

CURRICULUM VITAE

Naeem Shaikh

naemjis@yahoo.co.uk

Education

Ph.D. 05/2018, University of Maryland School of Social Work, MD

MSW 05/2008, Edinboro University of Pennsylvania, PA

BSc 04/1993, Mumbai University, India

Research Interests

Cultural Competence
Social Dominance
Political Ideology

Teaching Interests

Cultural Competence/Diversity
Research
Human Behavior in the Social Environment
Policy
Field Education
International Social Work

Practice/Service to the Community Interests

Domestic
Community organization & empowerment of racial/ethnic minorities
International
United Nations & United Security Council Reform
International social work with a focus on indigenous solutions
Provision of care to adults in their natural home environment
Introduction of case management services in a variety of service areas

Teaching Experience

Graduate Teaching Assistant

Fall 2012, University of Maryland School of Social Work, Rockville, MD
Spring 2013, University of Maryland School of Social Work, Baltimore, MD
Fall 2013, University of Maryland School of Social Work, Rockville, MD

Course Taught: Taught SOWK 670 - Social Work Research

Primary responsibilities, skills, and achievements

- * Class sizes ranged from 24 to 36 students.
- * Advised and graded students on various class assignments including research papers and group assignments.

- * Used Blackboard to post assignments and other class materials.
- * Consulted and worked with faculty and staff including PhD Program Director to streamline assignments and enhance teaching skills.
- * Mean course evaluation scores for 19 items were similar to scores for 8 other sections of the SOWK 670 course taught in Fall 2013, and similar to scores for 118 sections of all courses taught at the School of Social Work in Fall 2013.

Research Experience

Graduate Research Assistant

9/1/2011 - 6/30/2014, University of Maryland School of Social Work, MD
Supervisor: Dr. Bruce DeForge

4/27/2010 - 6/30/2011, University of Maryland School of Social Work, MD
Supervisor: Dr. Terry Shaw

9/1/2009 - 4/20/2010, University of Maryland School of Social Work, MD
Supervisors: Drs. Charlotte Bright and Corey Shdaimah

Primary Responsibilities

- * Conducted literature reviews and observations.
- * Conducted qualitative and univariate data analyses, and prepared reports for the Maryland State Department of Human Resources
- * Transcribed focus group interviews for evaluation of the schools Maternal and Child Health program.
- * Used QSR NVivo 9 to code qualitative data.

Research Reports

Shaw, T., Ahn, H., Reiman, S., O'Connor, J., Michalopoulos, L., & Shaikh, N. (July 2011). *Evaluating the Implementation of Family Centered Practice in Maryland, July 1, 2010 – June 30, 2011*. Annual report for the Maryland Department of Human Resources, Social Service Administration.

Shaw, T. V., Barth, R. P., Svoboda, D. V., & Shaikh, N. (December 2010). *Fostering Safe Choices*. Final report for the Maryland Department of Human Resources, Family Investment Administration.

Research Presentations

Shaikh, N. (2014). *Client ratings of provider's cultural competence: A modified systematic review*. Poster presentation at the Graduate Research Conference at University of Maryland Baltimore: Baltimore, MD.

Aparicio, E., Michalopoulos, L. M., Shaikh, N., & Vanidestine, T. (2010). *Conceptualizing vicarious trauma: Support, supervision, perceived racism, and trauma history*. Poster

presentation at the fourth Annual Conference for the Dissemination of Student Research at Johns Hopkins University: Baltimore, MD.

Research Support and/or Fellowships

Dissertation Grant: \$3963.50

2014, University of Maryland School of Social Work Ph.D. Program

Social Work & Related Experience

Intellectual Disabilities (ID) Case Manager

02/2015 – 06/2017, District 19 Community Services Board, Petersburg, VA

- * Served between 26 to 39 adults having or on the wait-list for Virginia's ID/DD Waiver.
- * Strongly advocated on behalf of clients to ensure that their rights and wants, and basic quality of life needs of were met/prioritized as required by, among others, the Department of Justice (DOJ) and the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS) Final Rule.
- * Determined initial and annual eligibility for services.
- * Scheduled and facilitated meetings to develop and review individualized service plans.
- * Monitored provision of services in various settings and recommended corrective actions.
- * Initiated, reviewed, and approved/forwarded service authorization requests in IDOLS/WAMS.
- * Used and offered case-consultation to inform and influence practice decisions.
- * Recorded progress notes and other information in PROFILER, the CSB's data management system.
- * Developed high expertise in the development of person-entered plans that included clear and measurable tasks/activities for all service providers including self; reviewed psychological and psychiatric evaluations/assessments, and medical information, and incorporated the same into service plans; identified resources and made referrals/applications including for assistive technologies, psychological evaluations, occupational therapy, etc.

Case Planner

09/2008 - 05/2009, Community Mediation Services, Queens, NY

- * Provided Administration of Children's Services' (ACS) Designated Assessment Service (DAS) to adolescents and families at-risk of involvement with ACS and New York City's Department of Probation.
- * Conducted intake, home-visits, psychosocial assessment, and service planning.
- * Provided individual and/or family counseling including crisis intervention, advocacy, and made intra-agency and external referrals.
- * Used and offered case-consultation to inform and influence practice decisions.

MSW Intern

09/2007 - 04/2008, Achievement Center, Erie, PA

- * Placement in a mental health outpatient unit for adolescents with an independent caseload of clients in 2008.
- * Completed intake and psychosocial assessments, developed service plans, and provided individual therapy.

10/2006 - 04/2007, St. Vincent's Health Center, Erie, PA

- * Placement in three units: Psychiatric Emergency Room, Adult Inpatient Mental Health Unit, and the Progressive Care Center (PCC) - a short-term skilled nursing and rehabilitation unit for older adults.
- * Developed & implemented discharge plans for an independent caseload of clients in the PCC in 2007.

Personal Care Attendant

12/2006 - 08/2008, Community Resources for Independence, Erie, PA

- * Supported female client with a physical disability with domestic care, in-house transfers, and meal preparation.

Personal Care Attendant

09/2006 - 01/2007, Edinboro University of Pennsylvania, Edinboro, PA

- * Supported male students with physical and/or speech disabilities residing in the University's residential halls with personal care and transfers.

Service To Community

Honorary Community Worker (Volunteer)

02/2006 - 06/2006, NASEOH, Mumbai, India

- * Assisted in the organization of community-based general health, vision, and cataract detection camps.

Personal Care Attendant (Volunteer)

07/2004 - 08/2005, SHAD Wandsworth, London, UK

- * Supported female and transgender clients with physical and/or speech disabilities with domestic care, transfers, leisure activities, and other aspects of independent living.

Personal Care Attendant (Volunteer)

02/2005 - 08/2005, Hackney Independent Living Team, London, UK

- * Supervised personal and domestic care routines of male client with speech and learning disabilities; supported with leisure activities.

Volunteer

1999 - 2000, Zydus Cadila, Mumbai, India

- * Organized Hepatitis-B and typhoid vaccination programs, and HIV awareness lectures in schools.

Service To Profession

Treasurer & Coordinator of Education Activities (Volunteer)

08/2007 - 04/2008, Graduate Social Work Association, Edinboro University of Pennsylvania, Edinboro PA

- * Maintained accounts, coordinated fundraising activities, and arranged lectures to facilitate career and professional development of student peers.

Professional Development

Attended the 'Welcoming Diversity Workshop'

04/2008, National Coalition Building Institute, Edinboro PA

Attended the 'Annual Social Work Conference on Mental Health 2008'

03/2008, Gannon University Social Work Program and Mental Health Association of Northwestern PA, Erie PA

Attended the 'Building Bridges: Dismantling Discrimination and Oppression' Annual Conference

03/2008, the National Association of Social Workers, Pennsylvania chapter, Monroeville PA

Completed the National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) – II course in Health & Social Care

08/2005, Merton College, London. UK

Completed the 'The Handling and Safe Movement of People and other loads' course

06/2005, DRH Associates Health Ergonomics Ltd., London, UK

07/2004, DRH Associates Health Ergonomics Ltd., London, UK

Completed the 'Passenger Assistant Training Scheme-Module A' course

03/2005, Wandsworth Community Transport, London, UK

Completed the 'Mobility Awareness Training' course

08/2004, Wandsworth Community Transport, London, UK

Additional Experience

Graduate Assistant

01/2007 - 05/2008, Counseling and Psychological Services, Edinboro University of Pennsylvania.

