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## Validating the Psychological Climate Scale in Voluntary Child Welfare

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# Validating the Psychological Climate Scale in Voluntary Child Welfare

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## Abstract

**Objective:** Organizational climate has emerged as an important factor in understanding and addressing the complexities of providing services in child welfare. This research examines the psychometric properties of each of the dimensions of Parker and colleagues' Psychological Climate Survey in a sample of voluntary child welfare workers. **Methods:** Confirmatory factor analysis was utilized to analyze data on 640 child welfare workers providing services directly to children and families. **Results:** Strong models were developed for each dimension. Each validated model was more parsimonious than in the original instrument but supported the theoretical underpinnings of each. **Discussion and Applications to Social Work:** Psychological climate in voluntary child welfare agencies can be assessed along each of four dimensions identified by Parker and colleagues: job, role, organization, and supervision. Those wishing to examine psychological climate in voluntary child welfare settings should consider using the models identified in the current research.

## Keywords

child welfare, field of practice, quantitative, methodological article, predictive validity, psychometric study, validity study

A great deal of social work practice is conducted in organizational settings; climate has emerged as an important factor for researchers, managers, and practitioners in understanding and addressing the complexities of providing human services to vulnerable populations.

Social work information, services, and interventions are delivered through a workforce, and the capacity of that workforce to function is directly related to the organizations in which they work. Recent research indicates organizational climate is related to a host of workforce issues that are important for maximizing effectiveness. These include workers' organizational commitment; their job status, including their decisions to stay or leave their job; and satisfaction with support from their supervisor, their work load, and their salaries (Claiborne et al., 2011; DePanfilis & Zlotnik, 2008; Flower, McDonald, & Sumski, 2005; Hopkins, Cohen-Callow, Kim, & Hwang, 2010). Organizational climate is described as the "qualities of work environments that explain how those environments are experienced by the people who work in them" (Glisson & Green, 2011, p. 583). Psychological climate, on the other hand, is often described as individual perceptions of the impact of organizational climate on workers' well-being (Glisson, 2002; James & James, 1989; Parker et al., 2003). While organizational climate has been measured extensively in child welfare settings, psychological climate has been measured less frequently (e.g., Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998).

The Psychological Climate Survey (PCS; Parker et al., 2003) has been validated for a number of human service settings, but not as yet in the private child welfare sector, despite its use in previous research (Claiborne et al., 2011; Claiborne, Auerbach, Lawrence, & Schudrich, 2013; "SSW Professors Evaluate," 2008). It is because of the recent use of this instrument in child welfare that we felt the need to conduct a validation study. The current research is a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the PCS with a sample of workers employed in not-for-profit agencies under contract with public child welfare agencies.

## Background

Research on organizational climate and its impact on employee well-being is compelling in human services because a stable, committed workforce is a means to an end: positive client outcomes. This is especially true in child welfare, where children at risk of abuse and neglect are served by a public system of local provider agencies. Many of those local agencies struggle

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with high turnover. Workforce longevity is associated with greater psychological well-being and better permanency outcomes (Children's Defense Fund, & Children's Rights, Inc., 2006; Flower et al., 2005; Unrau & Wells, 2005). Research also shows that positive organizational climate itself is directly associated with youth outcomes in child welfare systems and is a significant predictor of service quality (Glisson & Green, 2011; Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998).

In child welfare, service agencies are publicly funded organizations under the auspices of state or local governments. In many places, however, private agencies contract with local governments and are the primary providers of child welfare services, especially foster care. Nationally, over 400,000 children each year receive foster care services (U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2013). If those children are served by a private agency rather than the public sector, their caseworkers are, on average, leaving at a rate of 40% a year nationally compared to the public sector turnover rate of 20% (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2003). Some data show the average tenure of private agency workers to be only 3 years on the job, and workers leave these agencies even when they show a high degree of investment in the field of child welfare (Auerbach, McGowan, Augsberger, Strolin-Goltzman, & Schudrich, 2010).

