Evaluation of Child Abuse and Neglect Demonstration Projects, 1974-1977. Volume IX. Project Management and Worker Burnout
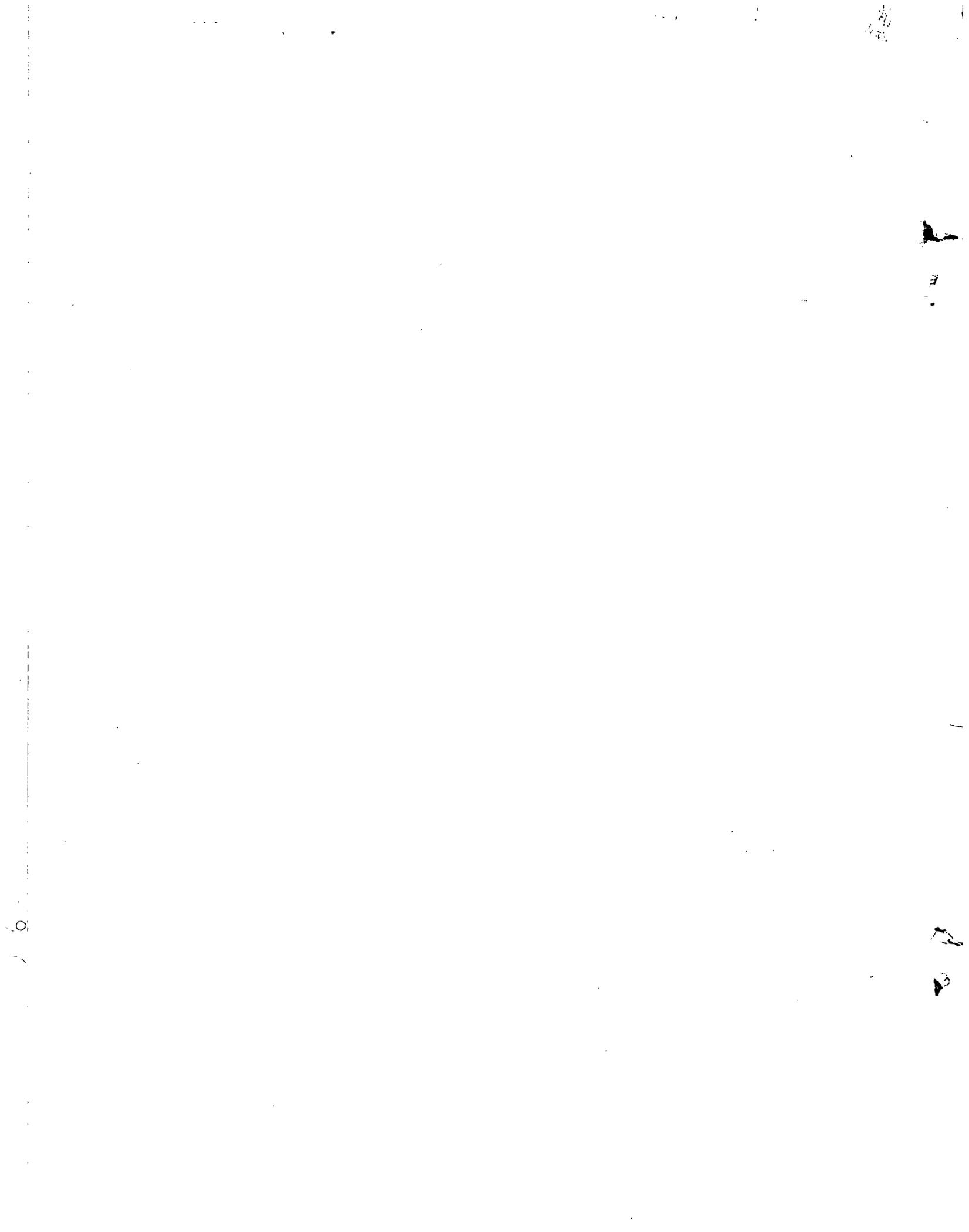
Berkeley Planning Associates, California

Prepared for

National Center for Health Services Research, Hyattsville, Maryland

77

OGRAPHIC DATA	1. Report No. NCHSR 78-72	2.	PB 278 446

e and Subtitle	5. Report Date
LUATION OF CHILD ABUSE AND NEGLECT DEMONSTRATION PROJECTS '4-1977: VOLUME IX. PROJECT MANAGEMENT AND WORKER BURNOUT; IAL REPORT	December 1977
	6.

hor(s) :keley Planning Associates	8. Performing Organization Rept. No.

forming Organization Name and Address rkeley Planning Associates 20 Channing Way rkeley, CA 94704 21.: 415/549-3492)	10. Project/Task/Work Unit No. ---
	11. Contract/Grant No. HRA 106-74-120 and HRA 230-76-0075

onsoring Organization Name and Address EW, PHS, OASH, National Center for Health Services Research 00 East-West Highway, Room 7-44 (STI) attsville, MD 20782 21.: 301/436-8970)	13. Type of Report & Period Covered F.R.; Vol. IX. 6/26/74 - 12/15/77
	14.

pplementary Notes See NTIS Interim Report Nos. NCHSR 78-64 through NCHSR 78-75 for 12 ls.; 11 vols. give different aspects of these projects of the F.R. and Vol. XII con- ins the 11 historical case studies. Vols. are obtainable by Set or separately.

bstracts

is report describes the organization and management of eleven domonstration child use and neglect projects and analyzes the relationships between salient organiza- on, management and worker characteristic variables with the presence and degree of rker burnout in these projects. Worker burnout is defined and a list of indicators burnout is presented. In addition to determining which of a number of factors pear to be most highly associated with burnout, the report presents a series of commendations to local child abuse and neglect projects on ways to avoid worker rnout. The findings are equally applicable to other kinds of social service agen- es. A detailed discussion of the methodology used is also provided.

Words and Document Analysis. 17a. Descriptors

5. Supplementary Notes (continued)

CHSR publication of research findings does net necessarily represent approval or fficial endorsement by the National Center for Health Services Research or the)epartment of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Arne H. Anderson, NCHSR P.O., 301/436-8910.

Identifiers/Open-Ended Terms

ealth services research valuation of child abuse and neglect demonstration projects 1974-1977. (Vols. I-XII): Subtitles: Executive summary; Final report; Adult client impact; A comparative de- scription of the eleven projects; Community systems impact; Quality of the case management process; Cost; Methodology; Project management and worker burnout; A guide for planning and implementing; Child client impact; and Eleven historical case studies.

COSATI Field/Group

Availability Statement eleasable to the public. Available from National echnical Information Service, Springfield, VA Tel.: 703/557-4650) 22161	19. Security Class (This Report) UNCLASSIFIED	21. No. of Pages
	20. Security Class (This Page) UNCLASSIFIED	22. Price A10-A01

M NTIS-35 (REV. 10-73)   ENDORSED BY ANSI AND UNESCO.   THIS FORM MAY BE REPRODUCED   USCOMM-DC 8265-P74

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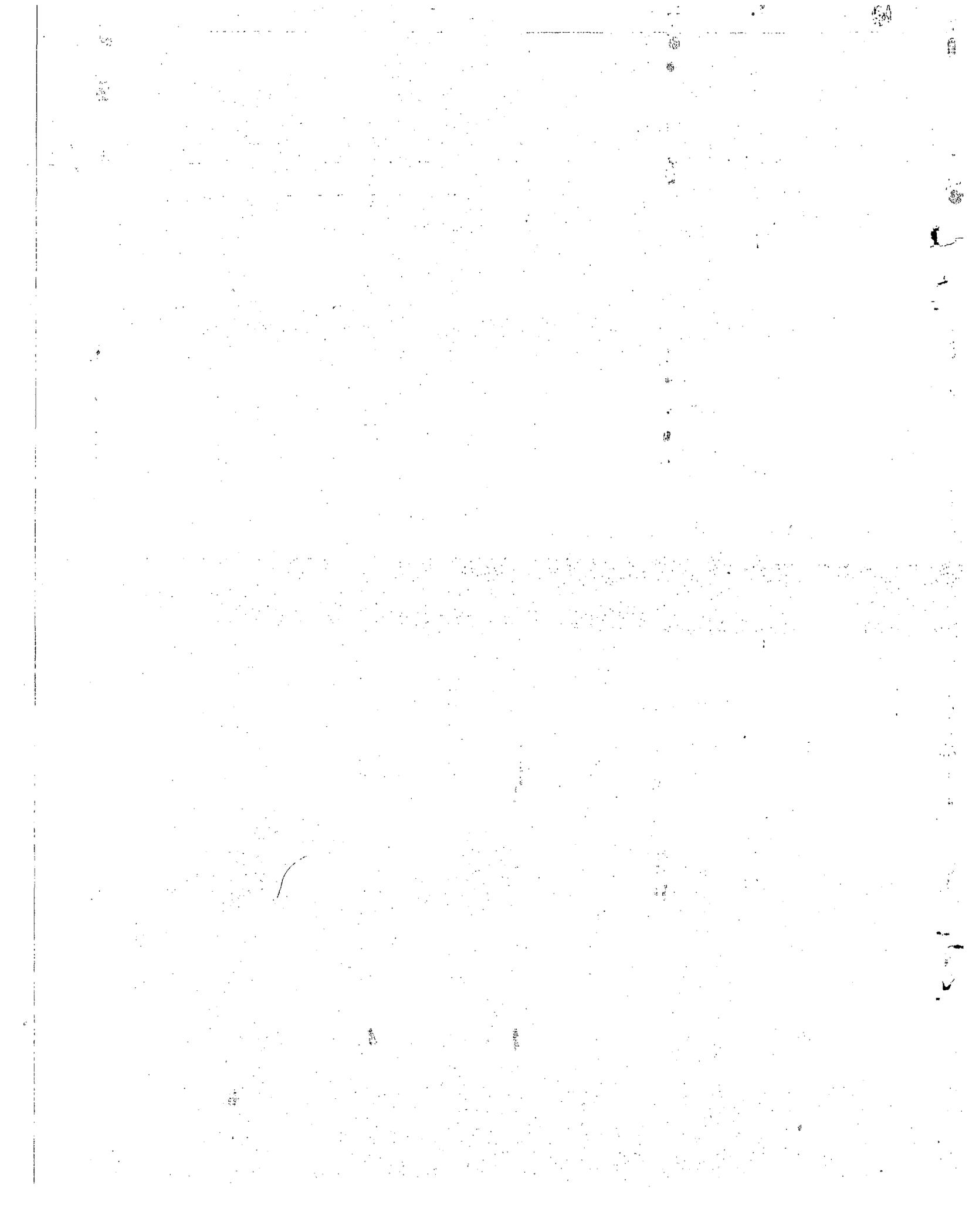Beverly DeGraaf
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PREFACE

In May of 1974, the Office of Child Development and Social and Rehabilitation Services of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare jointly funded eleven three-year child abuse and neglect service projects to develop and test alternative strategies for treating abusive and neglectful parents and their children and alternative models for coordination of community-wide child abuse and neglect systems. In order to document the content of the different service interventions tested and to determine their relative effectiveness and cost-effectiveness, the Division of Health Services Evaluation of the National Center for Health Services Research, Health Resources Administration of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare awarded a contract to Berkeley Planning Associates to conduct a three-year evaluation of the projects. This report is one of a series presenting the findings from that evaluation effort. This report is special in that it combines the evaluation findings with those of a doctoral dissertation effort at the University of California, Berkeley School of Public Health.

Given the number of different federal agencies and local projects involved in the evaluation, coordination and cooperation was critical. We wish to thank the many people who helped us: the federal personnel responsible for the demonstration projects, the project directors, the staff members of the projects, representatives from various agencies in the projects' communities. In particular we wish to thank our own project officers from the National Center for Health Services Research--Arne Anderson, Feather Hair Davis and Gerald Sparer--for their support and input, and we wish to acknowledge that they very much helped to ensure that this was a cooperative venture.

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SUMMARY

Introduction

In May of 1974, prior to the first expenditures of funds appropriated under the Child Abuse and Neglect Prevention and Treatment Act, P.L. 93-247, the Office of Child Development and Social and Rehabilitation Services of DHEW jointly funded eleven three-year demonstration child abuse and neglect service projects to develop and test alternative strategies of treating abusive and neglectful parents and their children, and alternative models for coordinating community-wide child abuse and neglect systems. The projects, located around the country and in Puerto Rico, differed in size, the types of agencies in which they were housed, the kinds of staff they employed and the variety of services they offered. In order to document the content of the different service interventions being tested and to determine their relative effectiveness and cost effectiveness, the Health Resources Administration awarded a contract to Berkeley Planning Associates to conduct a three-year evaluation of the demonstration effort.

Methodology

In order to determine how project management processes and organizational structures influence project performance and in particular worker burnout, visits were made to each of the projects to elicit information about management processes, job design and job satisfaction, through interviews and/or questionnaires with project management and staff (including those who had left the project). Data were collected from 162 workers. A combination of both quantitative and qualitative data analysis was then carried out to define organizational and management aspects of the projects, to establish the prevalence of worker burnout among staff and to determine the relationships between these factors.

Findings

After identifying worker characteristics, management descriptors and organizational structure descriptors at each of the projects, these sets of factors were studied independently in terms of their relationship with the degree to which workers were burnt out. The most salient worker, management, and organizational variables were then considered in combination to determine which had the stronger effects on burnout.

With structured, supportive program leadership standing out as the most influential management factor with respect to worker burnout, all of the following variables were found to have substantial or important effects: supportiveness; strength of program leadership; amount and clarity of communication; whether or not a worker had supervisory responsibility; degree of innovation allowed; age of worker; caseload size; the experience and sex of workers; and the degree to which rule observation was formalized.

It appears that burnout is not merely a function of a worker's own personal characteristics but also of the work environment. In order to avoid or diminish burnout among workers, and thus to enhance the longevity of worker and project performance, it would seem that a program needs to have quality leadership, clear communication, shared supervisory responsibility or supportive supervision, and smaller caseload sizes. A program should permit innovation as well as lack of adherence to certain formalized rules when it is in the best interest of clients. And, programs should work carefully with younger, less experienced workers to help them avoid burnout.

INTRODUCTION

History of the Demonstration Effort

During the fall of 1973, prior to the passage of the Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act, Public Law 93-247, the secretary's office of the federal Department of Health, Education and Welfare (DHEW) decided to allocate four million dollars to child abuse and neglect research and demonstration projects. A substantial portion of that allotment, approximately three million dollars, was to be spent jointly by the Office of Child Development's (OCD) Children's Bureau, and Social and Rehabilitation Services (SRS) on a set of demonstration treatment programs. On May 1, 1974, after review of over 100 applications, OCD and SRS jointly selected and funded eleven three-year projects.[1] The projects, spread throughout the country, differed by size, the types of agencies, in which they were housed, the kinds of staff they employed, and the variety of services they offered their clients and their local communities. However, as a group, the projects embraced the federal goals for this demonstration effort, which included:

(1) to develop and test alternative strategies for treating abusive and neglectful parents and their children;

(2) to develop and test alternative models for coordination of community-wide systems providing preventive, detection and treatment services to deal with child abuse and neglect;

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[1] The projects include: The Family Center: Adams County, Colorado; Pro-Child: Arlington, Virginia; The Child Protection Center: Baton Rouge, Louisiana; The Child Abuse and Neglect Demonstration Unit: Bayamon, Puerto Rico; The Arkansas Child Abuse and Neglect Program (SCAN): Little Rock, Arkansas; The Family Care Center: Los Angeles, California; The Child Development Center: Neah Bay, Washington; The Family Resource Center: St. Louis, Missouri; The Parent and Child Effective Relations Project (PACER): St. Petersburg, Florida; The Panel for Family Living: Tacoma, Washington; and the Union County Protective Services Demonstration Project: Union County, New Jersey.

(3) to document the content of the different service inter-
ventions tested and to determine their relative effec-
tiveness and cost-effectiveness.

In order to accomplish the third goal, as part of DHEW's strategy
to make this demonstration program an interagency effort, the Division
of Health Services Evaluation, National Center for Health Services
Research of the Health Resources Administration (HRA) awarded an evalua-
tion contract to Berkeley Planning Associates (BPA) in June 1974, to
monitor the demonstration projects over their three years of federal
funding, documenting what they did and how effective it was.

The Evaluation

The overall purpose of the evaluation was to provide guidance to
the federal government and local communities on how to develop community-
wide programs to deal with problems of child abuse and neglect in a
systematic and coordinated fashion. The study, which combined both for-
mative (or descriptive) and summative (or outcome/impact-related) evalua-
tion concerns, documented the content of the different service interventions
tested by the projects and determined the relative effectiveness and
cost-effectiveness of these strategies. Specific questions, addressed
with quantitative and qualitative data gathered through a variety of
collecting techniques, notably quarterly five-day site visits, special
topic site visits and information systems maintained by the projects
for the evaluators, include:

- What are the problems inherent in and the possibilities
  for establishing and operating child abuse and neglect
  programs?

- What were the goals of each of the projects and how suc-
  cessful were they in accomplishing them?

- What are the costs of different child abuse and neglect
  services and the costs of different mixes of services,
  particularly in relation to effectiveness?

- What are the elements and standards for quality case
  management and what are their relationships with client
  outcome?

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- How do project management processes and organizational structures influence project performance and, most importantly, worker burnout?

- What are the essential elements of a well-functioning child abuse and neglect system and what kinds of project activities are most effective in influencing the development of these essential elements?

- What kinds of problems do abused and neglected children possess and how amenable are such problems to resolution through treatment?

- And finally, what are the effectiveness and cost effectiveness of alternative service strategies for different types of abusers and neglectors?

During the summer of 1974, the projects began the lengthy process of hiring staff, finding space and generally implementing their planned programs. Concomitantly, BPA collected baseline data on each of the projects' community child abuse and neglect systems and completed design plans for the study. By January 1975, all but one of the projects was fully operational and all major data collection systems for the evaluation were in place. Through quarterly site visits to the projects and other data collection techniques, BPA monitored all of the projects' activities through April 1977, at which time the projects were in the process of shifting from demonstrations to ongoing service programs. Throughout this period, numerous documents describing project activities and preliminary findings were prepared by the evaluators. This report presents part of the final knowledge gained from the projects' joint experiences -- that pertaining to worker burnout and the management processes and organizational structures related to it.[1]

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[1] See Appendix A for a listing of other major evaluation reports and papers.

Project Profiles

As a group, the projects demonstrated a variety of strategies for community-wide responses to the problems of abuse and neglect. The projects each provided a wide variety of treatment services for abusive and neglectful parents; they each used mixes of professionals and para-professionals in the provision of these services; they each utilized different coordinative and educational strategies for working with their communities; and they were housed in different kinds of agencies and communities. While not an exhaustive set of alternatives, the rich variety among the projects has provided the field with an opportunity to systematically study the relative merits of different methods for attacking the child abuse and neglect problem.

Each project was also demonstrating one or two specific and unique strategies for working with abuse and neglect, as described below:

The Family Center: Adams County, Colorado

The Family Center, a protective services-based project housed in a separate dwelling, is noted for its demonstration of how to conduct intensive, thorough multidisciplinary intake and preliminary treatment of cases, which were then referred to the central child protective services staff for ongoing treatment. In addition, the Center created a treatment program for children, including a crisis nursery and play therapy.

Pro-Child: Arlington, Virginia

Pro-Child demonstrated methods for enhancing the capacity and effectiveness of a county protective services agency by expanding the number of social workers on the staff and adding certain ancillary workers such as a homemaker. A team of consultants, notably including a psychiatrist and a lawyer, were hired by the project to serve on a multidisciplinary diagnostic review team, as well as to provide consultation to individual workers.

The Child Protection Center: Baton Rouge, Louisiana

The Child Protection Center, a protective services-based agency, tested out a strategy for redefining protective services as a multidisciplinary concern by housing the project on hospital grounds and establishing closer formal linkages with the hospital including the half-time services of a pediatrician and immediate access of all Center cases to the medical facilities.

The Child Abuse and Neglect Demonstration Unit: Bayamon, Puerto Rico

In a region where graduate level workers are rarely employed by protective services, this project demonstrated the benefits of establishing an ongoing treatment program, under the auspices of protective services, staffed by highly trained social workers with the back-up of professional consultants to provide intensive services to the most difficult abuse and neglect cases.

The Arkansas Child Abuse and Neglect Program (SCAN): Little Rock, Arkansas

In Arkansas, the state social services agency contracted to SCAN, Inc., a private organization, to provide services to all identified abuse cases in select counties. SCAN, in turn, demonstrated methods by which a resource poor state, like Arkansas, could expand its protective service capability by using lay therapists, supervised by SCAN staff, to provide services to those abuse cases.

The Family Care Center: Los Angeles, California

The concept behind the Family Care Center, a hospital-based program, was a demonstration of a residential therapeutic program for abused and neglected children with intensive day-time services for their parents.

The Child Development Center: Neah Bay, Washington

This Center, housed within the Tribal Council on the Makah Indian Reservation, demonstrated a strategy for developing a community-wide culturally-based preventive program, working with all those on the reservation with parenting or family-related problems.

The Family Resource Center: St. Louis, Missouri

A free-standing agency with hospital affiliations, the Family Resource Center implemented a family-oriented treatment model which included therapeutic and support services to parents and children under the same roof. The services to children, in particular, were carefully tailored to match the specific needs of different aged children.

Parent and Child Effective Relations Project (PACER): St. Petersburg, Florida

Housed within the Pinellas County Juvenile Welfare Board, PACER sought to develop community services for abuse and neglect using a community organization model. PACER acted as a catalyst in the development of needed community services, such as parent education classes, which others could then adopt.

The Panel for Family Living: Tacoma, Washington

The Panel, a volunteer-based private organization, demonstrated
the ability of a broadly-based multidisciplinary, and largely volun-
teer, program, to become the central provider of those training, edu-
cation and coordinative activities needed in Pierce County.

The Union County Protective Services Demonstration Project:
Union County, New Jersey

This project demonstrated methods to expand the resources avail-
able to protective services clients by contracting for a wide variety
of purchased services from other public and, notably, private service
agencies in the county.

The Worker Burnout Analysis

An important aspect of the evaluation of the Joint OCD/SRS Demon-
stration Projects in Child Abuse and Neglect has been the assessment
of the extent to which worker burnout exists in these projects, how
burnout is related to worker and project performance, and what the
causes of burnout are. Burnout refers to the extent to which a worker
has become separated or withdrawn from the original meaning or purpose
of his work--the degree to which a worker expresses estangement from
clients, co-workers and the agency. To the extent that burnout does
interfere with performance, the identification of ways to combat this
problem -- alleged to be rampant in protective service agencies -- will
be a valuable contribution to program planners, program managers, and
program staff alike.

In Section I of this report, burnout is discussed. In Section II,
the approach to studying this problem in the demonstration programs
is presented. Section III describes the data base, and Section IV
discusses the findings with respect to what explains burnout. In
Section V, summary conclusions and recommendations are listed. In
Appendix B an indepth analysis of existing literature related to the
question of burnout is presented. And, in Appendix C, individual pro-
ject descriptions of the management structures and organizational pro-
cesses which might have been factors in burnout are presented.

SECTION I: WHAT IS BURNOUT?

Traveling across the country, Studs Terkel ascertained from his interviews that people are looking for meaning and fulfillment in their jobs. In his words:

> This book, being about work, is by its very nature about violence to the spirit as well as to the body. It is about ulcers as well as accidents, about shouting matches as well as fist fights, about nervous breakdowns as well as kicking the dog around. It is, above (or beneath) all, about daily humiliations. To survive the day is triumph enough for the walking wounded among the great many of us.

Terkel goes on to say:

> It is about a search too, for the daily meaning as well as daily bread, for recognition as well as cash, for astonishment rather than torpor; in short, for a sort of life rather than a Monday through Friday sort of dying. Perhaps immortality, too, is part of the quest. To be remembered was the wish, spoken and unspoken, of the heroes and heroines of this book.[1]

When this need for meaning and fulfillment in jobs is not met, anger, frustration and apathy follow. The problem portrayed in Terkel's book is not uniquely a blue collar crisis, but commonly exists in human service industries, among which are public and private service agencies, including child abuse and neglect programs. Child abuse workers, like secretaries and janitors, share the quest for meaningful employment. If, as Terkel suggests, when a person's needs are not met by his or her job, the dissatisfaction is expressed through anger, hostility, resentment and physical ill health, we have reason to be

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[1]Studs Terkel, Working. New York: Avon Books, 1972.

concerned, for in the child abuse and neglect field, indeed in the human service field in general, we are attempting to serve and assist people who can be hurt by such worker estrangement.

Evidence of the presence of this problem is the high turnover rate and absenteeism experienced by most social agencies.[1] The average social worker changes jobs every two years. Those who no longer find meaning in their current job, but either out of security needs or the limited job market do not leave, often experience a deadness and ill health; individual performance is hampered, and client services are sacrificed. This problem is of interest because of the possible impact estranged child abuse workers have on the quality of service delivery client well-being, and the worker's own mental health.

In order to cope, the worker becomes disassociated from the client. This type of reaction is devastating. The client does not receive what he needs and is also made to feel inadequate or inept because he creates problems for the worker. The experience is just as damaging for the worker. In the process of delivering services day in and day out to many clients with numerous problems, the worker somehow becomes disassociated from a prior commitment to extend himself and be helpful to other people. An original need or desire to be helpful to others has been altered and a gulf has developed between the client and the worker at great cost to both parties. The client does not receive good services; the worker becomes sick, leaves the job, or translates this sense of failure into cynicism, apathy and alienation. This problem, which has depersonalization of the client as its prime symptom, is evidenced by specific behavioral symptoms commonly referred to by social service workers as "burnout." The imagery is that of "my fire (enthusiasm) has died; my shining light (of helping others) has gone out."

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[1]R.A. Katzell, A. Korman, and E.L. Levine, Research Report #1-- overview study of the dynamics of worker job mobility (a national study of social welfare and rehabilitation workers, work, and organizational contexts). Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Social and Rehabilitation Services, (Report No. 1760-0104) Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. pp. 53-75.

Burnout thus is the extent to which workers have become separated or withdrawn from the original meaning and purpose of their work, the degree to which workers express estrangement from their clients, jobs, co-workers or agency. Symptoms of burnout include:[1]

- high resistance to going to work every day (dragging one's feet);

- somatic symptoms, the nagging cold, frequent bouts with a virus or flu;

- feeling tired and exhausted all day, frequent clock watching to see how late it is, usually accompanied by tiredness after work;

- postponing client contacts, resisting client phone calls and office visits;

- stereotyping clients ("here goes the same old story");

- an inability to concentrate or listen to what the client is saying;

- feeling intolerant of clients' anger, an inability to understand and interpret client anger;

- driving the long way to a client's home, driving around the block before entering the client's home;

- feeling immobilized ("there is nothing I can do to help these people");

- excessive anxiety about investigating a new client referral or making a home visit;

- walking through department stores frequently in the afternoon between home visits;

- problems sleeping at night, tossing and turning, feeling restless;

- cynicism regarding clients, an emerging blaming attitude ("these clients create their own problems");

- increasingly relying on rules to deal with client demands.