- * Provided administrative support, reduced data for assessment of services, and prepared articles for student newspaper.

Manager

09/2005 - 08/2006, Stylissima Fashion Sources, Mumbai, India

08/2002 - 07/2004, Vision Buying Services, Mumbai, India

- * Responsible for accounts, costing, purchasing, sourcing, sampling & quality control.

Area Business Manager

07/2000 - 07/2002, Cadila Pharmaceuticals Ltd., Mumbai, India

- * Managed a team of pharmaceutical sales representatives.
- * Planned, monitored, and analyzed personnel activity and sales targets.
- * Prepared reports and made presentations on personnel activity, and sales performance.

Pharmaceutical Sales Representative

08/1993 - 07/2000, Zydus Cadila, Mumbai, India

- * Marketing and sales of pharmaceutical brands to healthcare professionals.

Abstract

Title of Dissertation: An examination of Social Dominance Orientation and Cultural Competence of Social Workers

Naeem Shaikh, Doctor of Philosophy, 2018

Dissertation Directed by: Dr. Bruce R. DeForge, Ph. D., Associate Professor, School of Social Work

Social Dominance Theory (SDT) attempts to explain oppression, discrimination, and inequalities by focusing on group-based social hierarchies. A social hierarchy is defined as the social legitimacy of one dominant group over one or more other groups. SDT suggests that social workers should be low in social dominance orientation (SDO), i.e., their psychological orientation or preference for hierarchies; however, some social worker scholars have posited that the profession acts as an agent of social control. Prior research shows that there can potential conflicts between social workers, and between social workers and clients because of differences in political ideology and religious affiliation. Similar differences have the potential to adversely influence social workers self-perceived cultural competence. In addition, SDO has only been examined in graduate social work students, and there is little or no previous research that examines the relationship of social workers religious or political variables with SDO and cultural competence. This study aimed to test some assumptions of SDT, examine if social workers' political ideology, religious, and political affiliation influenced their perceptions of SDO and cultural competence, and fill other gaps in the knowledge base of cultural competence.

Qualtrics was used to collect survey data from 497 social workers registered with the Oregon Board of Licensed Social Workers. Respondents were found to be low in SDO

and high in cultural competence and a significant but negative and weak relationship was identified between the two variables. Results of multiple regression analyses showed that gender, ethnicity, being a not strong Democrat, social desirability, general social ideology, and issue-based economic ideology predicted SDO whereas age, race, cultural competence training, general economic ideology, social desirability, affiliation with Republican or Other (non-Democratic) Party, and SDO predicted cultural competence. Number of cultural competence trainings attended was the most important predictor of higher cultural competence. Social desirability was the only common predictor of SDO and cultural competence. Findings for gender differences in SDO suggest support for SDT's invariance hypothesis of SDT but there no racial or ethnic differences in SDO which is inconsistent with findings from previous studies. Implications for social work practice, education, and research are discussed.

An examination of Social Dominance Orientation and Cultural Competence of Social
Workers

by
Naeem Shaikh

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the
University of Maryland, Baltimore in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
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Dedicated to all those without a “voice” or suffering extreme hardships across the globe.

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Chapter 1: Background

The 2010 U.S. Census data shows that 36.3% of the population comprises of minorities, that is, those who reported their ethnicity and race as something other than non-Hispanic White. In 2000, minorities comprised only 30.9% of the total U.S. population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). This change in the demographics of the nation has been fueled by the disproportionate growth in the population of racial/ethnic minorities. In the last decade, the population of racial/ethnic minorities increased by 28.8% as compared to only 1.2% for non-Hispanic Whites (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). The growth in both the total U.S. and minority population has also been influenced by the growth of individuals who are born outside the country. This foreign-born population, which includes anyone who is not a U.S. citizen at birth, has increased from 11.1% of the total U.S. population in 2000 to 12.9% in 2010. In terms of numbers, from 2000 to 2010 there was an increase of 25 million minorities in the U.S. population with the foreign-born sub-group accounted for 8.9 million (36%) of this total. Of the 111 million racial/ethnic minorities in the US in 2010, nearly 40 million are foreign-born (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011; U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). The states of California, New York, New Jersey and Florida have traditionally been favored destinations for foreign-born populations over the past decades. California has 27% of its population born outside the US and has the largest population of foreign-born people among all US states. About one in five residents in the states of New York, New Jersey, and Florida are also foreign-born (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). Thus, it is expected that social workers in some states are more likely to work with immigrant populations than social workers in other states.

The U.S. Census Bureau's National Population Projections, based on the 2000 Census, estimate changes in the resident population for each year from 2000 to 2050 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2009). The 2009 National Population Projections made various projections based on four different alternative net international migration assumptions or rates: High Net International Migration, low Net International Migration, Constant Net International Migration, and Zero Net International Migration. One such projection suggests that non-Hispanic Whites could become a numeric minority as early as 2040 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2009). In other words, based on this projection, racial and ethnic minorities are projected to become a majority in the next three decades. Data collected in 2010 for the American Community Survey shows that every second foreign-born person in the U.S. is from Latin America, and every fourth foreign-born immigrant is from Asia (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). In terms of nation of origin, Mexicans (11.7 million), Chinese (2.2 million), Indians, and Filipinos (1.8 million each) comprise the largest foreign-born groups in the US. With a population of 1.6 million in 2010, African-born immigrants comprised only 4% of the total foreign-born population. Persons from Nigeria, Ethiopia, Egypt, and Ghana are some of the major contributors to this sub-group of African-born population with at least 100,000 members each (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). While the foreign-born population faces many challenges in the US, one of the most prominent is the ability to communicate in English, which appears to impact almost half of the 40 million foreign-born population. It is reported that the percentage of those foreign-born residents who do not speak English very well ranges from 28% for those under the age of 18 to as high as 50% for those aged 18 and older (Pew Research Center, 2008).

Thus, given the current diversity in the U.S. population, and future growth of minority and ethnic populations, it is essential to develop and provide culturally competent services to social work clients (Allen-Meares, 2007; Iglehart & Becerra, 2007). In the field of social work, the importance of providing culturally competent services is further supported by survey data from 2002 shows that non-Whites/Caucasians comprised only 13% of regular National Association of Social Workers (NASW) members (Risley-Curtiss, 2010). While it is likely that this statistic may not be representative of the overall population of social workers in the U.S., it indicates that the racial/ethnic diversity within the largest professional organization of social workers in the U.S. does not reflect the diversity within the overall U.S. population. Thus, social service providers, including social workers, need to be trained to provide culturally competent services to address the diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds of immigrant populations.

The NASW uses the cultural competence definition from Cross, Bazron, Dennis, and Isaacs (1989): “A set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, and policies that come together in a system, agency, or among professionals that enable effective work in cross-cultural situations” (NASW, 2007, p. 13). The Department of Health and Human Services’ Office of Minority Health (OMH), created in 1986 as a result of the Secretary's Task Force Report on Black and Minority Health, focuses on improving the health of racial and ethnic minority populations by eliminating health disparities (OMH, 2013a). Racial and ethnic minorities have poor health outcomes as compared to the rest of the U.S. population (OMH, 2013a). The goals of providing culturally competent services are to eliminate traditional disparities in access to healthcare and human services and to

improve service outcomes for minority groups (National Center for Cultural Competence [NCCC], n.d.; OMH, 2013b). It is claimed that cultural competency can help achieve these objectives by improving both access to care and quality of services (NCCC, n.d.; OMH, 2013a).

Whereas the need for the provision of culturally competent services was initially driven by poor health outcomes for racial and ethnic minorities (OMH, 2013a), these services are not restricted to groups based on race or ethnicity. For example, the OMH provides a broad definition of culture as being integrated patterns of thoughts, actions and beliefs that are not limited to racial, ethnic or social groups (OMH, 2013a). The NASW states that the provision of culturally competent services to clients is applicable, but not restricted, to their membership in various groups based on race, ethnicity, gender, religion, age, education, class, sexual orientation and mental disabilities (NASW, 2007). Therefore, it is clear that culture should be considered more of a personal belief and practice system rather than characteristics based solely on group or institutional membership. This complexity of an individual's culture is acknowledged through explicit recommendations for evaluation of services, practices and programs to facilitate cultural competence of service providers (NASW, 2007; OMH, 2013b).