In addition to its role in workforce stability, climate is important to understand and assess in social work practice with organizations. In prior research, positive climate has been related to an agency's readiness to initiate innovations and successfully implement evidence-based practices (Claiborne et al., 2013; Glisson, Green, & Williams, 2012). Such organizations show higher levels of effort invested in change initiatives, greater persistence in working toward change, and a higher degree of cooperation among employees (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Kirch et al., 2005; Weiner, Amick, & Lee, 2008). In contrast, when organizations are not prepared, change efforts may result in resistance, conflict, and eventual failure (Claiborne et al., 2013; Ijaz & Vitalis, 2011). Failed change initiatives often result in poor implementations, inefficiencies, high financial costs, and poorer client outcomes (Kotter, 2012).

Given the extent of the relationship between organizational climate, workforce stability, and organizational practice in child welfare, it is important to fully understand how climate reflects factors influencing the child welfare workforce. Knowledge about an agency's climate informs managers and researchers of the existing strengths and challenges facing those attempting to improve workforce conditions, promote implementation projects, and sponsor change initiatives. Equally valuable is measuring changes in organizational climate to assess the success of activities designed to improve climate.

Organizational climate has been conceptualized and measured in multiple ways. The general consensus is that organizational climate is defined as employees' shared perception of their work environment (Glisson, 2002; James & Jones, 1974; Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Parker et al., 2003; Verbeke, Volgering, & Hessels, 1998). Organizational climate surveys

have been developed for numerous settings including colleges and universities, primary health care, human services, juvenile justice, and public child welfare (Glisson & James, 2002; Martinson, Thrush, & Crain, 2013; Parker et al., 2003; Peña-Suárez, Muñiz, Campillo-Álvarez, Fonseca-Pedrero, & García-Cueto, 2013).

Parker and colleagues (2003) define psychological climate to be composed of four dimensions. These dimensions include role, job, organization, and supervisor. Each of these dimensions contains three subdimensions as operationalized by subscales. In this manner, the PCS has been able to evaluate various aspects associated with overall organizational climate. The PCS, however, was developed to be used across organizational sectors. These include both for-profit and not-for-profit organizations and diverse industries such as health care, financial services, and education, among others (Parker et al., 2003). Parker and colleagues (2003, p. 407) note that "a need-based classification scheme may provide a more psychologically meaningful foundation for examining the effects of psychological climate." Additionally, climate is based upon workers' perceptions of the experiences in their work environment (Schulte, Ostroff, & Kinicki, 2006). We, therefore, hypothesized that psychological climate in private child welfare agencies may be more accurately measured not with the entire PCS, but with one which emphasizes characteristics most relevant to these settings.

## Method

This research was approved by the Institutional Review Boards of the University at Albany and Yeshiva University.

## Sampling

Data for this study were obtained from a sample of 640 child welfare workers employed in 13 voluntary child welfare agencies in a large northeastern state. Voluntary agencies in this state are private agencies that are under contract with the public child welfare system to provide preventive and other child welfare services, including foster care. These agencies represented the diversity of the state and were situated in rural, suburban, and urban locales.

All workers at each of the agencies were encouraged but not required to participate in the study. Data were collected by asking participants to complete a confidential written survey, and a member of the research team was on-site to collect these upon their completion. The overall response rate was 70%. In this study, direct care and clinical workers were included in the sample, as we were most interested in workers who had close contact with children and families.

## Measurement

The PCS has a total of 48 items measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale with items ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neither agree nor disagree*, 4 = *agree*, and

5 = *strongly agree*. Four dimensions, each comprising three subscales, measure various aspects of organizational climate.

Subscales associated with the *role* dimension measure ambiguity, conflict, and overload. The ambiguity subscale assesses the degree to which workers have clarity in their assignments. The conflict subscale measures the degree to which workers believe that conditions at the agency impede their work. This, for example, could include receiving contradictory instructions. The overload subscale measures workers' perceptions of how excessive responsibilities may interfere with doing quality work. An example of an item from this dimension is "It is often not clear who has the authority to make decisions regarding my job."

Subscales associated with the *job* dimension measure *autonomy*, *challenge*, and *importance*. The *autonomy* subscale evaluates the degree to which workers have the freedom to do their jobs. The *challenge* subscale measures the degree to which workers use the full range of their capabilities in completing their work. The *importance* subscale measures workers' perceptions of how valuable their work is to others both within and outside the agency. An example of an item from this dimension is "I have a great deal of freedom to decide how to do my job."