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[1] This list is derived from personal interviews with workers at the demonstration projects.

All of us experience these symptoms in varying degrees at various times; the burned out worker feels a constellation of these symptoms a lot, and finds it more and more difficult to cope with case management responsibilities.

It is our hypothesis that burnout does not have to happen. It is the assumption of our study that burnout is the result of obstacles or roadblocks that the worker finds consistently intefering with his/her effectiveness. Burnout is the worker's defense against barriers to providing good, helpful services to clients. It is in studying the operation of child abuse and neglect programs that we hope to begin to understand what happens to change a worker's commitment from improving a client's condition to relieving his own suffering by a rote compliance with organizational rules and regulations.

We look at three major aspects of program operations to learn about the causes of burnout: personnel characteristics, organizational structure, and management processes. Briefly defined, personnel characteristics deal with the important differences that exist among workers, e.g., work motivation, attitudes, education, age, personal interests, and skills. These differences suggest that some individuals may be more susceptible than others to burnout. Organizational structure is the gramework for operating within an agency and is the blueprint describing how personnel are arranged in relation to each other and to the tasks. The most common organizational characteristics are size, span of control, complexity, formalization and centralization. Management processes are those integrative functions that blend the human characteristics and the organizational structure into an effective and efficient working agency. Among the functions that create a positive work climate are leadership, communication, job design, supervision, and other work environment conditions.

While the client is a major factor in burnout, we assume that burnout occurs with all types of clients and is not necessarily a factor of the clients' characteristics. We suspect that within the three aspects of program operations described, clues about appropriate solutions to problems of burnout in child abuse and neglect programs exist. Thus,

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the results of this study should help policy makers and program managers alike in planning more effective child abuse and neglect programs.

SECTION II: METHODOLOGY

In order to determine the extent and causes of worker burnout in the demonstration projects and to understand the relationship between worker performance and project performance, data were collected from each project on relevant management, organizational and worker-related variables and systematically analyzed. First, however, we conducted a thorough search of the relevant literature to identify the specific hypotheses to be tested and to select those existing, standardized measures which would be of use in our study. A thorough review of this literature, and its shortcomings, appears in Appendix B. In this section we present our principle questions, discuss the data collection process, the data items themselves, and data checking and analysis techniques. Finally, we describe the data set.

A. Principle Questions

The primary concern in studying burnout in child abuse and neglect projects is to identify the causes of burnout and areas for solution. In order to accomplish this, the following were asked:

(1) How prevalent is burnout in the demonstration projects?

(2) Is burnout the same as lack of job satisfaction?

(3) To what extent is burnout associated with worker characteristics?

(4) To what extent is burnout associated with organizational factors?

(5) To what extent is burnout associated with management processes?

(6) What combinations of worker, organizational and management factors best account for worker burnout?

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The hypothesis that guides the exploration of the relationships among burnout, personnel, management and organizational factors is: that burnout is directly associated with personnel characteristics and management processes and indirectly related to organizational factors. If the hypothesis is correct, it would infer that child abuse and neglect program administrators and planners should concentrate on improving management practices and work climate before planning to reorganize the agency's structural characteristics. Or, that reorganization efforts must be examined for their possible effects on work climate and management.

B. Data Collection

Data were collected by BPA staff during special three-day visits to all projects in the late summer of 1976 using questionnaires, interviews and record reviews. Questionnaires pertaining to an individual's job-related attitudes and experience were given to all staff members (including those who had left the project) to complete; many workers were additionally interviewed. Interviews were also conducted with the project director and a representative from the host agency to obtain descriptions of the project operation and functioning. And, project records were reviewed for information on absenteeism, turnover and other statistical data.

Each visit began with a staff meeting in which the study format was introduced and the purpose of the research presented. At this time the participants' questions and concerns were addressed. During the staff meeting or shortly thereafter, all participants presently employed in the project completed the five-page questionnaire[1] which included questions for demographics, burnout, job satisfaction, work environment, and views on program management. Individuals who had terminated with the agency were contacted and a questionnaire, with a

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[1]See Appendix D for this and all other data collection instruments mentioned.

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self-addressed envelope, was mailed to each.[1] The questionnaire in-
cluded an addendum which asked them about their decision to terminate
employment. In addition to the questionnaire, 113 workers, both ter-
minated and non-terminated, whose schedules permitted, were interviewed.
The interviews ranged from 30 to 60 minutes in length and took place in
a secure room, where the employee could talk without inhibition. All
interviewees were assured that the conversation would be held in strictest
confidence. While standard questions were asked of each worker,
the interview format was intended to be informal and designed to explore
personal feelings and reflections with the participant about his/her
job and the project management. Workers who reported that they were
burned out were asked to share a description of the burnout symptoms
they had experienced. Workers who had burned out and did not termi-
nate their employment were also asked to discuss what they believed
had contributed to their burnout conditions. Workers who had quit their
jobs were asked to discuss the reasons leading to termination. The
workers who had not burned out were asked to offer their assessment
of why they had not burned out. All workers were asked to describe their
self-nurturing habits.

In addition to the questionnaires completed by all staff and the
open-ended interviews held with many of the workers, a special interview
was conducted with the project director.[2] This interview elicited
information about the project director, project operations, internal
communication and coordination patterns, leadership, job designs,

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[1]Of the 167 questionnaires administered or mailed to terminated
and non-terminated employees, 162 were completed and returned, a re-
sponse rate of 97%. There were nine terminated staff who did not re-
ceive a questionnaire because forwarding addresses were not available.
Approximately four of the nine workers had been requested to leave
their jobs in the projects because of unsatisfactory work performance
and were known to be hostile to project management.

[2]In one project, the interview was given to the assistant direc-
tor due to the director's illness.

organizational disruptions, the project's relationship with the host agency, and the management problems and strengths.

An interview was also conducted with a representative from the host agency who had had the most contact with the project and who was most informed about the project's historical development. During these interviews, information was collected about the project's history, interagency policies and procedures, interagency communication and relationships, problems, and budgetary information.

Data collected previously from project directors by BPA staff on the project's structural characteristics, size, span of control, formalization and centralization complete the data set.

C. Data Items

The data collected include information about worker characteristics, management processes, organizational variables, and job-related attitudes. Table 1 presents a listing of all these independent, control, mediating and dependent variables, as well as the definitions of each.

TABLE 1

Listing of All Variables[1]

I. Independent Variables: The items used as independent variables in the analysis consist of descriptors of management processes or the work environment. These are those integrative functions that blend human characteristics and organizational structure into an effective and efficient working agency.

● Leadership. The extent to which the project director provides structure and support, the degree to which the director provides direction and emotional support, enhancing the feelings of personal worth and importance of the staff.

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[1]All asterisked items are subscales of the Work Environment Scale, developed by Rudolph H. Moos and Paul M. Insel, Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc., Palo Alto, California, 1974.

Table 1 (continued)

- Communication. The extent to which information provided to workers is timely, adequate, and appropriate.

- Task orientation.* Assesses the extent to which the climate emphasizes good planning, efficiency and encourages workers "to get the job done."

- Clarity.* Measures the extent to which workers know what to expect in their daily routines and how explicitly rules and policies are communicated.

- Autonomy.* Assesses the extent to which workers are encouraged to be self-sufficient and to make their own decisions. Includes items related to personal development and growth.

- Innovation.* Measures the extent to which variety, change and new approaches are emphasized in the work environment.

- Staff support.* Measures the extent to which supervisors are supportive of workers and encourage workers to be supportive of each other.

- Pressure.* Measures the extent to which the press of work dominates the work milieu.

- Involvement.* Measures the extent to which workers are concerned and committed to their jobs. Includes items designed to reflect enthusiasm and constructive activity.

- Peer cohesion.* Measures the extent to which workers are friendly and supportive of each other.

- Control.* Measures the extent to which management uses rules and pressure to keep workers under control.

II. Control Variables: As control variables in the analysis, personnel characteristics are used. Workers have important differences in work motivation, attitudes, education, age, interests, skills, work experience and work roles. These differences suggest that some individuals may be more susceptible than others to burnout; therefore these relationships need to be controlled in assessing relationships between independent and dependent variables. They include:

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Table 1 (continued)

- Age

- 'Sex

- Job title

- Job status. The amount of time worked in the agency, i.e., full or part time.

- Supervision responsibility. Measures the extent to which workers have supervision responsibilities over other workers, students or volunteers.

- Years of education. Includes the number of years completed in high school, undergraduate and graduate education.

- Field of study. Includes the major areas of study in both undergraduate and graduate education.

- Highest degree received

- Work experience. (1) years employed in social service is any job experience prior to this job with a social agency; (2) months employed in the project is the number of months the worker has been employed in the project; (3) experience with abuse or neglect is the number of years experience with child abuse prior to and including the experience with the project.

- Salary. The average monthly salary, including fringe benefits, for each worker.

III. Mediating Variables: As mediating variables in the analysis we use descriptors of organizational structure. Structure is the framework for operating within an agency, and is the blueprint describing how personnel are arranged in relation to each other and to the task. Structural variables used to categorize the eleven projects were size, complexity, span of control, formalization, centralization and turnover rate.

- Size. (1) Total number of staff employed in the agency, including all volunteers, students, and consultants who work with the project on a consistent basis, full or part time;

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Table 1 (continued)

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(2) client load -- the average monthly project caseload, the average number of clients seen by the project each month.

- **Complexity.** The degree of structural differentiations within a social system, i.e., the number of different professional disciplines involved in the project on a regular basis.

- **Lateral span of control.** The average number of personnel directly responsible to each first-line supervisor in the project.

- **Formalization.** The extent to which rules, procedures, instructions and communications are explicit. (1) Recruitment -- the project has written and implemented procedures for recruiting and employing personnel; (2) job codification -- the degree of personal flexibility and latitude permitted in one's job; (3) rule observation -- the degree to which workers feel monitored and constrained to obey the organization's rules; (4) specificity of job description -- the degree to which job expectations are specified and explicit.

- **Centralization.** The extent to which authority to make decisions concerning control of resources, program policies and procedures, and control of work is concentrated or distributed in the agency as determined by the level at which decisions are authorized. (1) Centralization, program -- the extent to which program procedures, policies and distribution of resources are controlled by director, board or host; (2) centralization, job -- the extent to which decisions about an individual's job or case management responsibilities (daily work schedules, interview appointments, delivery of services) are dictated by a supervisor, coordinator or director.

- **Turnover rate.** The number of terminated workers divided by the average number of employees employed in the project.

IV. **Dependent Variables:** For analysis purposes, our dependent variables are indicators of attitudes toward jobs, and more specifically job discontent, as described below.

- **Burnout.** The extent to which a worker has become separated or has withdrawn from the original meaning and purpose of his work, i.e., the extent to which workers express attitudes of

Table 1 (continued)

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estrangement from their clients, jobs, co-workers or project.

⊙ Job satisfaction.** The positive affective orientation towards facets of work situations, job, salary, promotion opportunities, supervision, co-workers, i.e., the relative gratification or happiness of the work situation.

⊙ Absenteeism. The average number of days absent per month.

⊙ Termination. Terminated workers are all staff personnel who have left the agency. Non-terminated personnel are workers presently employed in the agency, including workers on leave of absence and those who have reduced their work time from full-time to part-time employment.

**Job Description Index (JDI) was used. This scale was developed by Patricia Smith, Lorne M. Kendall, and Charles L. Hulin. The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement. Chicago, Rand McNally and Company, 1969.

D. Data Checking and Measurement Development

Prior to analysis of the data, strict attention was given to methodological issues that could compromise the applicability and utility of the results. Primary attention was given to concerns of the reliability and validity of the items.[1]

To test the reliability or internal consistency of the burnout scale, the Cronbach alpha test was completed on each of the five subscales and then on the total scale. After one highly unreliable item, "I have become disenchanted with our profession's willingness to help clients," was deleted, the Cronbach alpha was .63. The Cronbach alpha

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[1]Objective data items, such as caseload size, span of control, or worker age were also collected through other parts of the overall evaluation and were easily verified.

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for the remaining subscales were: for project, .67; for co-worker, .81; for job, .71; and for opportunities, .72. The Cronback alpha for the total burnout scale was .88. In all analyses the summed burnout scale was used as an individual's burnout score, a high burnout score meant no burnout and a low burnout score meant high burnout.

The burnout scale was examined for its convergent and discriminant validity. The scale was compared with already well established reliable and valid measures of job discontent and examined for consistency with interview findings. As we expected, burnout was highly correlated with these well established reliable and valid measures of job satisfaction, absenteeism, and termination. The burnout scale and job satisfaction inventory were correlated at .59, P<.001. Burnout was also negatively correlated with termination, -.36, P<.001. A mean absenteeism rate was calculated for each project. In the event that data was not available for a particular worker, the project mean was assigned. Using this method, burnout was negatively related to absenteeism (-.23, P <.001).

In addition, testing for convergent validity, the burnout scale appears to have some face validity in that it differentiates between burned out and non-burned out individuals. Thus, individuals who reported being burned out in individual interviews with the researcher tended to have lower scores on the burnout scale.

In conjunction with Moos' scale, leadership, communication and turmoil and change subscales were developed. When one item, "leaders apply pressure on staff members to complete all their work on time," was deleted, the leadership scale had intercorrelation of $r \leq .4$ and above. One communication item, "my best source of information regarding what is going on in the project is informal conversation," was deleted from the communication subscale. The remaining inter-item correlation was .4 or above. The turmoil and change subscale was deleted from the analysis because of a low inter-item correlation of .10.

Two measures of job satisfaction with demonstrated reliability and validity, the Job Description Inventory (JDI, Smith, Kendall and Hulin, 1969) and G.M. Faces (Kunin, 1955), were used. In the analysis,

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the JDI scale was summed to equal an individual's job satisfaction
score. The Faces were treated as a separate and second score of satis-
faction, but because of the consistent and redundant correlations be-
tween the two measures, the results using the Faces with all other
variables are not reported in the findings.

E. Data Analysis

After obtaining a description of the data through a univariate
analysis, bivariate analyses using Pearson correlations and contingency
analyses were used to explore the relationship of burnout to personnel,
organizational structure and management, as well as the relationship
between management and structure. Partial correlations and tri-level
contingency analyses were used to explore the relationship between
burnout and management, controlling for organizational structure and
demographic variables. Regression analysis was used to determine which
among the significant relationships established in the prior analysis
explained the most variance in burnout, thereby intending to substan-
tiate a hierarchy of relationships with burnout among the variables.
Finally, discriminant analysis was completed to determine the best
predictors of burnout.

SECTION III: THE DATA BASE

In this section the data set is presented, including a brief account of the personnel characteristics, a description of the organizational settings, a summary of the management characteristics, and an overview of the indicators of job discontent.[1]

A. Worker Characteristics

Table 2 presents the demographic information on workers from the eleven projects included in the data set. The 162 workers included were those who had worked or were presently working in the eleven demonstration child abuse projects. There were 135 females and 27 males in the sample. Eighty-five of the participants were under 30 years of age; 31 of these were under 25 years. While many of the respondents had Masters degrees in social work or related fields, 46 had BA degrees, and a significant number (34) had no degrees. Most had had less than three years of experience in social agencies, although 21% had worked in social service programs for over seven years. Most respondents were service providers, clerical staff making up only 12% of the sample. Most respondents worked fulltime.

Over 14% of the participants had worked in these demonstration projects over two years; 32% had worked in them less than one year. Nearly 70% of the workers had had less than two years experience working with abuse and neglect clients. About half of the sample made under $1000 per month, and 36% made between $1000-$1416 per month.

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[1] In Appendix C, short case studies of these data for each of the eleven projects and an overview comparison of the eleven demonstration projects are presented.

TABLE 2

A Summary of the Personnel Characteristics

of Workers in Eleven Child Abuse Projects

(N=162)

	Percent	Number		Percent	Number
Sex			**Years Experience in Abuse/Neglect***		
Female.	83%	135			
Male.	17	27	0-2	68%	58
			3-5	20	17
Age			5-8	7	6
Under 25.	19	31	More than eight .	5	4
26-30	34	54			
31-40	32	52	**Job Title**		
Over 40	15	25	Director.	10	16
			Management. . . .	14	23
Degree			Professional service provider. .	35	56
None.	21	34	Paraprofessional service provider	20	32
AA.	5	8	Clerical.	12	19
BA/BS	28	46	Other	9	16
MA/MS/MSW	43	70			
Other	3	4	**Amount of Time Worked**		
			Full-time	92	148
Years Experience in Social Service			Part-time	8	13
Less than three . .	55	84	**Monthly Salary**		
4-6	24	37	Less than $583. .	18	28
7-9	10	16	$584-$999	38	61
10 or more.	11	16	$1000-$1416 . . .	36	58
			More than $1416 .	8	13
Months Employed in the Project					
Less than 12. . . .	32	51			
13-24	54	86			
25 or more.	14	25			

*Adjusted frequencies used because there were 23 non-responses.

B. Organizational Setting

The organizational environment of the elevent projects is described in terms of key structural characteristics--size, complexity, span of control, formalization, and centralization. Project turnover rates are also presented as an indirect measure of project stability and turmoil.

The demonstration projects are all small, relative to other social agencies, but the programs differ in size, complexity span of control, formalization and centralization. Table 3 briefly describes the projects' status with respect to each other on the structural characteristics important to the study. Size can be measured in a number of different ways, including monthly budget, total number of staff, number of full-time staff, or average monthly client load. Depending upon which measure is used, the projects' sizes are rated differently. For example, one project (Tacoma) has a full-time staff of eight workers, but a total staff size of 110 including volunteers, students and part-time lay therapists. Another project (Arlington) has a modest sta-f size but serves a large client load (179). The Arkansas project is an example of a large total number of staff (134) serving relatively few clients (37). Therefore, projects high on one size dimension are not necessarily high on other characteristics.

There are five large projects when looking at the total number of staff, but there are nine projects that are below the mean on average monthly caseload size. Several of the projects primarily provide education and training and therefore serve small numbers of clients, but only four projects serve over 50 clients at any time. Six of the projects are highly complex, with over five different professional disciplines actively involved in project activities. The average span of control for the eleven projects is nine workers supervised by one supervisor. Six of the eleven projects have a wider span of control than the mean.

Table 3

A Description of the Eleven Child Abuse Projects by Organizational Structural Variables

Project	Size		Com-plexity	Span of Control	Formalization			Speci-ficity of job descrip-tion	Centralization		Turn-over
	Number of Total Staff	Average monthly client load			Recruit-ment	Job codifi-cation	Rule obser-vation		Program	Job	
Adams County	med	small	low	med	high	high	high	high	med	med	low
Arlington	med	large	med	med	high	low	low	high	med	med	med
Baton Rouge	low	med	low	low	high	low	low	high	high	low	med
Bayamon	low	med	low	med	low	high	low	high	low	high	low
Arkansas	high	med	med	high	high	low	low	high	low	med	high
Los Angeles	med	small	low	low	low	high	high	high	med	low	high
Neah Bay	low	small	low	low	high	high	low	high	high	high	low
St. Louis	med	small	med	high	high	high	low	high	med	high	med
St. Petersburg	med	small	med	high	low	low	high	low	high	high	low
Tacoma	high	small	high	med	high	low	low	low	med	low	high
Union County	med	large	med	low	high	high	high	high	med	high	med
Mean of the Data	46.4	104.5	5.75	8.63	--	2.54	1.58	2.93	4.21	2.33	0.65
Range of the Data	5-134	9-294	2-9	3.21	yes/no	1-4*	1-4	1-4	1-6**	1-6**	0-1.33

* Low formalization = 1; high formalization = 4

** Low centralization = 1; high centralization = 6

As mentioned previously, project formalization is measured in a variety of ways: recruitment, job codification, rule observation, and specificity of job description. The projects in this study tend not to be highly formalized, but differ in the degree of formalization depending upon the dimension of formalization measured. Most projects are moderately formalized in specificity of job description, but informal in rule observation. Therefore, while there may be formalized job descriptions, most projects are less formalized in rule observation.

Table 4 summarizes the projects that rank high or low, relative to the overall mean for all eleven projects, on organizational measures. Eight projects had highly formalized recruitment policies; sixe were above the mean in formalized job codification and.in specificity of job descriptions. However, only four projects were above the mean in formalized procedures for monitoring rule observation.

Centralization consists of two major decision-making areas--program issues and daily job concerns. Program issues include project policies, goals, and procedures. Daily job concerns include case management decisions and individual scheduling of work activities. Projects tend to be highly centralized in organizational decisions regarding policies and goals. Many of these decisions are made by the host agency, external to the project, although often in concert with the project director. Usually staff perceive that they have little influence in program decisions; however, regarding decisions made about the job and daily contact with clients, workers tend to be very much involved, although supervisors still have a great deal of influence, if they choose to exert it.

Table 4 also presents the elevent projects' rankings on centralization. Five projects were highly centralized in program level decision-making, and five projects centralized in daily work decisions. Three of the five organizations were highly centralized in both program and job decision-making.

Project turnover was relatively high in most of the projects. The average project turnover rate was 65% over the 2-1/2 years of project operation. The range was 11% to 133%. Four projects had high turnover rages, but of the seven projects with low turnover rates, three had rates above 40%.

TABLE 4

A Summary of the Ranking of Eleven Child Abuse Projects by

Organizational Characteristics

(N=11)

Characteristics	Number of Projects	
	High	Low
A. Size		
Number of full-time staff	4	7
Total number of staff	5	6
Average monthly client load	2	9
B. Complexity (number of professionals involved in projects)	6	5
C. Span of Control (number of workers supervised by a supervisor)	6	5
D. Formalization		
Recruitment	8	3
Job codification	6	5
Rule observation	4	7
Specificity of job description	6	5
E. Centralization		
Organizational level decision	5	6
Daily job decisions	5	6
F. Turnover Rate	4	7

C. Management Characteristics

Table 5 presents dimensions of management processes and a general overview of how the respondents rated their projects on these dimensions. A majority of respondents tended to rate management processes positively, including leadership, communication, task orientation, autonomy, innovation, staff support, job involvement, and peer cohesion. Exceptions were noted in the measures of pressure, control and clarity. Most people reported that they did not experience high pressure on the job and did not believe that their management used rules and regulations as unnecessary controls over staff behavior. In contrast to these positive evaluations, a majority of the sample reported that they are not informed or are mostly uninformed as to what to expect in their daily routines; that rules and regulations are not always explicitly communicated. Surprisingly, in these eleven demonstrations, which are programs mandated to develop new therapeutic services for child abuse families, only 50% of the respondents felt that they were free to try innovative and creative approaches in their projects.

Some of the more interesting findings are those that indicate ambivalence about project management. For example, while 60% rated communication timely and relevant in their projects, nearly 40% reported that communication was only average or below average in timeliness or relevancy. Over one-half of the respondents felt that their work environment emphasized good planning and efficiency, but nearly 45% felt that planning and program efficiency in their projects was only average (17%) or inadequate (27%). Approximately 30% of the respondents felt that project leadership did not provide more than adequate structure and support (14% average, 18% inadequate). The non-response rate for leadership, task orientation, clarity, control and innovation was nearly 10%. Based on the interviews and observations completed during the project site visits and management assessment, these areas are chief problem areas in project management.

TABLE 5

A Summary of Workers' Rankings of the Management Characteristics in Their Work Environment*

Characteristics	Poor	Moderate	Good
Involvement: the extent to which workers are concerned and committed to their jobs	6	23	71
Peer Cohesion: the extent to which workers are friendly and supportive of each other	13	13	74
Staff Support: the extent to which management is supportive of workers and encourages workers to be supportive of each other	13	11	76
Autonomy: the extent to which workers are encouraged to make their own decisions	10	10	80
Task Orientation: the extent to which the climate emphasizes good planning, efficiency, and encourages workers to get the "job done"	27	17	56
Work Pressure: the extent to which the press of work dominates the job milieu	49	26	25
Clarity: the extent to which workers know what to expect in their daily routines and how explicitly rules and policies are communicated	35	24	41
Control: the extent to which management uses rules and regulations to control workers' behavior	48	27	25
Innovation: the extent to which variety, change and new approaches are emphasized in the work environment	24	23	53
Leadership: the extent to which leaders are able to provide structure and support to workers	18	14	68
Communication: the extent to which information is timely, appropriate and adequate	9	31	60

*Adjusted frequencies used (N = 152-162).

D. Indicators of Job Discontent

Indicators of job discontent in the projects are burnout, job dissatisfaction, turnover and absenteeism. Table 6 reports the distribution of the sample on these four indicators. Of the 125 respondents who completed the burnout questionnaire, 40 felt they were burned out, 42 moderately burned out, and 43 not burned out. Of the 158 respondents to the job satisfaction inventory, 52 reported being not satisfied, 51 moderately dissatisfied, and 55 satisfied with their jobs.

Twenty-three percent of the sample participants had terminated employment with the project before this management assessment.[1] While some of the projects did not maintain adequate records of workers' absenteeism, 33% (N=123) of the workers for whom data were available had been absent less than one day per month and only 6% had been absent more than one day per month.

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[1]As indicated earlier, additional project staff had terminated employment in these eleven demonstration programs but were not included in the study because they did not respond to the questionnaire or could not be located for the study. Since the management assessment, many of the workers included in the study have terminated project employment.

TABLE 6

A Summary of Workers' Responses on Indicators of Job Discontent*

Indicators	Number
Burnout (N=125)	
Not burned out	43
Moderately burned out	42
Burned out	40
Satisfaction (N=158)	
Satisfied	55
Moderately satisfied	51
Not satisfied	52
Termination (N=162)	37
Absenteeism (N=123)	
Less than one day per month	41
One day per month	75
More than one day per month	7

*Adjusted frequencies were used; over 23 were blank.

SECTION IV: THE FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH BURNOUT

Figure A depicts the three major areas of program operation assessed. As is suggested by the diagram, there is thought to be a hierarchy of associations among worker, management and organizational characteristics. In this analysis, the data are explored to determine the hierarchy of relationships among the three sets of data information and the factors within each of the major sets of variables which are directly associated with burnout.