In an effort to guide social workers in their efforts to become culturally competent, the NASW (2007) has clarified guidelines, standards and indicators on cultural competence. These standard and indicators, which are discussed later in more detail, also suggest the need for an examination of the cultures and characteristics of both clients and social workers to determine if, and how, they influence the provision of culturally competent services. For example, the NASW (2007) states that the *initial step*

in the process of developing cultural competence is for social workers to be aware of their own personal values, beliefs, and biases, and how these could potentially affect working relationships with clients and provision of services. Social workers are also required to recognize how their own background, heritage, identities, fears, lack of knowledge, racism, sexism, ethnocentrism, etc., might have influenced their beliefs and attitudes (NASW, 2007).

Consequently, this study aims to examine how social worker characteristics such as their political ideology, political party affiliation, and religious affiliation influence their perceptions of cultural competence. In addition, this study also aims to examine the relationship of social workers social dominance orientation (SDO), i.e., their psychological orientation or preference for hierarchies, with their cultural competence. Previous studies on cultural competence will also be reviewed to identify and include other variables for further examination in their relationship with cultural competence. Using social dominance theory as a guiding framework and findings from previous studies on SDO, this study also aims to determine which social worker variables predict SDO.

Social Dominance Theory – A brief overview

Social dominance theory attempts to explain oppression, discrimination, and inequalities by focusing on group-based social hierarchies (Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006; Pratto, Stewart, & Zeineddine, 2013). A social hierarchy is defined as the social legitimacy of one (dominant) group over one or more other (subordinate) groups. This is reflected in the dominant group's higher status and control of social discourse, cultural ideologies, material resources, and powerful institutions such as the military (Sidanius &

Pratto, 1999). In the U.S. mesosystem, the race/ethnicity based social hierarchy has the White American population as the dominant privileged group as compared to subordinate groups such as African Americans and other groups of color. Social dominance theory also postulates that gender-based hierarchical systems are less dependent on the context, and even when context does play a role, the inequalities between the two groups is not eliminated whereas arbitrary-sets or socially constructed hierarchies such as those based on race and social class are completely contextual (Pratto et al, 2006).

Social dominance theory posits that the net effects of discrimination across **multiple levels** of individuals, institutions, and collaborative intergroup processes result in the creation of group-based social hierarchy (Pratto et al., 2006). Discrimination perpetrated by individuals is linked to their psychological orientation towards group-based social hierarchy or inequality. Social dominance theory defines this trait as social dominance orientation (SDO) (Pratto, Sidanius, Stallworth, & Malle, 1994; Pratto et al., 2006). SDO reflects a preference for hierarchies, i.e., the domination of one or more groups over others. These groups may be socially constructed based on any possible group distinction such as, but not restricted to, race, gender, skin color, caste, tribe, class, region, ethnicity, or nationality (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Social dominance theory posits that SDO is affected by gender, temperamental predispositions (ex: empathy), membership and identification with dominant or subordinate groups in hierarchical systems, and background factors (ex: education, religious faith) or socialization in hierarchical systems such as patriarchal families or racially segregated societies. Men will have higher SDO than women, and individuals belonging to and/or highly identifying

with dominant groups will have higher SDO than individuals belonging to and/or highly identifying with subordinate groups.

Social dominance theory also emphasizes the importance of **legitimizing myths** which are instrumental in the favoring of dominant groups over subordinate ones. Legitimizing myths are consensually held beliefs, values, stereotypes and cultural ideologies that shape the action and behaviors of individuals, the operation of institutions, and the development of new social practices; all of which work together to create and maintain social hierarchies. The degree of consensus between dominant and subordinate groups over legitimizing myths determines whether a legitimizing myth enhances or attenuates hierarchies. According to social dominance theory, in stable social systems, the degree of consensus between dominant and subordinate groups on legitimizing myths is high, with few disagreements. Overall consensus over legitimizing myths (e.g., fairness of the criminal justice system, higher criminality among non-Whites) ensures that dominant groups can assign more positive values to their own group (**ingroup**) and assign more negative values such as higher rates of incarceration to subordinate groups (**outgroups**), such as African Americans (Pratto et al., 2006).

NASW's Standards on Cultural Competence

The NASW (2007) lists 10 standards of cultural competence, which include ethics and values, self-awareness, cross-cultural knowledge, cross-cultural skills, service delivery, empowerment and advocacy, diverse workforce, professional education, language diversity, and cross-cultural leadership. These standards together comprise of 84 indicators of which 73 are primarily relevant to social workers at the individual level, whereas the remaining 11 indicators focus on social work at the organizational level.

Thus, the NASW standards and indicators focus primarily on the development of cultural competence at the level of the social worker, while the CLAS standards focus primarily on institutional cultural competence. In addition, seven of indicators have another 44 sub-indicators that focus on cultural competence (NASW, 2007). To summarize, the NASW lists 10 standards, 77 indicators, and another 7 indicators with 44 sub-indicators on cultural competence. In effect, there are 121 specific indicators and sub-indicators on cultural competence. A description of some of the standards and indicators is provided below.

Ethics and Values

Social workers are required to practice according to the values, ethics and standards of the social work profession. This standard requires social workers to be competent on six indicators (NASW, 2007). For example, social workers are required to demonstrate: (i) knowledge of the NASW Code of Ethics, (ii) social justice and human rights principles, and (iii) the ability to recognize differences in values of dominant and historically underrepresented, oppressed, and underserved populations. It is emphasized that social workers: will struggle with ethical concerns that may arise out of conflict in values arising in the working relationship with clients; need to be cognizant of practices (norms) that may be acceptable in one culture but not in others; and should develop an understanding of how appropriate and inappropriate behaviors may vary across cultures. However, the NASW also stresses that respecting values and recognizing strengths in cultures does not translate into the acceptance of cultural practices that oppress women and persons based on sexual orientation and support the use of corporal punishment and the death penalty. In instances of ethical conflict in practice, the NASW recommends that

social work practice must refer to and be informed by the NASW Code of Ethics and the United Nations' Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR).

Self-Awareness

The standard on self-awareness requires that social workers should be aware of their own personal values and beliefs as the *initial step* in the process of developing cultural competence (NASW, 2007). As with the standard on ethics and values, this standard requires proficiency on six indicators. For example, social workers are required to examine how their own background, heritage, and identities influence their values, biases, and beliefs and could potentially affect working relationships with clients and provision of services. Social workers are also required to recognize how their fears, lack of knowledge, racism, sexism, ethnocentrism, etc., might have influenced their beliefs and attitudes.

Cross-cultural Knowledge

The standard on cross-cultural knowledge has 12 indicators, which emphasizes possession and ongoing development of knowledge and understanding of the history, customs, values, and familial structures of major client groups (NASW, 2007). The standard also requires that social workers seek specific knowledge about cultural, political, and social systems at the macro-level and their positive and negative impact on client groups. One sub-indicator on cross-cultural knowledge requires that social workers acquire knowledge about beliefs and practices related to care and service delivery. Another indicator requires recognition of similarities across, and differences within, cultural groups.

Cross-cultural Skills

This standard pertains to direct work with clients wherein social workers are required to demonstrate understanding of culture and norms by using culturally-appropriate methods and skills (NASW, 2007). One of the indicators specifies that social workers must work with clients from a range of diverse cultures. Another indicator stresses conducting assessments to identify cultural strengths and limitations; a third indicator requires the use of models that are culturally appropriate and effective. Another indicator highlights the need for effective cross-cultural communication skills.

Service Delivery

The standard on service delivery emphasizes promotion of cultural competence and monitoring cultural competence of social workers and service models (NASW, 2007). For example, one indicator requires knowledge of skills in using and making referrals to services in the community. Another indicator requires attending to issues, such as housing or social justice. A third indicator requires the inclusion of clients in the development and evaluation of service delivery systems. The importance of service delivery in the provision of culturally competent services is highlighted by the fact that even though this standard has only three indicators, two of these indicators account for half of the 44 sub-indicators of cultural competence in this document.