Subscales associated with the *organization* dimension measure innovation, justice, and support. The innovation subscale assesses the degree to which workers believe they can use their creativity to do their jobs better. The justice subscale measures how fairly workers believe they are treated. The support subscale measures workers' perceptions of how understanding they believe the agency to be. An example of an item from this dimension is "I am encouraged to develop my ideas."

Subscales associated with the supervisor dimension measure trust and support, goal emphasis, and work facilitation. The trust and support subscale assesses the degree to which workers feel valued by their supervisor. The goal emphasis subscale measures the degree to which workers believe that their supervisors set clear and measurable work goals. The work facilitation subscale measures workers' perceptions of how much they think their supervisor helps them with challenges in the work environment. An example of an item from this dimension is "My supervisor shows me how to improve my performance."

### Model Specification

In this study, we used CFA, a form of structural equation modeling (SEM) to validate each of the dimensions of the PCS. CFA is often used to evaluate the psychometric properties of study instruments and is theoretically driven (Brown, 2006). SEM can be utilized to confirm a priori models, test alternate models, or generate models (Joreskog, 1993). The use of SEM for model discovery has three requirements. First, it should be theoretically logical. Next, the model should be "reasonably parsimonious," (p. 8) and, finally, the model should statistically fit the data (Kline, 2011). In this study, we began with Parker and colleagues (2003) a priori model for each dimension and then used the model generating form of SEM to respecify

**Table 1.** Demographic Description of the Sample.

	<i>n</i>	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Gender				
Male	237	37.44		
Female	396	62.56		
Race/ethnicity				
African American	120	19.58		
African	11	1.79		
Caribbean	23	3.75		
Hispanic/Latino(a)	16	4.24		
White	414	67.54		
Asian	2	0.33		
Native American	6	0.98		
Other	11	1.79		
Having a social work degree				
Yes	96	15.36		
No	529	84.64		
First full-time job in child welfare				
Yes	392	61.73		
No	243	38.27		
Age			34.54	11.78
Tenure at agency, years			5.97	7.47
Tenure in position, years			3.63	4.97

each in order to identify the best fitting model, being sure to include the theoretical concepts identified in the literature (Parker et al., 2003).

Finally, we assessed the validated model for criterion validity. Criterion validity evaluates the relationship of a measure to a known predictor (Rubin & Babbie, 2013). In the current research, we assessed this by examining the relationship of validated dimensions of the PCS to workers' intention to leave their agencies, as prior research indicated that the psychological climate within child welfare agencies has been related to undesired turnover (Glisson, Dukes, & Green, 2006; Sage, 2010).

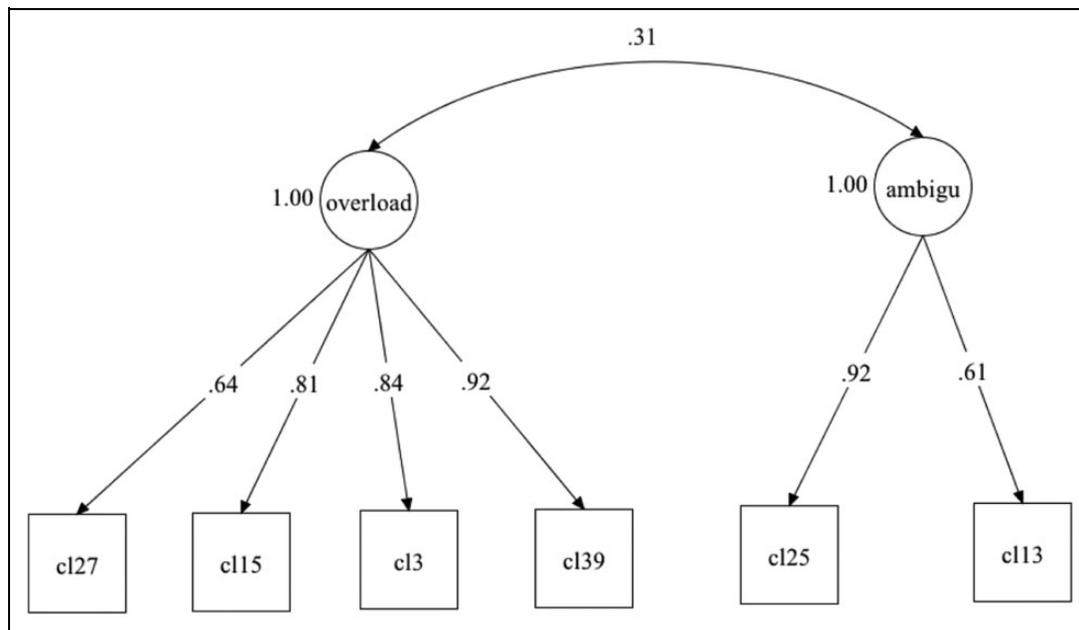
To assess intention to leave, we used the Intent to Leave Child Welfare (ILCW) Scale, a validated instrument that has been used in previous workforce studies in voluntary child welfare (Auerbach et al., 2010; Auerbach, Schudrich, Lawrence, Claiborne, & McGowan, 2013; Augsberger, Schudrich, Auerbach, & McGowan, 2012; Schudrich et al., 2013).