Figure A: A General Scheme of the Areas of Program
Operation Under Investigation

```
+-----------------------------------------------------------------------+
|                                                                       |
|  +-------------------+     +------------------+     +----------------+ |
|  | Organizational    |     | Management       |     | Worker         | |
|  | Structure         |     |                  |     | Characteristics| |
|  | ----------------- | <-> | • leadership     | <-> | -------------- | |
|  | ● size            |     | ● communication  |     | ● age          | |
|  | ● complexity      |     | ● work environ-  |     | ● sex          | |
|  | ● span of control |     |   ment           |     | ● degree       | |
|  | ● formalization   |     +------------------+     | ● work exper-  | |
|  | ● centralization  |            |                 |   ience        | |
|  +-------------------+            |                 | ● job title    | |
|          \                       v                 +----------------+ |
|           \             +------------------+          /               |
|            \            | Burnout          | <--------                |
|             ------->    |                  |                          |
|                         | ● turnover       |                          |
|                         | ● absenteeism    |                          |
|                         | ● job satis-     |                          |
|                         |   faction        |                          |
|                         +------------------+                          |
|                                                                       |
|  – – –→ = indirect relationships                                      |
|  ———→ = direct relationships                                          |
|  ←——→ = interacting relationships                                     |
+-----------------------------------------------------------------------+
```
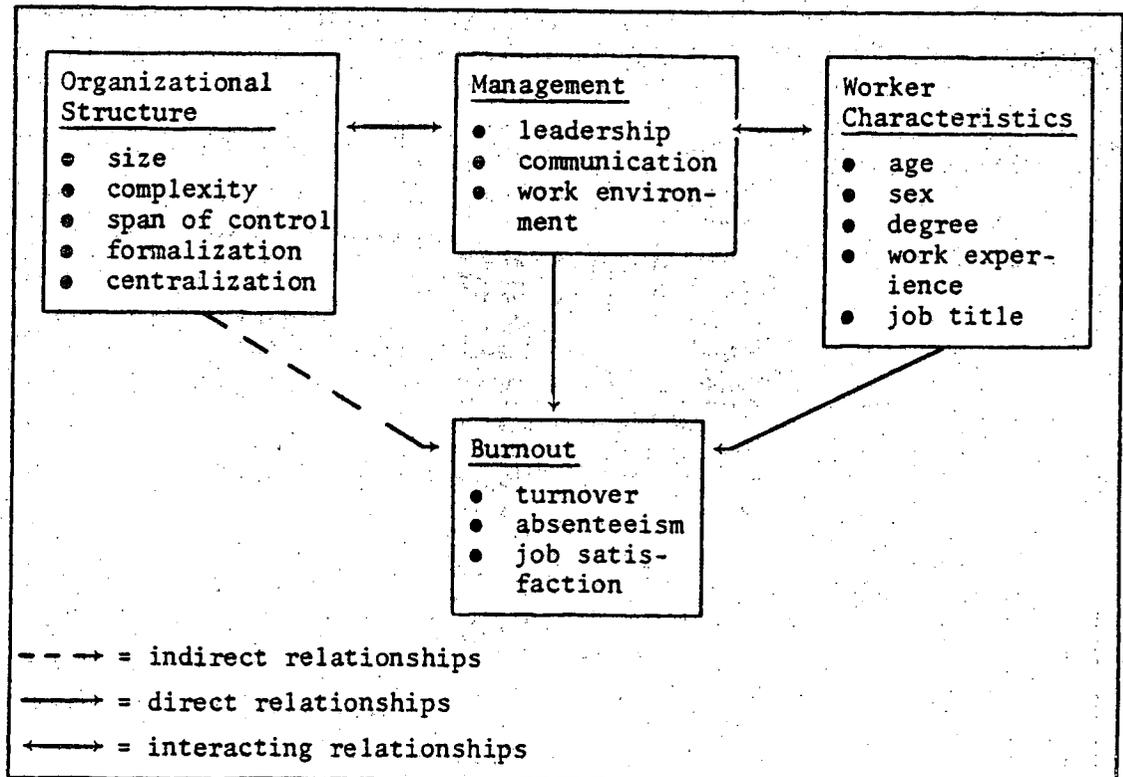
A. Worker Characteristics and Burnout[1]

The relationships between worker characteristics and burnout are displayed on Table 7. As can be seen, there are a number of significant, but not high, relationships. Burnout is more likely to occur among younger, inexperienced workers, male employees, full-time workers, and among employees who are supervised by others.

Burnout tends to decrease with age. Almost 50% of those under the age of 30 are highly burned out. Nearly 50% of those employed between one and two years tend to be burned out. The data indicate that men are more likely to burn out, but, because of the small number of men in the sample, this finding must be interpreted with reservation.

Individual job status within the organization suggests something about the tendency to burn out. Burnout is more likely to occur among those who are supervised by others. Nearly 50% of the supervised workers, compared to 30% of the supervisors, were burned out. Not surprisingly, 75% of the clerical staff, as compared to 13% of the project directors, were burned out. Interestingly, nearly 50% of the management and professional service providers were burned out, compared to only 25% of the paraprofessionals.

Although no significant differences existed among workers of various educational backgrounds, workers with no degree or with a BA degree were slightly more likely to burn out than workers with Masters degrees.

These findings suggest that specific groups of people in an agency are high risks for burnout and may merit special attention to avoid burnout.

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[1] Correlations between these variables appear in Appendix E.

(a) Age

Burnout	<24	25-30	31-40	41+
Burned out	44%	49%	39%	33%
Moderately burned out	35	27	29	29
Not burned out	22	24	33	38

N=162

Not significant P .74

(b) Sex

Burnout	Male	Female
Burned out	59%	39%
Moderately burned out	22	30
Not burned out	19	30

N=162

Not significant P .15

(c) Months Employed in the Agency

Burnout	<12	13-24	25+
Burned out	39%	50%	23%
Moderately burned out	30	33	14

N=162

Significant P <.01

(d) Supervisory Role

Burnout	Yes	No
Burned out	30%	49%
Moderately burned out	28	30
Not burned out	42	21

N=161

Significant P <.05

(e) Job Title

Burnout	Director	Management	Professional Service Provider	Para-professional service provider	Clerical	Other
Burned out	13%	48%	46%	25%	74%	50%
Moderately burned out	31	17	34	44	11	19
Not burned out	56	35	20	31	16	31

N=162

Significant P <.01

(f) Years Experience in Social Services

Burnout	<3	4-6	7-9	10+
Burned out	41%	54%	38%	31%
Moderately burned out	25	32	25	50
Not burned out	34	14	38	19

N=162

Not significant P .12

*Columns may not round to 100% due to rounding.

(g) Degree

Burnout	None	AA	BA/BS	MA/MS/MSW	Other
Burned out	53%	38%	48%	37%	0%
Moderately burned out	21	50	30	30	25
Not burned out	27	13	22	32	75

N=162

Not significant P .23

B. Organizational Properties and Burnout

The most significant and interesting relationships exist between burnout and average monthly client load, formalized rule observation, and project turnover rate, as shown in Table 8.[1] Projects with large monthly caseloads and more formalized monitoring of rule observation tend to have more burned out workers and higher turnover rates. Contrary to our assumptions, there is an inverse relationship between project turnover and burnout. Projects with high turnover have the lowest burnout rate.

The findings regarding caseload size and burnout suggest that large caseloads cause a great deal of stress for workers. When there are too many clients to supervise, workers are unable to see all of their clients regularly or to provide all of the services needed; they feel behind, overworked, and unable to do a good job. Further, workers feeling overwhelmed by caseload duties have little time to do a variety of other activities that could revitalize them.

Other conditions associated with burnout -- formalized rule observation and centralized decision making -- confirm previous research.[2] Professionals want to have clarified job responsibilities, but resent excessive supervision of rule compliant behavior. Bureaucratic control systems challenge professional values of self-monitoring and job autonomy, and also convey a lack of trust. Further, many professionals resent centralized decision making that excludes their input and imposes arbitrary decisions that are not related to "real work conditions."

Although the relationship is not very strong, projects with high turnover do not have many burned out staff. However, many terminated workers report being burned out. These findings are difficult to interpret, but they suggest that while an individual's motive for terminating employment may be burnout, a project's overall turnover rate may be a

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[1] Correlations between all organizational variables and burnout appear in Appendix E.

[2] Hage and Aiken, 1968.

function of other dynamics, e.g., promotional opportunities, job mar-
ket, or personal career interests. Many turned-over workers reported
that they left their jobs because of a more challenging job offer and
promotional opportunities in other agency settings. Project turnover
rate is very highly correlated with staff size, organizational complex-
ity, and span of control, but negatively associated with client load
size, formalizationa and centralization. These findings are counter-
intuitive and difficult to interpret. The conditions highly associated
with turnover are factors that contribute to job autonomy, allowing
individuals to grow and develop new skills. Perhaps, as workers develop
new skills and gain experience, they hunt for new job opportunities
that build upon the expertise gained through employment in the projects.
But of some concern is the fact that conditions associated with burnout
--caseload size, formalization and centralization--do not lead to
turnover. This implies that there is a syndrome; burned out workers
do not always attempt or cannot escape the environmental situations
associated with their condition.

As is apparent, then, there are some signficiant relationships
between burnout and organizational properties, but like the
relationships between personnel and burnout, none of these is very
strong or significant.

Percent Distribution of Burnout in Eleven Child Abuse Organizations, and Average Monthly Caseload Size, Formalized Rule Observation, Termination Status and Turnover Rate*

	Neah Bay	Los Angeles	St. Petersburg	Adams County	Arkansas	St. Louis	Tacoma	Baton Rouge	Puerto Rico	Arlington	Union County
Project Average Caseload Size	8	9	18	26	37	40	42	56	83	179	294
Burned out (N=40)	0	33%	60%	50%	31%	18%	27%	23%	0	33%	42%
Moderately burned out (N=42)	25%	33%	20%	30%	8%	27%	46%	39%	60%	22%	50%
Not burned out (n=43)	75%	33%	20%	20%	62%	55%	27%	39%	40%	44%	8%

Project N = 11; Worker N = 125.

Not significant P −.12

Burnout	Formalized Rule Observation		
	Low	Moderate	High
Burned out	24%	45%	42%
Moderately burned out	29%	45%	32%
Not burned out	47%	10%	26%

Project N = 11; Worker N = 125.
Significant P <.01

Burnout	Not Terminated	Terminated
Burned out	37%	63%
Moderately burned out	28%	31%
Not burned out	35%	6%

N=162
Significant P <.01

	Puerto Rico	St. Petersburg	Neah Bay	Adams County	Union County	Arlington	Baton Rouge	St. Louis	Tacoma	Los Angeles	Arkansas
Turnover rate	.11	.17	.25	.35	.44	.58	.62	.64	.88	1.0	1.33
Burned out	0	60%	0	50%	42%	33%	23%	18%	27%	33%	31%
Moderately burned out	60%	20%	25%	30%	50%	22%	39%	27%	46%	33%	8%
Not burned out	40%	20%	75%	20%	8%	44%	39%	55%	27%	33%	62%

Project N = 11; Worker N = 125

Not significant P .12

*Columns may not round to 100% due to rounding.

**A turnover rate of 100% or more does not indicate that everyone in the project has terminated employment, but rather that several positions have turned over many times.

C. Management and Burnout

Burnout and many management processes are significantly correlated.[1] There are higher relationships between burnout and leadership, communication, task orientation, autonomy, clarity and innovation than there are with staff support, job involvement and peer cohesion. The perception of high pressure in the work environment is associated with high burnout. As shown in Table 9, of those work environments in which high stress was reported, 68% of the staff were very burned out. Control, or management's use of rules and regulations to dicatate work behavior, is not highly correlated with burnout.

In those work environments where leadership provided structure and support, only 27% of the workers were burned out. In all situations where leadership was low or inadequate, workers were either burned out or moderately burned out. This tendency is maintained when examining the relationship between communication and burnout. In those work environments in which task orientation is low, 70% of the staff were burned out and only 8% of the staff were not burned out. In agencies in which workers do not know what to expect in their work, and rules and regulations are not explicitly communicated, a majority of the workers (57%) tend to be burned out. If a work environment has very little worker autonomy, does not value innovation, and has inadequate staff support or supervision, the majority of the workers will be burned out.

Management processes and work climate conditions, then, are related to burnout, suggesting that these factors are the most immediate variables affecting workers' job morale status. Particularly

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[1]See Appendix E for correlations between these variables.

Leadership

Burnout	Poor	Average	Good
Burned out	85%	48%	27%
Moderately burned out	15%	33%	33%
Not burned out	0	19%	39%

N=147   Significant P <.01

Communication

Burnout	Poor	Average	Good
Burned out	86%	51%	28%
Moderately burned out	14%	28%	34%
Not burned out	0	21%	38%

N=154   Significant P <.01

Innovation

Burnout	Poor	Average	Good
Burned out	69%	46%	27%
Moderately burned out	19%	31%	35%
Not burned out	11%	23%	38%

N=152   Significant P <.01

Staff Support

Burnout	Poor	Average	Good
Burned out	80%	41%	36%
Moderately burned out	15%	29%	31%
Not burned out	5%	29%	32%

N=156   Significant P <.01

Job Involvement

Burnout	Poor	Average	Good
Burned out	67%	68%	30%
Moderately burned out	22%	19%	34%
Not burned out	11%	14%	36%

N=158   Significant P <.01

Work Pressure

Burnout	Poor	Average	Good
Burned out	33%	38%	68%
Moderately burned out	25%	43%	23%
Not burned out	43%	19%	10%

N=162   Significant P <.01

Task Orientation

Burnout	Poor	Average	Good
Burned out	70%	38%	27%
Moderately burned out	23%	31%	33%
Not burned out	8%	31%	39%

N=150   Significant P <.01

Job Autonomy

Burnout	Poor	Average	Good
Burned out	81%	63%	27%
Moderately burned out	19%	31%	34%
Not burned out	0	6%	39%

N=156   Significant P <.01

Job Clarity

Burnout	Poor	Average	Good
Burned out	57%	41%	26%
Moderately burned out	26%	41%	27%
Not burned out	17%	19%	39%

N=152   Significant P <.01

*Columns may not round to 100% due to rounding.

important are the quality of leadership, communication, innovation, task orientation, clarity, staff support and job autonomy--conditions that facilitate job performance.

D. Mediating Relationships Between Management and Organization

In addition to an assessment of the relationships between burnout and the independent variables, the relationships among the independent variables themselves are of importance. As shown previously, organizational structure is not highly correlated with or directly related to burnout; however, since the concern of the study is to understand how organizational structure is related to burnout through its impact on management, its relationships with management processes are examined.[1]

A number of significant and fairly high correlations exist between structural variables and management variables. The structural variables that are most consistently related to management are size (specifically, average monthly caseload) formalization (job codification and rule observation), and centralization of program level decisions. Project turnover is also significantly related to management processes.

There are several strong findings regarding the relationship of organizational variables with management processes. Projects with larger caseloads tend to have decreased peer cohesion, task orientation and clarity, but higher job pressure. As the number of workers supervised by one supervisor increases, peer cohesion, task orientation and clarity tend to improve, but staff support decreases. These data indicate that when a supervisor monitors more than ten workers, improved planning and explicit expectations result, but the trade-off is lower staff support.

The extent of project formalization tends to have a significant association with management variables, particularly autonomy, task

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[1]See Appendix E for correlations.

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orientation, pressure, peer cohesion, innovation and leadership. Projects that formalize the boundaries of individual job flexibility tend to have decreased autonomy, task orientation and peer cohesion, but higher job pressure. The findings for formalized job codification are consistent with formalized rule observation. Projects in which there is formalized rule observation tend to have decreased job autonomy, task orientation, job involvement, innovation, peer cohesion, and less acceptable project leadership. Job pressure is increased. While formalized job codification and rule observation tend to have a negative influence on effectiveness of management processes, specificity of job description has no significant negative relationship to the management variables. This implies that workers prefer formalized job descriptions and expectations which reduce job confusion, but resent impositions on job flexibility and self-monitoring.

Centralization of both program and job decisions has significantly correlated associations with project management variables. Projects that are highly centralized on program decisions tend to have decreased task orientation, clarity, autonomy, inadequate leadership, and communication. In projects in which daily job decisions tend to be centralized or monitored by supervisors or coordinators, there is less job autonomy and task orientation, and there tends to be inadequate communication. Project centralization is positively associated with job pressure; high centralization is accompanied by high job pressure.

These findings confirm important relationships between structural characteristics and management and work climate. The most significant structural characteristics -- caseload size, span of control, formalization and centralization -- affect the quality of job autonomy, innovation, peer cohesion, leadership, communication, task orientation, clarity, and amount of job pressure. These are all important management characteristics associated with burnout. These results suggest interaction effects between structure, management and burnout. Efforts to improve work climate as a means of preventing burnout cannot ignore the impact a program's structural properties appear to have on climate conditions. When a program tends to be more bureaucratic, climate

conditions important to preventing burnout are more difficult to maintain.

E. The Interrelationships Among Burnout, Personnel, Organization and Management

In this section, the relationship between work climate and burnout is clarified to determine the hierarchy of association and its relevance to intervention. The question addressed is: To what extent is the relationship between burnout and management processes explained by the influence of personnel characteristics and organizational variables? Or, do the significant relationships between burnout and organizational structures disappear when considering the influence of management variables? First, through partial correlation techniques, the relationships between burnout and organizational characteristics are explored, considering the influence of management and personnel variables. Second, the relationships between burnout and management are examined, considering the influence of organizational characteristics and personnel characteristics. Finally, through regression analysis, all three sets of independent variables are explored together to determine which are the best predictors of burnout or which variables are able to explain the most variation in burnout found among workers.

1. The Influence of Personnel on Relationships Between Management and Burnout. In the analysis using partial correlation and regression techniques, all potential intervening variables are controlled to determine their influence on the relationship between burnout and the independent variables. Table 10 depicts the relationship between management variables and burnout when controlling for personnel variables of age, sex, degree and work experience. As can be seen, age sex and work experience each has a slight influence on the relationship between management and burnout. The highest degress received appears to have little mediating influence. However, because of the interrelationships between the four personnel variables, when controlling for all four simultaneously, the prime relationship between management and burnout is influenced in both a positive and negative direction. For example, the

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correlations between burnout and staff support is reduced when controlling for age, sex or work experience independently, but increases when the four are controlled simultaneously. The associations between innovation and burnout provide a similar example. However, the relationship between burnout and each of the other management variables--autonomy, task orientation, work pressure, leadership, communication and peer cohesion-- is slightly decreased when considering the impact of these personnel characteristics.

In conclusion, personnel characteristics have an effect, often inconsistent, on the relationships between burnout and management variables. Because it is assumed that causally they occur prior to the phenomenon under study, their influence must be accounted for and controlled when trying to understand these relationships.

TABLE 10

The Relationship Between Management Variables and Burnout
When Controlling for Personnel Characteristics

Management Variables	Burnout	Changes in r for Burnout when Controlling for Personnel Variables				
		Age	Sex	Degree	Work Experience	Age; Sex; Degree; Work Experience
Staff Support	.35	.27	.27	.36	.28	.41
Autonomy	.41	.32	.31	.41	.32	.38
Task Orientation	.47	.36	.37	.47	.38	.44
Work Pressure	-.35	-23	-23	-.38	-.24	-.32
Clarity	.42	.32	.31	.42	.32	.43
Innovation	.40	.39	.38	.40	.39	.47
Leadership	.59	.48	.48	.59	.49	.57
Communication	.52	.44	.45	.52	.45	.47
Job Involvement	.29	.29	.29	.29	.30	.29
Peer Cohesion	.25	.20	.16	.25	.20	.20

Note: All relationships are significant $P < .01$.

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2. The Influence of Organizational Variables on the Relationships Between Burnout and Management. Table 11 depicts the relationship between burnout and management variables. As is evident in the table, in most situations, the original relationships are not significantly influenced by organizational variables. There are, however, several exceptions. The associations between autonomy, leadership and communication and burnout are slightly decreased by organizational variables. By controlling the influence of formalized rule observation, there is a consistent and sometimes dramatic reduction in the relationship between management variables and burnout, and it significantly reduces the relationships between job involvement and autonomy with burnout. Also of some interest, complexity (i.e., the number of different professional disciplines involved in a project) tends to suppress or hide the existing relationships between burnout and management variables.

The negative association between caseload size and burnout is decreased significantly by task orientation and clarity, but increased by leadership. This finding suggests that while the "planfulness" and explicitness of rules and policies intervene in the original relationship, the extent to which leadership provides structure and support tends to suppress or hide the strength of the relationship between burnout and caseload size. The influence of management variables on the relationship between caseload size and burnout suggests important interrelationships among management, burnout and workload.

All management variables decrease the relationship between formalized rule observation and burnout, but by controlling for autonomy, task orientation, innovation or leadership, this original relationship loses its statistical significance. This finding suggests that formalized rule observation is only indirectly related to burnout.

There are no real changes in the relationship between formalized job codification and burnout when controlling for management variables.

The significant relationship between project turnover and burnout disappears when controlling for job involvement, autonomy, task orientation, work pressure and leadership, suggesting that the real relationship existing between burnout and management and turnover is only an outcome indication of burnout.

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In summary, the partial correlation analysis suggested that the personnel variables have a mediating influence on the relationships between burnout and management variables, but do not drastically alter the direction or magnitude of the original relationships. Similarly, when controlling for organizational variables, there are few substantial changes in the associations between burnout and management. Notable exceptions are formalized rule observation and centralization at the program level.

TABLE 11

The Relationship between Burnout and Management Variables, Controlling for the Confounding Influence of Organizational Factors

Management Variables	Burnout	Changes In r For Burnout When Controlling For Organizational Factors										
		Total # of Staff	Average Caseload	Complexity	Span of Control	Formalized Recruit-ment	Formalized Job Codification	Formalized Rule Observation	Formalized Specificity of Job Description	Central-ized Program	Central-ized Job	Turn-over Rate
Involvement	.29	.24	.26	.31	.24	.27	.24	.15	.26	.24	.26	.27
Peer Cohesion	.25	.27	.28	.26	.27	.29	.27	.20	.28	.26	.28	.23
Staff Support	.35	.33	.32	.42	.34	.34	.32	.30	.32	.32	.33	.43
Autonomy	.41	.32	.34	.41	.32	.35	.32	.25	.35	.31	.37	.37
Task Orientation	.47	.46	.47	.51	.45	.47	.46	.41	.48	.46	.48	.47
Job Pressure	-.35	-.36	-.37	-.34	-.36	-.37	-.36	-.33	-.38	-.36	-.38	-.30
Clarity	.42	.40	.41	.44	.39	.41	.41	.40	.42	.39	.42	.42
Innovation	.40	.41	.41	.49	.41	.41	.41	.35	.41	.41	.49	.48
Leadership	.59	.51	.51	.62	.52	.51	.50	.46	.50	.49	.51	.60
Communication	.52	.47	.46	.52	.46	.46	.45	.41	.46	.45	.46	.52

Note: All relationships are significant at $P < .01$.

3. <u>Predicting Burnout by Worker Characteristics, Management</u>
<u>and Organizational Variables.</u> There are a number of different ways
to look at the complex relationships under investigation in this study.
Having just presented the results of the partial correlations, a useful
method for sorting out the differential impact of the three sets of
predicting variables on burnout is a multiple regression analysis. All
variables having significantly high correlations with burnout among
the three sets of independent variables were entered into a regression
equation simultaneously. The nominal and ordinal variables were con-
verted into dummy variables; burnout, management and organizational var-
iables were treated as continuous variables.

The results of this regression are presented in Table 12. The
equation is significant at $P < .000$; leadership, communication, super-
visory responsibility and caseload size were significant at $P < .05$.
The adjusted R^2 of the equation is .44. The Beta coefficients illus-
trate the relative influence each variable has on predicting burnout.
As leadership score increases one point, the burnout score[1] goes up on
the average nearly four points, suggesting the higher the leadership
the less burnout exists. When communication is increased one point, the
burnout score increases nearly three points, i.e., as communication
improves, burnout decreases. The findings suggest that if one client is
added to the caseload, the burnout score decreases .02 but if 20
clients were added, the burnout score would decrease .4 points. In other words,
as caseloads become larger, burnout increases. The data show that
supervisors tend not to be burned out. Although not significant, the
data suggest that workers with Masters degrees and individuals under
30 years of age are most likely to be burned out.

The results of this regression analysis suggest a possible hier-
archy of importance among all of the independent variables, indicating
which aspects of program functioning are most critical in preventing

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[1]Remember, high score on burnout equals low burnout.

burnout. Leadership's ability to provide support and structure, along with timely and relevant communication, stands out as the most influential factor in preventing burnout.

TABLE 12

The Effects of Significant Personnel, Organizational and Management Variables in Explaining the Variation in Burnout Among Child Abuse Workers (using Multivariate Regression Analysis)

Variable	B	Standard Error B	Significance of F
Leadership	3.72	1.05	.001
Communication	2.90	1.23	.02
Supervision responsibility	5.68	2.14	.009
Innovation	1.28	1.08	.24
Masters degree	−4.07	3.61	.26
Bachelor's degree	−0.22	3.89	.96
Work time	1.05	3.54	.78
Caseload size	−0.03	0.01	.01
Formalized rule observation	−0.78	1.31	.55
Sex	3.10	2.54	.23
Age 24 or less	−4.29	3.38	.21
Age 25-30	−2.20	2.81	.44
Age 31-40	−0.95	2.92	.75

Note: Significance of F of the whole equation $P < .000$
Adjusted $R^2 = .44$
$N = 125$.

Discriminant Analysis. Having looked at the complex
relationships through partial correlations and regression techniques,
we are interested in knowing how well we can statistically distinguish
those who are burned out from those who are not burned out by looking
at the independent variables used in the last regression analysis. One
way of getting at this question is through the use of discriminant
analysis. To distinguish between these two groups of workers--
burnout out and not burned out -- the significant worker, management and
organizational characteristics used in the regression analysis were used
as discriminating variables. The mathematical objective of discriminant
analysis is to weigh and linearly combine the discriminating variables
so that burned out and not burned out workers are forced to be as statis-
tically distinct as possible (Nie et al., 1975). By taking these var-
ious characteristics and mathematically combining them, the dimensions
around which burned out workers cluster will be derived. When the dis-
criminating factors have been selected, the statistical tests report how
successful these variables were in differentiating between burned out
and non-burned out workers. If there are significant factors that suc-
cessfully group workers into our two categories, we can use these to
predict the likelihood of burnout in a particular agency. All variables
were considered simultaneously.

Table 13 shows that on the basis of the scores for the independent
variables, 75% of the case have been correctly classified into burned
out and not burned out groups. There was somewhat better classification
of non-burned out workers (71%) than of burned out workers (64%). The
chief predictors for classification purposes are age (30 years or less),
Masters degree, innovation and leadership. These findings suggest that
worker burnout can be predecited by assessing the age and degree level
of workers, and measuring the extent to which work environments provide
job task opportunities to be creative and innovative, as well as the extent to
which leadership provides support and structure. The other indicators (i.e.,
supervisory role, client load, sex, formalized rule observation and
communication) have less predictive ability, but also seem to be impor-
tant indicators of burnout since the total equation was significant at

P <.000 and the canonical correlation between all of these independent variables and the dependent variable in their ability to discriminate is 56%.

TABLE 13

Prediction of Burnout Using Management and Organizational Variables

(using Discriminant Analysis)

	Predicted Burnout	Predicted Not Burned Out
Actually Burned Out	64%	36%
Actually Not Burned Out	29%	71%

Note: 75% of the cases were correctly classified.
Chi-square - 21.13, significant at $P < .01$.

Summary of Findings

- Of the worker characteristics, age and supervision responsibilities are the highest and most significantly related to burnout, i.e., older workers and workers with supervisory responsibility are less likely to burn out.

- Client load size and formalized rule observation are significantly and highly correlated with burnout, i.e., projects with large caseload size and formalized rule observation are more likely to have burned out workers.

- All management and work environment variables are significantly related to burnout. These important characteristics are:

  --leadership provides support and structure;
  --communication is timely and appropriate;
  --there is "planful, efficient environment, orderliness";
  --rules and policies are explicit;

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--workers have freedom to be self-sufficient and make their
  own decisions;
--there is room for creativity and innovation;
--supervisors provide support and nurturing;
--there is little job pressure;
--workers feel committed to their jobs and are enthusiastic;
--workers are friendly and supportive.