Empowerment and Advocacy

This standard requires that social workers be aware of the consequences of oppression and the importance of advocacy and social action to empower clients and communities (NASW, 2007). For example, social workers should advocate for policies that are appropriate to the values, behaviors and norms of diverse groups. In addition,

social work professionals should demonstrate thoughtfulness about when to assert or avoid imposition of their own personal values in advocacy and empowerment efforts.

Professional Education

Advocating for and participating in educational and training programs to help achieve cultural competency are the core features of this standard. For example, one indicator advocates for the inclusion and amalgamation of the standards on cultural competence in social work curricula and research (NASW, 2007). At the organizational level, social work organizations should provide training, leadership, and support to improve the cultural competency of all their employees including top management and administrative/custodial staff. Both social work agencies and the NASW should facilitate development of cultural competence by providing opportunities for continuing education. Resolving cultural conflicts in agency settings and evaluating effectiveness of agency-level culturally competent practices are some other expectations from social work organizations.

Challenges in Implementing and Measuring Cultural Competence

Despite the NASW's initiative, there are criticisms about the feasibility of culturally competent social work practice (Johnson & Munch, 2009; Ortiz & Jani, 2010; Pon, 2009). With 10 standards, 77 indicators and 44 sub-indicators, it is not difficult to comprehend why there could be challenges in the application and measurement of these standards and indicators in a practice setting. The NASW acknowledges that the indicators of cultural competence portray an idealistic condition. Nevertheless, social worker practitioners and agencies are urged to utilize them with good faith efforts (NASW, 2007).

A review of measures of cultural competence by Krentzman and Townsend (2008) highlights some of the challenges associated in the measurement of this construct. The inclusion criteria for the review was that the instruments had to be standardized, quantitative, used pen-and-paper, published in peer-reviewed journals, and measured service provider self-reported cultural competence. The 19 measures satisfying inclusion criteria were then evaluated on ten criteria including their appropriateness for social work education. Measures were deemed to be appropriate for social work education *only if* they had no or few items with terms that were specific to non-social work disciplines (Krentzman & Townsend, 2008). The other nine evaluative criteria were coherence, validity (construct & with diverse respondents), definition of diversity, item clarity, social justice, reliability (internal consistency & test-retest), and social desirability. Of these, the criteria of social justice and definition of diversity are also highly useful in determining the relevance of these measures to social work education. However, the authors listed these two criteria separately from the criteria of appropriateness of the measures for social work education. Krentzman and Townsend determined that 10 of the reviewed measures satisfied the criterion of appropriateness for social work education; however, they recommended only four of these 10 measures for social work education because they met at least seven of the 10 evaluative criteria. The four measures recommended by Krentzman and Townsend are the Ethnic Competency Skills Assessment (ECSA) Scale, the Miville-Guzman Universality-Diversity Scale (M-GUDS), the Multicultural Counseling Inventory (MCI) and the Multicultural Counseling and Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS).

The selection process for an appropriate measure of cultural competence for this dissertation study involved the review of many measures using the NASW's standards and indicators for cultural competence. Subject to their accessibility, all 19 measures examined by Krentzman and Townsend were also reviewed for their suitability for this dissertation study. Of the four measures recommended by Krentzman and Townsend (2008) for social work education, this researcher determined that three measures had only partial relevance to the NASW's standards of cultural competence; the fourth measure, the ECSA scale, could not be accessed to determine its relevance to the standards.

The M-GUDS has little relevance to the NASW's standards on cultural competence because it was primarily developed to operationalize the construct of Universal-Diverse Orientation or UDO (Miville et al., 1999). Miville et al. (1999) defined UDO as an individual's attitude that reflects awareness and acceptance of both similarities and differences among people. Consequently, while none of the items in the M-GUDS measure service provider cross-cultural skills, some items such as "I would be interested in participating in activities involving people with disabilities," and "I am interested in knowing people who speak more than one language," are not relevant to the NASW's standards on cultural competence.

The MCKAS was developed to measure cultural competence knowledge and awareness only; it does not have a skills subscale. Using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to analyze the factor structure of the MCKAS, Constantine (2002) determined that the knowledge subscale measures skills, whereas the awareness subscale measures attitudes. However, when reviewed for the current dissertation study, it was concluded that of the 32 items in the MCKAS, 25 items

measured cross-cultural knowledge, three items measured both self-awareness and cross-cultural knowledge, two items measured cross-cultural skills, and two items were not relevant to cultural competence. For example, the awareness sub-scale has two items, “I believe that all clients should maintain direct eye contact during counseling,” and “I think that clients who do not discuss intimate aspects of their lives are being resistant and defensive,” which are more relevant to NASW’s standard on cross-cultural knowledge rather than self-awareness.

Of the four measures recommended by Krentzman and Townsend (2008), the 40-item MCI has the highest relevance to the NASW’s standards on cultural competence. Seventeen items in this scale were determined to measure cross-cultural skills; 9 items measured self-awareness; 8 items measured cross-cultural knowledge; and three items measured both knowledge and skills. Additionally, the scale measured service delivery, empowerment and advocacy, and professional education (1 item for each topic). As was found with the MCKAS, there are inconsistencies in what some of the items in the MCI aim to measure and what they actually measure. For example, the item on multicultural caseload in the awareness subscale of the MCI is more relevant to the NASW’s standard on cross-cultural knowledge. Likewise, the item on multicultural training and workshops in the awareness subscale is more relevant to the professional education rather than self-awareness.

The review of both the MCI and the MCKAS for this dissertation study confirmed the findings of the review by Kumas-Tan, Beagan, Loppie, MacLeod, and Frank (2007) that some measures of cultural competence primarily captured only three components of cultural competence. Kumas-Tan et al. (2007) reviewed 10 commonly used instruments

of cultural competence in the field of medicine and the health profession. These 10 instruments included the MCI, MCKAS, and the Cross-Cultural Counseling Inventory – Revised (CCCI-R). The authors noted that some measures were too long or cumbersome (e.g., Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire has 79 items) whereas many including the MCI, MCKAS, and CCCI-R were based on the awareness– knowledge– skill model of cultural competence. Additionally, while reviewing other measures of cultural competence for this dissertation study, it was found that the awareness subscales generally measured cross-cultural knowledge (i.e., knowledge about clients) rather than practitioner self-awareness as is expected by the NASW. This discrepancy is not restricted to measures developed for use with non-social work professionals or students. Krentzman and Townsend (2008) also reviewed two measures developed for use with social work students, the Social Work Cultural Competencies Self-Assessment Pretest/Posttest (SWCCSA), and the Social Work Cultural Competencies with Diverse Groups of Color and Social and Economic Justice Pretest/Posttest. However, while the authors do not recommend these two measures for use in social work education because of the alleged lack of validity, internal consistency reliability, test-retest reliability, and item clarity, a review of these two measures for this dissertation study found that the SWCCSA primarily focuses on the awareness– knowledge–skill model of cultural competence. Lum (2003), the developer of both scales, states that the Social Work Cultural Competencies with Diverse Groups of Color and Social and Economic Justice Pretest/Posttest measures social work student’s cultural knowledge and skills with 10 specific groups, and themes of economic and social justice, but not cultural awareness.

The above discussion makes it clear that, in addition to implementing the standards and indicators in the field of social work practice, measuring cultural competence will also continue to be a major challenge for the social work profession and in this study as well.

NASW's Code of Ethics

The NASW asserts that well-being of clients and society are the primary objectives of the social work profession and organizations (NASW, 2018). To achieve these objectives, the Code of Ethics emphasizes that, among other things, social workers should educate themselves about and develop an understanding of all types of diversity in society. Social workers' ethical responsibilities as professionals require that they refrain from practicing, condoning, facilitating, and collaborating with all forms of discrimination. Rather, action is urged to prevent and eliminate any form of dominance, abuse, and discrimination against any person. Social workers are also required to promote policies and practices that demonstrate respect for differences. All these ethical standards are applicable to situations or interactions that involve diverse political beliefs, religion, or nationality (NASW, 2018).