## Results

### Demographic Description of the Sample

The sample in this research resembled much of the child welfare workforce, in general. The sample was predominantly female (62.56%) and White (67.54%). The average age of the workers was 34.54 ( $SD = 11.78$ ), and most of the workers did not have a social work degree (84.64%).

For more than half of the workers in the sample, it was their first job in child welfare (61.73%). On average, workers had been in their positions for 3.63 years ( $SD = 4.97$ ) and employed at their agencies for nearly 6 years ( $M = 5.97$ ;  $SD = 7.47$ ). A



**Figure 1.** CFA diagram for validated role dimension.  $\chi^2 = 21.78$ ;  $df = 8$ ;  $p = .01$ ; RMSEA = 0.06; 90% CI for RMSEA: 0.03, 0.08; CFI = 0.99; TLI = 0.98. Note. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFA = confirmatory factor analysis; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; CI = confidence interval.

more detailed demographic description of the sample is illustrated in Table 1.

### CFA

Good-fitting models were developed for each of the dimensions of the PCS using the identified subscales; however, in all cases, the final models consisted of fewer observed variables, and all indicators were significant at  $p = .00$  level.

The *role* dimension consisted of two latent constructs, *ambiguity* and *overload*. The latent construct, *ambiguity*, consisted of two exogenous variables with factor loadings of 0.61 (The goals and objectives of my staff team are clearly defined) and 0.92 (There are too many people telling me what to do). Coefficient  $\alpha$  for these 2 items was 0.71. The latent construct, *overload*, was comprised of four exogenous variables with factor loadings ranging from 0.64 (I am constantly under too much pressure on my job) to 0.92 (I have too much work to do). Coefficient  $\alpha$  for these 4 items was 0.74. The correlation between the latent constructs was .31, indicating good discriminant validity.

Fit statistics for this model suggested that the data fit the model well. While  $\chi^2$  was significant ( $\chi^2 = 21.78$ ;  $df = 8$ ,  $p = .01$ ), this was not surprising given the large sample size. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), a measure of badness of fit, was 0.06 with a 90% confidence interval ranging between 0.03 and 0.08, which is considered an acceptable range (Kline, 2011; Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007).

