories were compared to the bachelor's degree category. Analyses were undertaken comparing highest educational level concerning both criterion variables in the study. Those who endorsed community college as their highest level of education were so similar to those with bachelors' degrees concerning both outcome variables that a comparison was not possible. In addition, there were only four participants with PhDs in the sample and they were concentrated in two groups. Due to the small number of PhDs the findings concerning them were unreliable and they were removed from these analyses. However, analyses comparing the other three educational categories resulted in significant differences concerning both intent to stay in the agency and intent to stay in the field-CWS.

When controlling for job satisfaction, respondents in two educational categories were significantly different than those with bachelors' degrees in the sample concerning intent to stay in the agency (see Table 40).

Table 40 *Highest Education, Job Satisfaction and Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-Agency	3.21***	.03	93.92
Slopes			
Job Satisfaction	.063***	.05	13.79
High School	.433**	.14	3.20
Masters	-.227**	.07	-3.45
Stress	-.122*	.06	-2.17

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, ** $p \leq .01$, * $p \leq .05$ level. Variance components not shown.

Those with high school educations were significantly more likely to endorse remaining in the agency (3.64) than bachelor's level employees. However, those with master's level degrees of any type were less likely (2.98) than those with bachelor's degrees (3.21) to project that they would remain in their PCWS agencies. Engagement was included in a model with all of the variables in Table 40 but it did not significantly moderate any relationships in the model. Stress, however, moderated the relationship between master's level employees and the intent to stay in a negative direction. This was a contextual effect concerning the climate in the organization. When employees with master's degrees experienced the organizational climate as less stressful, the differences between them and

those with bachelor's degrees were smaller concerning the likelihood that they will remain in the agency. However, as stress increased by one standard deviation, those with master's degrees were even less likely to remain than those with bachelor's degrees (2.83). None of the variance components, with the exception of the one for job satisfaction (.035), were significant in this model.

A graphic depiction of the comparison of intentions to remain in PCWS agencies by highest education with moderation by stressful organizational climates is presented in Figure 25.

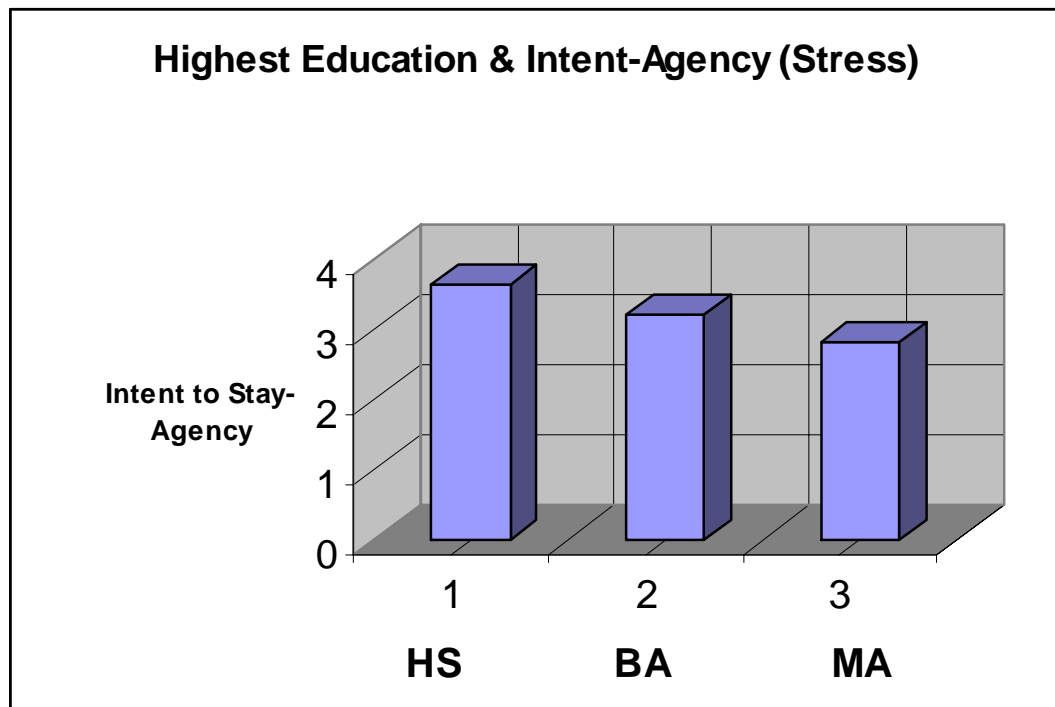


Figure 25. Highest Education Level and Intent to Stay in the Agency Moderated by Stress

The same type of analysis of educational status and intent to stay in the agency, controlling for organizational commitment, also revealed significant comparisons (see Table 41).

Table 41 *Highest Education, Org Commit, and Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-Agency	3.22***	.03	118.16
Slopes	.654***	.03	22.99
Org Commit			
High School	.491**	.15	3.22
Masters	-.208**	.06	-3.30

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, ** $p \leq .01$ level. Variance components not shown.

When controlling for organizational commitment both high school and master's level employees were significantly different than bachelor's level employees concerning their intentions to stay in the agency. Those with high school as the highest level of education were more likely to remain in the agency (3.71) while those with master's degrees were not as likely to remain (3.01). Neither of these effects was significantly moderated by either the engagement or stress facets of organizational climate.

One of the variance components was significant in this model. That was the variance component for the intercept or grand mean (.005) representing bachelor's level employees in this case. The indication was that variance remains to be explained

concerning the prediction of intent to stay in the agency by employees' educational status among those with bachelor's degrees.

The same analyses were completed with intent to stay in the field of Child Welfare Services as the outcome variable. The first set of results presented are the results of the analysis when job satisfaction was entered as the only level one predictor in the model.

Table 42 *Highest Education, Job Satisfaction and Intent-CWS*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-CWS	3.37***	.03	123.45
Stress	.002	.04	.06
Slopes			
Job Satisfaction	.459***	.04	10.92
High School	.513***	.10	4.99
Stress	.390*	.15	2.66
Masters	-.165**	.05	-3.26
Stress	-.109*	.05	-2.05

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, ** $p \leq .01$, * $p \leq .05$ level. Variance components not shown.

Significant differential effects by educational status on intent to stay in the field-CWS emerged in the analysis. Controlling for job satisfaction but not commitment to the field, those with high school degrees were more likely (3.88) and those with master's degrees were less likely (3.20) to indicate they would remain in the field of CWS than those with bachelor's degrees (of any type). Neither of these differential relationships was

moderated by engagement but both of them were moderated by stress. When stress was perceived as higher (.39) the difference between the ratings of intent to stay in the field by high school graduates compared to employees with bachelor's degrees grew. Those with high school degrees are even more likely to stay in the field in the context of higher agency stress than those with bachelor's degrees (4.27 vs. 3.37). When stress is viewed as lower by those with master's degrees the gap between their projection of remaining in the field and that of those with bachelor's degrees becomes smaller. When agency climates are perceived as higher in stress, those with master's level educations are even more likely to leave than those with bachelor's degrees (3.09 vs. 3.37). Job satisfaction yielded the only significant variance component in the model.

The comparison of educational levels and the intent to stay in the field-CWS as moderated by stress in the organizational climate is illustrated in Figure 26.

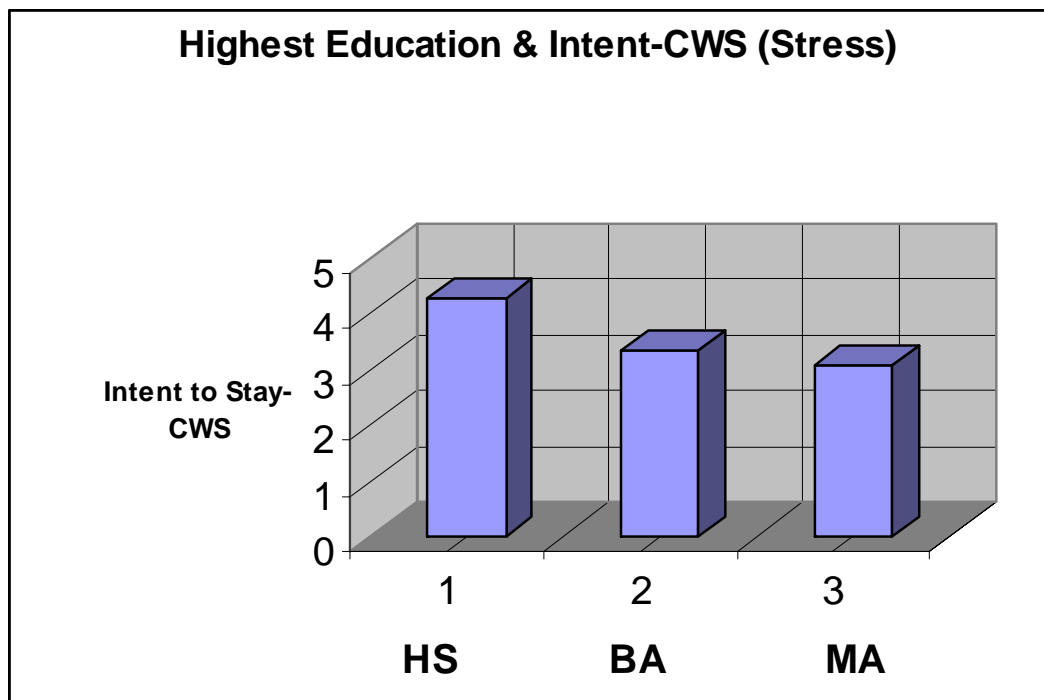


Figure 26. Highest Education Level and Intent to Stay in the Field Moderated by Stress

Commitment to the field was also used as a predictor in a similar model with intent to stay in the field-CWS. The results were quite similar to the last model with the exception that stress did not moderate the effect of master's level education on the intent to stay in the field when controlling for commitment to the field. The results appear in Table 43.

Table 43 *Highest Education, Commitment-CWS and Intent-CWS*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-CWS	3.36***	.02	147.39
Stress	-.010	.03	-.36
Slopes			
Commit-CWS	.610***	.03	18.50
High School	.420***	.08	5.14
Stress	.417***	.10	4.02
Masters	-.208***	.05	-4.50

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level. Variance components not shown.

Those with high school diplomas rated their intentions to stay in the field more highly (.42) than those with bachelor's degrees (3.78) and those with masters rated their intentions to stay in the field of CWS lower (-.21) than bachelor's level employees (3.15). These results emerged while controlling for the effect of commitment to the field of CWS but not job satisfaction. In addition, stress moderated the differential effect of those with

high school degrees on intent to stay in the field. The moderating effect of stress was relatively strong (.42) concerning those whose highest level of education was a high school degree. Therefore, among groups that rated stress in the climate as relatively high, those with high school educations were even more likely to endorse that they would remain in the field than those with bachelor's level educations (4.19 vs. 3.36). Only commitment to the field resulted in a significant variance component in this model (.016).

Overall in this sample, there appears to be a decline in the intentions to stay in the agency and the field as the amount of education rises. The relationship between education and retention is moderated by perceptions of stress in the organizational climate for some groups. As the climate is perceived to be more stressful the gap between educational levels concerning intentions to remain widens. The difference between those at various educational levels concerning retention narrows when the climate is perceived as less stressful.

These findings may reflect the differences in opportunity afforded those with master's degrees compared to those with bachelor's degrees and particularly those with high school educations. The employment/career opportunities outside PCWS agencies and external to the field of CWS are much greater for those with masters than those with the other educational levels. A similar statement can be made when those with bachelor's level educations are compared to those with high school degrees.

Social Work Degrees Compared to Others

Study participants with any degree in social work were combined in order to examine whether there were any differences between those who have degrees in social work and those who have earned degrees in any other fields concerning their intentions to

remain in the field of CWS or their PCWS agencies. Social work degrees held by those in the sample included BSW degrees and variants (i.e., BASW) and MSW degrees and variants (i.e., MSSW). Thirty-seven percent of the sample had earned degrees in social work (n=281). The findings of these analyses are displayed below.

Table 44 *Social Work Degrees vs. Others, Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-Agency	3.22***	.03	128.67
Slopes			
Job Satisfaction	.362***	.05	7.53
Org Commit	.460***	.04	11.95
SW Degrees	-.153*	.06	-2.64

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level. Variance components not shown.

Respondents with social work degrees were somewhat less likely (3.07) to endorse intentions to stay in their employing agencies than those with other degrees in the sample when controlling for both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Potential moderation by engagement and stress were also investigated in this model but neither type of organizational climate significantly moderated the relationships between those with social work degrees or those with other degrees and intent to stay in the agency. The only variance component that was significant in this model was job satisfaction.

The findings when comparing participants with social work degrees to those with other degrees concerning their intentions to stay in the field of Child Welfare Services were similar to those presented above. The results of that analysis are presented in Table 45.