- There is a significant relationship between burnout and termi-
  nation, but not between burnout and absenteeism.

- Some of the relationships between management and burnout are
  slightly mediated by controlling for the influence of several
  organizational variables:

  --formalized rule observation tends to decrease the association;
  --complexity tends to increase the relationships;
  --particular relationships that are influenced are the rela-
    tionships between autonomy, leadership, communication and
    burnout.

- The most variation in burnout among workers is explained by
  leadership, communication, innovation, supervision responsi-
  bilities and caseload size.

- The best predictors of burnout are leadership, job pressure,
  centralization at the job level, task orientation and complex-
  ity.

SECTION V: HOW TO AVOID BURNOUT

In the child abuse and neglect field to date, the primary method suggested for coping with burnout has been to encourage workers to improve their own mental health practices and develop better coping skills. While these efforts may prevent disillusionment with the helping profession, the findings in this study suggest that prevention of burnout requires interventions at more than the individual level. Both management and organizational processes must be altered for burnout among child abuse and neglect workers to be reduced. In this section, recommendations for avoiding or reducing burnout are discussed.

A. Leadership

The extent to which leadership provides support and structure is a primary factor associated with burnout. During interviews with project staff, a number of common problems in project leadership were reported. Inexperience by most project managers was thought to be responsible for interagency conflicts, intra-agency turmoil, and disorganized work environments. Other leadership qualities that negatively affected workers' attitudes and performance were an inability to cope with workers' anger or handle stressful situations in an orderly fashion, to set priorities for the myriad of program tasks and responsibilities, and to handle authority well. Problems occur when a director is passive and non-directive, or authoritarian and controlling.

Other serious problems are created in the projects when workers do not feel that they are trusted by the project leadership and when they are not given enough support and positive feedback.

There are several reasons for the existence of these leadership problems. One critical factor is that directors are not trained in

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administration but often are promoted into the leadership position
because they are experts in the specialty area or have been super-
visors or therapists. Individuals find themselves promoted into these
positions before they have thought through whether they are personally
suited to perform the duties and responsibilities of project management
or received training in administration and management. What is needed
are training programs available to the agency in which individuals
with administrative interests can be prepared for future leadership
positions. In these training programs workers would have an oppor-
tunity to learn management approaches that are relevant for public
service enterprises.

B. Communication

Communication is a significant problem in project management,
particularly the timely communication of information relevant to work-
ers' jobs. Communication is not facilitated because formal communica-
tion patterns are not established early in the project's life to assure
that information is transmitted. Sixty-three percent of the workers
in the demonstration projects claimed that their best source of infor-
mation was through informal communication. Staff meetings rarely occur
or are poorly attended because of client crises and scheduling prob-
lems. When staff meetings do occur, often relevant information is not
discussed. Frequently, due to personality conflicts between key per-
sons in the project, communication is distorted or misinterpreted.
In other situations, the person most affected by the information is
the last to know of it.

In the larger protective service agencies, many workers complained
that they spent hours completing the paperwork necessary to provide
clients service, only to learn that rules had changed and the forms
would have to be redone. Poor communication creates many problems
for workers. Valuable time is wasted and workers feel un-
productive and unappreciated. In many of these situations, workers
turn to other staff members to vent their anger and gain some needed
support. Consequently, problems fester and grow out of proportion;
schisms are created in the organization.

Improving communication in an organization is a difficult task. Some agencies deal with communication problems by scheduling periodic staff meetings designated to deal with personnel problems. Others hire facilitators and consultants to help the agency remedy communication problems. Because communication is an important factor associated with burnout, it is important that agency communication function at an optimal level. Some suggested guidelines are: regularly scheduled staff meetings in which workers are informed of information pertinent to their jobs; specified channels of communication (i.e., identification of who is responsible for passing information along); and formal mechanisms that allow conflicts interfering with work activities to be resolved in a timely fashion.

C. Supervision

The quality of supervision, i.e., supervision that provides accountability and support, is an extremely important factor in worker attitudes and behavior; it was found that those demonstration projects in which workers report inadequate supervision had the highest incidence of burnout.

Good supervision is crucial to workers' performance and satisfaction. Workers expect a supervisor to know what they do, to monitor the quality of their work and give feedback on work performance.

Good supervision is imperative because social workers are called upon to make crucial decisions each day, i.e., removing a child from a home, taking a mother to court, struggling with sexual abuse cases. In these situations a worker needs to proceed planfully and carefully and to share the decision making process with more objective parties.

What is needed is a redefinition of a supervisor's function and priority placed on assisting workers do their job effectively. Workers need someone to advocate on their behalf and on behalf of their clients, to help improve agencies' responsiveness and increase service resources to clients. By assisting workers in developing community resource networks, supervisors can facilitate the worker's job.

But most important of all, social workers need someone who can give support and positive feedback about specific areas of accomplishment or progress with clients. A supervisor is the one person who has reflected on a worker's performance and can give the specific kind of feedback and support that is most credible with workers.

Many supervisors in the projects are overwhelmed by monitoring a unit's paperwork and fulfilling other bureaucratic duties. Often, because they are involved with individual workers and clients in crisis situations, other supervisory functions are neglected. But just as often, supervision does not consist of the activities we have described, because many supervisors do not receive adequate training, or have not had a good model of supervision prior to promotion, and are not given adequate support in their new positions by their superiors.

Supervision requires unique skills. Training and consultation should be provided to all interested workers before promotion to the position. This training should focus on the development of skills in advocacy, community resource development, communication, case monitoring accountability, and giving support.

D. Job Design

This research indicates that job design is another important factor in worker satisfaction and performance. A successful job design has the following characteristics: variety, autonomy and feedback.

Many social workers report feeling stuck in a narrow casework job because their entire job consists of service provision and paperwork. Others report that a variety of work assignments tended to revive waning job enthusiasm. Many workers want and need opportunities to develop skills in training, education, community organizing and group work, as well as opportunities to try innovative approaches in their treatment work.

Some workers who burn out are those who did not feel successful or that their work efforts were meaningless because they received no feedback on their efforts. Intake workers tended to report this as a major problem. After completing investigations and tentative treatment

planning, the client is referred to other workers, and rarely do they hear what has happened with the clients. Consequently, they do not attribute meaning to their own actions with the clients. Because social workers do not always have evidence of their efforts, feedback is very important. Many workers who have burned out report that direct, specific and positively oriented feedback was missing in their jobs.

The last important aspect of job design is autonomy. This is a tricky concept because it has to do with flexibility, self-governance, and is at the same time congruent with a worker's need for supervision and accountability. Contrasting examples help illustrate the point. One highly successful, seasoned worker interviewed in this study had worked in protective services for six years, one of the few senior employees in the agency. Granted, one of the reasons she had been able to keep up the grueling pace was that she thrived on difficult, complex cases. But she also said that she had not burned out because her supervisor had always trusted her and given her the freedom to set her own hours and work in her own style. She felt free to work 50 hours one week and take off days to recuperate when she felt drained. This example is contrasted with another worker who had burned out and terminated with the agency. This worker had found herself overwhelmed with having to work late three and four nights a week. She had asked her project director for permission to work four days a week, ten hours a day, and have a three-day weekend to recover. The director refused because this was contrary to agency procedures and requirements. The worker, unable to sustain the job strain, left the agency.

In a job as personally demanding as working with abuse and neglect, it is important that workers be given a variety of job activities, receive positive feedback, and be given permission to work in their own style.

E. Work Environment

Other work environment conditions highly associated with burnout are task orientation, clarity and work pressure. The impact of workload is modified when the work environment has an efficient, planful

atmosphere, specific rules and policies, and minimal job pressure. Many social workers complain that they are always working from crisis to crisis. Others claim that there is no way to plan for or antici- pate client problems. While in many cases this is true, these com- ments also reflect the generally low emphasis placed on planning in most public agencies and by most workers with their caseloads. This is not surprising since most social workers have limited exposure to planning and case management techniques in their training. It became apparent in the quality of case management review in these demonstra- tion projects that most caseworkers do not specify operational treat- ment goals with their clients, nor have they established priorities among the demands in their caseloads.[1] Consequently, the client who presents the crisis usually receives the most attention. Further, because no treatment goals have been established, the worker has no means of judging progress. This is also the situation with project management. Project management is often involved in incremental prob- lem solving and not always aware of how their action impacts upon the worker's job or the program's future.

A worker tends to act more freely and self-confidently on behalf of clients when there is a structure of known role expectations, and rules and policies governing the agency have been made explicit. In an efficient, planful work environment, program goals have been speci- fied and prioritized treatment goals for clients have been developed; plans to accomplish these goals are specified. Case records and other management information systems are designed to give feedback and in- formation necessary to judge goals obtained and goal status. As a result of these efforts, workers and project management feel in con- trol and have direct feedback on their accomplishments.

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[1]See the Final Quality of Case Management Report.

F. Recruitment

People are different, and variations among people can make a difference in burnout. Work with child abuse and neglect clients demands long work hours, great patience, an ability to accept child abusing parents, and aggressiveness in getting services for clients from other agencies. Those whose personal styles are uncomfortable with these demands or whose expectations of the job are different from reality tend to burn out earlier than those who are more compatible with these conditions. This suggests that it may be possible to reduce burnout by more clearly specifying job responsibilities, screening applicants to match personality needs with job demands, and providing job orientation that exposes the applicant to clients and work duties.

G. Caseload Size

Large caseloads are a great problem in child abuse agencies, contributing toward burnout and poor performance. Workers handling 25 or more families simply cannot and do not see clients frequently or provide them with the range of services they need. Workers, aware of their inability to perform adequately because of the large numbers of families they are responsible for, are frustrated in their jobs. Consequently, they respond primarily to clients in crisis situations and have little time to do real treatment or counseling. This frustration often results in feelings of burnout. A reduction in caseload sizes to more manageable numbers (20 to 25) would help alleviate many of the dilemmas a worker faces.

H. Decision Making

When decisions about workers' jobs are made without consulting or informing them, workers feel less in control of what they do and less motivated to comply with these decisions. In larger programs, decision making is often layers removed from the workers and personnel input is rarely solicited. Because workers do not share in the decision making process, official decisions often seem irrelevant and inappropriate for present job conditions. The more that workers can be

involved in those decisions that affect their jobs and thus their work-ing lives, the more likely it is that the decisions will be appropriate ones and that workers will feel less estranged from their work.

I. Formalization

Workers have some very distinct criticisms about working in highly centralized and formalized organizations. For example, workers in protective service agencies report that "hassling" with bureaucratic red tape," required to get things done for clients, depletes energy. One worker reported that he nearly gave up his fight to get emergency funds for a mother with three children and no food; he had completed necessary forms, but experienced numerous delays at the various hier-archical levels before receiving final approval. Frustration occurred because the "right people were never available; rules were unclear; it took too long;" and he always felt on the defensive. In highly for-malized agencies, jobs are designed to fit the organization's purposes and to control unintended variation. These job descriptions do not always fit an individual's style or the highly unpredictable task of serving clients. Consequently, workers feel locked into rigid jobs, reporting a need for greater autonomy and resenting their inability to respond to clients' unique situations. Too often because of these organizational constraints, the worker is caught between the bureau-cracy and a hostile, angry, needy client. More difficult still is working with motivated clients, but being unable to provide them with necessary resources because of bureaucratic red tape and paperwork. For child abuse and neglect services to be effective, for workers to maintain a commitment to what they do, agencies' rules need to be more flexible and responsive to variations in worker and client needs.

J. Paperwork

Workers spend as much as two or three days out of the five day week in the office completing paperwork. This means that clients are not visited as often as is mandated by state requirements but, further,

workers spend half of their time doing work that appears meaningless to them. Rarely have workers been told the purpose of the forms they must fill out or how the information can be used to improve services. Very often, management information systems are not designed to assist the worker in improving the case management of clients, but merely to provide overall agency accountability to parent agencies. Because management information systems are overwhelming and not informative to the front-line worker and his supervisor, workers report that they tend to think twice about clients' needs before applying for day care or emergency funds. Thus, workers spend a great deal of time doing what appears to be meaningless, and in order to avoid this frustration, often do not pursue services which clients need. The resultant feeling of burnout on the workers could be avoided, in part, by a reduction in paperwork and by making paperwork requirements more useful to the workers' own case management responsibilities.

K. Summary

It appears that a constellation of factors among worker characteristics, management processes and structural characteristics create a negative work environment, and subsequent burnout. Solutions for individual programs with problems of worker burnout and performance lie in changing management and organizational properties.

In order to successfully manage public service programs, program leadership needs to develop a relevant theory of management that can cope with a work task that has a high degree of uncertainty, that meets the needs and expectations of professional manpower, and that can respond to changing and often hostile environmental conditions. Leadership must be an integrator of organizational characteristics and personnel qualities.

Among the qualities of management that are found to be relevant are: leadership that provides structure and support; communication of relevant information in a timely fashion; supervision that provides accountability, support and feedback; opportunities for workers' personal growth and development, as well as for innovative or diverse

work; personal discretion and job autonomy; a work environment that has
a planful atmosphere; minimal job pressure; and rules and regulations
that are specific and explicit. More careful manpower planning and
recruitment is needed. Helping applicants to be more specific about
their goals, expectations, training background and their own capabili-
ties to do the job would help reduce worker disillusionment. If
management is clear and specific about what is required to success-
fully perform a job, more careful recruitment that matches personnel
to the job is possible.

Since organizational structure appears to influence the quality
of work environments and the extent to which management can be effec-
tive, it too must be modified. To prevent burnout and improve the
quality of work conditions, small caseload sizes, a moderate span of
control, informal rule observation, increased job flexibility, and
worker participation in decision making are desirable. Wherever pos-
sible, a reduction in the amount of paperwork required of workers is
also desirable.

APPENDIX A

Listing of Major Evaluation Reports and Papers

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Reports

(1) A Comparative Description of the Eleven Joint OCD/SRS Child Abuse and Neglect Demonstration Projects; December 1977.

(2) Historical Case Studies: Eleven Child Abuse and Neglect Projects, 1974-1977; December 1977.

(3) Cost Report; December 1977.

(4) Community Systems Impact Report; December 1977.

(5) Adult Client Impact Report; December 1977.

(6) Child Impact Report; December 1977.

(7) Quality of the Case Management Process Report; December 1977.

(8) Project Management and Worker Burnout Report; December 1977.

(9) Methodology for Evaluating Child Abuse and Neglect Service Programs; December 1977.

(10) Guide for Planning and Implementing Child Abuse and Neglect Programs; December 1977.

(11) Child Abuse and Neglect Treatment Programs: Final Report and Summary of Findings; December 1977.

Papers

"Evaluating New Modes of Treatment for Child Abusers and Neglectors: The Experience of Federally Funded Demonstration Projects in the USA," presented by Anne Cohn and Mary Kay Miller, First International Conference on Child Abuse and Neglect, Geneva, Switzerland; September 1976 (published in International Journal on Child Abuse and Neglect, Winter 1977).

"Assessing the Cost-Effectiveness of Child Abuse and Neglect Preventive Service Programs," presented by Mary Kay Miller, American Public Health Association Annual Meeting, Miami, Florida; October 1976 (written with Anne Cohn).

"Developing an Interdisciplinary System for Treatment of Abuse and Neglect: What Works and What Doesn't?", presented by Anne Cohn, Statewide Governor's Conference on Child Abuse and Neglect, Jefferson City, Missouri; March 1977 (published in conference proceedings).

"Future Planning for Child Abuse and Neglect Programs: What Have We Learned from Federal Demonstrations?", presented by Anne Cohn and Mary Kay Miller, Second Annual National Conference on Child Abuse and Neglect, Houston, Texas; April 1977.

"What Kinds of Alternative Delivery Systems Do We Need?", presented by Anne Cohn, Second Annual National Conference on Child Abuse and Neglect, Houston, Texas; April 1977.

"How Can We Avoid Burnout?", presented by Katherine Armstrong, Second Annual National Conference on Child Abuse and Neglect, Houston, Texas; April 1977.

"Evaluation Case Management", presented by Beverly DeGraaf, Second Annual National Conference on Child Abuse and Neglect, Houston, Texas; April 1977.

"Quality Assurance in Social Services: Catching up with the Medical Field", presented by Beverly DeGraaf, National Conference on Social Welfare, Chicago, Illinois; May 1977.
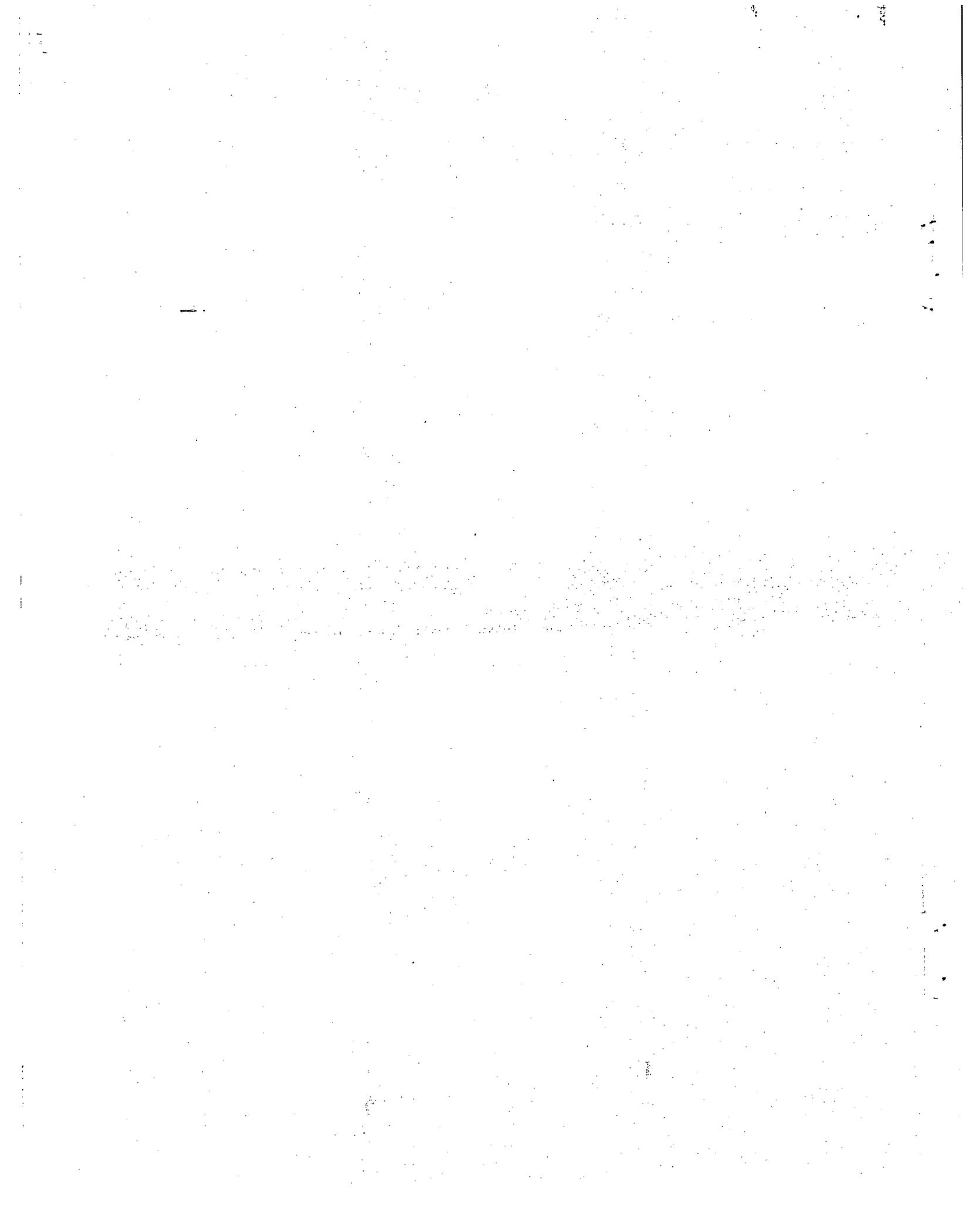
APPENDIX B

Review of the Literature

Review of the Literature

Burnout is not a new problem. While it is never mentioned by name, its symptoms and its presence in the helping fields has often been a topic in popular literary work. A social worker in the movie A Thousand Clowns is portrayed as a judgmental, unfeeling person, more willing to follow agency rules as personally interpreted than to allow a child to stay in a home where he is already happy. Nurse Ratchett in One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest is an alienated nurse, bitterly and cynically trying to destroy her patient, McMurphy, while claiming to help him improve his social adjustment and to control his destructive tendencies toward other patients. In both of these scripts, the impact of what we are calling "burnout" is glaringly obvious.

In addition to the allusions to burnout found in popular literary forms, philosophers and researchers of human behavior are also interested in the problem found among helping professionals in the work place. Many have sought to explain the meaning and purpose of work and examine human behavior on the job and in organizations. Studies on worker alienation and job dissatisfaction, two major threads of research relevant to the study of burnout, have attempted to understand how helping professionals become dysfunctional on the job. In both areas, researchers have looked either at worker characteristics or management processes or organizational structures as they relate to the problem; infrequently have all three been studied to determine their individual or combined impact on worker behavior.

In this review the theoretical and empirical work that has already been accomplished in these two fields of research as related to the helping professions are discussed, and the significance of their findings for the study of burnout presented.

I. Conceptualization and Definitions

A. Alienation and Burnout

Marx is among the most popular philosophers who have been concerned about the meaning and purpose of work. He had definite notions about what conditions are necessary for a job to provide worthwhile activity for man. In his writings he attempted to reinterpret Hegel's somewhat global and often confusing use of "alienation" into a specific area of human function; that is, work. Integrating Hegel's two applications of alienation into a single concept, he defined alienation as "separation through surrender, the separation of the control over one's labor or product" (Schacht, 1970). He felt that workers were alienated from the products of their labor, because they exercised no control over the production process and consequently were mere instruments of production. He believed alienation from work occurs when work becomes, not a satisfaction of a need, but a means for satisfying other needs. In addition to Marx other philosophers and psychoanalysts -- Fromm, Horney, Sartre, Tillich, Heideggar, Jaspers, Marcel and Camus -- have also written about alienation and its meaning and symptoms, often with reference to alienation from work (Schacht, 1970). Most recently, modern sociologists have studied alienation from work, trying to conceptualize measurable and operational indicators of work alienation and to study the presence and causes of alienation in today's work place.

Schacht in his book Alienation traces the semantic use of the term through Middle English to its application by Hegel, Marx, Fromm, and the other modern existential philosophers and sociologists. He aptly demonstrates that, while there are many different applications of alienation in reference to a number of different areas of life -- man's alienation from man, man's alienation from God, man's alienation from society, man's alienation from work -- there is only one underlying consistent definition for "alienation": that is, "separation from." Schacht suggests some guidelines for the use of alienation that would enhance its descriptive power and make it a relevant concept for study. He recommends that "alienation" be defined as "separation, specifying

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someone separated from someone or something, indicating a prior condition of unity; reflecting a person's perceived recognized feeling of being alienated" (Schacht, 1970).

In attempting to clarify the proper definition and application of alienation, Schacht's work has direct relevance to the study of burnout. "Burnout" is the popular phrase used by social service providers to describe the recognition that a worker has become separated from his prior commitment or intention to serve and help others, i.e., alienated from the purpose of one's work. Burnout is, in fact, a popular label for the process of alienation as defined by Schacht. While he also suggests that alienation be used as a non-evaluative concept, in the study of burnout an exception must be made, since burnout is considered an undesirable condition that negatively affects clients and workers, as well as the agency's functioning.

As is apparent from this argument, "burnout" is congruent with Schacht's suggested use of "alienation." However, because "alienation" has ambiguous meanings and because "burnout" enjoys colloquial usage and is easily identifiable to social service providers, "alienation from work" will be referred to as "burnout" in this study.

B.   Job Satisfaction

Another tradition of research, that of job satisfaction, is also relevant to the study of burnout. An interest in job satisfaction evolved out of the theoretical work of Maslow and his theory of man's hierarchy of needs -- physiological needs, security needs, social needs, egotistical needs, and needs for self-actualization. Maslow suggested that these five broad classes of needs are arranged in hierarchical order, so that as one level is satisfied, the next level is activated. The study of job satisfaction is primarily the work of theorists from the Human Relations School or the Human Resource School (e.g., MacGregor, 1949; Miles, 1975). By assessing job satisfaction, behavioral scientists and industrial psychologists hoped to measure how individual emotion and psychological needs are met by the work environment. Often job satisfaction measures assess the worker's positive affective orientation

toward facets of work situations (e.g., job, salary, promotional opportunities, supervision, co-workers) or seeks to measure the worker's global state of gratification or happiness about the total work situation (e.g., Smith, Kendall and Hulin, 1969).

Researchers, looking at job satisfaction, have tried to explain what conditions in the work setting promote high job satisfaction. Some have looked at individual characteristics and need levels, others have concentrated on job design characteristics and work environment conditions, while still others have focused on organizational structural characteristics. Few studies examine the interrelationships of all three as they relate to job satisfaction.

II. Review of Empirical Studies Related to Alienation/Job Satisfaction

As stated, traditionally sociologists, organizational theorists and industrial psychologists have been interested in explaining the variation among workers and organizations in performance, work alienation and satisfaction by focusing on one of the three major areas -- worker characteristics, management processes and organizational structure. Organizational theory has proceeded from an emphasis on structure and rational design (Weber, 19) to recognition that informal groups' and individuals' needs and motivations often sabotage rationally designed structures and to the belief by many that individual psychological and social needs are more directly related to worker satisfaction and behavior (e.g., Mayo, 1933; Roethlisberger, 1939; Whyte, 1959, 1961; Humans, 1950; Zaleznik, 1964). Others, believing that management processes are more instrumental in improving worker performance and increasing job satisfaction, have studied the effects that leadership, communication and work environment have on workers' attitudes and behavior (Lewin, 1947; Lippet and White, 1939; Coch and French, 1948; Katz and Kahn, 1952, 1966; Likert, 1961, 1967; Tagiuri and Litwin, 1968). More recently there has been an effort to merge these separate bodies of literature into one theory, explaining how all factors -- structural processes, worker characteristics and environmental constraints -- influence the performance and effectiveness of organizations,

as well as explain the difference in morale and behavior among workers
(Miller, 1955; Parsons, 1960; Allport, 1962; Bennis, 1966; Schien, 1965;
Emery and Trist, 1965; Katz and Kahn, 1966; Olmstead, 1973).

A review of the current research on worker alienation and job satis-
faction was undertaken to determine which worker, management and organi-
zational characteristics are found to be associated with these conditions.
Based upon the findings of previous researchers, the most relevant aspects
of each of the three dimensions of program operation were selected as
independent variables to be used in this study of worker burnout, that is,
which factors among the three sets of independent variables -- worker,
management and structural -- explain why burnout occurs.