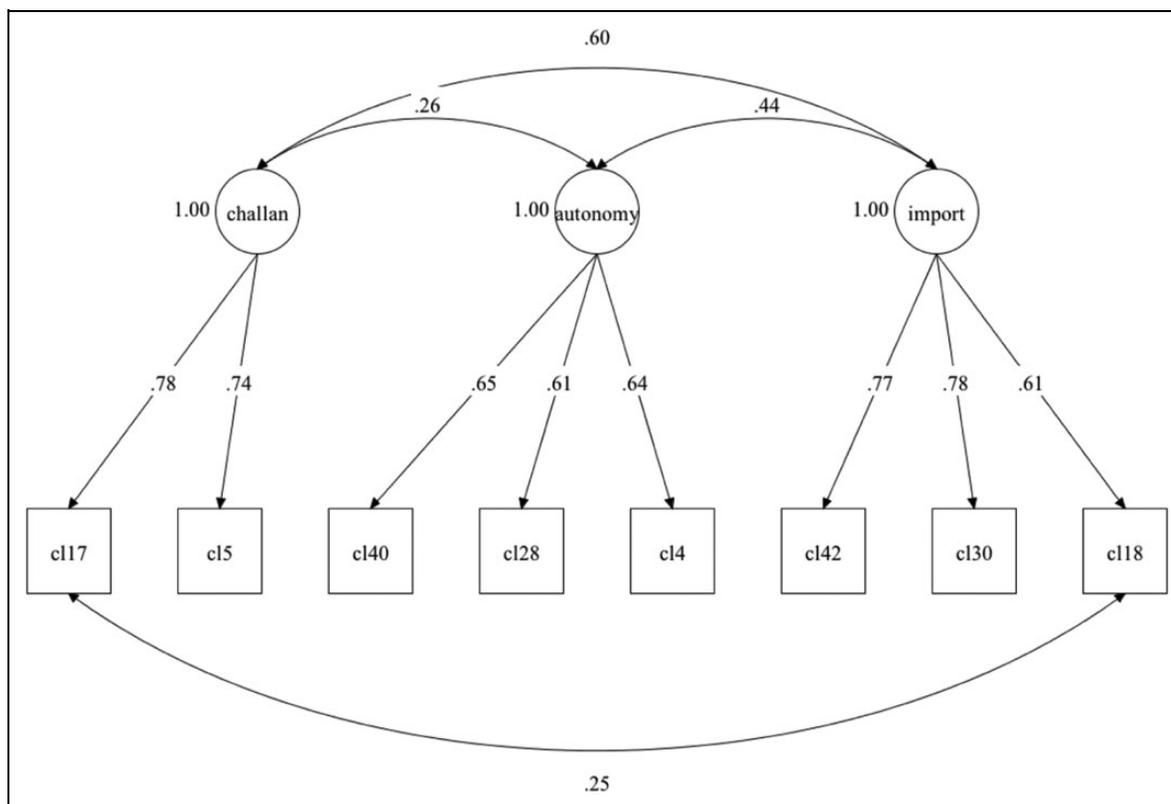
The comparative fit index (CFI) was used to assess the model's goodness of fit. CFI values greater than or equal to 0.95 are considered to be indicative of a good fitting model (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The CFI for this model was 0.99.

The Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) was also used to assess the model's goodness of fit. This index is often used in combination with RMSEA and CFI to confirm the goodness of fit of SEM models in social work research (Bowen & Guo, 2012). Similar to the CFI, values greater than or equal to 0.95 are considered to be indicative of a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The TLI for this model was 0.98. The final model is illustrated in Figure 1.

The *job* dimension consisted of three latent constructs, *importance*, *autonomy*, and *challenge*. The latent construct, *importance*, consisted of three exogenous variables with factor loadings ranging from a low of 0.61 (I feel that my job is important to the functioning of my unit) to a high of 0.78 (There are too many people telling me what to do). Coefficient  $\alpha$  for these 3 items was 0.76. The construct, *autonomy*, was comprised of three exogenous variables with factor loadings ranging from 0.61 (It is up to me to decide how my job should best be done) to 0.65 (I have the freedom to complete task assignments without being over supervised). Coefficient  $\alpha$  for these 4 items was 0.66. Finally, the latent construct, *challenge*, included two exogenous variables. Factor loadings for these were 0.74 (My job requires a wide range of skills) and 0.78 (My job requires a lot of skill and effort to do it well). Coefficient  $\alpha$  for these 2 items was .73.

Finally, the model controlled for the covariance (0.25) between two observed variables (I feel that my job is important to the functioning of my unit and My job requires a lot of skill and effort to do it well), which is displayed as a curved line between those items.

The correlation between the latent constructs was as follows: .44 between *importance* and *autonomy*, .26 between *autonomy* and *challenge*, and .60 between *importance* and *challenge*. These low correlations indicate good discriminant validity.



**Figure 2.** CFA diagram for validated job dimension.  $\chi^2 = 32.26$ ;  $df = 16$ ;  $p = .01$ ; RMSEA = 0.04; 90% CI for RMSEA: 0.02, 0.06; CFI = 0.98; TLI = 0.97. Note. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFA = confirmatory factor analysis; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; CI = confidence interval.

Overall fit statistics for this model indicated that the data fit the model well. As in the *role* dimension model, the  $\chi^2$  was significant; however, with a large sample size, this was not surprising ( $\chi^2 = 32.26$ ;  $df = 16$ ,  $p = .01$ ).