Table 45 *Social Work Degrees vs. Others, Intent-CWS*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-CWS	3.37***	.02	150.21
Slopes			
Job Satisfaction	.206***	.04	5.45
Commit-CWS	.514***	.04	14.78
SW Degrees	-.142*	.06	-2.57

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level. Variance components not shown.

Both job satisfaction and commitment to the field were controlled in this model as were potential moderating effects by engagement and stress on the relationships between those with social work degrees and those with other degrees concerning their intentions to stay in the field. Respondents with social work degrees were somewhat less likely (3.23) to indicate that they intended to stay in the field than others. No significant moderation by stress or engagement emerged in the model.

The job satisfaction variance component was significant. In addition, the variance component for those with social work degrees was also significant in this model (.05, $df=31$, $p=.004$). This indicates that there is variance remaining in the relationship between

those who have earned degrees in social work and their intentions to stay in the field of CWS. Factors, other than those included in the model, may explain this relationship.

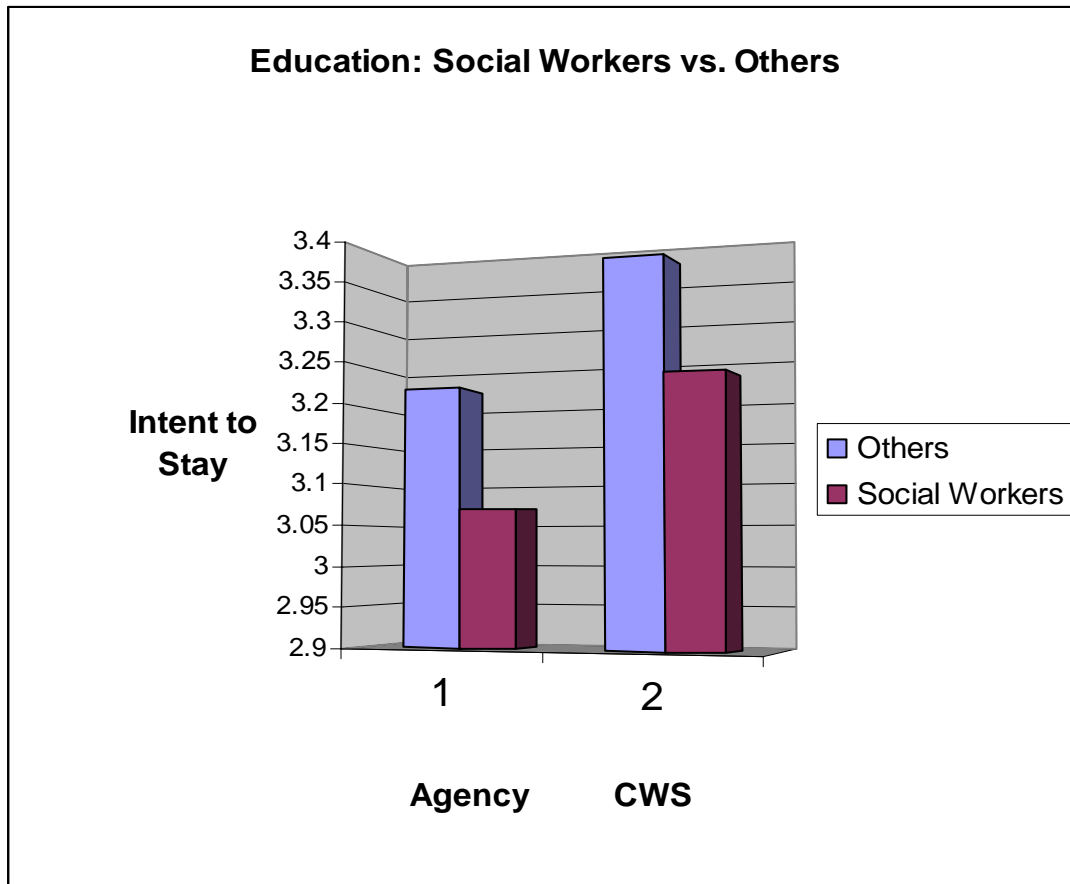


Figure 27. Education Comparison: Social Workers versus Others, Intent-Agency & CWS

Figure 27 presents a depiction of the difference between those in the sample who were educated as social workers compared to those who were not concerning both their intentions to remain in their PCWS agencies and the field of CWS. These comparisons are based on the average intent to stay in either agencies or the field across groups.

Agency Positions-Titles

Those in various positions in the sample were also compared concerning their intentions to stay in their agencies and in the field of Child Welfare Services. First, social workers were compared to all others in the sample and subsequently supervisors were compared to all other titles concerning the likelihood that they would stay in their employing agencies.

Controlling for both job satisfaction and organizational commitment and potential moderation by engagement and stress, social workers were significantly less likely to stay than those with other titles in their agencies ($-.16, p < .01$). No significant moderation resulted in the model. The only significant variance component was job satisfaction.

When supervisors were compared to all others, controlling for job satisfaction, organizational commitment and potential moderation by engagement and stress, supervisors were significantly more likely to stay in the agency than all others ($.19, p < .01$). No moderation emerged in the model. Like the previous model, job satisfaction was the only significant variance component.

When employees were compared by agency titles concerning their intentions to stay in the field, the results were similar. Social workers were less likely to indicate that they would remain in the field of CWS than others ($-.14, p < .01$). Job satisfaction, commitment to the field and moderation by engagement and stress were all controlled in this model. There were no significant variance components in the results from this model.

Models used to compare supervisors to all other employees in the sample resulted in a significant difference between supervisors and others ($.14, p \leq .01$), indicating that

they are more likely to stay in the field of CWS than others. Job satisfaction and commitment to the field were controlled in this model. When engagement and stress were entered in separate models with no other changes, the results revealed that neither variable significantly moderated the relationship between supervisory status and intent to stay in the field. The coefficients remained the same for the supervisor-intent to stay in the field relationship and in both models.

The finding that supervisors are more likely to stay in the agency than other employees is not surprising since they have often worked in their agencies longer than others and may identify more with the agency than line workers in various classifications. The same may be true of intent to stay in the field even if time worked in CWS was not within the current employing agency.

Age

The ages of study participants and the number of years they have been employed in the agency or worked in the field have been highly correlated in previous studies of PCWS personnel (Landsman, 2002). Spearman's *rho* correlations between age and years in the agency (.509 $p.=<.001$) and age and years in the field (.536, $p.=<.001$) reveal moderate correlational levels in this sample. As one might expect, there is a higher level of correlation between age and years in the field than between age and years in the agency. As was pointed out previously, time in the field and time in the agency are very strongly correlated for the sample in the current study (Spearman's *rho*, .877, $p.=<.001$). With these correlations as the context, it may be informative to report findings on the ages of participants and the years they have been in their employing agencies concerning the criterion variables.

Controlling for organizational commitment and job satisfaction as well as potential modification by the organizational climate variables, engagement and stress, analyses were executed using intent to stay in the agency as the criterion. The significant results (only) are displayed in Table 46.

Table 46 *Age and Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-Agency	3.22***	.03	130.61
Slopes			
Job Satisfaction	.375***	.05	7.96
Org Commit	.443***	.04	11.70
Age: 25-29	-.169**	.07	-2.61
Age: 59 & up	.249**	.08	2.97

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, ** $p \leq .01$. Variance components not shown.

When other age categories were compared to those in the 40-49 age group for effects on intentions to stay in the agency, those in the 25-29 age group were significantly less likely to indicate that they would remain in their agencies (3.05) while those in the 59 and older group were significantly more likely to project they would remain in their agencies (3.47). The only variance component that was significant in this model was job satisfaction.

The finding for the 59 and older group is predictable, particularly if they have worked in their current agencies for any length of time. The employees in this age group

may be approaching the final phase of their careers. If so, factors such as securing retirement benefits may be strong incentives to finish their careers in their current employing agencies. However, the finding that those in the 25-29 age group are less likely to stay (than the 40-49 age group) does not predict a stable workforce of professional social workers for these PCWS agencies. The problems for the future PCWS workforce in Central California are compounded when the high likelihood that this age group includes those who have recently graduated with bachelors' or masters' degrees is considered. In this sample 94% of respondents in the 25-29 age group had earned a bachelor's (59%) or master's degree (35%).

Intent to stay in the field of Child Welfare Services was also analyzed by comparing the age groups used above. When controlling for job satisfaction, commitment to the field and potential moderation by engagement and stress, the results revealed only one significant difference between age groups concerning the level one relationship of age with intent to stay in the field (model not shown). As in the last analysis concerning retention in the agency, the 25-29 age group was significantly less likely to remain in the field than the 40-49 age group ($-.13, p \leq .05$; 3.23 vs. 3.36). The only variance component that was significant in this model was commitment to the field.

These findings may connect to phase of life issues among people in the 25-29 age group. Some employees in this period of their lives have recently graduated with either bachelors or master's degrees and may be interested in various employment/career choices outside of PCWS agencies and the field of CWS.

Years in the Agency

Years in the agency was considered in similar analyses. The comparison group used in this analysis was the group that had been employed in their agencies for 6-10 years. The analysis was accomplished controlling for job satisfaction and commitment to the agency and moderation of all years in the agency categories by both the stress and engagement types of organizational climate. Significant results are displayed in Table 47.

Table 47 *Years in the Agency and Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-Agency	3.22***	.02	140.23
Engagement	-.04*	.02	-2.08
Stress	-.003	.03	-.093
Slopes			
Job Satisfaction	.368***	.05	8.18
Org Commit	.470***	.04	13.51
Yrs Agency 2-3	-.153**	.05	-3.23
Stress	-.110*	.05	-2.10
Yrs Agency 4-5	-.259***	.06	-4.61
Yrs Agency 16-19	.421***	.10	4.36
Yrs Agency ≥ 20	.186*	.09	2.08
Stress	.206**	.06	3.23

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, ** $p \leq .01$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level. Variance components not shown.

The results of this model reveal that the average value across groups for those who have been in the agency 6-10 years is 3.22 but engagement in the organizational climate significantly moderates this effect but only slightly (3.18). Compared to the 6-10 years in the agency group, those who had been in their agencies for 2-3 years were less likely to remain in their agencies (3.07). The effect for this age group, however, was moderated by perceptions of stress in the climate. As stress increased one standard deviation, intent to stay declined (-.11) and the average intent to stay for the 2-3 years in the agency group became (2.96). Therefore, on average across groups in the context of more stress, those who had been in their agencies from 2-3 years were less likely to stay than those in the 6-10 years in the agency group.

Those with 4-5 years of experience in their agencies were also less likely to indicate that they would remain in their agencies (2.96) than the group with 6-10 years of agency employment. However, there was not a significant moderating effect by stress on this relationship. So, no matter how they perceived the stress in the organizational climate they were less likely to say they would remain than employees that in some cases had been in the agency only a few more years than they had. An additional finding was that those who had 16-19 years of employment with their agencies were much more likely to indicate that they would remain in their agencies (3.64) than those with 6-10 years of agency employment.

Finally, those employees with 20 or more years of agency tenure, were more likely to stay in their agencies than the those with 6-10 years of experience (3.41). Stress moderated this relationship so that those in the 20 or more years group were substantially more likely to stay in the agency even in the face of greater stress (3.62). It may be that

those with more years in PCWS agency settings are likely to stay almost no matter how great they perceive the stress to be within their agencies. Perhaps those who remain in the agency learn to tolerate the stressful climate over time. They may learn how to manage the stress in a more functional manner or a healthier manner than those with fewer years of experience in the agency. As was pointed out concerning older employees, some of these employees may be in the later phases of their careers and likely to stay under expectable conditions, even if they are not considered positive, until they retire.

Concerning all of these findings, job satisfaction and organizational commitment as well as moderation by engagement concerning all of the age categories were controlled. Only one of the variance components in this model were significant. The intercept which represents the 6-10 age category in this model yielded a significant variance component (.004, $p < .05$). This is a very low value but it indicates that there is still some variance available to be explained by other predictors concerning the 6-10 year employees and intent to stay in the agency. That is the case despite the significant indirect effect of engagement in the agency climate that emerged concerning this relationship.

One of the obvious conclusions from these findings is that the more years employees work in PCWS agencies, the more likely they are to stay. However, there were no significant differences between the 11-15 years in the agency group or the least tenured group, 1 year or less, and the 6-10 years group. (The p value for the ≤ 1 year group coefficient was close to significant.) A notable and concerning finding from this model is the role stressful organizational climates play in widening the gap between those who have been in the agency 2-3 years and those who have been employed 6-10 years.

Those 2-3 year employees who view the climate as stressful and those in the 4-5 year group are equally likely to leave the agency compared to the 6-10 year group.

When considered as one large group, the 2-5 year employees constitute a group that can be viewed as the potential future workforce for their agencies. In fact, this group may contain the future leadership of their agencies. In short, retaining this group of employees is crucial for PCWS agencies. This leads to concerns about this group that will be considered further in the Discussion section.