Political Ideology

Ideology is defined as a set of values and beliefs of individuals that influences their lives (George & Wilding, 1994; Grabb, 2007), whereas political ideology is described as an individual or group opinion on the response to social, economic, and moral issues of society (Rosenwald, 2006). However, while it is possible that these definitions are used interchangeably, there are no consistent categories of political ideology. For example, Fram and Miller-Cribbs (2008) offer a narrow definition of

political ideology such that American liberalism represents social acceptance and use of institutions to maintain collective wellbeing whereas American conservatism symbolizes free markets and a small federal government except in the areas of national defense and enforcement of traditional values. Rosenwald (2006) states that based on the diversity of opinions to various issues, political ideology is a continuum that is made up of the radical left, liberal, moderate, conservative, and radical right. The Radical Left ideology emphasizes the benefits of and conversion from capitalism to socialism to address social problems such as class inequality. A liberal political ideology seeks governmental protection of the marginalized, separation of church and state, and institutional reforms. On the other hand, the Radical Right ideology draws on religious teachings to promote family values and justify capitalism. A conservative political perspective favors traditional values and continuation of the status quo, and non-governmental intervention to tackle social problems. The moderate political ideology brings together elements of the conservative and liberal perspective ideologies depending on the problem that needs to be addressed, and stresses planned incremental changes.

In addition to inconsistent categories of political ideology, the additional complexity of measuring this construct is highlighted by Weber and Federico (2013) who point to a body of evidence to suggest that while political ideology consists of social and fiscal (or economic) dimensions, the intersectionality of these dimensions may produce many categories that may be masked by a one-dimensional political ideology continuum. For example, individuals placing themselves together in the overall political ideology or left-right continuum may still have distinct positions across fiscal and social dimensions.

Weber and Federico demonstrated support for this assumption in their study involving 645 undergraduate students from a university in the Southern US.

Weber and Federico first classified students in their study into six different categories based on the variability of responses to the 19 item political ideology questionnaire: Consistent Liberals (21% of the sample) who took a liberal position on all of the items; Consistent Conservatives (9%) who had a conservative position on all items (9%); Libertarians (15%) who held conservative positions on many fiscal items but had relatively liberal positions on social policy; Social Conservatives (14%) who took a relatively moderate positions on fiscal issues and had very conservative positions on social issues; Consistent Moderates (28%) who had responses in the midpoint for all items; and Inconsistent Liberals (14%) who had were slightly left of center on fiscal issues but had very liberal positions on all social issues except for immigration and abortion. Students self-identified political ideology was also measured using a single item question.

Comparing the political ideologies of the students based on their responses to the single item and 19-item measure, the authors found some inconsistencies in the composition of the two categories of political ideology. For example, for students who were classified as Consistent Liberals based on their overall responses to 19-items on fiscal and social issues, almost one third self-identified themselves as either a moderate (24.5%) or a conservative (9.7%) on the single item political ideology measure. Similarly, respondents classified as Consistent Moderates also comprised of 22.5% of self-identifying Liberal: those classified as Inconsistent Liberals comprised of a high percentage of self-identifying Moderates (38.4%) and Conservatives (44.4%). These

findings highlight not only the challenge in the interpretation of political ideology from a unidimensional continuum but also suggest that it may be also be useful, at a minimum, to analyze individual responses to each item in a standardized measure of political ideology or to measure political ideology based on issues that may be more relevant to the context of a study.

The NASW's Ideological & Political Preferences

The NASW, which is the largest and most powerful organization of social workers, espouses a liberal political ideology (Rosenwald, 2006) and prefers the Democratic Party. In both the 2008 and 2012 presidential elections, the NASW endorsed Democratic Candidate Barrack Obama for President (NASW South Carolina, 2008; NASW, 2012). The 2008 NASW endorsement of Obama was due to the compatibility between his values and those of the profession as demonstrated by his support for bills such as the End Racial Profiling Act, Healthy Families Act, and Mental Health Parity Act. In addition, his promise to end discrimination and promote equality, make healthcare affordable to all, protect women's right to choose, and his support for legislation that would end the pay equity gap, and reduce hate crimes were some reasons why the NASW considered him to be ally of social workers and clients (NASW South Carolina, 2008). In 2012, the NASW re-endorsed Democratic Candidate Barrack Obama for President because of the success of his administration in achieving and working towards goals critical to the social work profession. These included the passing of the Affordable Care Act and the Equal Pay Act, and steps taken to repeal Don't Ask, Don't Tell (NASW, 2012).

However, Rosenwald (2006) states that the liberal ideology of the NASW represents a contradiction with its professed respect for diversity as laid out in the Code of Ethics. Rosenwald adds: “Aspects of its liberal policy statements may strongly resonate with some members yet may be construed as too liberal or perhaps even too conservative by others. Examples of these policy statements include support for pro-choice options regarding abortion” (p. 11). This statement is important because it draws attention to the issue of ideology-based differences within the social work profession. Studies have found that the percentage of social workers identifying themselves as liberals is only slightly more than 50% (Flaherty, Ely, Meyer-Adams, Baer, & Sutphen, 2013; Ritter, 2006; Rosenwald & Hyde, 2006) even though it is important to note that there were differences in how political ideology was measured in these three studies.

Rosenwald (2006) states that differences in political ideology is not uncommon in various professions but states that ensuing power struggle in a profession usually results in domination by the most powerful and largest segment or group within the profession or organization, e.g., the NASW in social work. Consequently, what is portrayed as a unified professional voice simply indicates the power of certain groups to restrict other ideologies from participating in professional discourse or gaining power. For example, Hodge (2002) argues that when faced with differences over issues such as sexual orientation, the social work professions “guiding ethical principles are superseded by its ideologically inspired drive to control the parameters of the debate by excluding divergent voices” (p. 406) such as those based on religious values.

Based on Rosenwald’s argument, it can be assumed that because the NASW, the most powerful organization in the social work profession, embraces a liberal ideology,

the social work profession too adopts a liberal ideology, and this done by suppressing moderate or conservative ideologies. Rosenwald (2006) found that more liberal social workers favored a more liberal political ideology requirement from social workers. In another study, a high percentage of less liberal social work students also perceived that their profession expects them to adopt and reflect a liberal perspective (Flaherty et al., 2013).

The lack of congruence between personal and professional ideologies has the potential to result in some negative consequences for moderate or conservative social workers. In a study of 500 social work students from 10 universities, 42% of liberal, 65% of moderate, and 72% of conservative students believed that the social work profession expected students to embrace a liberal perspective (Flaherty et al., 2013). Thus, there were potential conflicts between the personal and professional values reported by social workers with a moderate or conservative political ideology. In another study, a conservative ideology was correlated with increased feelings of being marginalized, weaker belief in the Code of Ethics, and with higher perceptions of being unrepresented by the NASW (Rosenwald, 2006). On the other hand, liberal social workers reported more positive perceptions than conservative social workers (Rosenwald, 2006).

According to social dominance theory, individuals who are a better fit to institutional ideologies tend to earn greater “rewards” from ideologically-congruent institutions than individuals who are a poor fit to institutions (Pratto et al., 2006). Attrition is also high when there is incongruence between individuals and institutions (Pratto et al., 2006).

Rosenwald (2006) argues that even social workers with a radical left ideology may feel

disenfranchised from the NASW because of their perceptions that the organization is too conservative in its approach to social problems.

Therefore, it would be expected that the predominance of liberal ideology in the social work profession would result in the creation of an ideology-based hierarchy such that liberal social workers would have more power than, and dominance over, moderate or conservative social workers (Rosenwald, 2006). In addition, if the dominant liberal ideology within the profession suppresses other ideologies, then that has a potential to create conflict and unprofessional behavior between social workers with different ideologies. In a study of social work students representing liberals, moderates, and conservative, students from all three political ideologies reported that they or their classmates received harsh treatment when they held a differing political opinion than what was not tolerated by both social work students and faculty (Flaherty et al., 2013). However, conservative students were more likely to report being subjected to harsh treatment from other students and social work faculty; liberal students were less likely to report being treated harshly. Conservative students also did not feel encouraged to share their divergent opinion in class, while liberal students were least likely to report being discouraged.

In another study involving 500 undergraduate and graduate social work students from 10 universities, similar perceptions of discrimination in classrooms and programs were reported (Hansford, Ely, Flaherty, & Meyer-Adams, 2017). Some students stated that the profession was liberal, whereas some said that the profession was a better fit for liberals, and that conservatives should look at other professions or majors. Others reported that professors, most students, and course materials had a liberal bias; students

and professors were not open-minded; professors supported views of liberal students; and both students and professors demeaned conservative students, and even engaged in physically confrontation. Some students expressed that the concept of diversity in their classroom and universities was restricted only to race and LGBTQ issues. Such environments made it difficult for students to express a conservative opinion (Hansford et al., 2017).