Other fit statistics for this model were in a good range. The RMSEA was 0.04 with a 90% confidence interval of 0.02 to 0.06. The CFI was 0.98, and the TLI was 0.96. This final model is illustrated in Figure 2.

The final model for the *organization* dimension was unidimensional and consisted of five exogenous variables. Factor loadings ranged from a low of 0.62 (I can obtain additional information when decisions about my job are unclear) to a high of 0.85 (Before decisions about my job are made, all of my concerns are heard). Coefficient  $\alpha$  for these 5 items was 0.85. The final model consisted of 4 items from the *justice* dimension and 1 item from the *support* dimension.

Overall fit statistics for this model indicated that the data fit the model well. Despite the large sample size, this model had a nonsignificant  $\chi^2$  ( $\chi^2 = 5.45$ ;  $df = 5$ ;  $p = .36$ ). Other fit statistics for this model were in a nearly ideal range. The RMSEA was 0.04 with a 90% confidence interval of 0.02 to 0.06. The CFI was 0.98, and the TLI was 0.96. The final model for the organization dimension is illustrated in Figure 3.

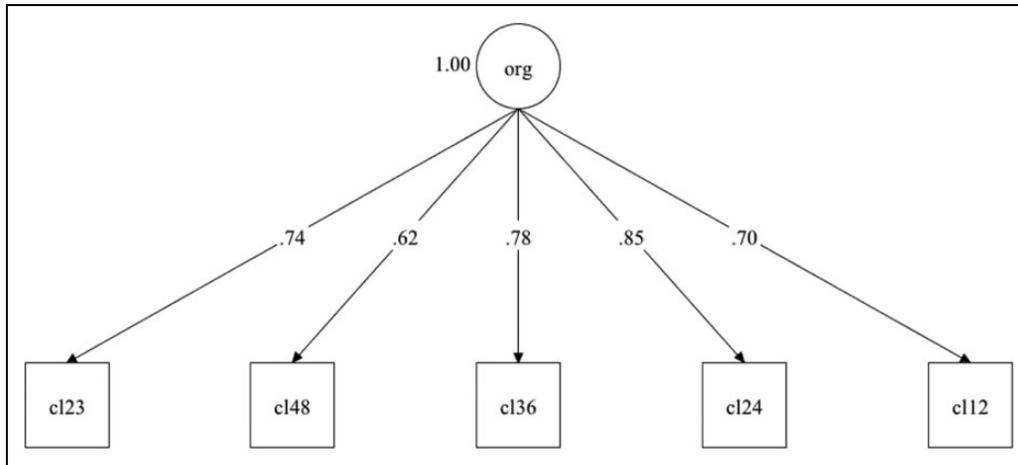
The final dimension of the PCS, the *supervisor* dimension, also proved to be unidimensional and consisted of six exogenous variables. The factor loadings for these ranged from 0.75

(My supervisor sets a good example by working hard) to 0.84 (My supervisor helps me solve job-related problems). In this model, all items were equally taken from the *trust and support* subscale and the *work facilitation* subscale. Coefficient  $\alpha$  for these 6 items was 0.91.

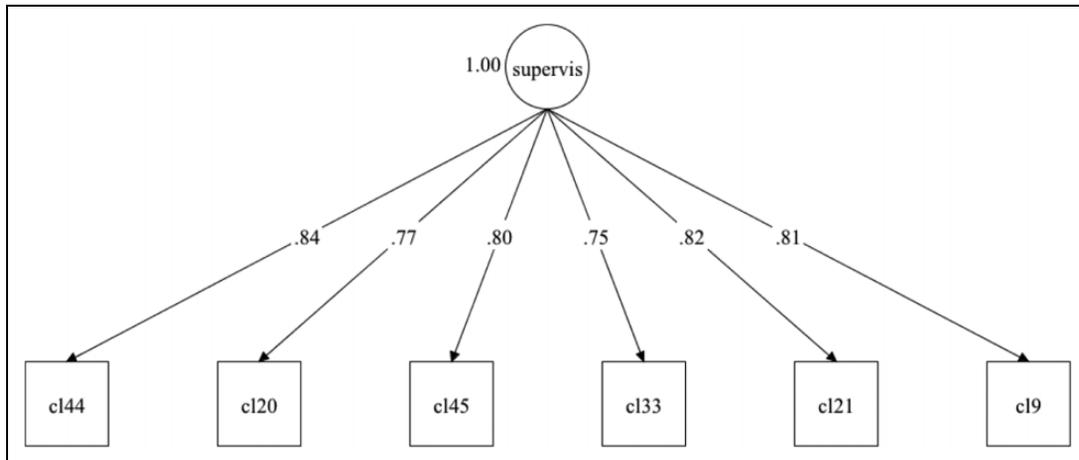
Similar to most of the other models, this one had a significant  $\chi^2$  ( $\chi^2 = 18.54$ ;  $df = 9$ ;  $p = .03$ ). Additionally, goodness of fit statistics were indicative of a good fitting model with the RMSEA = 0.04 and the 90% confidence interval ranging from 0.01 to 0.07. The CFI was 0.99, and the TLI was 0.98. This model is illustrated in Figure 4.