Figure 28 displays the intent to stay in the agency for the sample predicted by both employee age and years in the agency and moderated by stress.

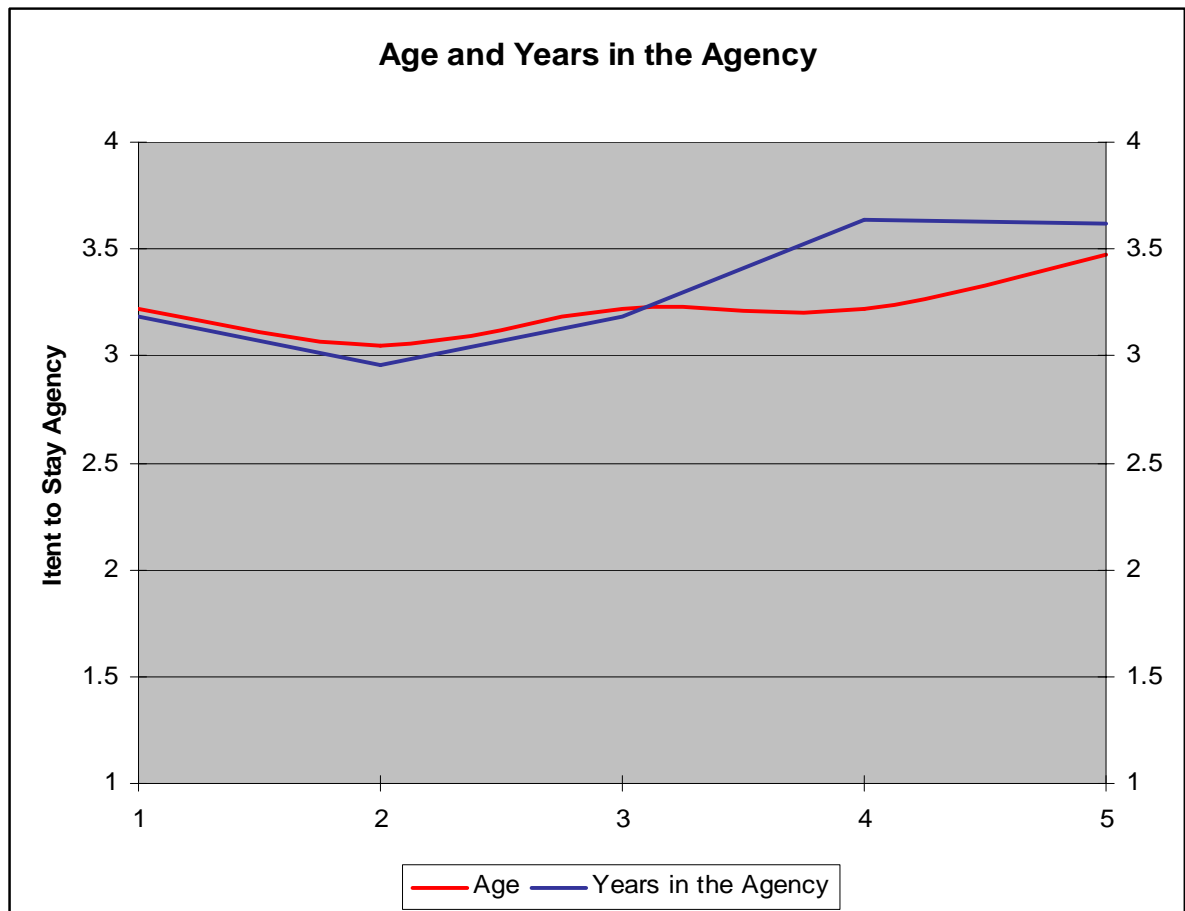


Figure 28. Age and Years in the Agency predict Intent to Stay in the Agency

The five categories along the X-axis in Figure 28 represent the categories for both age and years in the agency used in this study. The categories represent: **1** = Age ≤ 25 , Years ≤ 1 ; **2** = Age 25-29, Years 2-5; **3** = Age 30-39, Years 6-15; **4** = Age 40-59, Years 16-19; and **5** = Age ≥ 59 , Years ≥ 20 . In Figure 28 the years in the agency categories 2-3 and 4-5 years were combined for the second data point since the analysis resulted in the same value for both categories. Similarly, the third point on the X-axis in Figure 28 represents a melding of categories for both age (40-49 & 50-59) and years in the agency (6-10 & 11-15) due to the outcomes for those categories on intent to stay in the agency.

Years in the Field

Additional analysis was carried out using years in the field of CWS as the predictor and intent to stay in the field of Child Welfare Services as the criterion. The comparison group was comprised of those respondents who had been in the field of CWS for 6-10 years. Significant results appear in Table 48.

Table 48 *Years in CWS and Intent-CWS*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-CWS	3.36***	.02	162.58
Stress	-.025	.02	-1.02
Slopes	.232***	.03	7.10
Job Satisfaction			
Commit-CWS	.503***	.03	15.13
Yrs Field ≤ 1	-.112*	.05	-2.43

Yrs Field 11-15	.169*	.07	2.60
Stress	.217**	.08	2.87
Yrs Field \geq 20	.206*	.08	2.59

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, ** $p \leq .01$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level. Variance components not shown.

Though it was not significant there was a very small moderating effect by stress on the group with 6-10 years in the field (3.33). Participants who had been in the field for one-year or less were less likely to endorse the intention to stay in the field than the comparison group (3.22). Those who had worked in CWS for 11-15 years were more likely to indicate that they would remain in the field (3.50). The main effect for this age group was moderated by perceptions of the climate as stressful (3.72), which indicates that as the groups that included respondents from the 11-15 years in the field viewed the agency climate as more stressful on average (a 1 *sd* rise in stress perceptions), the difference between this group and those with 6-10 years in the field increased. Also, those with 20 years or more in the field were more likely to remain in the field than the comparison age group (3.54).

These analyses controlled for job satisfaction and organizational commitment as well as moderation by engagement and stress. Concerning the variance components in this model, only job satisfaction was significant.

As for those with one-year or less experience in the field, this group is just becoming acculturated to work in CWS and it seems logical that a fair amount of ambivalence about the field would surface in the results among this group. Similarly, the finding that the group with two decades of experience in the field, and perhaps in the later phase of their careers, is more likely to remain in the field is a predictable finding.

The finding concerning the positive moderation of stress on the differential effect of the 11-15 year veterans with intent to stay in CWS is counterintuitive. This seems to indicate that the context of greater stress within PCWS agency climates influences increased projections of remaining in the field compared to respondents in the field from 6-10 years. It may indicate that those with a bit more than a decade in the field but less than 16 years in the field become somewhat inured to the stress in organizational climates compared to those with a little less or greater experience in the field. This may represent desensitization to stress or an ‘acculturation’ effect that some employees experience that takes a bit more than a decade to set in. However, these finding also lead to the potential conclusion that this stress acculturation effect disappears after 15-years in the field. It may be that using stress and engagement in PCWS agencies as moderators for an investigation of retention in the field of CWS is not an appropriate fit. However, when the association between years in the agency and years in the field in this sample was considered as the context the connection seemed logical.

Geographical Location of Workforce

Perceptions of those employees who work in PCWS agencies in the three coastal counties in the study were compared to the views of employees in PCWS agencies in counties in the San Joaquin Valley, concerning the two criterion variables. Coastal counties represented in the study included San Luis Obispo, Santa Barbara and Ventura Counties. Significant results of this analysis, controlling for job satisfaction, organizational commitment and moderation by engagement or stress are displayed in Table 49.

Table 49 *Coastal Counties vs. San Joaquin Valley Counties, Intent-Agency*

Outcome Variable	Coefficient	<i>se</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>
Intent-Agency	3.22***	.03	122.13
Engagement	-.034	.02	-1.876
Slopes			
Job Satisfaction	.369***	.05	7.75
Org Commit	.452***	.04	11.74
Coastal Agencies	.143***	.04	2.87
Engagement	-.054*	.03	-2.02

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$ level, * $p \leq .05$ level. Variance components not shown.

For those in PCWS agencies in valley counties there was a slight non-significant moderating effect by engagement on willingness to remain in their agencies (3.19).

Controlling for job satisfaction, organizational commitment and moderation by engagement and stress, employees in coastal county PCWS agencies were more likely to indicate that they would remain in their agencies (3.33) than those in valley PCWS agencies. However, this difference concerning intent to stay in coastal county agencies was moderated slightly by engagement (3.28). The moderating effect indicates that when engagement in coastal agencies as perceived on average increases (1 standard deviation), the difference between employees in coastal and valley PCWS agencies concerning intent to stay in their current agencies narrows slightly. Within this analysis job satisfaction, organizational commitment and moderating effects from stress and engagement were

controlled. Job satisfaction was the only significant variance component in the results for this model.

It is also notable that when a similar analysis was completed using intent to remain in the field of CWS as the criterion, controlling for job satisfaction, commitment to the field and moderation by both engagement and stress, there were no significant differences between the coastal counties and valley counties' PCWS employees.

Moderation by engagement in this model was diminutive but may indicate that higher engagement in the organizational climate does not necessarily promote retention in PCWS agencies. More importantly, the fact that there were significant differences concerning the intent to stay in county agencies but no differences concerning remaining in the field may indicate differences between the climates in agencies on the coast compared to those agencies in the valley in Central California.

One potential factor concerning this comparison in willingness to remain in PCWS agencies is the difference in poverty rates within the valley counties compared to the coastal counties. Information on poverty and child maltreatment substantiations is presented in order to provide a sense of the environmental conditions faced by social workers and other PCWS employees in their counties. (See the *Sample* section here for a brief discussion of the potential link between poverty and child maltreatment.) Table 50 contains a comparison of coastal and valley county poverty rates and child maltreatment substantiation rates as a percentage of total child maltreatment referrals.

Table 50 *Coastal and Valley County Comparison: Poverty and Child Maltreatment*

Valley Counties	Poverty Rates	Substantiations per 1000- Children	Coastal Counties	Poverty Rates	Substantiations per 1000- Children
Fresno	21	14.4	San Luis Obispo	10.7	26.6
Kern	18.3	22.5	Santa Barbara	12.4	6.9
Kings	19.6	16	Ventura	9	6
Madera	20.5	14.1			
Merced	18.8	21.4			
San Joaquin	14.2	13.7			
Stanislaus	13.8	16.5			
Tulare	22.5	13.1			
Median	19.2	15.2		10.7	6.9
Mean	18.9	16.5		10.7	13.2

Figures are cited from (Clark & Fulcher, 2005). Poverty rates are % out of entire population based on 2000 census figures. Substantiations represent substantiated child maltreatment referrals based on the % of the population under the 2002 poverty level.

The poverty rates are higher in each of the valley counties than they are in any of the coastal counties. In addition, several of the counties in the valley study have the highest child poverty rates in California: Tulare (33%), Fresno (30%), Madera and Merced (29%) (Goodban, et al., 2004). San Luis Obispo has the highest rate of substantiated child maltreatment per 1000 children in the population under the poverty level, however, when

the coastal counties are compared to the valley counties overall by either the mean or the median, the valley counties have higher substantiated child maltreatment rates than the coastal counties.

PCWS personnel who provide services to children and families in the valley counties must help populations who live in greater poverty navigate the many difficulties that accompany poverty. Also, there appears to be more child maltreatment among the population that is dealing with the conditions associated with poverty. These environmental factors may deleteriously affect retention in valley county PCWS agencies compared to coastal counties.

Summary of Significant Results from Multivariate Analysis

Several of the results from the data analysis were significant concerning both individual level and group level variables. The results listed in this section have already been detailed in the preceding sections. The relevant significant intercepts and slopes coefficients are simply summarized here to gather the information from several models. Variance components are not listed since, in general, they were not as informative in this study as the intercepts and slopes coefficients were.

On the within group level, the results of analyses with random coefficients models yielded the following significant findings: the model that included intent to stay in the agency as the criterion resulted in significant predictive relationships with three variables. In order of strength, the significant predictors were organizational commitment (agency), job satisfaction, and commitment to the field of CWS. Analyses with intent to stay in the field-CWS as the outcome variable resulted in significant predictive effects by

commitment to the field and job satisfaction. The results are presented in Table 51 with the coefficients listed for each slope denoting the strength of the predictive relationships.