There have been a number of empirical studies of alienation and
job satisfaction, but they tend to be research of commercial and indus-
trial companies looking at assembly line workers, secretaries and other
production-oriented jobs. There are relatively few studies of satis-
faction and alienation pertaining to the helping professions, i.e.,
social workers, nurses, teachers, psychologists, or other health and
social service providers. In this review, emphasis is given to those
studies directly related to the helping professions, because it is
believed that service-oriented work poses very different demands and
expectations for its workers than are experienced by factory workers
or employees in production-oriented work. In human services, one does
not technologically develop a product, but rather delivers a service
using one's self as the technology; the worker is the process and means
by which the client's needs are met. There is a greater degree of un-
certainty and variation in service delivery to clients than is true in
production work, where a product and its production tend to be specified
and more orderly. Differences in training and professionalization also
suggest that workers in social service fields have expectations and
needs that differ from workers in other settings. The differences in
functions and demands placed on a worker in a helping field, as opposed
to workers in commercial enterprises, suggest that worker, management
and organizational structural characteristics may have different effects
on each group; therefore, the service delivery programs should be

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studied using variables shown to be most relevant to its group of work-
ers. The following sections include a review of the literature asses-
sing (1) the relationship between organizational structure and alienation/
satisfaction; (2) the relationship between management processes and
alienation/satisfaction; (3) the relationship between worker character-
istics and alienation/satisfaction; and (4) the relationship of all
three sets of variables with alienation/satisfaction. In each section,
a summary of the variables most applicable to this study will be pre-
sented.

A. Organizational Structure

Behavioral scientists have been interested in studying the rela-
tionship among structural properties (e.g., size, span of control,
complexity, hierarchy, formalization and centralization) and performance,
and what influences these variables have on work alienation and job
satisfaction (Merton, 1949; Selznick, 1957; Haire, 1959; Thompson, 1961).
In this section we present the significant findings regarding the rela-
tionships found to exist between these organizational variables and
alienation and job satisfaction.

1. Size. Organizational size can be measured in a number
of different ways -- the number of workers in a work group, caseload
size, total number of employees, and budget size. Very few studies of
social agencies have demonstrated a relationship between size of the
organization and workers' attitudes and behavior (Thomas, 1959; Porter,
1963, 1964). In a comparative study of 31 public and private welfare
agencies, Olmstead found absenteeism, turnover, satisfaction and aliena-
tion to be slightly higher in larger agencies than in medium and small
agencies. There have been a number of studies that show large case-
loads to be associated with reduced coping ability (Maslach, 1976) an-
jcb dissatisfaction (Miller and Muthard, 1965; Ullman et al., 1966)
and burnout (Kempe, 1977). Extensive research among commercial and
private industries substantiates a tendency for jcb satisfaction and
morale to be lower in larger organizations (Hall, 1972).

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The problem with generalizing from many of these studies is that researchers have used different indicators of size; some have looked at total organizational size, while others have used the size of sub-units or work groups. Conceivably, the effects that sub-unit size have on worker satisfaction and alienation might be quite different from that of the total organization or caseload size. However, despite this weakness in the current research, the overall finding is that size is related to the behavior of individuals of organizations. There is likely to be more stress and depersonalization in larger organizations that results in increased discomfort for its members (Kimberly, 1975). Because the findings regarding the effect of size are inconsistent -- that is, not all large agencies have lower job satisfaction, and some smaller agencies have high job dissatisfaction (Hall, 1972; Olmstead, 1973) -- it cannot be used as a single predictor variable, but is useful when assessed within the context of other organization variables.

2. Complexity. Complexity is another organizational measure that has multiple definitions and measures (e.g., number of sub-units, dispersion, number of years of training by personnel, number of professional disciplines, level of job specialties). Further, complexity is not a static variable but tends to vary throughout an organization (Hall, 1972; Price, 1972). There is relatively little information regarding the relationship between complexity and worker attitudes. What evidence does exist suggests that greater organizational complexity is associated with higher absenteeism (Olmstead, 1973). Research does indicate that complexity is associated with increased coordination, communication and control problems which result in increased internal organizational conflict (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Hall, 1972). It is believed that, if this conflict is successfully resolved, improved organizational functioning results.

3. Formalization. Formalization is the degree to which rules, policies and procedures are codified within an organization (Price, 1972). It is measured either as workers' perceptions (Hage and Aiken, 1966; Miller, 1967) or as documented descriptions (Inkson, Pugh and Hickson,

1970). High formalization within an organization is consistently found to be associated with alienation from work (Miller, 1967; Hage and Aiken, 1966; Hall, 1968; Crozier, 1964; Thompson, 1961). When rules are strictly enforced in an organization, a high degree of both work alienation and alienation from expressive relations occur (Hage and Aiken, 1966). In Olmstead's study, most workers in agencies with formalized rules and regulations expressed high alienation from work but did not express alienation from their professional affiliation (Olmstead, 1973). High job morale was found to be dependent upon relatively unstructured jobs, freedom from restraints of enforced rules (Hage and Aiken, 1966). Further, formalization appears to have specific unintended consequences on clients as well as workers. An organization's dependence on control results in workers relying on categorization for decision making; consequently clients are frustrated and angered by the depersonalization and rule-bound treatment they receive (Hall, 1972; Merton, 1940).

4. <u>Centralization</u>. Centralization is the degree to which decision making is concentrated in a social system. This concept is measured in different ways, by workers' perceptions (Hage and Aiken, 1967, 1968) and through more objective measures of hierarchical levels (Tannenbaum et al., 1974). Both dissatisfaction and alienation tend to occur when an organization is highly centralized and workers have little authority to participate in decision making (Hage and Aiken, 1967, 1968). Alienation is likely to occur when authority figures and their subjects hold positions of great disparity, when authority is one-sided or exercised in relative absentia (Pearlin, 1962). Olmstead found little relationship between centralization and worker satisfaction or alienation.

Most studies of commercial and private industries have demonstrated inconsistent findings regarding the impact of centralization on worker attitudes. Although no significant differences exist between agencies with various degrees of centralization in terms of rates of turnover, absenteeism, and the number of grievances filed in companies, many studies show a tendency for workers to favor more decentralized models of organizational structure (Litzinger, 1963; Weiss, 1957).

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Research of public social agencies relating structural character-
istics to worker alienation, satisfaction and behavior is scarce and
confounded by differences in definitions and measurement. With the
exception of studies by Hage and Aiken and by Olmstead, most consist
of case studies or structural descriptions of single agencies (Ullman,
1966; Pearlin, 1962; Smith and King, 1975). In the past there has been
a tendency to over-simplify the effects of particular structural varia-
bles by ignoring interrelationships among structural characteristics
and interrelationships between management and worker characteristics.
This literature suggests that a study of burnout should assess the
possible impact structural characteristics may have on worker well-
being, and that size, complexity, formalization and centralization are
key variables to be further examined for their association with worker
morale.

B.   Management Processes

Other schools of thought in organizational theory are more inter-
ested in the relationship among management processes, e.g., worker par-
ticipation, leadership, supervision, communication, job designs and
work environment, and worker productivity and morale. In the past,
extensive studies of leadership were undertaken to determine the rela-
tionship between leadership and productivity and morale (Likert, 1961,
1967; Katz and Kahn, 1952; Coch and French, 1948; Lewin, Lippitt and
White, 1947). Research findings pertaining to leadership stressed
the importance of leadership as the main integrating factor in organi-
zational life (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Shepard, 1965). In Filley and
House's review of literature pertinent to leadership, they found that
supportive leadership as opposed to autocratic leadership is consistently
related to several indicators of subordinate satisfaction and producti-
vity: less intra-group stress; lower turnover and fewer grievances;
perceived desirability of leader; and greater productivity. There is
one exception. Not all leadership studies are consistent as to the
effect on productivity. In some situations, autocratic leadership style
is positively related to productivity, while in others it depends upon
the workers' expectations of leadership and the nature of the task.

There have been a number of other studies related to public and social agencies that assess the association between management process and work environment with worker satisfaction and alienation. For example, dissatisfaction is found to be highly associated with the quality of supervision (Smith and King, 1975; Ullman, 1966; Maslach, 1976; Olmstead, 1973; Blau and Scott, 1955). Absenteeism and turnover were found to be directly related to quality of supervision (Olmstead, 1973). In a study of satisfaction among social workers, the workers' freedom to be innovative was the major correlate of job satisfaction (Weinberger, 1970).

Conditions highly associated with alienation and dissatisfaction were lack of peer cohesion, lack of support and positive feedback, specialized jobs, low job autonomy, limited opportunities for self-development and promotion, inadequate communication, and lack of clarity regarding agency goals and procedures (Maslach, 1976; Pearlin, 1962; Olmstead, 1973; Smith and King, 1975; Ullman, 1966).

Scientists and engineers tended to be less alienated when they could decide the nature of their own research effort and when the company provided the climate for the pursuit of their own professional values (Miller, 1967). In their classic study of welfare agencies, Blau and Scott found peer cohesion (both in a positive and negative way) tended to mediate or neutralize workers' conflicts and frustrations with clients (Blau and Scott, 1963).

The research of Olmstead and his associates is most pertinent to our approach, since they considered the effects of organizational structure, management process and work climate on satisfaction and worker behavior. They found no significant relationships between structure and work attitudes, but did find that work climate exerts the major impact upon work morale and performance and is an even more potent factor in social agencies than has been found to be the case in commercial and private industrial organizations (Olmstead, 1973).

The studies to date suggest that leadership, supervision, opportunities to be innovative, job autonomy, peer cohesion and other work climate and job design conditions tend to have an important influence on worker morale.

C. Worker Characteristics

Studies assessing the impact of structural and management variables on worker morale and performance in social agencies are more rare than research investigating the effects of worker characteristics, motivation, values, and needs on job satisfaction, alienation and burnout. Very few of the latter, however, are studies of manpower in social agencies.

A group of researchers assessing the impact of physical surroundings and illumination on worker productivity learned that performance increased despite the varying intensity of light. They attributed the increased worker performance to higher work motivation which occurred by manipulating social and group factors, e.g., increased attention, special work group meetings (Mayo, 1933; Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939). Since that day, industrial psychologists have been studying how worker needs, values and characteristics are related to performance, motivation and satisfaction. Many have suggested and verified that individuals' orientation toward work (challenging versus non-challenging) determines whether they will be satisfied or dissatisfied. Individuals with expressive orientations are more satisfied if their jobs are challenging and more dissatisfied if their jobs are not challenging (O'Reilly, 1975; Hackman and Lawler, 1971).

Others have studied the relationship between job satisfaction and individual worker characteristics in social agencies. Age, education and job classification were found to be most associated with work attitudes and satisfaction with work climate (Olmstead, 1973). Personnel under 30 years of age have a more negative viewpoint than do older workers. They were less satisfied and tended to rate management processes lower (Olmstead, 1973; Alston, Griffen and Anema, 1972). Alienation was found to be related to age, education and work experience. Older personnel, more experienced personnel, and workers with less than a college education were less alienated than the inexperienced and young professionals in the same agencies (Olmstead, 1973). In a study of professional engineers working in a research institute, Miller found that length of professional training was associated with extent

of alienation (Miller, 1967). The more training individuals have, the more likely they are to be alienated in organizations that lack a professional orientation. There is a tendency for individuals in positions higher in the organizational hierarchy to be more satisfied (Ullman, 1966; Olmstead, 1973). Research has consistently failed to substantiate any differences between males and females regarding satisfaction or alienation (Olmstead, 1973; Miller and Muthard, 1965). However, males tend to leave their jobs more often than females (Kutzell, Korman and Levine, 1971).

A recent exploratory study of burnout in the helping professions has focused on coping behavior of workers and their tendency to burn out (Maslach, 1976). The findings suggested that professionals' inability to detach themselves from client stresses and their inability to nurture themselves on and off the job were directly related to burnout. Maslach found that rates of burnout were lower for professionals who actively express, analyze and share their personal feelings with their colleagues and clearly separate their homelife from their job.

While Maslach's study of worker burnout does not include an assessment of the influence of organizational structure or management processes, her initial findings suggest that other social and environmental conditions, in addition to personal traits and worker coping skills, are responsible for worker burnout.

Worker satisfaction, alienation and burnout have been shown to be associated with workers' expectations and needs and specific demographic characteristics, including age, education and job status. In the helping professions, a workers' ability to express, analyze and share his work-related stresses with peers tends to reduce worker burnout, but an inability to be detached from the clients' stress is likely to lead to burnout. These studies confirmed the influence that individual characteristics have on burnout and suggested specific variables for inclusion in this study.

As is apparent from this review of the literature, with the exception of Olmstead's comprehensive study, there is a paucity of relevant findings in the literature related to the social service field, with

respect to burnout, alienation or job satisfaction as they are asso-
ciated with worker, management and structural characteristics. In
addition to the limited number of studies currently in the literature,
there are other weaknesses in this field of research that cautions us
in generalizing from their findings.

One apparent weakness in the present state of the art is the lack
of any common definitions or consistent measures for work alienation or
job satisfaction concepts (Schacht, 1970; Lawler, 1972; Locke, 1969),
as well as the inconsistency among the measures used to assess struc-
tural and management characteristics. Consequently, the findings from
one study of alienation or job satisfaction are not easily compared
with other studies on the same topic.

Hage and Aiken's study of alienation is an apt example of the former
problem. In their study they refer to alienation, but appear to be
measuring satisfaction with expressive relationships and organizational
structural variables; hence, their findings are compared to any similar
work relating alienation and organizational characteristics with some
reservation.

Another problem with the present research is the failure by behav-
ioral scientists to treat alienation and satisfaction as two distinct
concepts, or at least to recognize that they appear to be tapping unique
aspects of worker morale. Presently when a study shows no relationship
between satisfaction and performance, the researcher generalizes that
happy workers do not result in more effective performance and does not
explore further to determine what qualities of worker attitudes are
directly related to performance. Smith and King's study of a mental
hospital illustrates this point. They discredited the Human Relations
approach to management because they found no relationship between worker
satisfaction and patient progress. They failed to note, however, the
direct relationship between workers' attitudes about clients and client
progress. Because they assessed worker satisfaction as the single
measure of worker morale, they ignored the relevance that other staff
behavior and attitudes, such as alienation, might have had no perfor-
mance. They failed, as well, to question whether these workers had

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always felt this way about their clients or whether the workers' attitudes had changed over time in response to environmental conditions.

With the exception of the Olmstead study, the present research fails to grapple with the complexity of relationships involved in any study of burnout, alienation and/or job satisfaction. Most studies look at two-way relationships between alienation or satisfaction and one or two other variables among either demographic characteristics, management factors or organizational structure. They fail to capture the interrelationships of these aspects of program and, consequently, cannot clarify what solutions are feasible or desirable, or develop an accurate understanding of what contributes to the problem.

With the exception of the work done by the open systems behavioral scientists in the field of organizational theory (Homans, 1950; Katzell, 1961; Kahn, 1964) and Hulin and Blood's work studying the impact of community size and location on job satisfaction, there are no known authors, among those who study social service workers, who deal with the current influences that the larger environment is having upon the organization and worker-related job attitudes. Consequently, they may be ignoring relevant societal values and goals that could elucidate the presence or absence of burnout among workers in differing regions and community environments. For example, some regions of the country place little value upon the helping professions and their work. Presumably, this community value acts as a discouraging influence on a professional who, without community support, tries to serve clients while also withstanding work pressures and other difficult working conditions.

Finally, the major objection to the current state of research is that most of the current studies of job attitudes, satisfaction and alienation are not concerned with application. While authors correlate various organizational dimensions with attitudes, they do not seem to be interested in whether the findings are presented in such a way that practitioners can use their results to create changes.

D. Summary

Despite the common weaknesses in the available empirical studies, the literature review indicates areas for further study to determine how to prevent burnout. The areas selected for further investigation in this study reflect both the findings resulting from the review of the literature as well as hypothetical determinants of burnout which emerged from gaps in the literature.

The variables cluster into three major components which describe any work environment. These are worker characteristics, organizational structure, and management processes. Worker characteristics are the demographic and behavioral variations that exist among workers in motivation, attitudes, education, age, personal interests, experience and skills. These differences suggest that some individuals may be more susceptible than others to burnout. Organizational structure is the framework for operating within an agency and is the blueprint describing how personnel are arranged in relation to each other and to the task. Organizational characteristics that may be relevant to worker well-being include caseload size, span of control, complexity, formalization and centralization. Management processes refer to the integrative functions that beldn human characteristics and organizational structure into an effective and efficient working agency. The functions of management that may contribute to a positive work climate are leadership, communication, job design, supervision, and efficient and orderly work atmosphere.

Clients are the major factor in burnout; they are most likely the target of worker attitudes and most often the immediate scapegoat used by workers to explain their frustrations. However, burnout occurs in many different specialty areas of social service and to workers serving many different kinds of clients. It appears to have less to do with the particular characteristics of client groups and more to do with the particular interaction between providers and recipients in the context of the program environment. In the helping relationship, workers are serving clients, often against adverse societal forces and the clients' own lack of motivation. Clients do not always express gratitude or

demonstrate their appreciation, and may even express resentment at the intrusion into their lives. This is true of working in the child abuse field as well as in other areas--vocational rehabilitation, juvenile delinquency, and mental health. It is the context of the helping process, more than the particular client type, that contributes to burnout. There is something else that is associated with the helping process, common among many service agencies, that must explain why burnout occurs to so many different helping professionals.

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APPENDIX C

Descriptions of Individual Project Management Practices

Descriptions of Individual Project Management Practices

The Family Center: Adams County, Colorado

The Family Center, compared to the other eleven demonstration projects, was a medium-sized project, with moderate complexity and a diversity of program activities. At the time of the project management assessment site visit, there were about 40 persons contributing time to the Center, 15 of whom were full-time staff (the remainder were part-time staff, consultants and volunteers). The project's average monthly caseload was 26 clients; its average monthly budget was $17,029.

The Family Center staff perceived their project to be highly formalized and centralized. The project, an extension of the Department of Social Services, had to comply with the Department's rules and regulations and the project staff felt that they were not included in many decisions which directly affected their jobs. Further, within the project, job descriptions and operating procedures defining the staff's relationships to each other and to the Department had been specified and were enforced. However, staff did have a measure of autonomy in the daily operation of their jobs.

Worker Satisfaction

To many observers, the Adams County project was considered to be an effective, productive program. In contrast to the project's popularity with others both locally and nationally, many of the staff reported that they were disappointed in the project's accomplishments, particularly believing that the project missed its golden opportunity to develop a truly preventive approach to child abuse. The staff's dissatisfaction with the

project was reflected in the results of the evaluator's management survey. With the exception of peer cohesion and staff support, the other organizational dimensions -- job autonomy, task orientation, clarity, innovation, leadership and communication -- were rated moderate to low. Except for clarity and communication, the project's mean scores for the survey's dimensions were below the overall means for the eleven demonstration projects.

Approximately 50% of the workers reported low job satisfaction. A primary factor accounting for high worker dissatisfaction with project management was incompatibility between worker's expectations and the program goals. The project proposal had been written by ACDSS and the host agency intended the project to provide an intake unit that would reduce the excessive workload of ACDSS social workers. When the project was funded, no one from ACDSS chose to leave their positions to work in the project and, consequently, all of the project staff were recruited from outside the agency, many from outside the Denver area. The new staff, predominantly recent MSW graduates, had high hopes of working in a preventive-oriented program that did community education and developed and implemented innovative treatment programs; no one was as interested in doing intake or being a part of county protective services. The project director was in the unpopular position of negotiating a compromise between the project staff and ACDSS. ACDSS had ultimate authority over the project, and the project director recognized her responsibility to work with the Department and to modify intake responsibilities gradually. Therefore, the workers had to assume the intake responsibility in addition to their other interests of treatment and community education.

The project's relationship with the host agency was also highly problematic. Soon after the project was implemented, ACDSS social workers and supervisors expressed hostility toward the project. Personality conflicts which existed between individuals in both agencies were aggravated by initially sharing cramped quarters and by the project staff's criticism of the quality of work performed by the average ACDSS worker. Another critical reason for this strained relationship was that project workers were trying to divest themselves of intake at the same time that increased reporting had expanded rather than decreased ACDSS's workload. Partially because of the resentment between the project and ACDSS, ACDSS workers tended not to refer their clients to the project's new treatment programs, and the project staff had difficulty in referring their families from intake to ACDSS for ongoing management.

Another aspect of the workers' dissatisfaction came from a sense of imposed control and accountability; some believed that they were being checked on and, consequently, their confidence and motivation were undermined. At the beginning of the final year of the project, the communication concerns reached crisis proportions. In a series of special staff meetings, the staff confronted each of these issues and began to deal with their expectations about working together. As a result, many of the problems within the project were worked through and, as the staff began to deal with their internal problems, they also tried to improve their relationship with the host agency.

Burnout

Nearly 70% of the project staff, including terminated and non-terminated workers, felt very burned out (defined as those falling in the bottom one

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third of an administered "burnout scale"). While many of the communication problems within the project and between the project and ACDSS had a negative effect on workers, the project's high rate of burnout seemed to be most highly influenced by intake responsibilities. All reported that it was a draining and thankless job because parents were angry and resentful and did not want a worker in their homes, and most clients were not motivated at this stage to work on their problems. This client attitude was contrasted with the workers' strong desire to do treatment and to work with motivated clients. Consequently, workers burned out because they sensed most of their work had little meaning or reward. As was stated earlier, intake duties gradually decreased over the life of the project, and workers reported that they were then more able to balance out the unpleasantness of intake with other, more personally meaningful treatment and educational activities.

Pro-Child: Arlington, Virginia

The Arlington project was one of the largest projects among the eleven demonstration projects. It had a total staff of 22 workers, 15 of whom were full-time. The average monthly budget was $22,161, and the project served approximately 179 clients each month.

The project's organizational structure was highly complex, in part because there were seven different disciplines actively involved in the program, and also because the project engaged in a variety of activities including community and professional education, coordinating with other agencies, and extensive treatment options.

Although the project staff reported a high degree of informality in their work environment, the project was nonetheless still subject to the regulations, procedures and specified job descriptions of the Division of Social Services. The project was somewhat less formalized than most in rule observation, and reported a high degree of job autonomy.

Although highly centralized, with the overall management and accountability resting ultimately with the Division and project director, project staff perceived they were afforded adequate participation in the decision making which affected the project and their daily work. Workers in this project, unlike most protective service workers, selected their own clients, based generally on their interests and skills, from a weekly intake staffing of all new clients.

Management

The Arlington project provided an unusual opportunity to examine a model of project management that was specifically designed to minimize worker burnout. The project proposal was written by a staff member in the Division of Social Services who had worked several years for the Department of Social Services, and who was beginning to experience the burnout phenomenon. Having been requested by the Department Director to write the demonstration project grant proposal, she took this opportunity to design a project specifically aimed at reducing the burnout both she and other co-workers had experienced. In this ideal project, workers would have access to a variety of services to provide for clients' needs (e.g., money, day care, homemakers). They would also be able to participate in decision making that affected them and their jobs (e.g., rather than finding a new

case in the mailbox, a worker would choose his/her own clients). An environment of trust and support, where staff could share both their problems and creative ideas, would be fostered, and workers would be allowed sufficien latitude to test innovative client treatment options. Flexibility of work styles and opportunities for personal growth on the job would be stressed.

When the project monies were awarded to the Division these, as well as other creative management ideas, were implemented. As a result, the project ranks very high among the eleven demonstrations in leadership, communication, staff support, job autonomy, innovation, peer cohesion, and job involvement. Overall job satisfaction is 71%. Most workers report that the project is well-managed, combining a formal organizational structure with flexibility and staff opportunity to participate in decision making. Most staff are satisfied with the support and trust that exists among workers and the positive feedback they receive, particularly the notice that is always forthcoming about a worker's accomplishments. It is apparent from all reports that the project's leadership and staff cohesiveness created an atmosphere conducive to high staff morale and a sense of the project's effectiveness and accomplishments.

Despite these positive aspects of the project, there are also management problems for which no satisfactory solutions have been found. The limitation of working within a bureaucratic organization and the difficulties encountered in obtaining needed services for clients from other division units and community agencies remain problems. The staff's greatest complaint was the amount of time wasted obtaining services for their clients due to agency regulations and red tape. Some of these problems

resulted from a conflict that existed between other units in the Department and the project. There was a history of conflicts among division supervisors, and these were exacerbated when the addition of demonstration monies allowed an expansion of staff, increased resource availability, and singling out that unit (primarily the protective services unit) as an elite group. The subsequent resentment interfered with inter-unit working arrangements, even though project staff established relationships with individual workers in the other units and were able to improve somewhat the coordination between units. In the second year some of the inter-unit strife was reduced through planned educational and cooperative meetings between units, but the problem of limited service resources elsewhere in the community continued as a problem for the project.

Another problem that had a demoralizing effect on staff was the extensive paper work requirements of the Division, Title XX regulations, the newly-developed central registry and the national evaluation. Workers reported that the amount of paperwork involved in service purchases precluded all but the most needy clients from obtaining day care and other services. Other workers noted the problems involved in securing state cars for visiting clients. These bureaucratic tangles served as disincentives toward providing clients the necessary services that were not available directly through the project.

Approximately 36% of the workers in the Pro-Child project reported some aspects of burnout. The problems mentioned above accounted for some of the workers' discouragement, but, in addition, there was a certain pessimism among staff who had worked with the project over two years about the meaningfulness of their client work. Many of the project's clients

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have difficult problems that do not respond quickly or easily to social work intervention. For some workers, it was especially disheartening to work with a client for months and begin to see progress, only to have it sabotaged by external forces. Some staff felt that their MSW training did not prepare them with the advocacy skills needed to manipulate environmental forces on behalf of their clients. Others were discouraged by the clients' hostility and lack of appreciation. But all staff agreed that they were better able to cope with these despondent periods because of the peer support, positive feedback and encouragement that a trusting, sharing work environment provided.

Turnover

Pro-Child experienced a fairly high turnover rate; 58% of the staff left the project during the three years. Many left for personal reasons, including a move, retirement or to have a family. A very small percentage reported that they left their jobs because of a disillusionment about the positive accomplishments that could be achieved by the profession or the agency, or because of the difficulties working with this client population. An even smaller percentage reported that they left the agency because of project management or supervision. The primary reason given for job termination was self-actualization of needs. A significant percentage reported that they left the project because of limited opportunities for growth and promotion in the project and because of better opportunities in a new job.

The Child Protection Center: Baton Rouge, Louisiana

The Child Protection Center was a relatively small project with a
full-time staff of 13 workers. It served an average caseload of 83 clients
with an average monthly budget of $13,906.

The organizational structure of the project was not complex. There
were only four different professional disciplines involved in the program
activities: social workers, an attorney, a doctor and a psychologist.
A moderate level of diversity characterized the project's activities,
which included professional and community education, coordination, and
case management responsibilities.

The project was highly formalized in that the staff were held account-
able by the state civil service system for procedures and policies related
to recruitment, employment and promotion. The project itself operated
fairly informally, e.g., there was no rule manual that defined how the
staff members were to relate to each other. Rule observation was rela-
tively lax.

The project was highly centralized, under the direct supervision of
the Division of Family Services, which was ultimately responsible for pro-
gram and policy decisions. However, the project operated fairly autono-
mously because it was supervised by the state office of the Division of
Family Services as opposed to the local parish office. The state office
had less time and motivation to monitor the project staff than would have
been true of the local parish office.