### Criterion Validity

To assess for criterion validity, we conducted four logistic regressions, one for each of the identified dimensions. To create each of the subscales, a mean for the items in each validated dimension was created for each respondent. Therefore, total scores for each subscale could range from 1 to 5. To measure intent to leave, respondents were asked a single question taken from the ILCW Scale, "Have you thought about leaving your agency in the past year?" Those responding "no" were coded as 0, and responses of "yes" were coded as 1. This has been used in prior research and has been shown to be predictive of actual turnover in the voluntary child welfare workforce (Auerbach et al., 2013). The results for these are displayed in Table 2.



**Figure 3.** CFA diagram for validated organization dimension.  $\chi^2 = 5.45$ ;  $df = 5$ ;  $p = .36$ ; RMSEA = 0.01; 90% CI for RMSEA: 0.00, 0.06; CFI = 0.99; TLI = 0.99. Note. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFA = confirmatory factor analysis; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; CI = confidence interval.



**Figure 4.** CFA diagram for validated supervisor dimension.  $\chi^2 = 18.54$ ;  $df = 9$ ;  $p = .03$ ; RMSEA = 0.01; 90% CI for RMSEA: 0.01, 0.07; CFI = 0.99; TLI = 0.98. Note. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFA = confirmatory factor analysis; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; CI = confidence interval.

**Table 2.** Logistic Regression Results for Each Dimension.

Covariates (Outcome Variable: Intention to Leave – 1 = Intention to Leave; 0 = Intention to Stay)	95% CI	SE	z	p	OR
Model I: Role dimension	0.30, 0.51	0.05	-6.95	.00	0.40
Model II: Job dimension	0.49, 0.95	0.11	-2.30	.02	0.68
Model III: Organization dimension	0.32, 0.52	0.05	-7.44	.00	0.41
Model IV: Supervision dimension	0.49, 0.77	0.07	-4.30	.00	0.61

Note. CI = confidence interval; SE = standard error; OR = odds ratio.

For the *role* dimension, the odds of intending to leave decreased by 60% for a single-unit increase in the role subscale, and these findings were statistically significant (odds ratio [OR] = 0.40,  $p = .00$ ). For the *job* dimension, the odds of intending to leave decreased by 32% for a single-unit increase

in the job subscale, and these findings were statistically significant (OR = 0.68;  $p = .02$ ). For the *organization* dimension, the odds of intending to leave decreased by 59% for a single-unit increase in the organization subscale, and these findings were statistically significant (OR = 0.41,  $p = .00$ ). Finally, for the *supervision* dimension, the odds of intending to leave decreased by 49% for a single-unit increase in the supervision subscale, and these findings were statistically significant (OR = 0.61;  $p = .00$ ).

### Discussion and Applications to Practice

Findings from this research indicate the validated dimensions of the PCS are valuable for assessing psychological climate in voluntary child welfare settings. In each dimension that we validated, we had fewer overall indicators than in Parker and colleagues original scale, and in three of the four dimensions,

we identified fewer latent constructs. This suggests that some aspects of these dimensions are more relevant to voluntary child welfare workers than to the general workforce, as the PCS was not designed for any particular industry or line of work (Parker et al., 2003). For example, in the role dimension, only *overload* and *ambiguity* were indicators of psychological climate with regard to the workers' *role*, and the entire *conflict* subscale was eliminated. This reflects indicators for psychological climate with regard to one's role that is specific to those working in voluntary child welfare. In particular, issues of overload and ambiguity are relevant for these workers. One item (The goals and objectives of my staff team are clearly defined) was originally associated with the ambiguity subscale but loaded onto overload in our model. This suggests that this clarity is indicative of workers' perceptions about their workload.