Table 51 *Significant Level One Results*

Outcome Variables	Predictors		
	Commitment Agency	Job Satisfaction	Commitment Field
Intent-Agency	.40	.36	.14
Intent-CWS	-	.23	.52

Analyses utilizing intercepts and slopes as outcomes models resulted in significant moderation by one second level construct (organizational climate) of some first level relationships. First, organizational climate moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in the agency in two models. The first model included constructive organizational culture on level-two and the second model included service quality on the second level and omitted constructive organizational culture. In addition, when intent to stay in the field-CWS was the criterion, organizational climate moderated the predictive effect of job satisfaction in two models. The first model included constructive organizational culture on level-two and the second model included service quality on the second level and omitted constructive organizational culture. The significant findings concerning the moderation of level one relationships by organizational climate are presented in Table 52. There was also a significant finding

concerning organizational climate interacting as a potential moderator of service orientation and intent to stay in the agency when service quality was included in the model. However, the individual level relationship was not significant which rendered the potential moderation by organizational climate unhelpful concerning this investigation. (This interaction is not included in Table 52.) Significant level two results are summarized in Table 52.

Table 52 *Significant Level Two Results-A*

Outcome Variables	Moderating Effects of Organizational Climate	
	Intercept	Predictor Job Satisfaction
Intent-Agency Model-1	.01	-.174
	Model-2	.001
Intent-CWS Model-1	-.040	-.083
	Model-2	-.033

Organizational climate was also examined in two dimensions, engagement and stress. Significant results emerged from analyses that included them differentially. Table 53 contains the significant results that emerged from those models.

Table 53 *Significant Level Two Results-B*

Outcome Variables	Moderating Effects		Moderating Effects	
	Engagement OC		Stress OC	
	Intercept	Job Satisfaction	Intercept	Job Satisfaction
Intent-Agency	-.001	.105	-.027	-.109
	Intercept	Commit-CWS	Intercept	Commit-CWS
Intent-CWS	.001	.045	-.013	-.077

Engagement moderated the prediction of intent to stay in the agency by both job satisfaction and the main effect of commitment to stay in CWS on intent to stay in the field of CWS. Stress moderated the effect of job satisfaction on intent to stay in the agency and the prediction of intent to stay in the field-CWS by commitment to the field.

It is clear from these findings that stress had the greatest moderating effects of the two types of organizational climate. However, engagement is also an influential contextual element in PCWS organizations. The predictive effects of job satisfaction and commitment to the field of CWS operated as a function of both types of organizational climate on retention in this sample.

The analyses that included control variables resulted in several direct effects and some indirect effects by moderating variables. These results are summarized in general terms below.

Race: black employees compared to white employees were less likely to remain in their current PCWS agencies. Highest education: Those with high school educations were more likely to remain in their agencies and in the field of CWS than those with bachelor's degrees. Master's level employees were less likely to stay in their agencies or the field of

CWS than those with bachelor's degrees. Some of the findings concerning highest education were moderated by stress in the organizational climate.

Social work degrees: employees with degrees in social work were less likely to remain in their PCWS agencies or the field of CWS than employees with degrees in other disciplines. Position titles: comparisons by position title revealed that social workers were less likely to intend to stay in the agency or the field in CWS than PCWS employees with other agency titles. Supervisors, on the other hand, were more likely to remain in both the agency and the field of CWS than employees with other agency titles.

Age: Employees in the 25-29 age group were less likely to stay in their agencies, and those in the 59 and older age group were more likely to stay in their agencies than those in the 40-49 age group. Those in the 25-29 age group were less likely to remain in the field of CWS than those in the 40-49 age group.

Years in the agency: those who had worked in their agencies for 2-5 years were less likely to remain than those who had worked in their agencies for 6-10 years. However, those with 16-19 years of experience in their agencies were more likely, and those with 20 or more years of experience were much more likely to stay in their agencies than those with 6-10 years of agency employment. For the group with 2-3 years of agency employment, stressful organizational climates had a moderating effect on their intentions to stay in their agencies decreasing their willingness to stay in the context of higher stress.

Years in the field: PCWS employees with a year or less of experience were less likely to remain in the field, while those with 11-15 and those with more than 20 years of experience in CWS, were more likely to stay in the field of CWS than those with 6-10

years of experience in the field. For those with 11-15 years of experience in CWS, stress moderated their willingness to stay in the field, increasing their willingness to stay in the field in the context of higher organizational stress.

Coastal counties versus valley counties employees: Those who worked in coastal county PCWS agencies were more likely to remain in their agencies than those who worked in valley PCWS agencies. This effect was moderated by engagement in agency climates. Those in coastal agencies who experienced their agency climates as somewhat higher in engagement were more like employees in valley counties with less willingness to remain in their agencies. There were no similar effects concerning intent to stay in the field of CWS.

The significant findings summarized here may be considered in the context of the entire investigation completed in this study. In the *Discussion* section the implications of the results of the research represented in this exploration will be considered at length.

CHAPTER VII

DISCUSSION

The focus of the research in this study was on organizational culture as conceptually foundational in the organizational dynamics within Public Child Welfare Services organizations. The objective was to test the primary relationships of organizational culture with the other variables in the study (see Figure 10). The relationships between all other variables included here were originally viewed as secondary. The results of the data analyses, however, did not support any of the hypotheses. These findings might have occurred for several reasons. First, it may be that organizational culture is such a complex phenomenon in organizational dynamics that cultural effects on other variables within the organizations studied were impossible to explicate. The more readily observable indicators of concepts, such as work attitudes and organizational climate, tended to produce significant relationships in this sample rather than cultural indicators. It may be that the shared assumptions, values and beliefs in organizational experience were so diffused through the other conceptual elements, such as climate, structure (not tested here) and work attitudes, that they were simply too difficult to elicit and construe. In other words, the relationships between organizational culture and the other constructs conceptualized here may be so complex and indirect that they did not emerge as significant in the data analysis results.

Another potential explanation is that a vital conceptual link is missing in the theoretical model presented here. A missing significant variable (or more than one) could explain the lack of significant relationships among some of the variables in the study. For instance, organizational structure was not included as a focus of this study and it is an

important part of Glisson's (2002) conceptualization of organizational "context" (see Figure 8). However, an additional alternative is that an important conceptualization which accounts for significant organizational relationships exists but has not emerged to date in the literature and was missing in this analysis.

It is also possible that the dynamics of PCWS organizations in Central California are unique and that this group of agencies represents great differences from other PCWS organizations concerning organizational culture that are reflected in the results of the analyses. However, this is highly unlikely. Though the organizations were all in the same region of California there were many differences between the organizations in the study. In addition, a large sample of social workers, supervisors and PCWS employees in an array of other classifications was included in the study.

In addition, data collection methods may have led to the unexpected results concerning organizational culture. It is possible that the groups used for the group level analyses misspecified accurate organizational representation. Though each group was composed of employees within only one of the eleven agencies included in the study, the groups did not all represent actual working units within single programs in each agency. Some units were queried as whole working teams or units but that was uncommon during data collection. Surveying working teams or units and using them as the units of analysis for the group level data may have promoted better representation of their actual working dynamics within agencies. Analyses on the group level variables, comparing the nine PCWS agencies in the study that participated in the same manner of data collection (direct survey administration), offered some evidence for this possibility. Since data

collection was managed in a uniform manner in these agencies the response rates were higher than the other two agencies that opted for alternate data collection methods.

Three-level HLM models would have been optimal for county comparisons with county agencies representing the third level of those models. However, since only eleven agencies were included in the sample, the analyses would have been significantly underpowered. Therefore, the county comparisons were achieved with ANOVA statistical tests and Bonferroni post hoc comparisons. Both types of organizational culture were analyzed. There were differences among some of the county agencies concerning constructive organizational culture. Multiple post hoc comparisons revealed that significant differences existed between San Luis Obispo County and three other county agencies. The mean rating for constructive organizational culture in San Luis Obispo County was 4.07 ($sd = .53$) and those county agencies with significantly comparable means were Kern County 3.65 ($sd = .72$), Santa Barbara County 3.55 ($sd = .70$), and Tulare County 3.55 ($sd = .83$). The differences among the means were significant at the .01 level [$F(9, 757) = 2.774$]. However, there were no significant differences between county agencies concerning passive defensive organizational culture [$F(9, 757) = 1.050$, $p \geq .05$].

The results of a separate analysis of the stress type of organizational climate also revealed no significant differences [$F(9, 757) = 1.701$, $p \geq .05$]. However, there were significant differences between some counties concerning the engagement type of organizational climate [$F(9, 757) = 2.937$, $p \leq .01$]. The means for both Madera 4.20 ($sd = .44$) and San Luis Obispo Counties 4.12 ($sd = .43$) were significantly higher on engagement than the mean for Kern County 3.83 ($sd = .54$).

The differences concerning constructive organizational culture may indicate misspecification of groups which could have produced misrepresentation of culture in the PCWS agencies in the study. However, this possibility is mitigated somewhat by the differences that were found in the engagement type of organizational climate. Engaging organizational climates were found to play a significant moderating role within the agencies in the sample.

Though all of the explanations mentioned above have potential veracity, another possible explanation for the lack of findings concerning relationships between culture and other organizational variables involves measurement challenges. First of all, the measures used in this study were adapted for application in social services organizations from measures previously used in private sector organizations (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Cooke & Szumal, 2000; CMHSRC, 2000; Glisson & James, 2002). The measures have not been widely used with employees from PCWS organizations although they were utilized with a sample from this population at least once previously (Glisson & James, 2002). It is possible that the measures, though valid for inquiry with the populations for which they were originally constructed, may have aspects of questionable validity for measurement with PCWS populations. Indeed, some have questioned the use of quantitative measures of any kind to examine organizational culture in favor of qualitative approaches for these investigations since the core concepts being explored are shared assumptions, values and beliefs (Ashkanasy, et al., 2000; Schein, 1990; Schein, 2000). Others have suggested that quantitative measurement of organizational climate can lead to an understanding of culture in organizations (Payne, 2000). This assertion has implications for the current study, since the major findings of

the MLM analyses were that organizational climate significantly affected the relationships between individual level predictor variables and the criterion variables.

Clearly the data generated with the measures for the current sample appears to have contributed to difficulties with the data analysis. For instance, it was not possible in this sample to meet the criteria for passive defensive culture to be considered as a viable cultural type within the 34-groups and 11-agencies represented in this study. Other problems encountered during data analysis were several instances of unexpected directionality in the HLM results. These unexpected results occurred though the zero-order correlations results were all in the expected directions (see Table 23). In most instances the HLM results in question were not significant though some were very close to the cut-off level for significance used in this study ($p \leq .05$) and in one instance a significant interaction result included unexpected directionality (see Table 36).

In response to an inquiry from the author concerning the problematic results involving organizational culture in the current study, Glisson expressed the following, “We experienced similar problems with the second order culture constructs, but not with climate, structure or work attitudes...(C.A. Glisson, personal communication, October, 09, 2006). Evidence of the problematic analyses mentioned by Glisson emerged in the results of a recent study by Glisson, Dukes and Green (2006) in which the climate variables were significant factors in the findings but the culture variables did not play a significant part in the analysis whatsoever. The acknowledgement that Glisson and colleagues have encountered similar difficulties was an affirmation that the results of the data analysis in this study were not unique. It also provided evidence to support the

notion that problematic measurement issues with the organizational culture scales may have led to some of the difficulties that emerged in the findings in this study.

Concerning the group level constructs in the current study, passive defensive organizational culture could not be considered a cultural type and was not used in the data analysis; no significant findings emerged in the results concerning either constructive organizational culture or service quality. Analyses with organizational climate, however, did yield significant results. Though the moderating effects that emerged in the results cannot be considered causal effects due to the study design, the results are informative. They lead to the conclusion that among most PCWS personnel in Central California, organizational climate is an important factor affecting the relationships between job satisfaction and retention both in their employing agencies and the field of Child Welfare Services.

Overall, job satisfaction appears to predict retention in PCWS agencies and in the field of CWS as a function of organizational climate. The strongest moderating relationship was the effect of organizational climate on the relationship between job satisfaction and the intent to stay in the agency. Among groups that rated the organizational climate more negatively than other groups, the prediction of retention in the agency by job satisfaction was much weaker than it was in other groups. Though the relationship between job satisfaction and retention remained viable for employees in the groups that perceived the climate as quite negative, they appear less likely to remain in the agency due to the negative climate even when somewhat satisfied with their jobs. Stated another way, even those with some level of positive job satisfaction are less likely to remain in the agency when organizational climate is perceived as more negative.

Among groups that tended to rate the climate less negatively, the relationship between job satisfaction and retention in the agency was stronger. Those who were satisfied with their jobs are more likely to remain in the agency when the organizational climate is less negative.

The pattern that emerged in the findings for PCWS agencies concerning these variables also occurred for retention in the field of Child Welfare Services. However, the moderation exhibited by organizational climate was not as strong in these relationships. The findings concerning retention in the field of CWS were that even those who were somewhat satisfied with their jobs were less likely to remain in the field of CWS among groups that perceived organizational climate as more negative. Among those in groups that viewed organizational climate as less negative, employees' job satisfaction was more likely to predict that they would remain in the field of CWS.