Satisfaction

There appeared to be a high degree of ambivalence among project staff regarding the project management and their own job satisfaction. In the management survey, staff reported moderate to high rankings for most of the management dimensions, that is, leadership, innovation, peer cohesion, staff support, autonomy, task orientation, clarity and communication. Although 83% of the staff reported high overall job satisfaction on the written questionnaires, in individual interviews workers stated they were highly dissatisfied with many aspects of their jobs, i.e., the state bureaucracy, the project leadership, and the pressure and stress of working with abusive parents. The project's 62% turnover rate and the staff's reported burnout rate (40% high burnout, defined as those falling in the bottom one-third of an administered "burnout scale") seem to verify that many workers were unhappy with the project and their jobs.

Some of the workers' ambivalence about the project could be explained by the particular characteristics of this project staff. For many of the workers, employment in the project was simply a substitute job until opportunities were available in other specialities (e.g., medical social work, planning, juveniles). The project met their immediate needs and was "okay," but never really satisfied their interests and expectations. For other social workers, the project offered an opportunity to gain work experience and be eligible for promotional opportunities in more desirable state jobs. Most of the social workers reported that they did not believe anyone could work with abusive parents beyond a year and a half. They accepted the job knowing that they would leave or burn out in a year.

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Management Issues

In addition to the staff characteristics there were a number of management problems that contributed to and speeded up burnout and turn-over among project staff. The majority of the workers were recent MSW graduates with new professional values and expectations. The project was their first job out of school and they were struggling against the state bureaucracy and limitations in the system. The battle produced substan-tial disillusionment with the state, project and clients.

The project's biggest problem with the bureaucracy occurred during the first year. In order to implement 24-hour coverage, develop coordi-nation and referral agreements, and provide community education, many of the workers reported working over ten hours a day. They felt that the state should reimburse them for this excessive overtime. The staff's initial requests were ignored. Finally, the workers filed a formal grievance, and after some delay were given an official agreement on over-time compensation.

Another problem the staff experienced with the civil service system occurred in the second year. Because the state never communicated clear-ly its civil service and hiring procedures and because of system errors, workers employed during the second year on emergency appointments were not placed on the official job registry and therefore were unable to collect overtime compensation, were bypassed for raises and workers' bene-fits, and were required to take several state tests. The most frustrating aspect for the workers was that they never had the correct information to negotiate for their own rights effectively. Some of these newly hired workers remained with the project only about four months, leaving as soon as they had located jobs in other community agencies.

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Internal staff dynamics also served to limit the project's effectiveness during part of the second and third years. After being with the project a little over one year, the project director accepted a promotion to the state office. Most staff by that time were beginning to feel strain from their work. Most had been in graduate school together and had developed a camaraderie that both enhanced and was detrimental to their work experience. The workers who also socialized together found themselves talking about the project and clients all the time and they began to identify more with each others' work crises than with the clients who were in crisis. The staff had made a commitment to each other and to the director to work with the project at least two years, but when the director announced that she was leaving, others interpreted this as permission to leave also.

The supervisor was appointed acting director and was required to do both administration and supervision until the director's position could be filled. Unfortunately, the state office was unable to find anyone who wanted the director's job and would not appoint the acting director because of a civil service technicality. No one in the state system wanted the job because of the expected workload and because the staff were reputed to be demanding.

The acting director left within months, discouraged with the dual job stresses and the unresponsiveness of the bureaucracy. Most of the remaining workers followed suit and only two social workers were left by May 1976. For nearly six months all regular treatment services were discontinued and the project was severely crippled. Finally, in response to pressure from the funder, the state began to assume a more active role in

recruiting staff. By this time the new class of MSWs had graduated from the local university and were willing to work in the project. In the meantime a supervisor from the State Juvenile Shelter applied for the project director's position. The project was completely restaffed by August 1976.

The new director, with limited child abuse experience, was not given any orientation to the project or staff, and did not receive any training for the position. When he took the job, he and the remaining staff members who had stayed with the project from the beginning and who had helped manage the program since the acting director left in March, did not have a clear idea of what his role and responsibilities in the project were. Consequently, the staff and the project director were soon in conflict. There were formal weekly staff meetings, but no one was willing to broach the topic of staff discomforts. Instead, workers often spent many hours venting complaints; energy needed for serving clients was displaced on the internal project conflict. There was no one in the project or in the state office who was willing to facilitate the resolution of the staff difficulties. Consequently, staff turmoil interfered with project productivity. Even after the project was fully staffed, most of the innovative treatment programs were not reinstated, client crises became more debilitating to workers, and they felt continuously overworked.

Child Abuse and Neglect Demonstration Unit: Bayamon, Puerto Rico

Walking into the Bayamon project is like a breath of fresh air. One is immediately struck by the warmth and nurturing atmosphere which pervades the work environment. Upon closer scrutiny one's initial feelings are borne out as you hear and see people talking and sharing with one another. The con-

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sensus in the project is that co-workers make the difference in coping with an emotionally and physically exhausting job.

Organizational Structure

Bayamon is a relatively small project. There is a total number of 12 staff, nine being full-time. The project's average monthly budget is $15,622. The program is moderately complex, engaging in a number of diverse activities including community education, community coordination, professional training, and direct service. The organizational structure has a low level of complexity, with four different disciplines actively involved in the project's activities. The organizational structure if fairly formalized; job descriptions, a rule manual and codification or procedures are written out and followed. There seems to be more informality at the daily work level, since most workers exercise a high degree of autonomy in their own jobs. Decision making regarding agency procedures, policies and program planning is highly centralized. Within the project, staff report that they participate in decisions that directly affect their jobs. For example, workers can decide what will happen at a parents' day camp, but they do not decide whether or not to have the camp. Many of the workers feel that they would prefer to have more input into the organizational level decisions.

Management

All staff seem to agree that their project is very well managed. They report that the leadership is very good. The project director gives good direction, but is not authoritarian. She is very supportive and always has an open door to listen to workers' concerns. Communication is also considered to be good. Everyone knows what they need to know to do their

job. There are both formal and informal structures for communication about program and client information. There appears to be no destructive gossip. Everyone feels that they have license to work in their own style with clients and have the necessary autonomy to do their job. One of the outstanding strengths in the project reported by each and every staff member was the good, healthy co-worker relationship. Everyone feels that they have established a strong support network that sustains them when frustrations with other agencies and difficult clients exhaust them, and this is the reason they have been able to stay with the project for three years.

While the project management appears to be exemplary, the tremendous bureaucracy that the project is submerged in causes great frustration for all workers. Foremost, the bureaucratic red tape interferes with workers' ability to get clients the services they need. There are long delays on every request for service. When the project moved into their new quarters the staff did not have telephones for six weeks until the central office could make the arrangements for installation. Consequently, clients did not have direct access to workers, and workers were compelled to use the telephones at the central office some distance away from their own offices. Further, the project does not have direct access to funds necessary to purchase supplies needed for their program components. There are always delays in obtaining approval of contracts, obtaining requisitioned supplies, and receiving authorization for extra activities (e.g., printing educational materials). While the project director managed to bypass many of these bottlenecks, many delays did hinder the full execution of project activities and presented an extra source of frustration for workers.

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Secondly, workers feel very insecure as provisional workers, their job classification due to the project's demonstration status. The central office does not give the project staff any extra benefits or retirement benefits. Most workers feel very insecure and resent the lack of commitment demonstrated by the central office.

Because of these bureaucratic hassles, workers feel they are less effective in their jobs. The high group cohesiveness among project staff has made it possible for everyone to espress frustrations and anger openly, however, and receive support to continue coping with the central office. Thereby, less of this frustration is directed at clients.

Turnover/Satisfaction/Burnout

Only two staff members have left the project: a service worker and the project director. The project director, who had been with the project about 2-1/2 years, resigned to accept a position teaching in the local university School of Social Work. A staff member was promoted to the directorship position for the remainder of the project. The project staff has been stable throughout the project, but some instability in project operation occurred because the project itself moved twice during the three years.

There is a very high feeling of job satisfaction among all workers. Interestingly, while there is 100% high job satisfaction, almost 30% of the staff report high burnout and 43% report moderately high burnout. In conversations with workers it became clear that this staff, although exhibiting high esprit de corps, was suffering emotional and physical exhaustion. There are a number of reasons why burnout occurred among such a competent staff and in a well-managed project. The workers themselves express extremely high expectations regarding what they must accomplish.

Several social workers expressed it this way: "This project is like our child. We will do anything to make it work. We work nights, we don't take our vacations, we work weekends. We have success but we are exhausted." "This pride we all feel is good professionally, but sometimes we are so tired it is hard to continue working." Linked with this high expectation and desire by the staff to help their clients is the difficulty of getting services from other public bureaucratic agencies. In order to get housing, welfare and medical care for their clients, workers must spend a lot of time and energy cutting through red tape. And, for many clients, there are no services available in the community to help them.

In addition to these factors is the serious problem presented by the Bayamon client load. Many clients have very difficult problems; they are either mentally ill, very poor, or very isolated multi-problem families. All are those who do not make much progress, or if progress is made, it is up and down.

Coupled with the workers' high expectations and the exhausting nature of the work is the fact that workers do not take their vacations and tend to work long hours. While most workers nurture themselves with family activities, reading and various social activity, most workers feel that they need a large block of time set aside for recuperation. But, if the staff take their vacations, then other workers must assume an increased load. Because people feel so close to one another, they are hesitant to create additional work for their peers. One worker summed up the solution: "There just seems to be too many demands for the amount of time available for clients; either we must reduce non-client demands or reduce the number of clients."

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SCAN: Little Rock, Arkansas

Organizational Structure

The Arkansas project is one of the largest projects among the eleven demonstrations. In addition to the seven full-time staff, there are appro imately 130 workers involved in the SCAN program. Lay therapists, social service coordinators, and a pool of professional consultants make up this added manpower resource. The two county offices serve an average of 73 clients a month, operating on a combined monthly budget of a modest $11,129.

The project's organizational structure is highly complex because of the wide dispersion among the project offices, the number of agencies joint-ly participating, and because of the seven or more professional disciplines that actively contribute to the project's activities.

The project has formalized guidelines and working arrangements for the three major agency participants (Social Services, the University and SCAN), delineating procedures for coordination both at the central and local levels. While job descriptions were written for the first year grant, there remains high flexibility and somewhat ambiguous operating rules within SCAN. Prior to September 1976, there did not exist any for-malized personnel record keeping system. Records of workers' absenteeism and turnover did not exist. There were no written operating manuals de-fining promotion opportunities, recruitment and hiring practices, or a formalized system for sharing information. It is in the central office in Little Rock that policy decisions and program plans are made. Further, the central office exercises some control and input into decisions made by local offices via control over the budget, and through the regional coordinators who are largely responsible for supervising county offices and coordinating

the local directors with the central office. Despite the important role Little Rock has in project policies, the county directors tend to be highly autonomous, exercising personal latitude in planning and implementing project activities.

Management Problems

As mentioned previously, the SCAN project has a widely dispersed organizational structure and involved inter-agency effort at both a central and local level. It is not surprising that the key management problems between the central and local offices and among the SCAN county directors and social service workers are concerned with coordination and communication problems and decision making roles. Often coordination and communication between SCAN central office and the state office of social services has been facilitated by the University's management consultant available to the project to assist with inter-agency disagreements. But at the county levels, much of the coordination has been successful or unsuccessful depending upon the personalities, commitment and other priorities in the local offices. Because most SCAN workers perform a capable job with their clients, the local social services have grown to trust and value SCAN's assistance. With increased trust, many initial coordination problems have been resolved.

Within SCAN itself, the primary source of coordination is the centrex phone system which allows much informal contact among the SCAN workers. Another source of coordination has been the state office coordinator who travels to the local districts every two weeks and directs the staffing with the lay therapist and local administrators. In addition, a management assistant from the University publishes a newsletter once a month and tends to assist in sharing information on personal and program developments. As

SCAN has grown there has been some effort, albeit belated, to create a support group among the local directors to coordinate activities, share ideas and give assistance to each other. Many SCAN lay therapists report that they do not know anything about how decisions are made or how the central office is run. Many feel disassociated from the central office. Information sharing also tends to be one way (down rather than up); hence, many local staff members resent the central office's seeming reluctance to elicit or use input from the counties, and they have begun to resist this one way flow of information.

Management

Some of the growing dissatisfaction with the management and organization from SCAN workers is because SCAN's tremendous growth in the last few years is taxing the agency's existing structure and tradition. While additional state-level coordinators have been added to cope with the new county programs, until recently there has been little consideration of revising the decision making process or promoting cross-county coordination. Historically communication and decision making are controlled primarily by the SCAN Director. This was more feasible when SCAN consisted of one office and an informal group of volunteers. Now, as the program has become much more complex, decisions made by a single individual appear to be insensitive or inappropriate to each county's needs. SCAN training is a particularly apt example of the agency's isolated decision making and heavy emphasis on tradition. Training has always been held in Little Rock, despite the fact that lay therapist recruits increasingly come from outlying counties and must drive long distances and stay at considerable personal expense in Little Rock. The number of potential recruits has

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outgrown the facilities in the last few sessions, requiring many to sit long hours on the floor. Previously, recruits could be screened throughout training because of the close and intimate contact with the SCAN leaders. Now screening is less systematic and primarily relies on individuals to drop out. Initially all attendees of the training were new recruits and required basic orientation and background information. Now many lay therapists have come to 4-6 sessions and find the material irrelevant to their more sophisticated needs and expectations. County directors have tried to modify this training with only minor success, e.g., recent training sessions have included several seminars for advanced lay therapists.

A charismatic leader was primarily responsible for establishing SCAN. Although she has had the able assistance of others, she has played an unquestionable role in SCAN's success and direction. She has always maintained ultimate control. However, as the agency grew, there was a need for management and decision making systems to become more routinized. This has happened very slowly and in an unplanned fashion. Recently, the local counties have become more vocal in demanding some input into decisions that affect them, and are beginning to assert their power and introduce ideas that will make the organization and management more relevant to its increased size and more varied program activities.

Turnover

While there has been only moderate turnover among the full-time staff, three out of an average staff size of seven, there has been high turnover among the lay therapists. Over half of the lay therapists in both Washington and Jefferson counties left after an average stay of 8.8 months. A small

percentage stated they left because they were burned out; about 25% left because they were moving; about 25% left because they were thought to be ill-suited for the job; and approximately 50% left for personal or medical reasons. Some of the complaints mentioned by volunteers, in explanation of the turnover, included: "I never did know what I was supposed to be doing with my families"; "Most of our families do not know why we are coming nor do they want us to visit them. Few families are grateful for our efforts"; "There is no real supervision or help in the handling of our cases. The group staffing is often depressing because no one's clients seem to be getting better"; "I don't feel able to help many of these families because they have so many problems." Many lay therapists feel unappreciated and unrewarded by SCAN staff and the Little Rock office, evidenced by the disregard they feel at the training sessions. Many feel strong value conflicts with clients and feel unable to work with some clients.

Most of the reported burnout (33%) occurred among those lay therapists and the few staff members who lost their jobs when job descriptions were changed without their input. Interestingly, despite the nagging management struggles, most workers in the SCAN projects report high satisfaction (73%) and very little burnout. This consistent enthusiasm for the project seems to be due to the reported great opportunities for self growth and development that staff have experienced through their work with SCAN and with community professionals and clients. In addition to personal growth opportunities, there is a strong commitment by all SCAN workers to each other and to the SCAN program that transcends the organization. And, finally, most of the workers who are highly satisfied and motivated also experience strong supportive family relationships and extensive social

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activities that nurture them off the job and provide a healthy distraction from their work.

The Child Development Center: Los Angeles, California

The Los Angeles project had written an innovative program proposal, but the lack of coordination between the co-principal investigators from Drew Medical School and the poor organizational structure, serious management problems and co-worker disruptions mitigated against the program realizing its potential.

Organizational Structure

The Los Angeles project was a small program with 23 total staff members, 12 of whom were full-time. Because the project was a residential treatment program, the average monthly budget of $15,796 is somewhat larger than one would expect for a program that served only nine families at a time.

The original program was designed to be moderately complex with a variety of treatment options, and four different disciplines involved, but much of the planned diversity in program activity was never implemented. The program was, however, extremely complex in the structural relationships it had with the departments of Pediatrics and Psychiatry at the Medical School. Officially, there was a high degree of formality in the prescribed rules, regulations and job descriptions; however, the project itself maintained highly informal, non-specified arrangements with the host agency. Major policy decisions and program planning required approval by the co-principal investigators in the Pediatrics and Psychiatry departments; thus the project was centralized in authority. Some confusion existed among

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the staff regarding who had decision making responsibility about program activities and individual job performance, and there was little consensus among the workers regarding the amount of autonomy they could exercise in their jobs.

Management

Many of the management problems experienced by the Center have been alluded to, affirming the impact that management concerns have had on the implementation and daily operation of this program, and offering one explanation for the project's apparent lack of success.

One of the dominant management problems was the relationship between the project and the host agency (Drew Medical School) and specifically the problems arising from the relationship of the two co-principal investigators from competing departments, Pediatrics and Psychiatry. The two departments were forced to collaborate after the original proposal from the Pediatrics Department was rejected by OCD pending the addition of a mental health component, i.e., Psychiatry. From the very beginning the two departments disagreed on expectations for the project, the designation of a project director, and the procedures for coordination. The project director, hired nearly 18 months after the project was funded, was placed in the difficult position of having to work with these two departments, which were by then undergoing a number of internal changes in leadership and program goals, further complicating an already strained partnership. Because of this situation, staff roles were never delineated, department responsibilities and commitments were never specified and lines of authority were not drawn. Consequently, there was always confusion and ambiguous guidelines about the management of the program. Under different leader-

ship these conflicts might have been handled more effectively, but this project director never believed that he had the mandate or flexibility to manage the program and make decisions because of political repercussions, and thus believed the whole situation unworkable.

To further complicate the coordination and communication problems that existed among the project administrators, and perhaps as a result of these difficulties, there were also communication problems among the project staff. Project management consisted of both a project director and a treatment coordinator. Unfortunately, both persons were responsible for supervising the same staff; exclusive lines of authority did not exist. This structural problem was further complicated because both people were unable to work together or deal directly with mutual communication problems. Tension, conflict and verbal battles were the result, affecting the whole staff. Staff were given contradictory job descriptions and discrepant evaluations of work performance. Because the project director was at the same time somewhat inaccessible to the staff, as he tried to cope with his problems with the medical school, he was unaware of other communication and co-worker problems that began to interfere with program operation and service delivery. Formal communication structures did exist in the form of regularly scheduled staff meetings, but these sensitive communication problems and interpersonal issues were never raised or dealt with openly. As the problems became more disruptive, the director tried to remove one staff member, but because he failed to label the problems correctly and share the issues with the entire staff, they misinterpreted his actions and motives, and effectively blocked this staff change. During the second year, after several key staff members had left the project,

workers reported an improvement in their work environment and enhanced job satisfaction. While there continued to be management problems, many of the internal stresses had been reduced. Upon examining these earlier job pressures, staff report that clients had never caused personal emotional stress, but that internal problems of the project were pervasive and were the cause of anxiety and psychosomatic complaints. When the program stabilized after a staff crisis that had existed nearly a year, workers finally were able to provide the necessary services to clients.

Turnover/Burnout/Satisfaction

There was high turnover in this project, primarily among the house parent and children's staff. This turnover was due to the long hours houseparents were required to work and the low pay they received. There was some effort to shorten the hours, and to carefully screen and inform recruits about the job's demands, in hopes of reducing the turnover that jeopardized the children's program and placed greater demands on other staff. With changes in the parent treatment staff, there was improved communication between children's staff and project director. Improved communications helped to anticipate and correct minor grievances before they escalated.

There was turnover in two key positions among the treatment staff. This turnover can be directly attributed to the management problems already discussed -- communication problems, co-worker conflicts, and the confusion that existed in role definition and lines of authority. These problems also had an impact on the workers who chose not to leave the project, some of whom report low job satisfaction (about 40%) and many of whom were burned out by the experience (50%). Project morale improved somewhat in

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the last few months of the project after staff changes and a revitalization of the children's and parents' programs occurred.

The Child Development Center: Neah Bay, Washington

Things are happening on the Makah Indian Reservation. Indirectly, much of it is due to the efforts of the Child Development Center. One of the exciting outcomes of this project has been the development of a cadre of trained Makah workers who now have management and organizational skills and who are prepared to assume leadership roles in their community.

Organizational Structure

Neah Bay is a very small project: five full-time staff and an average monthly budget of $4643, reflecting the very small reservation the project serves. Over the life of the project an average monthly caseload of approximately eight clients has been maintained. In the last year, however, the caseload size has grown to an average monthly load of 45 clients, 20 active and 25 stabilized cases. With the growth in caseload size, an additional full-time worker has been employed to assist in service delivery. The project is highly complex in the sense that the program activities include parent education, community social service coordination, legislative activity and direct services; yet, the organizational structure is not complex since only two different disciplines are involved in the operation of the project. The project operates in a fairly formalized setting, with job descriptions and rule manuals detailing policies and procedures. However, among the project staff, there is a high degree of informality, demonstrated through the sharing of various job and

administrative duties and a fairly egalitarian attitude, despite the differences in status and role assignments. The project is highly centralized in that all decisions are made by the Tribal Council and the project is held accountable by them and is dependent upon them for all policies and procedures. But, again within the project, there is equal participation by all staff members in making decisions on program changes, service innovations and assignment of tasks.

Management

The project appears to be highly formalized and centralized with formal job descriptions, titles and job specialization, but, because at the operational level there exists a participatory style of management, periodically there is confusion regarding roles, status, duties and program direction. The chameleon-like organizational structure, the project's own evolving nature, and the relatively inexperienced staff combined to create some of the management difficulties reported by the project in the areas of leadership, communication and planfulness. As might be expected in this situation, there were initially conflicts among the staff about who would do what, where, when and how. Some staff felt imposed upon, others felt that their positions were being threatened. As the project staff became more confident and more clear about program objectives and personal preferences, communication channels opened up between workers and many of the suppressed resentments and confusions were aired and resolved. Now a staff member with a personal problem or work-related stress interfering with her performance can share this difficulty with co-workers and is assured that she will receive support and permission as she resolves the conflict. Other workers will assist her with her job until the problem

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is alleviated. This atmosphere of caring and sharing has provided an environment in which daily tensions and disagreements are being resolved and many of the management concerns are confronted. A strong sharing bond has developed among the co-workers and has been a critical factor in the project's successful accomplishment of their program goals.

Turnover

The project staff membership has been stabilized since the beginning. There has been only one turnover when the first project director was promoted to a substantially higher position. The stabilized staff has provided the continuity to build the linkages and networks necessary for the successful community social service system that is now working with families and children.

Burnout and Satisfaction

One of the exciting paradoxes about the management of this project is that this fairly successful project is staffed by inexperienced workers who have not had the educational training that the workers in many of the other eleven projects have had. None of the workers had experience with abuse and neglect prior to the project. With the exception of the first project director, none of the workers has had formal administrative responsibilities. But, this team accomplished much in the short span of three years. Outsiders and evaluators might be tempted to label the seeming non-compliance with filling out forms and other sensible requests as inefficiencies and ineffective project management. But, since the intent of management is to integrate the human characteristics of the workers and clients with the organizational structure into an effective and efficient

working agency that accomplishes its goals in keeping with its cultural mores, this project management has been successful. The staff followed a plan of management that made the most sense in their environment and that was responsive to their needs. While maximizing training opportunities and skill development workshops offered by the evaluation, consultants and numerous other resources, they adapted what was learned to the special demands presented by their clients living in a reservation setting. Now the Makah Indian Tribe has five well-trained workers who are using their skills to cope with many of the long-standing problems that exist on the reservation.

How then, in view of the project's success and unanimous high job satisfaction score by project members, do we explain that there was some feeling of burnout in this project? An obvious clue is the staff's very pessimistic appraisal of the available opportunities for promotion and advancement. Evidence of this is the staff's constant surveillance of all job vacancies and the sense of competition that exists among them for any job opening that promises more opportunity. Not only is there little opportunity for promotion with the project or Tribal Council, but the chances for advancement with any social service agency in the community also appear dismal. The disheartening fact is that regardless of project staff skills and achievements of the last three years, they do not qualify for jobs in their field because they do not have formal degrees. "What happens next when the project ends?" This seemingly bleak personal future must explain some of the burned out feelings that are reported by the workers.

The Family Resource Center: St. Louis, Missouri

St. Louis is a small project with six full-time staff members and a moderate sized monthly budget of $15,654. The project maintains an average caseload size of 40 clients. The project appears much larger when one considers the nearly 70 students and volunteers who participate in the variety of program treatment activities. The Family Resource Center is a highly complex organization. The project utilizes students and volunteers in addition to the seven different disciplines actively involved in the project. The program activities include a diversity of treatment programs, community and professional training and education, coordination, research, and legislative activities.

The organization is fairly formalized; there are specific job descriptions and an operating manual that defines the project's procedures and policies. There seems to be more informality among the staff in actual rule observation. The project is moderately centralized in that policies and program decisions are ultimately made by the project director, with input from staff. The Board's role in decision making is fairly undefined at this time. Decision making that pertains to individual jobs seems to be moderately centralized in that coordinators appear to be responsible for final decisions. This is probably due to the use of volunteers and students in the actual service delivery programs, requiring coordinators to assume more responsibility in supervising and overseeing individual work.

Management

Because the St. Louis project is very small and has a highly
interdependent program structure, good coordination and communication are
critical for program management effectiveness. During the first two years,
the St. Louis project experienced a great deal of internal interpersonal
conflict that tended to divide the staff, and thereby jeopardize the
project's participatory model of decision-making. In addition, time spent
on internal staff problems drained staff members' energy for their
clients. Late in the second year of the project, staff turnover and
new staff recruitment seemed to result in an alieviation of these
internal management problems.

Turnover/Satisfaction/Burnout

The project did experience major utrnover (64%) during the second year.
Perhaps coupled with this turnover was a feeling on the part of many staff
that supervision was inadequate and all workers were overworked. More
specifically, several workers who felt that supervision was inadequate felt
that they simply were not learning and growing in their jobs as they had hoped.
A fairly consistent theme among workers, the need to learn and grow, along
with internal staff conflict, seems to explain the mount of reported job
dissatisfaction (43%) and burnout (36%) evident in the project.

Parent and Child Effective Relations Project (PACER): St. Petersburg, Florida

A parent aide program and a multidisciplinary team were begun, professionals and community received quality training and education, and a coordinating committee is underway in St. Petersburg to cope with the child abuse system's deficiencies. Sadly, many of the PACER staff could not appreciate or enjoy those accomplishments and the positive response the community has made to their efforts.

Organizational Structure

St. Petersburg is a very small project with six full-time staff and an average monthly budget of $9704. Since PACER is primarily a coordination and education/training project, the program only serves a client population of 18 families who are enrolled in the parent aide program. If one includes the number of volunteers who have worked with the project over the last three years, the total number of staff increases to 55. Because over seven different disciplines are actively associated with PACER's variety of programs, the project's organizational structure is highly complex. The project staff comply with the procedures and guidelines established by the host agency, the Juvenile Welfare Board (JWB), but these appear to be enforced in an informal and somewhat capricious manner. There do not appear to be clear guidelines specifying the relationship between PACER and JWB. Most of the project staff report that the decision making both in reference to their jobs and the organization is highly centralized. There is no consensus regarding the amount of personal autonomy people exercise in their jobs.