With regard to the PCS *job* dimension, we found that all three subscales, *challenge*, *autonomy*, and *importance*, were indicators of psychological climate; however, we validated a more parsimonious model with a total of 8 indicators instead of the 12 in the original PCS. Clearly, this dimension's subscales are of vital interest for workers. Workers are concerned that their work is important and they make a valuable contribution, especially to their clients' lives. Integrated within this job dimension is the appreciation for having challenging work. Specifically, workers find it important to be permitted to use their full knowledge and range of skills to accomplish their work. A climate that recognizes workers as being professionals and authorizes autonomous decisions in the work area is the final aspect of this comprehensive dimension. Additionally, there is a direct and significant correlation between the skills workers understand are required to do one's job and the importance workers perceive in that job.

Both the *organization* and *supervisor* dimensions consisted of only one dimension instead of three subscales in our validated model. In the *organization* dimension, the validated model consisted of all four indicators from the justice subscale and one from the support subscale. No items were included from the innovation subscale. This supports previous research that workers' perceptions of justice, which is described as a component of respect in the workforce literature, are particularly important in the voluntary child welfare workforce (Augsberger et al., 2012; Ladebo, Awotunde, & Abdul Salaam-Saghir, 2008). However, previous research found the innovation subscale to be significantly associated with agency investment, indicating that worker perceptions of the organization as being innovative predicts greater job commitment (Claiborne et al., 2011). The innovation subscale focus is one of encouragement, does the organization encourage workers to engage in continuous improvement. The absence of innovation items in this research suggests that workers' perceptions of the innovativeness of their agencies may be important to the organization but may not fall under the umbrella of psychological climate for voluntary child welfare workers.

The *supervisor* dimension was also unidimensional; however, indicators for this construct were taken from each of the

three subscales in the original PCS. This suggests that all three latent constructs in the original PCS—work facilitation, trust and support, and goal emphasis—are important indicators for psychological climate with regard to supervision. Climate undoubtedly consists of the relationship workers have with their supervisor, and a balanced supervision approach is indicated. Workers' perceptions of the psychological climate with regard to their supervision suggest that these employees are most concerned with being given support to solve work challenges, having a trusted supervisor that recognizes a job well done, and a supervisor defining clear goals.

To further test the validity of each of the four models that we developed, we examined criterion validity by measuring each of the models' relationship to workers' intention to leave their agencies. We used this measure, as organizational climate has been shown to be related to workforce turnover in previous research (Glisson et al., 2006; Sage, 2010). Results of the logistic regression showed strong and significant reductions in intention to leave, as positive perceptions about each dimension increased. These ranged from a low of a 32% reduction to a high of a 60% reduction in intention to leave for a single-unit increase on each of the validated measures. These findings helped confirm the criterion validity of our models.

The results of this research provide valuable information for both researchers and agency administrators. Psychological climate assessments offer specific knowledge regarding the workforce. In previous research, climate has been related to workers' attitudes, motivation, job satisfaction, productivity, efficiency, and turnover (Berson, Oreg, & Dvir, 2007; Gelade & Ivery, 2003; Glisson et al., 2006; Sage, 2010; Schulte et al., 2006). Understanding areas that are an issue for the workforce is an essential initial step for any organization implementation effort. In addition, these validated measures, individually or collectively, provide critical data for understanding and addressing areas for improvement within organizations. Therefore, validating the PCS for the voluntary child welfare workforce provides a starting point for understanding numerous important workforce issues.

One notable limitation to this study is that the sample consisted strictly of workers employed in private agencies. There is no way to tell if these models would be valid in public child welfare as previous research suggests that the public and private workforces differ in substantive ways (Auerbach et al., 2010). Therefore, a replication of this study in that sector is warranted. Additionally, we only included direct care and clinical workers in our sample, as we were most interested in individuals who had the closest contact with children. Other roles within these agencies include administrators, medical staff, administrative support, and maintenance. Our analysis did not compare those included in the sample with those in other roles. Therefore, findings from this study cannot be generalized to those in other roles in these agencies.

### Declaration of Conflicting Interests

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