In this study, when organizational climate was utilized as a general construct it was composed of four major subscales. One set of subscales may be considered closely related to the concept of shared burnout since they measured emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. The other set of subscales measured employees' experiences of role dynamics in organizations through role conflict and role overload. With these conceptualizations as context, agency personnel most interested in the results of this study, such as administrative personnel, may wish to attend to the shared sense of burnout and organizational role issues represented within the organizational climate ratings by the sample in this study.

When organizational climate was reconfigured with differential foci the central dimensions were engagement and stress. Engagement included personalization and

personal accomplishment facets while stress was composed of emotional exhaustion and both role-related variables. These two types of organizational climate both appeared to have some influence on retention. An overall increase in the sense of personal accomplishment and personalization experienced by employees in PCWS agencies would increase retention. However, stressful climates resulted in the greatest influence. Much of the practice in PCWS agencies is stressful *ipso facto* and will remain so due to the nature of the work. However, stressors that are created within the organization can be targeted for reduction. If stressors of organizational etiology, like role conflict, role overload and agencies' contributions to emotional exhaustion can be decreased, the likelihood that a stable workforce can be maintained will rise.

In conclusion, it may be that organizational culture is very difficult to measure using quantitative survey research methodology. This may also be an indicator of the difficulty presented by culture in organizations in terms of accessibility to organizational interventions. Organizational climate, however, was measurable in this study and in light of the nature of the construct may be more accessible to potential change efforts.

Administrators in PCWS organizations may review these findings and wish to formulate plans for organizational change. They would, most likely, wish to focus on dynamics that are most amenable to change. Glisson and colleagues view both culture and climate as appropriate organizational intervention targets (Glisson, 2002; Hemmelgarn, Glisson, & James, 2006). It seems, however, that targeting climate-related items such as engagement and stress might be more effective change strategies than focusing on culture-related phenomena such as shared values and beliefs. Perhaps these two major aspects of organizational dynamics can be viewed differentially in terms of the time and energy

required to focus on either of them with effective interventions in PCWS organizations. Organizational climate appears more likely to be amenable to change efforts and may be viewed as appropriate for short or mid-range goals for organizational change while changes in organizational culture may be considered more appropriately addressed with long-term goals for organizational change.

Policy Implications

The findings of this study contain useful information for policy makers in PCWS organizations. The results of the analyses concerning organizational climate are particularly salient in this regard. For instance, policies that address role conflict and role overload issues would alter the context in PCWS agencies. Improved clarity concerning role expectations and efforts to streamline roles for agency personnel is likely to enhance relationships between job satisfaction and retention among personnel in PCWS agencies. Although it is difficult to lower stress due to the multiple complex demands placed on personnel in PCWS agencies, the findings of this study indicate that decreased contextual stress is likely to lead to greater retention.

Specific segments of the personnel population may also require special attention from policy makers. Further exploration into the experiences of black social workers is warranted from the findings produced within this sample. If unique factors can be identified that affect black social workers more than white social workers it may be possible to target those factors with specific organizational changes. These potential shifts within the organization may improve the experiences of black social workers and encourage them to remain in PCWS agencies.

An even greater impact can be facilitated by targeting factors that lead to lower retention for those who have completed upper level educational degrees, especially those with degrees in social work. Since those with bachelors and master's level degrees form the bulk of the workforce in PCWS agencies this is a critical focus. Stressful organizational climates appear to be one of the contextual factors that deleteriously affect many of these employees, particularly those with master's degrees. The role related constructs played integral parts in the stressful aspects of climate in this study. Policies that emphasize efficiency in role requirements (rather than high volume) and clarification concerning roles may encourage higher job satisfaction and increased retention rates among personnel with advanced degrees.

Similar conclusions can be drawn concerning those within the first 5 years of employment in PCWS organizations and those in the 25-29 age group. Since 91% of those in the 25-29 age groups were in their first 5 years of agency employment in this sample these are largely the same group of employees. By the time employees have been in the agency 2-5 years, the agency has committed substantial funding and energy in training and development and depends heavily on the practice experience gained by these employees. Work attitudes and behaviors are likely to have stabilized to some degree by this point in an employee's tenure and these are the characteristics they are likely to take with them into if they remain in the agency. It may also be the case that employees in this group are candidates for progression up the career ladder in PCWS agencies. In other words, this pool of employees is likely to include future supervisors and administrators that will guide the agency in years to come. Since this group is critical to the future of PCWS organizations, policies that target this group may ensure longevity in the

workforce. Strengthening commitment in this group appears to be vital for workforce development in PCWS agencies and for the field of CWS in Central California. Policies that address the specific needs of this group are likely to enhance jobs satisfaction, commitment and resulting retention.

The finding that those with social work degrees were less likely than others to remain in PCWS agencies or in the field of CWS is extremely disheartening for those who believe educated social workers are the professionals that are best suited for the field of CWS. Policies that specifically focus on employees who are in the early phase of their careers and educated social workers include the creation or improvement of clearly articulated career ladders and professional development incentives within PCWS agencies. Implementation of policies that develop or increase incentives for professional development on all levels, especially for those early in their careers and those with advanced social work degrees, are likely to increase retention. For instance, though incentives need to be examined across all educational levels, there are currently few incentives offered in Central California PCWS organizations for those with Masters in Social Work degrees who wish to pursue state licensing. If incentives are developed and maintained to encourage licensing it is likely to encourage improved practice and retention. However, those who become licensed have increased opportunities outside PCWS practice, so further incentives need to be established in PCWS agencies to encourage the retention of licensed individuals as well. Opportunities outside PCWS agencies and the field of CWS present competition for those with higher level educational status so the opportunities within agencies and in the field of CWS must become more competitive in order to retain this vital element of the workforce.

For a large proportion of the sample in the current study, the connection between serving in PCWS agencies and the experiences they associate with the field of CWS appear to be one and the same. Therefore, the discussion about improvements within PCWS agencies may encourage commitment to the field of CWS and career longevity within the field among those who do not remain within their current agencies.

Practice Implications

In order to improve organizational climate, interventions must target the specific factors in the organizational context in PCWS agencies that tend to deleteriously affect work attitudes and associated retention levels. At least one promising intervention exists in this regard. The Availability, Responsiveness and Continuity or ARC model has been implemented in PCWS agencies and other children's services agencies with positive results (Glisson, Dukes, & Green, 2006; Glisson & Schoenwald, 2005). This intervention targets the elements of organizational climate with a focus on service provision by the teams/units within organizations. Recent empirical support has been produced for the effectiveness of the ARC model with a sample of PCWS case managers (Glisson, et al. 2006). In that sample, role conflict, role overload, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were all reduced substantially improving the overall climate among teams that experienced the ARC intervention compared to control groups. Climate factors were reduced in both urban and rural agency settings. In addition, there was a striking favorable difference in turnover between the groups that received the ARC intervention (39%) compared to the control groups (65%).

The emphasis on service provision and the improvement of service quality that characterize the ARC intervention may tap into motivational attributes of social workers

that echo the reasons they began working in the field of CWS initially (Glisson & Schoenwald, 2005; Reagh, 1994; Rycraft, 1994). The focus on service provision and service quality may counteract the finding in this study that those with higher educations and particularly those with social work degrees are less likely to stay in their agencies or the field of CWS by stimulating motivation among employees to serve their clientele in an effective manner. However, the ARC intervention does not target individual service provision. It focuses on improving team service provision which may stimulate individual motivation to remain in PCWS agencies and the field of CWS (Glisson, et al. 2006).

An extremely important implication of improved team service provision is the enhanced quality of services received by children and families. Clients on the receiving end of services produced by teams that work in more favorable organizational climates are likely to experience greater gains than others with similar difficulties. There is not a large body of empirical evidence to support this notion concerning the results of team functioning in PCWS agency settings. However, there is at least one applicable study that produced strong support for the conclusion that positive climates in PCWS organizations lead to positive service outcomes (Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998).

Administrators in Central California PCWS agencies may want to investigate the ARC model and assess the feasibility of implementation in their agencies. Whether this model or other interventions are utilized, targeting organizational climate variables appears to be the key. Less stressful and more engaging climates have the potential to promote two things many PCWS agency administrators desire; a more stable workforce and improved service delivery. Discovering effective ways to target those factors that lead to stress and engagement emerge from this study as specific tasks for future practice

in PCWS organizations. Optimal interventions will reduce stress, by clarifying and streamlining roles, and minimizing emotional exhaustion, while simultaneously improving the personal accomplishment and personalization aspects of the climate. Workforce development and improved services appear to be achievable outcomes when the appropriate organizational factors are targeted with effective change strategies.

Implications for Social Work Education

The curriculum in Masters of Social Work programs often includes a course or concentrations composed of several courses in administration. The findings from this research are particularly well suited for dissemination in administration courses. However, any courses that include content on Child Welfare Services may incorporate the findings of the study into those courses. PCWS agency administrators that are not currently in formal social work education programs should also receive the knowledge gained from this research in training sessions.

It is particularly important to educate social workers on evidence concerning the effects of organizational dynamics on the retention of employees. Current and future PCWS supervisors and administrators may be able to use this study as evidence for the importance of mounting targeted change efforts that alleviate stress and improve engagement in PCWS agency organizational climates. Hopefully, greater numbers of effective organizational interventions, such as Glisson's ARC intervention, will emerge and develop into useful tools administrators may employ for this purpose (Glisson, et al. 2006).

Limitations

Limitations of the research represented in this document include the sampling and study design. Convenience sampling methodology was utilized in this study and it was non-experimental in design. Random sampling and experimental or quasi-experimental designs would strengthen future research in this area and may promote the production of causal inferences that are not possible due to the sampling method and design of this study. Though the sample was quite large and was recruited from an understudied area in California it was regional in nature. This limits the generalizability of the findings from this study to PCWS agencies and employees in other locales.

Another design issue was the use of a cross-sectional approach opposed to a longitudinal design. Though the intent to stay variables have been used reliably to predict retention in many studies, the strongest designs for retention research are longitudinal in nature in that actual retention/turnover among samples can be measured over time (Glisson, et al. 2006; Mueller, et al. 1994).

Difficulties were encountered in this study concerning uniformity of sample recruitment that effected the composition of the sample. Since recruitment was not controlled by the researcher, in some agencies notification of all eligible participants was not ensured. Many problems were created by the heterogeneity of recruitment modalities used in various agencies. Chief among them was that a definitively accurate response rate was impossible to produce since the number of eligible participants contacted about the study had to be estimated in some cases. Another major obstacle to securing a representative sample was the lack of uniformity concerning data collection across

agencies which was a particular problem in two agencies. In those agencies, divergent data collection modalities led to lower response rates.

Contributions of the Study

Though some studies have been pursued concerning the retention of Public Child Welfare Services social workers/case managers in the State of California, none of those studies have investigated organizational culture in PCWS agencies or the relationship between organizational culture and retention (Dickinson & Perry, 2002; Weaver & Chang, 2004). The studies that have been completed on retention among PCWS social workers/case managers in California have concentrated on specific samples of PCWS workers. Dickinson and Perry (2002) focused on “specially educated” PCWS social workers. The sample was composed of those who had completed MSW programs in California as participants in the Title IV-E program that is called CalSWEC in California. Weaver and Chang (2004) sampled newly hired social workers/case managers by administering a survey to them in the first year of their PCWS employment then gathered follow-up data on turnover longitudinally from relevant county PCWS agencies.

However, among researchers studying retention in California none appear to have simultaneously sampled direct service social workers/case managers with varied levels of education and those with more than a few years of experience in PCWS. In addition, there are no studies in the literature concerning retention in PCWS organizations that have concentrated on the central region of California.

One of the unique contributions of the current study was the investigation of the relationships between organizational culture, organizational climate and retention among PCWS social workers and case managers. It is rare to find these constructs blended in a

study. In retention studies Ellett (2000) has used a construct labeled “professional organizational culture” in several studies but this appears to refer to somewhat different phenomena than those often designated with the term organizational culture. In the only organizational culture study in the literature on PCWS organizations, Glisson and James (2002) used turnover as a criterion unlike the retention focused perspective that was adopted in the present research.

Finally, the simultaneous investigation of units of analysis on varying levels is also unique in PCWS retention research. The utilization of multilevel methodology to analyze organizational, group and individual level variables facilitated this approach in the current study. The referent shift composition model that was used to apply cross-level analysis to the blend of organizational, group and individual level data in this study has been used previously with PCWS organizations and personnel but not in a retention specific study (Glisson & James, 2002).

Recommendations for Future Research

The findings in the MLM analyses in this study revealed no empirical link between organizational culture and the individual level variables in the sample. However, since organizational climate did have an effect on the individual level variables, Payne’s (2000) point that climate may directly reflect culture is an important consideration. It may be that climate is the organizational equivalent of the attitudinal and behavioral manifestations of personality in individuals. In other words, with the ability to measure climate successfully, researchers measure the attitudes and behaviors of those who compose the organization that closely reflect the assumptions, values and beliefs shared within the organization, otherwise known as organizational culture. The relationship

between climate and culture may not be as direct as the former statement indicates.