Management

The project's relationship to the host agency seems to have produced a number of problems for most of PACER's staff in the areas of job morale, job motivation and task involvement. This mistrusting and suspicious relationship was especially visible during the last eight months of the project. Much project staff energy seemed to be invested in these differences. Some of this conflict can be explained by factors surrounding the initiation of PACER. The project proposal had been written by some members of JWB's staff, but the staff hired to do the job were all newcomers to JWB, and many of them were new to the St. Petersburg area. Additionally, during the first year the JWB director had been focusing his energy on other JWB programs and did not give the project an adequate introduction to the agency or share with his staff PACER's role and importance to the overall program. To many workers in JWB the "PACER crowd" symbolized an elite group of professionals who were paid more and given too much latitude. These factors, coupled with PACER staff's more aggressive attitude regarding their role in agency decision making and their outspokenness on a number of issues, combined to create tension and friction between the two staffs. In the second year many of these differences were dealt with by the JWB director and PACER team through joint staff meetings in which PACER's role and purpose were clarified. There followed some efforts to develop a sense of mutuality by both PACER and JWB. However, the project staff has continued to operate with a low grade hostility and resentment toward JWB and the agency goals and policies. Many of these resentments were intensified with the project's termination. The staff felt especially rejected when JWB would not make a commitment

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to adopt the PACER programs or most of the staff. Termination became a very demoralizing process for most PACER members.

While the staff unanimously feels that PACER itself is very efficient and well managed, there seems to be no consensus on the written questionnaire responses regarding the quality of leadership, communication, peer cohesion, or job design issues. People agree that they have learned a lot, that they have used a team approach in assisting each other with work responsibilities, but at the same time workers do not rate the individual management process very high. The workers' ambivalence about the project management and the extremely high percentage of burnout in the program (50% of the members were highly burned out, 33% were moderately burned out) can be explained at least in part by the lack of support felt by all staff and the personal characteristics of this staff. The PACER staff never felt validated. All workers report that they have never been told by anyone in JWB that they had done a good job. Within PACER itself, workers felt that they did not receive sufficient positive feedback, praise, or words of appreciation. Some reported that following a successful presentation or conference, workers did not offer positive feedback to each other, but rather talked about the overall reaction of the audience. The conversation was "gossipy" rather than personally reinforcing. On the surface, while management processes seem excellent, because there was this negative affect that surrounded project activities and communication, and because of the lack of personal feedback, staff remained ambivalent about each other and the program.

Personnel characteristics also explain the lack of consensus among the workers regarding management and the high burnout rate in the project.

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Many of the staff have experienced or are experiencing personal disappointments, losses, or problems which tend to overlap with the job. Because of the small size and the extensive job sharing, much time was spent on the job providing support to each other on these personal issues. While this type of sharing can bind staff together, it can also immobilize and interfere with work relationships and job responsibilities. This seems to be the case with this project. The staff never seemed to confront this dilemma directly or determine how to sort out the boundaries between the personal investment in each other's lives and the job responsibilities and work relationships.

The Panel for Family Living: Tacoma, Washington

Tacoma is a highly complex organization both in number of disciplines involved in the program and in the great diversity of program activities. Despite the highly manifold nature, Tacoma is a well-managed and highly efficient project.

Organizational Structure

Tacoma appears to be a very small project. They had eight full-time staff members and a $10,000 per month budget over the lifetime of the project. But, in addition to the full-time staff there are over 100 active professional board members, consultants and volunteers affiliated with the project. Also, students from local colleges actively work with the project. When the total number of staff are counted, Tacoma is one of the largest projects among the eleven demonstrations. This project, both board and

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staff, are involved in a wide variety of program activities including edu-
cation, training, advocacy and services. Also, over nine different dis-
ciplines are actively represented in project activities. This accounts
for the high degree of complexity in Tacoma's organizational structure.
The project operates fairly informally -- rules and procedures evolved only
late in the second year -- but tends to be highly centralized in decision
making because board members have ultimate decision making authority. How-
ever, the staff actively participate in decisions made about their own jobs
and have a high degree of personal autonomy.

Relationship with Host Agency

Tacoma is one of the few projects in which the board has an active role
in the project operation and makes program and administrative decisions.
They wrote the personnel policies and decide budget allocation, and deter-
mine accountability and monitoring systems. The Panel's board has always
been an active participating body, operating somewhat informally through
committees of peers. Management problems occurred when this dynamic inde-
pendent group of volunteers was faced with the responsibility of managing
a staff of 7-8 people, also professionals with ideas and plans sometimes
differing from those of the board members. This type of an arrangement
tends to create special management problems in terms of role clarification,
communication and coordination, and Tacoma is no exception. Nearly 1-1/2
years were spent establishing lines of authority and responsibility, clari-
fying roles, and instituting procedures for communication and coordination.
The task was somewhat more difficult because the first director of the pro-
ject had also been the past president of the board and "one of the gang."
As director, the board members found his status somewhat confusing. "Was

he a board member or is he a staff member?" Resolution of many of these management issues became feasible with the election of a new board president and the hiring of the second director. Both were committed to developing new patterns for board and staff interactions. The resulting solutions placed an overwhelming burden of coordination and communication upon the project director and executive board. The project director, in addition to individual meetings with project staff, attends all executive board meetings and the committee meetings of the board. Approximately 15 hours a week of the director's time are spent in meetings, communicating both formally and informally about both project and board activities. Acting as the interface between the board and staff demands much of the project director's time and energy, and is not always as personally satisfying as program planning and project implementation activities, but because both of the directors of this project have been willing to work closely with all participants, the Panel has had a smoother implementation of their program than could have been anticipated.

Internal Communication

As one enters the project's offices, one is impressed with the efficient work-oriented atmosphere. People are busy with their own work and there is very little hint of conflict or dissension. But, in fact, staff report quite openly that many conflicts have existed or continue to exist among each other. People have intruded upon each other's space and have strong differences of opinions, conditions that are common when strong, independent individuals work together in a small physical space. But the interesting difference between Tacoma and other conflict ridden programs is that in Tacoma there is a structure or an agreement among the staff that

all differences are to be dealt with directly and assertively. An unspoken rule is that all staff members have a right to demand and receive respect and responsiveness. And, it appears that staff do deal with personal conflicts fairly quickly and decisively. When differences occur that individuals cannot work out, the project director acts as mediator and facilitates the compromise. It is difficult to deal with angry feelings or conflicts; the strength of this project's ongoing operation has been that these rather sensitive areas are not ignored or repressed but confronted directly and openly. So despite the recurring tensions, staff are able to work out agreements and continue working together without disrupting program operation.

Job Design

For most people in the projects, their job design allows them high autonomy, flexibility and variety. Most workers feel that they are included in decisions made about their job and program that they are involved with. They report low job pressure and high staff support and good peer cohesiveness. Most workers seemed to be task-oriented and highly involved with their jobs. But rarely are people involved with each other in their job-related tasks. Because of the many different program activities handled by such a small staff, each individual staff member is largely responsible for a complete program, i.e., training, service, or community education. Consequently, there is a high degree of job-related isolation. Some of the symptoms expressed by different staff members are: "What is missing is an overall appreciation for the interdependent parts." "Personally people get along well, but lack a job cohesiveness." "People could do a better job if they knew what others were doing and could see how each job

is important to the total agency." These are frequent complaints of highly specialized jobs. People become competent at their own job but miss the grand scheme. For many people, specialization does not create problems, but in the Tacoma project there are individuals who feel that they have missed something and resent the isolation. "No one knows exactly what I do and therefore cannot give me specific feedback and recommendations." So while the project is highly efficient and effective, a high percentage of the staff report low satisfaction (41.7%) and feelings of being burned out (33.3%). This can be explained partially by job specialization and concomitant job isolation.

Turnover/Satisfaction/Burnout

Tacoma has a fairly high turnover rate. Seven out of an average monthly staff of eight, as well as many volunteers and students, left the project during the first 2-1/2 years of operation. This turnover seems to be less a reflection of the project management than directly an outcome of the project design. The project utilizes volunteers, students and CETA employees for many of the program activities. Students change regularly following the school calendar. Several CETA positions were eliminated when their funding ended. Other staff left when the project's research plans changed. In fact, the project has only lost three major staff members: the director, a community worker, and a service worker. Of these, the director left because of greater opportunities in the next job.

As mentioned earlier, there is a significant amount of dissatisfaction and burned out feelings among workers presently employed in the project. Some of this dissatisfaction and burnout can be explained by personnel expectations. There happen to be a number of individuals who are under-

utilized and feel misplaced in their present jobs. While these individuals do not feel that the project is poorly managed or inefficient, they feel that they are not being challenged and are not growing in their present jobs, but due to external constraints have not terminated employment. Dissatisfaction does not seem to reduce the overall performance of the project, but at the same time it does contribute to a malaise about activities that might explain some of the recurring tensions and internal non-job related conflict that exists and is handled in the project.

The Child Abuse and Neglect Demonstration Project: Union County, New Jersey

The Union County project is the largest project among the eleven demonstrations in the number of full time staff, client caseload and average monthly budget. The project employs a staff of 29 members, 25 of whom are full time, and serves an average monthly caseload of 294 clients. The average monthly budget is $44,898.

The project's organizational structure is highly complex. In addition to the six different disciplines actively involved in the project, it maintains intra-organizational contracts with private community agencies to deliver services to their clients. This multi-agency involvement in the project requires complex negotiations within the state bureaucracy including the Contracts Office and State Treasury.

The project is an extension of the local district office of protective services and is therefore highly formalized. The project must comply with carefully specified civil service requirements that dictate recruitment, hiring and promotion practices, and is subject to the formalized rules and procedures of the state and local district offices. However, within the

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project, because of its evolutionary nature, employees perceive the agency to be highly informal. Until recently, there were no written job descriptions or an operating manual that described how the staff was to relate to the contracting agencies or specified arrangements for communication among the various sub-units in the project.

The project is highly centralized in decision making related to program planning and policies. Ultimate decisions rest with the supervisor in the local district office, who in turn must get clearance from her superiors. The project is fairly decentralized in decisions regarding internal work activity and daily operating procedures. Some workers report that staff participation in decision making has tended to vary depending upon the project director's preference. Many feel that they have had too little to say about decisions which directly affect their jobs.

Management

The Union County project, according to many observers and project staff, has had management and morale problems since its inception. Turnover started within the first six months, when a supervisor and a social worker left the project. The management survey results tend to verify these early assumptions about the project's functioning. Over 46% of the project staff report themselves highly dissatisfied with their jobs. The project burnout rate is also very high -- over 40% are very burned out and nearly 50% are moderately burned out. The project rated the following management dimensions as being moderate to low: peer cohesion, task orientation, clarity, innovation and control. Job involvement, staff support, job autonomy and work pressure are ranked as moderate to high. There is

no consensus regarding the "goodness" or "badness" of project leadership and communication. Relative to the overall mean for the eleven demonstration projects, Union County is below mean on all the above management variables, with the exception of staff support and leadership, which were both on the mean.

Interviews with project staff and management help illuminate the many factors that contributed to the consistently low staff morale and the workers' perception that their project, at least for most of the three years, was poorly managed. The problems that were consistently reported by the staff deal with bureaucracy, project management, leadership, communication, supervision, lack of support, and the pressure and difficulty in working with abusive parents.

Instead of the opportunity to do innovative work with clients, staff spent, on the average, three days of a week in a maze of paperwork and bureaucratic red tape. Part of the frustration and length of time were due to the lack of information and instruction about what was required. There was no single instruction book. Rules and regulations changed regularly and staff were not always informed about changes. Supervisors did not have the answers. Consequently, workers learned as they went -- a painfully slow and unproductive process.

Even if workers completed their paperwork in less than three days, there was no guarantee that they could spend more time with clients. Workers were required to use state cars while transporting and visiting clients. Workers who used their own cars were not always reimbursed in a timely fashion. Unfortunately, the project had only 4-6 cars available

for the nearly 20 workers serving 294 clients. To add to these frustra-
tions, workers were expected to visit all their clients at least once a
month. Workers found it impossible to comply with visitation requirements
when overwhelmed with paperwork and transportation scheduling problems,
and became very discouraged and cynical.

Much of the frustration and dissatisfaction evidenced among project
management was related to bureaucratic civil service requirements that
prevented them from hiring professionally trained workers. Because it
was nearly impossible to get special permission to employ non-civil ser-
vice applicants or adjust salary scales, young and inexperienced workers
were given job preference over social workers skilled in the field of
child abuse. This meant that management spent much of their time training
and educating new workers. Frequently, after being trained and gaining
some experience, these young workers requested transfers to other depart-
ments, e.g., foster care or adoptions. Management believed that the pro-
ject would have been more effective if they had been free to recruit
appropriate manpower.

In addition to these bureaucratic constraints, staff felt that project
management was also a precipitating factor in job dissatisfaction. Many
workers complained that because the first project director had to give so
much attention to the community agencies in establishing contractual
arrangements, she had to ignore the internal management of the project.
Implementing these community service contracts required much of the direc-
tor's time, but there was no effort to delegate more of the project manage-
ment responsibilities to the coordinators or assistant positions. Conse-
quently, many workers did not perceive an effective structure for project

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operation; rather, they felt the project was in perpetual crisis and dis-
ruption. Because there were no job descriptions, because lines of authority
were not clear and patterns of communication and working together were not
specified, workers were often confused and angry about what appeared to
be vague and contradictory information. Workers were further confused
because they faced jobs that required investigation and supervision, but
perceived that they were expected to do therapy and treatment with their
clients since this was the major focus of training. The issues of work
roles and dissatisfaction with project management were never addressed
directly by the workers in staff meetings.

Supervision was another continuing source of frustration to the work-
ers. Staff never felt that anyone knew what they were doing with clients
or that they were given good direction and feedback in their work with
clients. The quality of supervision tended to decrease when supervisors
were under additional pressures from upper management. It appeared that
supervisors spent more of their time monitoring paperwork than in develop-
ing cohesive work units and providing direct guidance and assistance for
working with clients. The supervisors themselves complained that they had
never been given adequate supervision, training or support in doing their
jobs. In fact, they often felt overly criticized and under-appreciated.

Everyone in the project felt the need for more support and positive
feedback. Workers were not particularly cohesive or supportive. Since
the workers are divided into specialty sub-units, there was little time
or opportunity for sharing with each other. There was no organized way
for supervisors to give each other support. Many workers who burned out
in this job attributed the lack of support and sharing as a critical ele-
ment in their

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Finally, many of the workers reported that working with angry, hostile clients day after day was an important factor in burning out. This was particularly true of the intake workers who found their work grueling, working with 5-10 intakes a week, many of which were difficult physical and sexual abuse cases. There seemed to be no time to rest because the unit was always short a worker. Other workers felt that the work with abuse clients was very traumatic. They were making decisions that directly affected the future lives of the child and the family. Due to limitations in supervision and support, some social workers acted without the confidence that they were "making the right decision" and often felt guilty about removing children or taking a family to court.

Another aspect of working with clients that frustrated workers was the amount of time and energy needed to deal with public agencies and the struggle of getting needed services for clients. Many times there just were no resources. Many workers found this work discouraging and left the agency.

While many of these management problems continued to nag the project for the full three years, all workers interviewed reported that project leadership and staff morale improved in the third year. During the second and third year the new director began to build a structure for internal project organization. Staff communication improved. There were now regularly scheduled staff meetings in which workers' gripes were aired and information was shared clearly and directly. Some group decision making was encouraged. All supervisors met with middle management for program planning and to make decisions that directly affected project operation.

Supervisors began to work more closely with their units and case reviews were regularly scheduled. Despite the fact that many bureaucratic con-. straints remained, workers were more excited about their jobs and the work they were doing with clients. To many, it was very sad that as the project began to resolve many of its internal problems and was able to operation- alize its model program, federal funding was ending.

APPENDIX D

Data Collection Instruments

Card #1 Col.

Project: _____ ID# |___|___|___|___| l-4

BPA Use Only

Name: _____

Age: _____ years   5-6

Sex: |___| (1) male |___| (2) female   7

Job Title: 8-9

|___| (1) project director |___| (6) nurse |___| (10) researcher

|___| (2) coordinator |___| (7) social worker |___| (11) case aide

|___| (3) supervisor |___| (8) psychologist |___| (12) teacher

|___| (4) trainer |___| (9) lay therapist |___| (13) other (specify)

|___| (5) doctor   _____

Is your position in the agency classified as: l0

|___| (1) paid permanent |___| (4) temporary volunteer

|___| (2) paid temporary |___| (5) other (specify)

|___| (3) permanent volunteer   _____

Do you work: |___| (1) full time (37 hours or more per week) ll

|___| (2) part time (less than 37 hours per week)

Do you have supervisory responsibilities over other agency personnel? l2

|___| (1) yes

|___| (2) no

Years of elementary or high school completed: (circle the highest grade of l3-l4
elementary or high school completed. If you graduated from high school,
circle 12)

01   02   03   04   05   06   07   08   09   10   11   12

Years of undergraduate education completed: 0   1   2   3   4   5 l5

Major undergraduate field: l6-l7

|___| (1) sociology |___| (6) pre-med |___| (10) other (specify)

|___| (2) social work |___| (7) counseling   _____

|___| (3) psychology |___| (8) English |___| (11) double major (specify)

|___| (4) education |___| (9) History   _____

|___| (5) nursing   _____

|___| (12) not applicable

D.2

Years of graduate school completed: 0   1   2   3   4   5   6+   28

Major graduate field: 29-20

     |__| (1) sociology |__| (5) medicine |__| (9) nursing

     |__| (2) social work |__| (6) counseling |__| (10) other (specify)

     |__| (3) psychology |__| (7) English

     _____

     |__| (4) education |__| (8) History |__| (11) not applicable

Highest degree received:

     |__| (1) AA |__| (4) MSW |__| (7) Professional doctorate   21

     |__| (2) BA/BS |__| (5) MD |__| (8) None

     |__| (3) MA/MS |__| (6) PhD |__| (9) Other (specify)_____

Years employed in a social service or family service job: (circle the number of   22-23
     years)

        01 or less   02   03   04   05   06   07   08   09   10+

Months employed in project: _____ months   24-25

Total amount of experience working with child abuse families: 26-28

     _____ years, _____ months

Card #1   80

D.3

JOB DESCRIPTION INDEX

Card #2 Col.

ID# |___|___|___|___|
BPA Use Only

1-4

Think of your present job. Think first about your CLIENTS, then about the PROJECT, then about your CO-WORKERS, then about your JOB, and about the OPPORTUNITIES IN YOUR JOB. Under each of these characteristics of your job is a set of statements. Circle the number (1,2,3,4,5) beside each statement, that MOST REPRESENTS how you feel. The items may not always seem to apply; just give general impressions. We want your first response of how you feel about the statement.

	Almost Always	Very Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Almost Never	
MY CLIENTS						
a. I feel optimistic about our clients.	1	2	3	4	5	5
b. I realize that our clients cannot be helped no matter how hard I work	1	2	3	4	5	6
c. Our clients make unrealistic demands on our agency	1	2	3	4	5	7
d. Our clients are demanding too much emotional involvement from me.	1	2	3	4	5	8
e. Most of our clients' problems can be dealt with	1	2	3	4	5	9
f. I have become disenchanted with our profession's willingness to help clients	1	2	3	4	5	10
MY PROJECT						
a. This organization has problems which a person cannot do anything about.	1	2	3	4	5	11
b. I no longer believe that this project can really accomplish any good	1	2	3	4	5	12
c. This project has goals which are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	13
d. Even when the project makes mistakes, I still support the project.	1	2	3	4	5	14
e. This project has rules and policies that are not made to help clients	1	2	3	4	5	15
f. My views are elicited and considered when organizational and management changes are planned.	1	2	3	4	5	16
MY CO-WORKERS						
a. My co-workers and I work closely together.	1	2	3	4	5	17
b. My co-workers want to help others, e.g., clients and each other	1	2	3	4	5	18
c. I don't accept most of my co-workers' views, interests, or values.	1	2	3	4	5	19

	Almost Always	Very Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Almost Never	Col.
MY CO-WORKERS (continued)						
d. I feel a lack of sharing among my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	20
e. My co-workers and I share an interest in each others' lives, beyond our work environment.	1	2	3	4	5	21
f. I have confidence in the capabilities of my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	22
MY JOB						
a. My job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	23
b. My job is only necessary in order to have other things I want and need.	1	2	3	4	5	24
c. I am in charge of how my job is done . . .	1	2	3	4	5	25
d. My job is self-fulfilling.	1	2	3	4	5	26
e. I am discontented with my job.	1	2	3	4	5	27
f. My job absorbs most of my interest and attention during the work day.	1	2	3	4	5	28
g. My job is an important job in this agency's program	1	2	3	4	5	29
OPPORTUNITIES IN MY JOB						
a. I have the opportunity to really help other people	1	2	3	4	5	30
b. I do not believe that it is possible to improve society's problems through this job.	1	2	3	4	5	31
c. I have reached my maximum growth potential in this job.	1	2	3	4	5	32
d. I am able to express myself in my work . .	1	2	3	4	5	33
e. I have the chance to engage in self-directed productive activity in my job . .	1	2	3	4	5	34

Card #2 80

D.S

ID# |___|___|___|___|
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1-4

Circle (3) for yes, (2) for no, or (1) for when the word or phrase is not applicable, you are uncertain, or cannot decide what best represents your job.

THE WORK I DO IS:	Yes	No	???	Col.
fascinating.	3	2	1	5
routine.	3	2	1	6
satisfying	3	2	1	7
boring	3	2	1	8
good	3	2	1	9
creative	3	2	1	10
respected.	3	2	1	11
hot.	3	2	1	12
pleasant	3	2	1	13
useful	3	2	1	14
tiresome	3	2	1	15
healthful.	3	2	1	16
challenging.	3	2	1	17
on your feet	3	2	1	18
frustrating.	3	2	1	19
simple	3	2	1	20
endless.	3	2	1	21
gives sense of accomplishment	3	2	1	22

THE PAY I GET IS:	Yes	No	???	Col.
adequate for normal expenses	3	2	1	23
barely live on it. . . .	3	2	1	24
bad.	3	2	1	25
satisfactory profit sharing.	3	2	1	26
income provides luxuries	3	2	1	27
insecure	3	2	1	28
less than I deserve. . .	3	2	1	29
highly paid.	3	2	1	30
under paid	3	2	1	31

PROMOTION OPPORTUNI- TIES I HAVE ARE:	Yes	No	???	Col.
good opportunity for advancement	3	2	1	32
opportunity somewhat limited	3	2	1	33
promotion on ability. .	3	2	1	34
dead-end assignment . .	3	2	1	35
good chance for promotion	3	2	1	36
unfair promotion policy.	3	2	1	37
infrequent promotions .	3	2	1	38
regular promotions. . .	3	2	1	39
fairly good chance for promotion	3	2	1	40

SUPERVISOR I HAVE:	Yes	No	???	Col.
asks my advice.	3	2	1	41
hard to please.	3	2	1	42
impolite.	3	2	1	43
praises good work . . .	3	2	1	44
tactful	3	2	1	45
influential	3	2	1	46
up-to-date.	3	2	1	47
doesn't supervise enough.	3	2	1	48
quick tempered.	3	2	1	49
tells me where I stand.	3	2	1	50
annoying.	3	2	1	51
stubborn.	3	2	1	52
knows job well.	3	2	1	53
bad	3	2	1	54

D.6

SUPERVISOR (con't.)	Yes	No	???	Col.
intelligent	3	2	1	55
leaves me on my own . . .	3	2	1	56
around when needed. . . .	3	2	1	57
lazy.	3	2	1	58

CO-WORKERS I HAVE ARE:

	Yes	No	???	Col.
stimulating	3	2	1	59
boring.	3	2	1	60
slow.	3	2	1	61
ambitious	3	2	1	62
stupid.	3	2	1	63
responsible	3	2	1	64
fast.	3	2	1	65
intelligent	3	2	1	66
easy to make enemies. . .	3	2	1	67
talk too much	3	2	1	68
lazy.	3	2	1	69
unpleasant.	3	2	1	70
no privacy.	3	2	1	71
active.	3	2	1	72
narrow interests.	3	2	1	73
loyal	3	2	1	74
hard to meet.	3	2	1	75

Circle the face that indicates the way you feel about your job in general: Col. 77

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Card #3   80

D.7

ID# |___|___|___|___|
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Below are 47 statements about the place in which you work. The statements are intended to apply to all work environments. However, some words may not be obvious in meaning. For example, the word "supervisor" is meant to refer to the immediate boss, manager, supervisor, or department head that you report to.

You are to decide which statements are true of your work environment and which are false. Circle the appropriate response.

If you think the statement is TRUE or mostly TRUE of your work environment, circle the (2) at the end of the sentence. If you think the statement is FALSE or mostly FALSE of your work environment, circle the (1) at the end of the sentence.