The findings of these studies suggest that despite the Code of Ethics requiring social workers to treat others with respect and to refrain from discriminating against anyone, some students and faculty had difficulty in adhering to these social work values and ethical standards. The greater concern is that the negative behaviors reported by social workers and social work students in these studies, and the preference for a more liberal ideological requirement from social workers (Flaherty et al. 2013; Rosenwald, 2006) have the potential of impacting the client-social worker relationship where there may be differences between social workers and clients on political ideology. In a clinical setting, there may be various differences between social workers and clients including on religious affiliation. While it is important to examine the attitudes of social workers towards other social workers and clients who may differ from them on political ideology and religious affiliation, as a first step, this dissertation study examined the relationship between social workers' SDO, cultural competence and political ideology. A review the literature may help identify if differences exist in political party preferences or affiliation, political ideologies and religious affiliation between social work professionals, and between social workers and the general population.

Political Ideology

Social Workers

According to social dominance theory, a profession generally attracts those individuals who are a good fit to its values and ideologies (Pratto et al., 2006). Thus, the social work profession is more likely to attract individuals who are liberal. This assumption is supported by the findings of three studies. Social workers in the study by Flaherty et al. (2013) reported their political perspective as Liberal (58%), Moderate (25%) or Conservative (17%). The sample in the study by Rosenwald and Hyde (2006) consisted of 2.1% radical left; 12.5% Very Liberals; 40.6% Liberals; 34.4% Moderates; 9.7% Conservatives; and 0.7% Very Conservatives. Combining the sub-categories for Liberals and Conservatives respectively, the sample comprised about 55% Liberals, 35% Moderates, and 10% Conservatives. A convenience sample of 396 licensed social workers in the study by Ritter (2006) consisted of 59.8% liberals (extremely liberal – 9.3%, liberal – 34.6%, slightly liberal – 15.9%), 16.4% moderates, and 20.6% conservatives (9.8% slightly conservative, 8.8% conservative, and 2.0% extremely conservative). Thus, the percentage of liberals identifying themselves as liberals in the three studies ranged from about 55% to 60%. Of the three studies, the study by Rosenwald and Hyde (2006) had the highest percentage of Moderates (34.4%) but the lowest percentage of Conservatives (10.4%) whereas the study by Ritter (2006) had the lowest percentage of Moderates (16.4%) but the highest percentage of Conservatives (20.6%). It must be noted that the sample in the study by Ritter (2006) was similar in characteristics to regular NASW members (Risley-Curtiss, 2010) in age, gender, race/ethnicity, and social work experience. It is also essential to note that the three studies used different measures of political ideology.

Both Ritter (2006) and Flaherty et al. (2013) used single-item measures of political ideology; however, one study offered 7 response options (Ritter, 2006) whereas the other study offered only 3 response options (Flaherty et al., 2013). On the other hand, Rosenwald and Hyde used a 40-item measure of political ideology. Therefore, suitable caution must be exercised while comparing the results of these studies despite some consistencies in the results.

Social Workers vs. General Population

According to the General Social Survey (GSS) 1972-2006 cumulative file (Davis, Smith, & Marsden, 2012), the political ideology of the general population was more equally distributed between moderates (39%), conservatives (32%), and liberals (27%). The findings of studies by Ritter (2006) and Hodge (2003) show that the general population tends to be less liberal than social workers. Using data from the 2004 National Election studies to compare the political ideologies of social workers and the general population, Ritter (2006) found that social workers were more likely to be liberal than the general population (60% vs. 23%) whereas the general population was more likely to be moderate (26% vs. 16.4%) or conservative (32% vs. 20.6%) than social workers. Despite the high percentage of missing data (19%) for the general population, there is enough evidence to show that there are major differences in political ideology between social workers and the general population.

Using data from the GSS 1972–1998 cumulative file, Hodge (2003) compared the views of three groups – liberals and conservatives in the general population, and social workers, on the social issues of same-sex relationships and abortions. Social workers were significantly *more liberal* than even liberals in general population whereas

conservatives in the general population were significantly least liberal of all three groups. Not surprisingly, differences between the three groups on attitudes towards same-sex relationships and abortion were as expected. A high degree of consensus was found between social workers and liberals in the general population on same-sex relationships and six different scenarios pertaining to abortion. However, fewer conservatives approved of abortion across all GSS scenarios but there were only minor differences between conservatives and the other two groups on three of the seven scenarios on abortion, namely, in instances of pregnancy due to rape, serious defect in the baby, and serious danger to health because of the pregnancy. Differences between conservatives in the general population and the other two groups (i.e., liberals in the general population, and social workers) were larger on the three scenarios where abortion was wanted for any reason, if the woman was unmarried, or if the woman was married but the child was not wanted. A slightly higher percentage of social workers supported abortion in these three scenarios than liberals in the general population. However, in the scenario where abortion was wanted because the parent(s) did not have financial resources to raise a child, social workers (91%) were more supportive than both liberals (69%) and conservatives (35%). These findings highlight the importance for social work practitioners to be alert to the possibility that some clients may hold different perspectives on an issue even if they share the same political ideology and perspectives of many other issues. Indeed, there is potential for conflict between clients and social workers irrespective of similarities or differences in political ideology and/or affiliation that could potentially derail the development and maintenance of the practitioner-client relationship. For example, a pro-life social worker may find it challenging to provide services to a client seeking an

abortion. On the other hand, a liberal social worker may find it challenging to provide family therapy to a homosexual African-American male because the parents, despite being active members of the Democratic Party, are disapproving of their son's sexual orientation.

Political Affiliation

Social Workers

Research has shown that social workers have a preference for the Democratic Party. Rosenwald and Hyde (2006) found that more than three-fourth of their sample reported they were Democrats. Ritter (2006) found that nearly two-thirds of licensed social work respondents reported identifying with or leaning towards the Democratic Party but only one fifth reported identification with or leaning towards the Republican Party. This data also included Independents who reported leaning towards one of the two parties. So even though about a third of respondents considered themselves to be Independent, only about 7% did not report identification with either Democrats or Republicans. Slightly more than two-thirds of respondents identified with the Democratic Party with 40.7% reporting a strong affiliation, 7.8% reporting a weak affiliation, and 21.7% consisting of Independents. Slightly less than 20% of respondents identified with the Republican Party with 8.8% reporting a strong affiliation, 4.5% reporting a weak affiliation, and 5.8% consisting of Independents.

Flaherty et al. (2013) found that 49% of social work students reported an affiliation with the Democratic Party, 23% with Independents, and 14% with the Republican Party. However, percentage of respondents indicating their political perspective as Liberal (58%), Moderate (25%) or Conservative (17%) was higher than

those reporting political affiliation to Democrats, Independents, and Republicans, respectively (Flaherty et al., 2013). This difference between political ideology and political party affiliation existed for all three groups but was the highest (9%) for Liberals and Democrats. It must be noted that about 15% of the sample had either reported other or not offered a response to the item on affiliation with political party, and thus it unknown if they had a preference in their party affiliation. Rosenwald (2006) suggests that social workers with a radical left ideology may feel disenfranchised from the NASW because of their perceptions that the organization is too conservative in its approach to social problems. Nevertheless, the minor incongruence between political ideology and political party affiliation indicates that it may be more appropriate to explore the effect of political perspectives or ideologies on various social/political issues rather than examining the effect of political party affiliation alone.

Social Workers vs. General Population

Using data from the 2004 National Election studies, Ritter (2006) compared the political affiliation of social workers and the general population. Findings showed that social workers aligned more with the Democratic Party (70.2% vs. 50%) and less with the Republican Party (19.1% vs. 40%). However, if Independents are excluded from the data, then barely half of social workers have a preference for the Democratic.