Climate and culture are certainly not conceptually or empirically identical. However, as Payne (2000) asserts, climate can play a vital diagnostic role in gaining a detailed understanding of organizations that allows researchers to “get...closer to culture” than was thought possible in the past (p. 176).

In the future, researchers who are examining PCWS organizations may wish to design studies that focus on empirically detailing organizational climate in a manner that directly links to specific aspects of organizational culture. Mixed methods research designs hold great promise in this regard (Hemmelgarn, et al. 2001; Hofstede, et al. 1990). It may be possible to devote the quantitative elements of a study to climate and the qualitative elements of the design to culture or blend both approaches to data collection to inquire about both constructs. In this manner, future researchers may be able to paint comprehensive empirical portraits of PCWS organizations. Analysis of this type would allow for thorough organizational assessment that could inform organizational interventions and promote evaluation of organizational change over time.

Further research exploring the link between healthier organizational climates and the quality of services received by the clients of PCWS organizations would build on past results (Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998). National well-designed studies would be optimal in order to discover whether or not climate improvement positively affects service outcomes in PCWS agencies that function in many different environments.

An additional future direction for research that is directly connected to improved service outcomes for PCWS clientele is the exploration of the linkage between organizational climate and organizational performance. Researchers may examine

variation in climate across many PCWS agencies and organizational performance (evaluated by objective standards) as key indicators of agency output to determine which climate characteristics lead to effective organizational performance.

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Appendix A

Composition of Groups by Program and Agency

Group #	Number of Respondents by Programs	Total in Group	County Agencies
1	ER-7, FR-5, FM-3, PP-4, Court-3, HS-1, Other-1	24	Madera
2	FR-10, FM-4, FP-3, PP-4	21	Kings
3	ER-9, Court-8, School SW-3, ER/Court-1, ILP-1, Lic-1, Training-1	24	Kings
4	ER-11, Court-4, ER Court-1	16	Merced
5	ER-27	27	Tulare
6	PP-10, FM-8, FP-1, FR/PP-1, FM/FR-1	21	Tulare
7	FR/FM/PP-27	27	Tulare
8	Adoptions-12, Ongoing-6, Nursing-6, Lic-3, RA-1	28	Tulare
9	Court-8, Other-8, ILP-6, ER/Court-3	25	Tulare
10	ER-24	24	Kern
11	ER-25	25	Kern
12	PP-29	29	Kern
13	Adop-30	30	Kern
14	Court-28	28	Kern

15	FM/FR-25	25	Kern
16	FM/FR-24	24	Kern
17	FM-8, ILP-4, FP-3, Train-3, Other-3, DR-2, FR-1, FR/FM/PP- 1	25	Kern
18	RA-10, Lic-7, ER/Court-4, Wrap-1	22	Kern
19	ER-6, FM-2, Adop-2, RA-2, PP-1, Court-1, Group-1	15	San Joaquin
20	DR-10, Ongoing-6, FR/FM/PP-5, Court-3, ER-1	25	San Luis Obispo
21	FM/FR-10, FR-4, Home-3, Other-3, Adop-2, FM-1, PP-1, Train-1	25	San Luis Obispo
22	ER-12, Court-4, Wrap-1, Other-1	18	Santa Barbara
23	FR/FM/PP-6, Adop-4, Ongoing-3, Other-2, FR-1, Home-1, RA-1	18	Santa Barbara
24	ER-20	20	Stanislaus
25	FM-10, FR-4, FR/PP-2, FR/FM/PP-2, FM/FR-1, FP-1	20	Stanislaus
26	Court-8, Adop-5, Adop-5, ILP-4, Wrap-1	23	Stanislaus
27	ER-22	22	Ventura
28	FR/FM/PP-25	25	Ventura
29	FM/FR-5, Other-4, Group-3, FR-3, Adop-2, FR/PP-2	19	Ventura

30	Court-7, Ongoing-5, School-4, Lic-3	19	Ventura
31	ER-10, Other-5, Court-2, ER/Court-1	18	Fresno
32	FM-4, FP-4, Other-4, FR-3, Train-2, DR- 2	19	Fresno
33	FR/FM-6, PP-5, Home-4, ILP-3, Adop-2	20	Fresno
34	FR-8, FM-3, PP-3, FR/PP-1, Lic-1	16	Merced
Groups		Individuals	Agencies
34	Totals	767	11

Appendix B
Survey Instrument

Organizational Culture and Retention

(Please check the appropriate box)

1. The name of the agency in which I currently work is:

- ☐ Fresno County Human Services System
- ☐ Kern County Department of Human Services
- ☐ Kings County Human Services
- ☐ Madera County Department of Human Services
- ☐ Mariposa County Human Services Department
- ☐ Merced County Human Services
- ☐ San Joaquin County Human Services
- ☐ San Luis Obispo County Social Services
- ☐ Santa Barbara County Social Services
- ☐ Stanislaus County Community Services
- ☐ Tulare County Health and Human Services
- ☐ Ventura County Human Services.

2. I currently work in the child welfare services part of the agency.

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No If No, please specify the part of the agency in which you work

3. What is the name of the program or division in which you currently work?
(Choose **only one**)

- ☐ Emergency Response
- ☐ Differential Response
- ☐ Family Maintenance
- ☐ Family Reunification
- ☐ Family Preservation
- ☐ Permanency Planning (Permanent Placement or Long Term Foster Care)
- ☐ Adoptions
- ☐ Home Studies
- ☐ Independent Living Skills
- ☐ Wraparound Services
- ☐ Court
- ☐ **Combined Programs** (please circle below):
1.) FM/FR 2.) FR/PP 3.) FR/FM/PP 4.) ER/Court
- ☐ Other: Please Specify _____

4. Which best describes the location of the population you serve?

- ☐ A. Urban
- ☐ B. Rural

*Please note change in instructions, top of next 2-pages!

For the items below, please fill in the bubble to indicate the extent to which **members of your organizational unit** are expected to:

	To a Very Great Extent To a Great Extent To a Moderate Extent To a Slight Extent Not at all						To a Very Great Extent To a Great Extent To a Moderate Extent To a Slight Extent Not at all				
	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
5 Avoid taking responsibility	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	30 Be a good listener	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6 Avoid being different	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	31 Show concern for people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7 Give support to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	32 Place the well-being of clients first	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8 Be competitive with coworkers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	33 Develop their own full potential	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9 Be genuine and open	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	34 Be stern and unyielding	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10 Oppose new ideas	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	35 Always try to be right	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11 Please others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	36 Stay on people's good side	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12 Play politics	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	37 Be empathetic and warm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13 Treat people as important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	38 Resolve disagreements constructively	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14 Never make a mistake	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	39 "Lay low" when things go wrong	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15 Be fastidious	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	40 Stay uninvolved	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16 Grow as individuals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	41 Act forceful	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17 Show concern for the needs of others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	42 Do things perfectly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18 Communicate ideas	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	43 Openly show enthusiasm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19 Be critical	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	44 Change priorities to please others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20 Never appear to lose	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	45 Evaluate how much we benefit clients	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
21 Be skilled in human relations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	46 Accept the status quo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22 Avoid being blamed for problems	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	47 Stay in control	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23 Be hard, tough	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	48 Maintain an image of superiority	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24 Be thoughtful and considerate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	49 Agree with everyone	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
25 Be hard to impress	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	50 Encourage others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
26 Take time with people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	51 Act in the best interest of each client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
27 Criticize mistakes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	52 Deny problems	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
28 Have up-to-date knowledge	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	53 Avoid problems	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
29 Improve the well-being of each client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	54 Please those in positions of authority	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

For the items below, please fill in the bubble to indicate the extent to which **members of your organizational unit** are expected to:

	To a Very Great Extent To a Great Extent To a Moderate Extent To a Slight Extent Not at all						To a Very Great Extent To a Great Extent To a Moderate Extent To a Slight Extent Not at all				
	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
55 Be dominant and assertive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	80 Oppose things we don't like	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
56 Use personal authority	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	81 Work to achieve self-set goals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
57 Remain aloof from the situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	82 Be "number one"	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
58 Turn the job into a contest	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	83 Never challenge superiors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
59 Find ways to serve clients more effectively	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	84 Be noncommittal	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
60 Put things off	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	85 Pay attention to details	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
61 Wait for others to act first	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	86 Be accepted by others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
62 Criticize others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	87 Plan for success	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
63 Deal with others in a friendly, pleasant way	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	88 Be agreeable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
64 Strive for excellence	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	89 Back up those with the most authority	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
65 Be themselves	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	90 Be available to each client we serve	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
66 Take on challenging cases	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	91 Fit in	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
67 Do things for the approval of others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	92 Follow established protocol	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
68 Compete rather than cooperate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	93 Enjoy their work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
69 Stay detached	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	94 Maintain their personal integrity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
70 Point out flaws	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	95 Be concerned about their own personal development	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
71 Go along with group decisions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	96 Be precise	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
72 Think in unique and independent ways	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	97 Become more effective in serving clients	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
73 Treat rules as more important than ideas	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	98 Accept goals without questioning them	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
74 Follow rather than lead	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	99 Set unrealistically high goals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
75 Interact positively with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	100 Reject any criticism	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
76 Not make waves	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	101 Conform	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
77 Help others to grow	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	102 Defeat the competition	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
78 Learn new tasks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	103 Be responsive to the needs of each client	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
79 Pursue a standard of excellence	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>						

*Please note change in instructions, top of following pages!

Please answer the following questions in reference to **yourself**:

(check the appropriate box)

104. What is the highest level of formal schooling you have completed:

- ☐ Less than high school
- ☐ High school graduate or GED
- ☐ Community college degree
- ☐ Bachelor's degree
- ☐ Master's degree
- ☐ Ph.D.

105. Are you *currently enrolled* in an educational program in any of the following?

- ☐ BSW
- ☐ MSW
- ☐ Ph.D. Social Work/Social Welfare
- ☐ Other Bachelor's
- ☐ Other Master's
- ☐ Other Doctoral
- ☐ Not enrolled currently

106. Have you earned any of the following degrees?

- ☐ BSW or BASW (Bachelor of Social Work)
- ☐ MSW (Master of Social Work)
- ☐ Ph.D. in Social Work/Social Welfare or DSW (Doctorate of Social Work)
- ☐ None of the above

107. If you have earned a BSW or MSW, did you have CalSWEC or Title IV-E support while pursuing your degree?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Not Applicable

108. How old were you on your last birthday?

- ☐ Less than 25-years old
- ☐ Between 25-29 years old.
- ☐ Between 30-39 years old.
- ☐ Between 40-49 years old
- ☐ Between 50-59 years old.
- ☐ More than 59 years old.

109. What is your gender?

- ☐ Female
- ☐ Male

110. What ethnicity do you identify with most?

- ☐ White
- ☐ Black (African American)
- ☐ Hispanic/Latino
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ American Indian
- ☐ Other (Please Specify) _____

Please answer the following questions in reference to **yourself**:

(Circle the appropriate response)

Strongly Agree
Agree
Neither Agree nor Disagree
Disagree
Strongly Disagree
SA A N D SD

Job Appraisal

111 I find enjoyment in my job.	SA	A	N	D	SD
112 Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.	SA	A	N	D	SD
113 I am usually satisfied with client outcomes.	SA	A	N	D	SD
114 I feel dissatisfied with my job.	SA	A	N	D	SD

Social Work

115 By serving as a social worker/case manager, I feel I am making a difference in people's lives.	SA	A	N	D	SD
116 As a social worker/case manager, I am able to provide help to people who need my assistance.	SA	A	N	D	SD
117 I believe that my work as a social worker/case manager is important to society	SA	A	N	D	SD

Working in this county CWS agency

118 I am proud to tell others I am part of this county agency.	SA	A	N	D	SD
119 This county agency is the best of all possible places to work.	SA	A	N	D	SD
120 There is a good chance I will search for another job (outside this agency) within the next year.	SA	A	N	D	SD
121 I plan to leave this agency as soon as possible.	SA	A	N	D	SD
122 Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave this agency.	SA	A	N	D	SD
123 I speak highly of this agency to my friends.	SA	A	N	D	SD
124 Turnover in this agency is too high.	SA	A	N	D	SD
125 I plan to stay in this county agency as long as possible.	SA	A	N	D	SD

Working in the field of Child Welfare Services

126 I plan to stay in the field of child welfare work as long as possible.	SA	A	N	D	SD
127 I plan to work in a different area of social work/case management (other than child welfare) as soon as possible.	SA	A	N	D	SD
128 I speak highly of child welfare work to my friends.	SA	A	N	D	SD
129 I am proud to tell others I am a child welfare worker.	SA	A	N	D	SD
130 I plan to leave child welfare work as soon as possible.	SA	A	N	D	SD
131 Child welfare is the best of all possible fields in which to work.	SA	A	N	D	SD
132 Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave work in the field of child welfare.	SA	A	N	D	SD