PLEASE BE SURE TO ANSWER EVERY STATEMENT

		True	False	
1.	The work is really challenging.	2	1	5
2.	People go out of their way to help a new employee feel comfortable	2	1	6
3.	Supervisors tend to talk down to employees.	2	1	7
4.	Few employees have any important responsibilities	2	1	8
5.	People pay a lot of attention to getting work done.	2	1	9
6.	There is constant pressure to keep working.	2	1	10
7.	Things are sometimes pretty disorganized.	2	1	11
8.	There's a strict emphasis on following policies and regulations	2	1	12
9.	Doing things in a different way is valued	2	1	13
10.	There is not much group spirit.	2	1	14
11.	The atmosphere is somewhat impersonal	2	1	15
12.	Supervisors usually compliment an employee who does something well.	2	1	16
13.	Employees have a great deal of freedom to do as they like	2	1	17
14.	There is a lot of time wasted because of inefficiencies	2	1	18
15.	There always seems to be an urgency about everything.	2	1	19
16.	Activities are well planned	2	1	20
17.	If an employee comes in late, he can make it up by staying late	2	1	21
18.	New and different ideas are always being tried out.	2	1	22
19.	A lot of people seem to be just putting in time	2	1	23
20.	People take a personal interest in each other	2	1	24
21.	Supervisors tend to discourage criticisms from employees.	2	1	25
22.	Employees are encouraged to make their own decisions.	2	1	26

	True	False	
23. Things rarely get "put off 'till tomorrow".	2	1	27
24. People cannot afford to relax	2	1	28
25. Rules and regulations are somewhat vague and ambiguous.	2	1	29
26. People are expected to follow set rules in doing their work	2	1	30
27. This place would be one of the first to try out a new idea.	2	1	31
28. Work space is awfully crowded	2	1	32
29. People seem to take pride in the organization	2	1	33
30. Employees rarely do things together after work.	2	1	34
31. Supervisors usually give full credit to ideas contributed by employees	2	1	35
32. People can use their own initiative to do things.	2	1	36
33. This is a highly efficient, work-oriented place	2	1	37
34. Nobody works too hard	2	1	38
35. The responsibilities of supervisors are clearly defined	2	1	39
36. Supervisors keep a rather close watch on employees.	2	1	40
37. Variety and change are not particularly important	2	1	41
38. Supervisors do not inform staff regarding agency procedures and changes in a timely fashion	2	1	42
39. The lack of good communication gets in the way of me doing my job	2	1	43
40. Leaders are able to tolerate uncertainty without anxiety and upset	2	1	44
41. My best source of information regarding what is going on in the project is informal conversation.	2	1	45
42. Leaders apply pressure on staff members to complete all their work on time.	2	1	46
43. People are told what is expected of them in their job	2	1	47
44. Leaders have not clearly defined their own roles nor are they clear about what others' responsibilities are	2	1	48
45. The way we do things in this agency changes a lot	2	1	49
46. Leaders do not regard the comfort, well being, and contributions of staff members.	2	1	50
47. There is a lot of absenteeism in this agency.	2	1	51
48. Leaders maintain a closely knit organization and attempt to resolve inter-staff conflict.	2	1	52

Questions on pages 5 and 6 are from the Job Description Index (JDI) developed
by Patricia Smith, Lorne M. Kendall, and Charles L. Hulin.   *Card #4*   80

Questions 1-38 on page 7 and 8 are from the Work Environment Scale (WES)
developed by Rudolf H. Moos and Paul M. Insel.
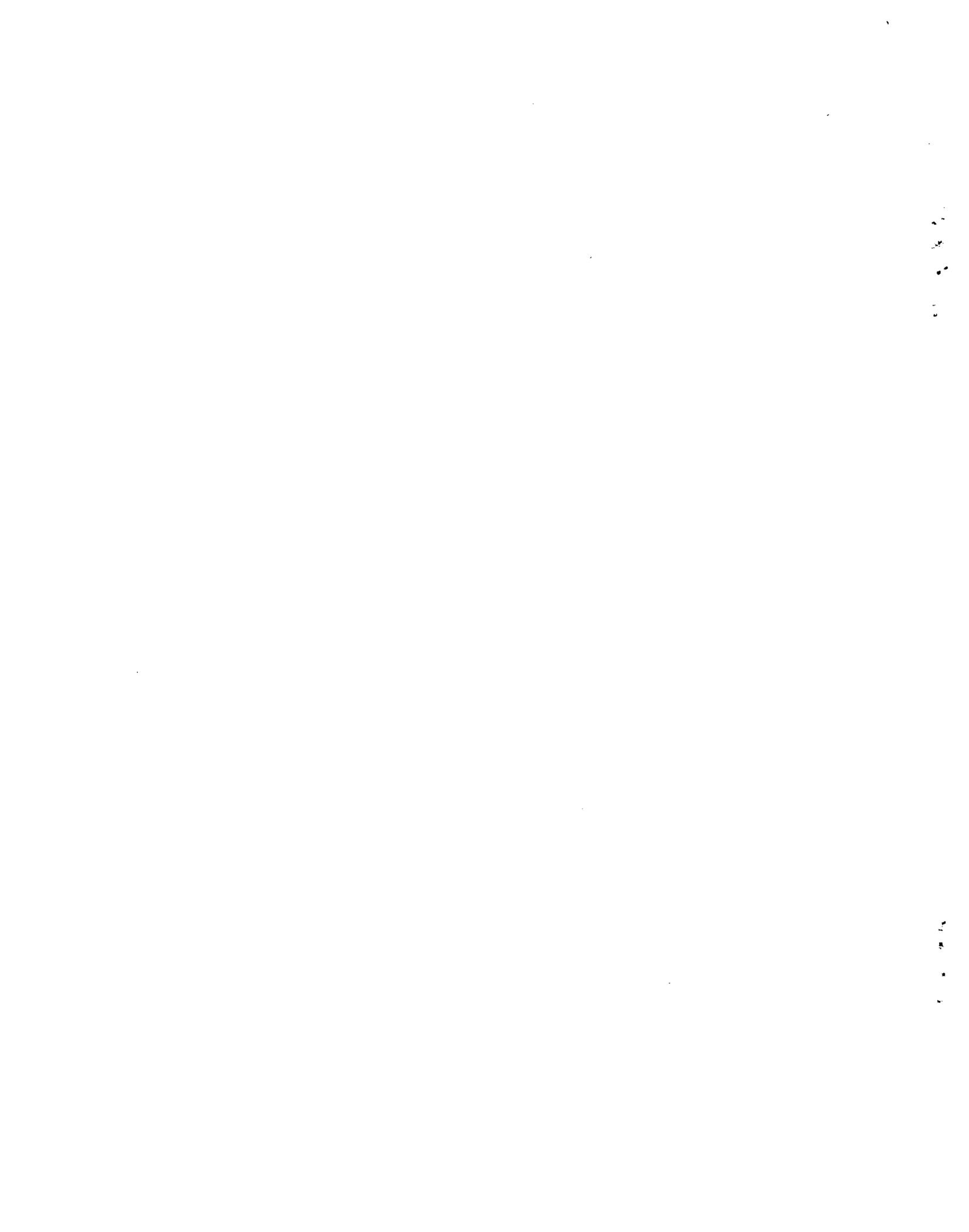
Project: _____ ID# |___|___|___|___|

BPA Use Only

2-4

Name: _____

*Below is a list of items that are often given as reasons for leaving a job.
Please weight the items in terms of their importance in influencing you to
leave the child abuse and neglect demonstration project.*

	Very Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Not Very Important	Not Relevant	
a. salary	5	4	3	2	1	5
b. limited opportunity for promotion.	5	4	3	2	1	6
c. kind of supervision received while on the job	5	4	3	2	1	7
d. the way the project was organized.	5	4	3	2	1	8
e. the project management	5	4	3	2	1	9
f. limited opportunity for personal growth and development	5	4	3	2	1	10
g. client population served by the project.	5	4	3	2	1	11
h. amount of work required.	5	4	3	2	1	12
i. lack of participation in decision making.	5	4	3	2	1	13
j. better opportunity in the new job I have now	5	4	3	2	1	14
k. job was not compatible with interests and/or needs	5	4	3	2	1	15
l. co-worker relationships.	5	4	3	2	1	16
m. project policies	5	4	3	2	1	17
n. project goals.	5	4	3	2	1	18
o. the work had little meaning or importance.	5	4	3	2	1	19
p. disillusioned with the amount of good that can be accomplished through my profession.	5	4	3	2	1	20
q. attitude toward clients became less optimistic.	5	4	3	2	1	21
r. disillusioned with the amount of good that could be accomplished through this agency. . . .	5	4	3	2	1	22

	Very Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Not Very Important	Not Relevant	Col.
s. personal reasons, unrelated to job itself or co-workers.	5	4	3	2	1	23
t. other reason (specify)						
_____						
_____						
_____	5	4	3	2	1	24

Card #5 | 80

Guide for Worker Job Satisfaction and Burnout Discussion

I. Nature of working in this project

Probes: a. What makes this project an attractive place to work?

b. What is the nature of the project management?

1. decision-making

2. job autonomy

3. communication

4. coordination

5. role clarification

6. group sharing

7. job pressure

c. Do you want to be working in this agency? Why? Why not?

II. Nature of your job:

Probes: a. What is your job?

b. Are you doing what you expected to be doing when you were first hired?

c. What is frustrating about your job?

1. Do you feel your training prepared you for this job?

2. Do you feel you have adequate supervision and support to do this job?

3. Do you have enough autonomy and freedom to make decisions about your job?

4. Do you feel this job offers enough opportunity to grow and develop your skills?

5. Are you satisfied with your salary?

d. Does this job suit your interests and vocational wishes?

e. How would you improve your job?

f. How do you nurture yourself off the job?

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III. <u>Nature of relationships with co-workers</u>

Probes: a. Are there good working relationships among your co-workers?

    1. Do you find that people are supportive of each other and seem to care about each other?

    2. Do workers give each other assistance on individual cases, sharing resources, referral information and techniques of working with clients?

    3. Do the work units work more closely together than individuals across work groups?

    4. Does your work group and/or co-workers socialize after working hours?

b. How do you explain why these good or bad working relationships exist?

    1. organizational structure

    2. client demands

    3. job pressures

    4. supervision

    5. co-workers characteristics

c. What are your expectations regarding the importance of co-worker relationships?

IV. <u>Nature of working with child abuse clients</u>

Probes: a. How would you describe your clients? How well do they conform to the expectations you had when you were first hired?

b. What is frustrating or rewarding about working with your caseload?

c. How do you handle your feelings about clients?

Guide for Management and Organization Discussion with Director

Project Name: _____

Project Director: _____

Work Experience:

As a clinician	As an administrator
_____ less than one year	_____ less than one year
_____ 1-3 years	_____ 1-3 years
_____ 4-6 years	_____ 4-6 years
_____ 7-9 years	_____ 7-9 years
_____ 10+ years	_____ 10+ years

How long with this project? _____ years, _____ months

Promoted from within this agency? _____ yes, _____ no

Recruited from outside the agency? _____ yes, _____ no

I.   Describe how the organization works

Probes: a. the organizational structure

b. leadership/supervision process

c. communication process

d. coordination process

e. job design of service delivery

f. staff relationships

g. general personnel policies on compensatory time, sick leave, vacation, leaves of absence

II. Describe the changes that the project has undergone since its beginning (since you have been director) and what their impact has been on the project

Probes: a. major changes in these areas:

1. number of director/staff changes

2. number of organizational changes due to the internal operation of the project

3. number of changes in the service delivery structure (program changes)

4. any changes imposed on project by external actors

5. have goals/purposes changed drastically

III. Describe the project's relationship with the host agency

Probes: a. Does this project have any written agreements with the host agency pertaining to specific program procedures, for personnel interaction, client referrals, joint committees or other activities, or are all interactions informal?

b. How does the host agency monitor the project's progress, operations, and decisions?

c. How does the project fit in with the other activities the host agency is involved with?

d. To what extent is the project affected by the internal operation or organization of the host agency?

e. How are fiscal matters handled? Do you have freedom to spend your budget independently of the host agency's OK? What is the overhead cost charged the project? What are the procedures for developing agreements on fiscal matters?

f. About how much time is devoted to coordination, communication with the host agency (how frequently do you communicate with the host, in what manner, i.e., telephone calls, meetings, etc.)?

IV. What do you see as the management/administrative problems that have affected service delivery and project performance?

Probes: a. organizational structure, bureaucracy, relationship with host agency

b. hiring/recruitment/training of workers

c. staff changes

d. relationships with community institutions

e. relationships with federal monitors in Washington, D.C.

V. <u>Do you enjoy being a manager or project director in this project?</u>

   Probes: a. Does it provide opportunities for growth and develop-
                ment?

            b. Does it provide opportunities for improving the com-
                munity system and service delivery for clients?

            c. What are the frustrations? What have you learned
                that helps you cope with these frustrations (specific
                examples)?

            d. Do you like being an administrator? What are the
                satisfactions?

VI. <u>How do child abuse clients versus other client types affect manage-
    ment, morale, turnover, etc.?</u>

VII. <u>What do you want from the management analysis? How can it be
     helpful to you?</u>

Name of Project _____   Site Liaison _____

Name of Reporter _____   Date _____

1. WHAT ARE THE PERSONNEL SELECTION AND RECRUITMENT PROCEDURES?

    a. What are the official written procedures? (bring back a copy)

    b. What flexibility exists in terms of hiring (e.g., special emergency approval)?

2. CAN WE GAIN ACCESS TO INFORMATION REGARDING TURNOVER (PROMOTION TO ANOTHER OFFICE AS WELL AS LEAVING THE PROJECT) AND ABSENTEEISM (SICK LEAVE AND WORK LEAVE, BY NUMBER OF DISTINCT TIMES ABSENT)?

    _____ Yes   _____ No   _____ Not sure

    a. Who do we call for information? _____
    _____

    b. Where are these records located? _____
    _____

    c. Do we need special permission from workers? _____
    _____

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Page 2

3. WHAT IS THE SIZE OR SCALE OF THE ORGANIZATION?

    a. The number of personnel employed:

        _____ full-time   _____ volunteers

        _____ part-time   _____ consultants   _____ total

    b. Size of yearly budget (including funds from all sources) $_____

    c. Average monthly expenditure (from all sources) $_____

4. WHAT IS THE SPAN OF CONTROL IN THE PROJECT? (SPAN OF CONTROL REFERS TO THE NUMBER OF MEMBERS MANAGED BY THE AVERAGE SUPERVISOR AND/OR ADMINISTRATOR.)

List each person who has supervisory position	Number supervised*	Level of responsibility**
a.		
b.		
c.		
d.		
e.		

5. WHAT IS THE LEVEL OF COMPLEXITY OF THIS PROJECT (THE DEGREE OF STRUCTURAL DIFFERENTIATION WITHIN THE ORGANIZATION)?

    a. List the administrative staff (e.g., director, coordinator, accountant, secretary, the full-time members of the organization who perform the non-service delivery activities). Note who are support staff.

Administrative staff	Position
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

* The number of people directly responsible to the reported individual.

**The level of supervision (e.g., first line supervisor, coordinator, etc.).

5. b. List how many levels of authority exist. How many individuals are within each level if different from span of control?

Level of authority/position   No. individuals within each

1. _____   _____

2. _____   _____

3. _____   _____

c. List the number of service delivery levels (e.g., lay therapist, caseworker I, caseworker II) represented in the project.

Service delivery levels   No. individuals within each

1. _____   _____

2. _____   _____

3. _____   _____

4. _____   _____

5. _____   _____

d. List the number of professional disciplines represented in this project (e.g. psychiatrist, social worker, nurse, lawyer).

Professional disciplines   No. individuals within each

1. _____   _____

2. _____   _____

3. _____   _____

4. _____   _____

5. _____   _____

6. _____   _____

e. How many sub-units or departments are in the project (the lowest level of administrative unit in the agency, which is not further subdivided)?

_____ (number)

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6. ASK A REPRESENTATIVE FROM EACH LEVEL OF AUTHORITY, MENTIONED IN QUESTION 5b,
    THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.

Name _____   Level of Responsibility _____

Project _____   _____

a. Who is most likely to make the decision regarding the following issues?

	Worker	Supervisor	Coordinator	Project Director	Advisory Board	Levels superior to Project Director
1. promotion of workers						
2. salary increases for workers						
3. procedures to be used in review of cases						
4. social work methods to be used with clients						
5. assignment of casework responsibilities						
6. size of caseload						
7. authorization of emergency funds to clients						
8. referrals to other community agencies						
9. personnel practices						
10. scheduling of appointments with clients						

b. List the names of individuals, external to the project, who make important decisions regarding project functioning (e.g., advisory board chairman, district supervisor).

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

Page 5

7. ASK A REPRESENTATIVE OF EACH LEVEL OF AUTHORITY MENTIONED IN QUESTION 6 THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.

Name _____   Level of Responsibility _____

Project _____   _____

	Definitely true	More true than false	More false than true	Definitely false
a. I feel that I am my own boss in most matters				
b. A person can make his own decisions here without checking with anybody else				
c. People here are allowed to do almost as they please				
d. People here feel as though they are constantly being watched to see that they obey all the rules				
e. There is no rules manual				
f. There is a complete written job description for my job				
g. Whatever situation arises, we have procedures to follow in dealing with it				
h. Everyone has a specific job to do				
i. Going through the proper channels is constantly stressed				
j. Whenever we have a problem, we are supposed to go to the same person for an answer				

BRING BACK RULE AND PROCEDURE MANUALS, IF AVAILABLE.

D.23

Schedule Used to Collect Information on Turnover and Absenteeism

Terminated Staff   Project Name _____

Worker Name and Address	Position in Project	Dates of Employment	Present Employment Post/Position

Absenteeism (including those workers who have left the agency)   Project _____

Worker Name	Number of Days Sick Leave	Number of Days Leave Taken	Number of Days Vacation Time	Number of Months for Which Data Collected

APPENDIX E

Correlation Matrices

TABLE E-1

Correlations Among Burnout, Satisfaction and Personnel Variables (using Pearson Correlation r)

	Burn-out	Satis-faction	Age	Sex	Degree	Experience in Social Service	Job Title	Work Time	Supervision Role	Months Employed in Project	Experience With Abuse/Neglect	Salary
Burnout	1.00											
Satisfaction	$.59^a$	1.00										
Age	$.20^a$	.06	1.00									
Sex	$.19^b$	.13	$.11^c$	1.00								
Degree	.09	$.15^b$	.01	-.12	1.00							
Experience With Social Service	-.07	$-.12^c$	$.36^a$	$-.16^b$	$.34^b$	1.00						
Job Title	-.06	$-.16^b$	$-.14^b$	.09	$-.38^b$	$-.52^a$	1.00					
Work Time	$.15^b$	.05	.05	$.13^b$		$-.15^b$	$.16^b$	1.00				
Supervision Role	$-.22^a$	-.05	$-.11^c$	.07		$-.31^b$	$.27^a$	$-.13^b$	1.00			
Months Employed in Project	$.14^c$	.10	.03	$.13^b$	-.02	.03	-.02	$.13^b$	$-.23^a$	1.00		
Experience With Abuse/Neglect	.04	.05	$.19^a$	.03	.11	$.36^a$	$-.25^a$	-.08	-.01	$.40^a$	1.00	
Salary	-.05	.01	$.19^a$	$-.21^c$	$.51^b$	$.51^a$	$-.52^a$	$-.41^a$	$-.26^a$	.07	$.23^a$	1.00

[a] Significant $p < .01$; [b] Significant $p < .05$; [c] Significant $p < .10$.

F.2

TABLE E-2: Correlations Among Burnout, Satisfaction and Organizational Variables (using Pearson Correlation)

	Burnout	Satisfaction	Total Staff	Client Load	Complexity	Span of Control	Recruitment	Job Codification	Rule Observation	Specificity of Job Description	Centralization: Organizational	Centralization: Job Level	Turnover Rate
Burnout	1.0												
Satisfaction	.58												
Total Staff	.07	-.06											
Client Load	-.20[3]	-.19[1]	-.32[3]										
Complexity	-.03	-.11	.63[3]	.19[3]									
Span of Control	.11	.05	.75[3]	-.51	.49[3]								
Recruitment	.01	-.08	.19[3]	.29[3]	.23[3]	-.12[1]							
Job Codification	-.14[1]	-.16[2]	-.31[3]	.28[3]	-.44[3]	-.31[3]	-.16[2]						
Rule Observation	-.22[3]	-.27[3]	-.21[3]	.10[1]	-.38[3]	-.24[3]	-.29[3]	.59[3]					
Specificity of Job Description	.12[1]	.13[1]	-.45[3]	.09	-.68[3]	-.59[3]	.20[3]	.42[3]	.01				
Centralization: Organizational	-.12[2]	.01	-.42[3]	.12[1]	-.31[3]	-.27[3]	.03	.10[1]	.11[1]	-.001			
Centralization: Job Level	.004	.08	-.23[3]	.31[3]	-.13[2]	.06	.001	.50[3]	-.05	.42[3]	.36[3]		
Turnover Rate	.13[1]	-.02	.70[3]	-.28[3]	.40[3]	.26[3]	.12[1]	-.45[3]	-.23[3]	-.16[2]	-.52[3]	-.52[3]	1.0

[1] Significant $P < +.10$

[2] Significant $P < .05$

[3] Significant $P < .01$

E.3

TABLE E-3: Correlations Among Burnout, Satisfaction and Management Variables (using Pearson Correlation r)

	Burnout	Satisfaction	Involvement	Peer Cohesion	Staff Support	Autonomy	Task Orientation	Pressure	Clarity	Control*	Innovation	Leadership	Communication
Burnout													
Satisfaction	.58												
Involvement	.29	.33											
Peer Cohesion	.25	.31	.21										
Staff Support	.35	.42	.21	.29									
Autonomy	.41	.40	.31	.22	.45								
Task Orientation	.47	.49	.37	.36	.33	.42							
Pressure	−.35	−.27	−.17	−.26	−.26	−.33	−.29						
Clarity	.42	.33	.20	.29	.26	.19	.54	−.26					
Control	.06	.03	−.10	.03	−.18	−.34	−.02	.25	.08				
Innovation	.40	.28	.25	.17	.39	.48	.39	.24	.25	−.04			
Leadership	.59	.50	.27	.34	.67	.49	.49	.28	.45	.01	.48		
Communication	.52	.44	.27	.34	.53	.34	.49	−.30	.39	.06	.34	.64	

*All relationships between burnout and management variables, with the exception of "Control" are significant P <.01

E.4

TABLE E-4

Correlations Among Burnout/Satisfaction, Absenteeism, Termination (using Pearson Correlation r)

	Burnout	Satisfaction	Absenteeism	Termination
Burnout	1.0			
Satisfaction	.58[a]	1.0		
Absenteeism	−.09	−.17	1.0[a]	
Termination	−.36[a]	−.25	−.02 [a]	1.0

[a] Significance P <.05

CORRELATIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL AND MANAGEMENT VARIABLES: (USING PEARSON CORRELATION r)

	Involvement	Peer Cohesion	Staff Support	Autonomy	Task Orientation	Pressure	Clarity	Innovation	Leadership	Communication
Total Staff	$.13^b$	.09	-.02	$.18^b$	$.18^b$	$-.15^b$	$.10^c$	-.04	.05	-.02
Caseload Size	$-.18^a$	$-.21^a$	.03	$-.11^c$	$-.30^a$	$.25^a$	$-.27^a$	-.01	.04	$-.16^b$
Complexity	.04	.10	.03	$.17^b$	.09	$-.11^c$	.07	.03	$.15^b$	.06
Span of Control	$.11^c$	$.13^b$	$-.11^c$	.07	$.22^a$	-.08	$.26^a$	-.04	$-.02^b$	.09
Recruitment	$.13^b$	$.11^c$	$.15^b$	$.24^a$	-.04	-.05	$-.19^a$	.02	.03	-.02
Job Codification	$-.18^a$	$-.21^a$	-.09	$-.34^a$	$-.27^a$	$.37^a$	-.09	-.07	$-.18^a$	$-.19^a$
Rule Observation	$-.29^a$	$-.25^a$	$-.12^c$	$-.43^a$	$-.33^a$	$.23^a$	$-.10^c$	$-.27^a$	$-.25^a$	$-.17^b$
Job Specificity	.06	.01	.02	.03	.00	.09	-.05	.05	-.04	-.08
Organization Decisions	$-.15^b$	$-.13^b$	-.05	$-.18^a$	$-.37^a$	-.03	$-.27^a$	-.05	$-.18^a$	$-.19^a$
Job Decisions	-.09	.07	$.14^b$	$-.22^a$	$-.20^a$	$.21^a$	-.03	-.001	$-.13^c$	$-.18^a$
Turnover	$.17^b$	$.07^b$	.05	$.22^a$	$.21^a$	$-.29^a$	.05	-.01	$.13^b$	.00

[a]Significant p < .01; [b]Significant p < .05; [c]Significant p < .10

TABLE E-6

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLES AND BURNOUT
CONTROLLING FOR THE CONFOUNDING INFLUENCE
OF PERSONNEL CHARACTERISTICS

Organizational Variables	Burnout	Change in r for Burnout When Controlling for Personnel Variables				
		Age	Sex	Degree	Work Experience	Age; Sex; Degree; Work Experience
Total Staff	.07	.08	.09	.08	.10	.08
Caseload Size	-.21	-.12^c	-.12^c	-.21^a	-.13^c	-.26^a
Complexity	-.03	.02	.04	-.03	.04	-.07
Span of Control	.09	.09	.09	.10	.10	.14^c
Recruitment	.01	-.07	-.09	-.003	-.09	-.08
Job Codification	-.09	-.13^c	-.13^b	-.14^b	-.15^b	-.02
Rule Observation	-.25^a	.23^a	.21^a	-.22^a	-.22^a	-.19^b
Job Specificity	.13	.08	.05	.12^c	.06	-.11^c
Organization Decisions	-.12	-.05	-.07	-.09	-.07	-.04
Job Decisions	.00	.06	.03	.01	.03	.07
Turnover Rate	.20^a	.22^a	.23^a	.14^c	.24^a	.12

[a]Significant at p < .01.
[b]Significant at p < .05.
[c]Significant at p < .10.

E.7

TABLE E-7

THE EFFECTS OF PERSONNEL AND ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS IN EXPLAINING THE
VARIATIONS IN BURNOUT AMONG CHILD ABUSE WORKERS
(USING MULTIVARIATE REGRESSION ANALYSIS)

Variables in the Regression Equation	B	Standard Error B	Significance of F
Age	4.19	1.54	.008
Degree	2.01	1.17	.09
Sex	3.57	2.97	.23
Work Experience	-1.87	1.34	.17
Caseload Size	-2287E-01	.177-01	.20
Job Specificity	8.35	17.19	.63
Rule Observation	-3.89	2.54	.13
Organization Decisions	2.53	5.41	.64
Recruitment	-3.21	8.74	.71
Job Decisions	-2.31	12.30	.85
Turnover	-1.73	11.87	.88
Job Codification	2.52	4.35	.56
Total Staff	.40	.100	.692
Complexity	.422	3.08	.89

Note: Significance of F of the whole equation $p < .05$.
       Adjusted R^2 = .10.
       N = 125.

TABLE E-8

THE EFFECTS OF PERSONNEL AND MANAGEMENT FACTORS IN EXPLAINING
THE VARIATION IN BURNOUT AMONG CHILD ABUSE WORKERS
(USING MULTIVARIATE REGRESSION ANALYSIS)

Variables in the Regression Equation	B	Standard Error B	Significance of F
Age	3.10	1.28	.02
Sex	2.89	2.52	.25
Degree	.85	.97	.38
Work Experience	-91E-01	1.24	.94
Control	.58	.97	.55
Clarity	1.04	1.23	.40
Pear Cohesion	.68	2.20	.76
Innovation	2.23	1.29	.09
Involvement	.91	1.69	.59
Pressure	-1.70	1.05	.11
Staff Support	.41	1.29	.76
Autonomy	.77	1.36	.57
Communication	1.47	1.36	.28
Task Orientation	.66	1.17	.58
Leadership	2.63	1.33	.05

Note: Significance of F of the whole equation $p < .01$.
       Adjusted $R^2 = .44$.
       N = 125.

E.9

TABLE E-9

THE SIGNIFICANT RESULTS OF A DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS OF BURNOUT BY PERSONNEL,
ORGANIZATIONAL, AND MANAGEMENT VARIABLES

Variables	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients	Unstandardized Discriminant Function Coefficients
Sex	−.24	−.60
Supervisory Responsibility	.22	−.46
Work Time	−.09	−.33
Caseload Size	.21	.01
Formalized Rule Observation	.24	.31
Leadership	−.33	−.27
Communication	−.20	−.20
Innovation	−.40	−.43
Age: 24 or less	.55	1.57
Age: 25-30	.56	1.13
Age: 30-40	.17	.37
Degree: BA	.29	.64
Degree: MS/MA/MSW	.53	1.10

NOTE: Eigen Value = .46   Chi Square = 40.24

Canonical Correlation = .56   D.F. = 13

Percent of Trace = 100.0   Significance p < .000

Wilks Lambda = .69   Percent Correctly Classified = 75.4