Religious Affiliation

Social Workers

Very few have examined the religious preferences of social work professionals or students. One such study examined the religious affiliation of a convenience sample of 115 bachelors, masters and doctoral social work students at two campuses (rural and

urban) at the University of Kentucky (Akers, Ely, & Sparkes, 2008). The authors found that a substantial majority (67%) of study participants reported their religion as Protestant, 16% as none, and only 5% as Catholic. Other response options provided were Jewish and Other. Interestingly, four African-American students from the urban campus were the only four non-Caucasian participants in the study, and only one of the 23 participants from the rural campus was a non-Protestant (No Religion).

Another study of 500 students from 10 CSWE-accredited BSW and MSW programs found that 30% of Social Work students identified themselves as Protestants, 18% as Catholics, and 11% as atheist or agnostic, and 29% reported other as their religious preference (Flaherty et al., 2013). Another 9% of respondents did not provide a response. Unlike the Landscape Survey (Pew Research Center, 2008), this study did not include the options of choosing either Hindu or Unaffiliated as response options. A study of 294 licensed social workers in Maryland reported that 36% of participants were Protestants (Rosenwald & Hyde, 2006). Religious affiliation for the rest of the sample was not reported.

Furman, Benson, Canda, and Grimwood (2005) reported similar percentages for Protestants and Catholics only. In a sample of 2,069 social workers, who were randomly drawn from a list of NASW members, researchers found that 30% of participants were Protestants; 19% Catholic; 10% multiple religious affiliation, 9% multiple non-religious affiliation, and 6% Jewish. However, unlike the sample in the study by Flaherty et al., only 5% of participants in this study reported being either atheists or agnostics, and only 3% of participants reported no affiliation. The sample was 75% female and 90% Caucasian. Use of a random sample increased the potential generalizability of the study.

Larsen (2015) compared social work members of two associations: North American Association of Christians in Social Work (NACSW) and NASW Illinois (NASW-IL). Larsen (2015) reported affiliation only as Christian, Other, or Unaffiliated. All NACSW participants ($n = 111$) cited their current religious affiliation as Christian, whereas of the NASW-IL participants ($n = 89$), 42.7% were Christians, 30.3% were unaffiliated, and 27.0% belonged to Other religious groups.

While it is possible that the religious affiliation of social workers in the study by Furman et al. (2005) may be most representative of the overall population of social workers in the US, in other studies the percentage of Christians (i.e., Protestants and Catholics) varied with the exception of Akers et al. (2008).

Religion-based Conflict

Research has found that there is some conflict among social work practitioners and/or students in classroom and practice settings. Ressler and Hodge (2000) surveyed 172 members of the NACSW for their perceptions of religious discrimination. Over half of the respondents reported knowledge of institutional discrimination (55.3%) and discrimination from social work colleagues (52.6%), while 45.3% had knowledge of colleagues who experienced discrimination from other social workers. Respondents were also asked for their perceptions of the compliance of the social work profession with six Code of Ethics standards directly or indirectly relevant to religion. Social workers indicated dissatisfaction with all standards but as far as the standards that are directly relevant to religion, respondents were reportedly most dissatisfied with standard 1.05 (c), “adequacy of social work education about religious diversity and oppression”¹ (p. 56),

¹ *The standard pertains to social workers' education rather than social work education.*

followed by the standards pertaining to preventing and eliminating domination, exploitation, and discrimination of religious people (6.04d); prohibition of unwarranted negative criticism and demeaning comments about religion (2.01b); and prohibition of discrimination based on religion (4.02). Results of bivariate analyses showed that being more conservative was significantly correlated with an increase in dissatisfaction with all standards except 6.04 (d). Interestingly, almost 91% of respondents reported that their religion was extremely important or important on their work, which was negatively correlated with satisfaction with the standard prohibiting social workers from discriminating on the basis of religion. An open-ended question on the survey asked respondents to provide examples of religious discrimination. A qualitative analysis of the 102 responses found that pejorative interactions – defined as negative interactions without evidence that resources were withheld or potentially withheld, were reported by the highest percentage of respondents (47.2%) followed by discrimination (35.4%) – defined as acts or threats to withhold opportunities or resources, and pejorative attitude (13.1%). College and university settings were the most frequently (44.8%) reported location where such incidents occurred followed by agency setting (37.3%) and the social work profession in general (14.9%). Faculty were the most frequently reported perpetrator (26.7%) followed by other social workers (22.4%). Social workers were the most frequently reported targets accounting for 30.4% of negative incidents followed by social work students (28%), and religion (18%).

In a study of 197 randomly selected social workers licensed with the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, majority of respondents (64.3%) reported that they did not experience a conflict between their religious values and social work ethics, while

26.1% reported experiencing there was a conflict (Valutis, Rubin, & Bell, 2014). Most of the respondents (81.2%) disagreed that social workers religious values should supersede professional ethics, whereas only 11.2% agreed that social workers religious values should take priority over professional ethics. Social workers who rated themselves higher on religiosity, spirituality, the importance of religion in their daily lives, and conservatism were found to experience more conflict between their religious values and social work ethics and found to have a stronger preference for religious values superseding social work ethics. The sample comprised 55.8% liberals), 27.4% moderates, and 16.8% conservatives. Nearly half (46.6%) reported being religious 88.9% reported being spiritual (88.9%), and 79% reported that religion was important in their daily lives.

Furman et al. (2005) surveyed 2069 NASW members out of which slightly more than half of respondents reported active or regular participation with an organized or spiritual group. Two-thirds of respondents also reported participating in daily or weekly *private* religious or spiritual services whereas one-third of social workers reported participating in daily or weekly religious or spiritual services in the community. Nearly three-fourths of social workers reported that their social work education did not include content on religion and spirituality, and slightly more than one-third of respondents believed that social workers do not possess the skill to address religious and spiritual issues. About one-fourth and one-third of social workers believed that integrating religion and spirituality in social work practice conflicted with the professions mission and the NASW Code of Ethics. While respondents reported recognizing the importance of introducing discussions on spirituality and religion when working with clients dealing with specific issues like terminal illness and substance abuse, they had a higher

preference for discussing non-religious spirituality rather than religion. The cultural competence standard on service delivery states that social workers must work with clients from a range of diverse cultures. It is possible that lack of adequate preparation to work with clients for whom religion is important may influence social workers ability to work effectively with such clients.

Larsen (2015) reported results from the survey which showed that NACSW participants and NASW-IL participants shared many similarities in how they responded to two vignettes – one with an overt reference to religion and the other with a subtle reference to religion. However, only the NACSW members incorporated a religious perspective into their understanding of the presenting problem and treatment. Obviously, the consequences of this difference in approach while working with clients in a practice setting is unclear.

General Population

The Landscape Survey shows that 55% of the American-born population comprises of Protestants, which is more than twice the number of foreign-born Protestants (24%) (Pew Research Center, 2008). On the other hand, nearly half (46%) of the foreign-born population is Catholic, which is more than twice the rate of American-born Catholics (21%) (Pew Research Center, 2008). Similarly, immigrants belonging to other religions (i.e., those who are not Christian or Unaffiliated but self-identified as Jewish, Muslim, Buddhist, Hindu, etc.) constitute about 9% of the immigrant population, which is nearly twice the rate as the overall US population. It must be noted that this survey classified those born in U.S. territories and Puerto Rico as foreign-born whereas the U.S. Census Bureau considers these individuals as native-born (U.S. Census Bureau,

2016). However, it is clear that immigrants are more likely to be Catholic whereas the overall population is more likely to be Protestant.

There are major differences in the religious affiliation of the across U.S. population based on race/ethnicity. For example, more than three-quarters (78%) of Blacks are Protestant compared with just over half of whites (53%) and about a quarter of Asians (27%) and Latinos (23%). Important generational differences in religious affiliation are also evident. For example, one-fourth of all adults under age 30 are not affiliated with any religion, which is more than three times the number of unaffiliated adults aged 70 and older, and nine percentage points higher than in the overall adult population. The ethnic composition of religious groups also varies across generations. While about half of all Catholics under age 30 are Hispanic (45%), for instance, the vast majority of Catholics aged 70 and older (85%) are white.

Religious Affiliation and Political Ideology

A 2009 Gallup poll examined the relationship between religion and political ideology and found that 46% of Protestants and Other Christians, who were included as one category, and 39% of Catholics identified themselves as Conservatives or Very Conservative (Newport, 2010). Another 37% of Protestants/Other Christians and 40% of Catholics identified themselves as Moderates. Thus, a higher percentage of Protestants/Other Christians identified themselves as Conservatives or Moderates than Catholics (Newport, 2010). On the other hand, a much higher percentage of Jews (43%) and Muslims (30%) identified themselves as liberal or very liberal in their political ideology as compared to Protestants/Other Christians (16%) and Catholics (19%).