Please answer the following questions in reference to **yourself**:

(check the appropriate box)

133. My title in the agency is closest to the following:

- ☐ Social Worker (or Social Service Worker)
☐ Case Manager
☐ Staff Analyst of Administrative Assistant
☐ Supervisor
☐ Other: Please specify _____

134. I currently provide direct service to clients.

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

135. Number of years you have worked as a social worker or case manager in the **field** of child welfare services:

- ☐ 1 or less
☐ 2 - 3
☐ 4 - 5
☐ 6 - 10
☐ 11 - 15
☐ 16 - 19
☐ 20 or more

136. Number of years you have worked as a social worker or case manager in the child welfare services part of the **agency**:

- ☐ 1 or less
☐ 2 - 3
☐ 4 - 5
☐ 6 - 10
☐ 11 - 15
☐ 16 - 19
☐ 20 or more

Please answer the following questions in reference to **yourself**:

(Circle the appropriate response)

Neither Agree nor Disagree
 Strongly Disagree
 Disagree
 Agree
 Strongly Agree
 SA A N D SD

Peers

137 My coworkers can be relied upon when things get tough on my job.	SA	A	N	D	SD
138 My coworkers are willing to listen to my job-related problems.	SA	A	N	D	SD
139 My coworkers are helpful to me in getting my job done.	SA	A	N	D	SD

Supervisors

140 My supervisor can be relied upon when things get tough on my job.	SA	A	N	D	SD
141 My supervisor is willing to listen to my job-related problems.	SA	A	N	D	SD
142 My supervisor gives me good advice on case-related problems	SA	A	N	D	SD
143 My supervisor is very knowledgeable about child welfare.	SA	A	N	D	SD

Please answer the following questions in reference to **yourself**:

(Fill in the bubble that indicates your response)

	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; padding: 5px;"> To a Slight Extent To a Moderate Extent To a Great Extent To a Very Great Extent </div>				
	1	2	3	4	5
144 I feel emotionally drained from my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
145 I feel I treat some of the children I serve as "impersonal" objects.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
146 I feel used up at the end of the workday.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
147 I deal very effectively with the problems of the children in my caseload.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
148 I have become more callous towards people since I took this job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
149 I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
150 I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
151 I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with the children for whom I am responsible.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
152 I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
153 I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
154 I feel exhilarated after working closely with the children on my caseload.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
155 At times, I find myself not really caring about what happens to some of the children.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
156 I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
157 I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
158 In my work, I am calm in dealing with the emotional problems of others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
159 It's hard to feel close to the children I serve.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
160 No matter how much I do, there is always more to be done.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
161 The amount of work I have to do keeps me from doing a good job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
162 I have to work a lot of overtime.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
163 The amount of work I have to do interferes with how well it gets done.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
164 I have to do things on my job that are against my better judgement.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
165 Inconsistencies exist among the rules and regulations that I am required to follow.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
166 Once I start an assignment, I am not given enough time to complete it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
167 How often do your coworkers show signs of stress?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
168 How often do you end up doing things that should be done differently?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
169 How often do you have to work irregular hours?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
170 How often do you have to bend a rule in order to carry out an assignment?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
171 How often do you feel unable to satisfy the conflicting demands of your supervisors?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please answer the following questions in reference to **yourself**:

(Fill in the bubble that indicates your response)

	1	2	3	4	5
172 How often does your job interfere with your family life?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
173 Interests of the children are often replaced by bureaucratic concerns (i.e., paperwork).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
174 Rules and regulations often get in the way of getting things done.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
175 There are not enough people in my agency to get the work done.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
176 To what extent are you constantly under heavy pressure on your job?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix C

Case IRB Approval and Informed Consent Form

Printed by: David Chenot
 Title: Notice of Approval for 20051206□

: CSUB

Friday, January 06, 2006 12:54:23 PM
 Page 1 of 2



Thursday, January 05, 2006 1:59:59 PM

Urgent Message

From: ☺ Case Institutional Review Board <cwru-irb@case.edu>

Subject: Notice of Approval for 20051206□

To: ☺ "vkg2@case.edu" <vkg2@case.edu>

Cc: ☺ "cxc10@cwru.edu" <cxc10@cwru.edu>

☺ "rxc39@cwru.edu" <rxc39@cwru.edu>

☺ "dchenot@csb.edu" <dchenot@csb.edu>

Bcc: ☺ David Chenot

Attachments: ☺ Attach0.html

☺ 20051206 Groza-Chenot Conse.pdf

Page 1

**Case Western Reserve University
 Institutional Review Board
 NOTICE OF APPROVAL**

Responsible Investigator: **Victor Groza**

Department: **MSASS**

IRB Protocol #: **20051206**

Title: *Organizational Culture and Retention in Public Child Welfare Services Organizations*

Co-Investigator: **David Chenot**

Approval Date: **January 5, 2006**

Continuing Review Deadline: **December 21, 2006**

Expiration Date: **January 4, 2007**

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) has APPROVED the above new protocol through the expedited review process.

It has been determined that this study involves minimal risk, and that no vulnerable populations will be involved.

As an investigator of human subjects, your responsibilities include the following (see full description of responsibilities at our website):

1. Report all adverse events and unanticipated problems involving human subjects to the IRB Office, located in the Office of Research Compliance (ORC), within three (3) business days of your knowledge of the occurrence.
2. Provide the IRB with a complete Continuing Review form (available at [the CWRU IRB Web Pages](#), or from the ORC) by the continuing review deadline noted above, and when the study is terminated.
3. Discontinue all work pertaining to this protocol if a continuing review approval is not finalized by the expiration date noted above.
4. Submit all proposed changes to the protocol to the IRB, and receive approval from the IRB, before implementation of the change.
5. Keep all research data and original consent documents in your possession for at least three (3) years after the study is terminated.

Please use the attached consent form for your study.

Printed by: David Chenot

Friday, January 06, 2006 12:54:23 PM

Title: Notice of Approval for 20051206□

: CSUB

Page 2 of 2

If you wish to amend it, please submit an addendum - wait for IRB approval - prior to implementation.

Questions? Please visit our website: http://ora.ra.cwru.edu/orc_humansubjects_CWRU_IRB.asp OR
contact our administrative office... Isabel Sanchez, IRB Administrator

216.368.6993

Maureen Dore-Arshenovitz, IRB Assistant

216.368.6925

Fax: 216.368.3737 CASE Institutional Review Board

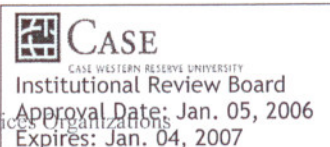
Office of Research Compliance

Sears Building 657

Cleveland, OH 44106-7230

INFORMED CONSENT

Organizational Culture and Retention in Public Child Welfare Services Organizations



You are being asked to participate in a research study about organizational culture and the retention of social workers and case managers in PCWS agencies. You were selected as a possible participant because you are currently employed as a social worker, case manager or supervisor in a PCWS agency. Please read this form and ask any questions that you may have before agreeing to be in the research.

Researchers at Case Western Reserve University are conducting this study. David Chenot, a doctoral student at Case Western Reserve University, is collecting data for the study.

Background Information

The purpose of this research is to identify organizational culture in PCWS agencies in Central California and to explore the relationship between organizational culture and retention among social workers, case managers and supervisors in these agencies. Other important features of the study include work attitudes and service quality.

Please note that the responsible investigator and/or other members of the research team have no significant financial interest in any organization or other entity involved in this study.

Procedures

If you agree to be a participant in this research, we would ask you to do the following things:
Thoroughly complete a questionnaire. The questionnaire only needs to be completed once and it should take approximately 15-30 minutes to complete.

Risks and Benefits to Being in the Study

This research has the following risks: There are no foreseeable risks for participants involved in this study. Participation is voluntary and may be terminated by the participant at any time during completion of the questionnaire.

There are no direct benefits of participation, however, increased knowledge concerning the organizational factors that contribute to the improvement of retention in PCWS agencies are likely to result from the survey.

Compensation

Though there are no direct benefits or compensation for participation, you may receive the following payment/reimbursement: All participants who fully complete a questionnaire will be given the opportunity to be entered into a drawing for the following awards; 1st place=\$100, 2nd place=\$50, 3rd & 4th place \$25 each, 5th - 10th winners will be provided \$15 gift certificates to a bookstore (i.e., Borders, Barnes & Noble, etc.). You do not have to participate in the drawing even if you choose to fill out the survey.

Confidentiality

Your responses to the survey will be anonymous. No one working at your agency, including administrators, will know how you answered the questionnaire unless you choose to tell them. The records of this research will be kept private. In any sort of report we might publish, we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a participant. Research records will be kept in a locked file, and access will be limited to the researchers, the University review board responsible for protecting human participants, regulatory agencies, and funding agencies.

Voluntary Nature of the Study

Your participation is voluntary. If you choose not to participate, it will not affect your current or future relations with the University. There is no penalty or loss of benefits for not participating or for discontinuing

your participation. However, participants who elect to terminate participation without completing the entire survey will not be eligible for inclusion in the drawing for awards specified above.

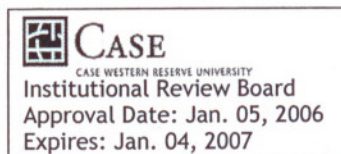
Study participants who wish a copy of the study findings may request them at the time of questionnaire completion. Findings will be disseminated in summary form unless participants request a full copy of study results which will then be provided.

Contacts and Questions

The researchers conducting this study are Victor Groza Ph.D. and David Chenot M.Div., LCSW. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have any questions later, you may contact them at: David Chenot, P.O. Box 22123, Bakersfield, California 93390-2123. Ph.# (661) 654-2383, Fax # (661) 654-6928, dchenot@csu.edu.

If the researchers cannot be reached, or if you would like to talk to someone other than the researcher(s) about; (1) concerns regarding this study, (2) research participant rights, (3) research-related injuries, or (4) other human subjects issues, please contact Case Western Reserve University's Institutional Review Board at (216) 368-6925 or write: Case Western Reserve University; Institutional Review Board; 10900 Euclid Ave.; Cleveland, OH 44106-7230.

You will be given a copy of this form for your records.



Appendix D

PCWS Agency Approval Letters



Department of Children and Family Services

Gary D. Zomalt, Ed.D., LCSW, Director

Protecting and healing children from abuse and neglect is everyone's responsibility

Partners in Human Services

April 18, 2006

David Chenot, M.Div, LCSW
P.O. Box 22123
Bakersfield, CA 93390-2123

Giang Nguyen
Department of
Behavioral Health
4441 E Kings Canyon
Fresno CA 93702-3604
(559) 253-9180

Gary Zomalt
Department of
Children & Family Services
2011 Fresno St Ste 301
Fresno CA 93721-1722
(559) 453-3924

Edward Moreno
Department of
Community Health
1221 Fulton Mall
Fresno CA 93721-1915
(559) 445-3200

Julie Hornback
Department of
Employment & Temporary
Assistance
4499 E Kings Canyon
Fresno CA 93750-0001
(559) 453-6407

The Fresno County Department of Children and Family Services values research. The Department welcomes the opportunity to participate with David Chenot on his research on Organizational Culture and the Retention of social workers in Public Child Welfare Services agencies.

The plan to survey the Department's Child Welfare Services social workers, case managers and supervisors has been approved. Agency personnel may complete the survey at the agency and/or during working hours. We look forward to working with Mr. Chenot and receiving a summary of the research results.

Sincerely,

Gary D. Zomalt, Director

2011 Fresno Street, 3rd floor, Suite #301, Fresno, CA 93721
Phone (559) 453-3924 ♦ FAX (559) 253-9300
Equal Employment Opportunity ♦ Affirmative Action ♦ Disabled Employer
www.co.fresno.ca.us
<http://fresno.networkofcare.org>



Beverly Beasley Johnson, JD
Director

February 14, 2006

David Chenot M. Div., LCSW
P.O. Box 22123
Bakersfield, CA. 93390-2123

To Whom it May Concern:

At the Kern County Department of Human Services we value research. We are willing to work with David Chenot concerning the research on Organizational Culture and the Retention of Social Workers in Public Child Welfare Services Agencies. The plan to survey Kern County Department of Human Services, Child Welfare Services Social Workers, Case Managers, and Supervisors has been approved. Agency personnel may complete the survey at the agency and/or during working hours. We look forward to working with David and receiving a summary of the research results.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "Jana Davis, MSW". The signature is fluid and cursive.

Jana Davis, MSW
Assistant Director, Prevention and Community
Partnerships

Tel 661.631.6550 Fax 661.631.6631 TTY 800.735.2929
100 E. California Avenue P.O. Box 511 Bakersfield, CA 93302 www.KCDHS.org

Kern County Department of Human Services is an equal opportunity employer.



***Kings County
Human Services Agency***

Peggy Montgomery, Director

*Employment Services
Benefit Services
Child Protective Services
Adult Services
Day Care/Foster Home Services*

December 20, 2005

To: Human Subjects Review Board
Re: Permission for David Chenot, LCSW to Administer Survey to Agency Staff

At the Kings County Human Services Agency we value research. We are willing to work with David Chenot concerning the research on Organizational Culture and the Retention of social workers in Public Child Welfare Services agencies. The plan to survey Kings County Human Services, Child Welfare Services social workers, case managers and supervisors has been approved. Agency personnel may complete the survey at the agency and/or during working hours. We look forward to working with David and receiving a summary of the research results.

Sincerely,

Tina Ramirez, M.S.W., Program Manager
Kings County Human Services Agency
1200 South Drive
Hanford, CA 93230

cc: David Chenot M.Div, LCSW
P.O. Box 22123
Bakersfield, CA. 93390-2123

1200 South Drive, Kings County Government Center, Hanford, California 93230

☎ (559) 582-3241 ✉ pcespede@co.kings.ca.us 📠 Admin-FAX (559) 584-2749 📠 Services-FAX (559) 584-4416 📠 Employment Services-FAX (559) 582-7399



HUBERT (HUB) WALSH, Director

MADERA COUNTY DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICES

- P.O. BOX 569
- MADERA, CA 93639
- (559) 675-7841
- FAX (559) 675-7603

December 21, 2005

Mr. David Chenot, M. Div., LCSW
P. O. Box 22123
Bakersfield, CA. 93390-2123

Dear Mr. Chenot:

At the Madera County Department of Social Services we value research. We are willing to work with you concerning the research on Organizational Culture and the Retention of social workers in Public Child Welfare Services agencies. The plan to survey Madera Department of Social Services, Child Welfare Services social workers, case managers and supervisors has been authorized. Agency personnel may complete the survey at the agency and/or during working hours. Please feel free to contact Kelly Woodard, Deputy Director, as this process unfolds.

We look forward to working with David and receiving a summary of the research results.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Hubert Walsh", written over the typed name and title.

HUBERT (HUB) WALSH,
DIRECTOR

(HubDChenotCWSSWSurvey)



HUMAN SERVICES AGENCY

Ana Pagan
Director

2115 W. Wardrobe Avenue
(209) 385-3000
(209) 383-6925 Fax
www.co.merced.ca.us

Mailing Address
P.O. Box 112
Merced, CA 95341-0112

Equal Opportunity Employer

January 10, 2006

David Chenot, LCSW
M Division
P.O. Box 22123
Bakersfield, CA 93390-2123

Dear Mr. Chenot:

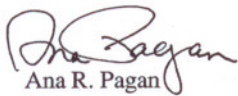
At the Merced County Human Services Agency we value research. We are willing to work with you concerning the research on organizational culture and the retention of social workers in Public Child Welfare Services agencies.

The plan to survey Merced County Human Services, Child Welfare Services social workers, case managers, and supervisors has been approved.

My staff may complete the survey during working hours.

We look forward to working with you and receiving a summary of the research results.

Sincerely,


Ana R. Pagan
Director



SAN JOAQUIN COUNTY

JOSEPH E. CHELLI
Director

February 7, 2006

P.O. Box 201056

102 South San Joaquin Street

Stockton, CA 95201-3006

Tel (209) 468-1000
Fax (209) 468-1985CalWORKs
Children and Adult Services
Mary Graham Children's ShelterDavid Chenot, M.Div, LCSW
P.O. Box 22123
Bakersfield, CA 93390-2123

Dear Mr. Chenot,

The San Joaquin County Human Services Agency is willing to allow Child Welfare staff to voluntarily fill out a survey regarding Organizational Culture and Retention of Social Workers in Public Child Welfare Service agencies. This may be done on work time. As we discussed, you will email the survey website to me, and I will forward the information on to appropriate Child Welfare staff.

We would be interested in seeing a summary report of your research results.

Very truly yours,

David Erb, LCSW
Deputy Director - Children and Adult Services

DE:jab

Our Mission is to lead in the
creation and delivery of services that improve
the quality of life for our community.



**DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICES**

3433 South Higuera, P.O. Box 8119, San Luis Obispo
California 93403-8119 (805) 781-1825 www.slodss.org

Leland W. Collins, Director

February 16, 2006

David Chenot M.Div, LCSW
P.O. Box 22123
Bakersfield, CA. 93390-2123

To Whom It May Concern

At the San Luis Obispo County Social Services Department we value research. We are willing to work with David Chenot concerning the research on Organizational Culture and the Retention of social workers in Public Child Welfare Services agencies. The plan to survey San Luis Obispo County Social Services, Child Welfare Services social workers, case managers and supervisors has been approved. Agency personnel may complete the survey at the agency and/or during working hours. We look forward to working with David and receiving a summary of the research results.

Sincerely,

Leland W. Collins

FEB-15-2006 12:40

DSS

8053468366 P.01/01



County of Santa Barbara
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICES

234 Camino del Remedio, Santa Barbara CA 93110-1369 (805) 681-4400 Fax (805) 681-4403

Kathy M. Gallagher
 Director

February 15, 2006

Mr. David Chenot, M.Div., LCSW
 P.O. Box 22123
 Bakersfield, CA 93390

Re: Research consent

Dear David:

This letter confirms that Santa Barbara County Department of Social Services grants you permission for doctoral research specific to Organizational structure and social worker retention. Arrangements will be made allowing you to attend regional meetings to both discuss and administer the survey instrument you previously shared with me. I look forward to receiving the results of your work.

Sincerely,

Ken D. Jensen Psy.D., Deputy Director
 Children and Adult Services
 Santa Barbara County Dept. of Social Services
 2125 S. Centerpointe Parkway
 Santa Maria, CA 93455

Michael X. Dean, M.A., M.S.W.
 Deputy Director
 Systems & Program Development

Michele Fitzpatrick
 Deputy Director
 Employee Support & Infrastructure

Ken D. Jensen, Psy. D.
 Deputy Director
 Social Services

Edna Terrell, M.A., M.F.T.
 Deputy Director
 Client Services & Benefits

TOTAL P.01

**COMMUNITY SERVICES AGENCY****Ken R. Patterson**
Director251 E. Hackett Road
P.O. Box 42, Modesto, CA 95353-0042
Phone: 209.558.2500 Fax: 209.558.2558

March 20, 2006

David Chenot M.Div, LCSW
P.O. Box 22123
Bakersfield, CA 93390-2123

Dear Mr. Chenot

This letter is to inform you that the Community Services Agency is looking forward to participating with you concerning the research on Organizational Culture and the Retention of social workers in Public Child Welfare Services agencies. Prior to initiating this process we will need that a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) be completed. The MOU will serve as the formal approval process and will be signed by all parties. The plan to survey Stanislaus County Community Services Agency, Child and Family Services social workers, case managers and supervisors is approved on the condition that no actual data collection will be initiated until the MOU is signed. Agency personnel may complete the survey at the agency and/or during working hours. We look forward to participating and receiving a summary of the research results.

Sincerely

Ken Patterson, Director Community Services Agency

KP:jr

**STRIVING TO BE THE BEST COUNTY IN AMERICA**

MEMORANDUM OF UNDERSTANDING

PURPOSE:

This document will define the agreement between the researcher and Community Services Agency (CSA) – located at 251 E. Hackett Road in Modesto, CA. The purpose of this memorandum of understanding is to serve as a tool that will guide the research to be conducted by David Chenot, LCSW. David Chenot is a doctoral student at Case Western Reserve University (Mandel School of Applied Social Sciences), located in Cleveland, Ohio. David's research will be monitored by his dissertation chairperson, Victor Groza, Professor at Case Western Reserve University. Additionally, supervision of this proposed study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at Case Western Reserve University. The portion of the research carried out at Stanislaus County CSA will be approved by the IRB committee at Case Western Reserve University prior to the initiation of the research at CSA. Data collection for the entire study in 11 Central California counties has begun as of February, 2006 and will continue throughout Spring, 2006. All data analysis will be approved by the researcher's four dissertation committee members at Case Western Reserve University.

SCOPE OF STUDY:

Description of study here

THE AGENCY (CSA) AGREES TO:

- Provide access to social workers, case managers, nurses and supervisors in the Child Welfare Services portion of the agency for the one-time administration of a survey.
- Make provisions for on-site space to administer surveys.
- Make staff aware of the forthcoming research (i.e., announce in meetings, a memo)
- Endorse staff participation in the research process (supportive of survey completion during business hours).
- Allow workers the freedom to participate in the research without repercussions.

THE RESEARCHER (David Chenot) AGREES TO:

- Inform the staff of their role as an anonymous participant in the study.
- Present the participants with a consent form before administering the survey.
- Conduct this research on a voluntary basis with no expectation of payment from Community Services Agency.
- Safeguard the information received from the research participants and maintain confidential record keeping.
- Submit a summary copy of the results of the research to CSA.

AGREEMENT TO BE SIGNED & DATED BY:

Ken Patterson, Community Services Agency Director

Jan Viss, Community Services Agency Assistant Deputy Director

2006 MAR 31 PM 2:09

COMMUNITY
SERVICES
AGENCY

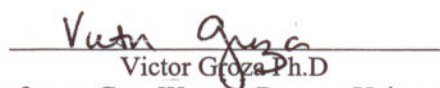
Victor Groza, Case Western Reserve University, Dissertation Chair (216) 368-6682
David Chenot, Case Western Reserve University, Doctoral Student (661) 654-2383



Ken Patterson
CSA Director



Jan Viss
CSA Assistant Director



Victor Groza Ph.D
Professor, Case Western Reserve University



David Chenot
Case Western Reserve University, Doctoral Student



**Tulare County
Health & Human Services Agency**

C. Brian Haddix, CAO
Kristin Bennett, Interim HHSA Director

John M. Davis, Director, Human Services

December 28, 2005

David Chenot M. Div, LCSW
P.O. Box 22123
Bakersfield, CA 93390-2123

At the Tulare County Health and Human Services Agency we value research. We are willing to work with David Chenot concerning the research on Organizational Culture and the Retention of social workers in Public Child Welfare Services agencies. The plan to survey Tulare County Health and Human Services, Child Welfare Services social workers, case managers and supervisors has been approved. Agency personnel may complete the survey at the agency and/or during working hours.

We look forward to working with David and receiving a summary of the research results.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be "JD", with a long horizontal line extending to the right.

John Davis
Director, Human Services Branch
Tulare County Health and Human Services Agency



county of ventura

Human Services Agency

Ted Myers
Director

February 10, 2006

David Chenot M.Div, LCSW
P.O. Box 22123
Bakersfield, CA. 93390-2123

At the Ventura County Human Services Agency we value research. We are willing to work with David Chenot concerning the research on Organizational Culture and the Retention of social workers in Public Child Welfare Services agencies. The plan to survey Ventura County Human Services Agency, Child Welfare Services social workers, case managers and supervisors has been approved. Agency personnel may complete the survey at the agency and/or during working hours. We look forward to working with David and receiving a summary of the research results.

Sincerely,

Judy Rivera, Deputy Director
Human Services Agency, Adult, Children and Family Services
505 Poli St.
Ventura, CA 93001
(805) 652-7563

cc: Leticia Morales

HUMAN SERVICES AGENCY
505 Poli Street, Ventura, CA 93001 (805) 652-7601 Fax (805) 652-7571

Integrity ❖ Compassion ❖ Empowerment

Printed by: David Chenot
Title: RE: Need more info? : CSUB

Tuesday, January 31, 2006 12:24:25 PM
Page 1 of 2



Tuesday, January 31, 2006 12:09:44 PM

Message

From: ♀ "Deborah Ciapponi" <dciapponi@mariposacounty.org>
Subject: RE: Need more info?
To: ♀ David Chenot

Hi David,
I provided our Director with your cover letter and information, but unfortunately (and because we are very short staffed) she decided not to take part in your study. She wishes you the very best in your endeavors.
Thank you,
Debbie

-----Original Message-----

From: David Chenot [mailto:David_Chenot@firstclass1.csubak.edu]
Sent: Tuesday, January 31, 2006 12:00 PM
To: dciapponi@mariposacounty.org
Subject: Need more info?

Hi Deborah,

Just wanted to know if you had any questions or if you need any further information about my study. Please remember that I need to send an approval letter from your agency to my IRB committee before social workers are invited to take the survey. They have been approving the research in each county fairly quickly (for an IRB committee) so after you send me the letter I expect approval within a week or two.

Please don't hesitate to call or e-mail if you have any questions.

Thanks so much,

Dave Chenot

David Chenot, M.Div., LCSW
CalSWEC Project Coordinator
California State University Bakersfield
Department of Social Work
9001 Stockdale Highway
Bakersfield, CA.
93311-1099

Ph.# (661) 654-2383
Fax # (661) 654-6928