Protestants/ Other Christians were the only group to identify more with the Republican Party, but this preference was reported by only 54% of respondents. Most Muslims (76%), Jews (71%), other non-Christians (68%), and slightly over half of Catholics (53%), identified themselves with the Democratic Party (Newport, 2010). It appears that Moderates in all four groups overwhelmingly aligned or preferred the Democratic Party, although data for political ideology of other non-Christians was not reported. In addition, 37% of Protestants/Other Christians and 40% of Catholics who identified themselves as Moderates, 35% of Jews and 44% of Muslims also reported their political ideology as Moderate which was the most preferred option of Catholics, Jews and Muslims (Newport, 2010).

Based on data from the Gallup poll and the Pew Research Center (2008), many religious groups, such as Protestants/Other Christians, Catholics, Jews and Muslims in the general population are also likely to embrace either a Conservative or Moderate political ideology. This contrasts with the liberal ideology of most social workers. Therefore, it is possible that some conservative clients from these groups who need social services may be served by liberal social workers. In addition, a majority (75%) of immigrants who are either Protestants or Catholics are likely to be Conservatives or Moderates, which is similar in pattern for Protestants and Catholics in the general U.S. population. In some states such as California, New York, New Jersey and Florida, immigrant populations constitute a higher percentage of the population, and social workers are more likely to work with these groups than the general population because of their higher need for social services. On the other hand, it is also possible that social workers embracing either conservative or moderate ideologies may work with clients

who have more liberal ideologies. In such instances, there is the likelihood of conflict arising in the client-social worker relationship because of differences in perspectives on many issues such as termination of pregnancy or homosexuality that may be central to the client's needs.

Conflict between Social Workers and Clients

Some studies have examined how social workers respond to ideological conflict with clients. Akers et al. (2008) found that social work students from a rural campus in Kentucky who reported higher levels of religiosity and held more conservative attitudes toward abortion, reported that they may not make referrals for a client to terminate a pregnancy or to provide them with information about these services. On the other hand, Rosenwald and Hyde (2006) found that about one third of respondents reported using their political ideology to persuade clients, organizations and/or communities they worked with, but 19.3% of all respondents reported that they did this a few times only. To support these findings, the author used their qualitative data to highlight these potential conflicts with political views. One respondent shared that, "I can [separate my political views from practice]. For instance, I personally do not believe in abortion, but I have no problem with someone who does" (Rosenwald & Hyde, 2006, p. 16). Another shared, "As a gay man, I have worked effectively with clients who despise gays. We are called to heal not convert to one personal political perspective" (Rosenwald & Hyde, 2006, p. 16). In contrast to the results from descriptive or qualitative analysis of data, the correlation between political ideology and its influence on practice was statistically significant but only for liberal social workers. Liberal social workers were more likely to have their ideology influence their practice. One respondent shared, "Institutions are

biased against women and minorities – [I] try to empower these clients to navigate systems” (Rosenwald & Hyde, 2006, p. 17). Respondents also shared using a number of strategies to counter the effects of the intrusion of their ideology in to their practice with clients (Rosenwald & Hyde, 2006). The most common reason given for using their ideology in practice was when they anticipated harm to others. One participant clarified, “I do occasionally express my views briefly if an issue arises in therapy which I see as a potentially harmful to others (e.g., racial discrimination) but I do not get into a power struggle” (Rosenwald & Hyde, 2006, p. 17). Another participant reported, “I do not need to change their views unless their actions/decisions will hurt another’s life/dignity” (Rosenwald & Hyde, 2006, p. 17). In another study, a high percentage of Christian social workers (44.1%) reported that they knew about clients who experienced religious discrimination from other social workers (Ressler & Hodge, 2000), and analysis of data from an open-ended question in the survey showed that clients were targeted in 12.4% of negative incidents.

The findings of the review of literature raise some important issues and concerns. Some social workers’ desired compatibility in political views with their clients, organizations, and communities whereas the NASW’s cultural competence standard on cross-cultural skills requires that social workers work with clients who are both culturally similar and different from themselves. Some studies found that social workers discriminated or may choose to discriminate against clients because of religious differences, which may indicate possible contravention of the NASW’s cultural competence standard on service delivery, as well as the Code of Ethics which requires social workers to refrain from discrimination. Some social workers used personal

political ideology to influence practice which contravenes the NASW's cultural competence standard on empowerment and advocacy. This standard also requires that social workers should also be mindful about when to assert or avoid imposition of their own personal values in advocacy and empowerment efforts. Some religious institutions may restrict what women can do and believe but trying to empower clients could be problematic if the client does not express a desire to challenge the status-quo within these institutions. On the other hand, some institutions may be biased against men or racial/ethnic majority groups. In these instances, it is possible that some social workers may not recognize the need to empower and advocate on behalf of these clients. There is also evidence of conflict and unethical conduct by some social work students, faculty, and practitioners because of differences in political ideology and religious affiliation. This raises important questions about the ability of some social work faculty, practitioners, and students to adhere to the NASW's Code of Ethics and implement the standards and indicators of cultural competence while working with a diverse client population. While these findings do not indicate that such social workers are low in cultural competence, there is little or no literature on how differences in political ideology and religious affiliation between clients and social workers influence aspects of the client-social worker relationship including provider cultural competence. Therefore, it becomes essential to examine how social workers respond to differences in political ideology, religious affiliation, and political party affiliation between them and clients in the client-social worker relationship where social workers have a dominant status as compared to clients. An initial first step would be to examine if social workers' political

ideology, religious affiliation, and political party affiliation influence their perceptions of cultural competence.

Client-Social Worker System & Social Dominance Theory

Reisch and Jani (2012) describe a political hierarchy of social services where public and private funders – who determine policy priorities and allocation of resources, are at the top of the hierarchy, agencies and workers in the middle, and clients at the bottom of the hierarchy. Agency boards decide how to distribute resources and workers decide how their personal resources will be distributed to clients who, if they have a choice, decide whether to receive services and/or from which agency. Using a subset of this political hierarchy of social services and extrapolating the assumptions of social dominance theory, the client-social worker relationship too can be considered to be an arbitrary-set hierarchy based on the legitimizing myth that the client is in need of services to be provided by a proficient social worker. The acceptance of these myths by both clients, even if it is voluntary or by coercion, and social workers ensures the stability of the system. Clients may nor may not have a choice in accepting these myths but their reluctance to accept these myths has the potential to destabilize the system. For example, if a court-mandated client is reluctant to accept these myths by refusing to acknowledge his/her need for services, then it may result in failure of this relationship and service goals. By default, social workers are generally in control of the relationship and the provision of resources such as services, referrals etc. Irrespective of political ideologies, political preferences, and religious affiliation, social workers can be considered to be members of the more powerful and dominant group in the client-service provider system. On the other hand, clients can be considered to be less dominant or subordinate members

of this system even if they may have some access to supervisors, advocacy groups, etc. However, unlike the criminal justice system that is a hierarchy-enhancing system filled primarily with individuals high on SDO, social dominance theory suggests that the social work system or profession is hierarchy-attenuating. Therefore, even if the profession may be populated by individuals with varying degrees of SDO, it is *primarily* populated with individuals who are generally low in SDO, and consequently, the overall client-social worker system should generally ensure that clients are served irrespective of the characteristics of the service provider's political ideology, gender, or the imbalance in power between the social worker and the client.

The assumptions of social dominance theory also suggest that, among other factors, social workers socialization in the ideological hierarchy within the social work profession and/or identification with the political ideology of the social work profession is likely to influence their SDO (Pratto et al., 2006). Additionally, findings from studies on SDO indicate that:

- Individuals with low SDO in one context can, under perceptions of threat, have high SDO in a different context (Levin, 1996);
- For respondents with higher level of dominant group identification, SDO was higher for respondents who were manipulated to perceive symbolic threat as compared to respondents who were not manipulated to perceive threat (Morrison & Ybarra, 2008).

Even though Pratto et al. (1994) found that social work students had comparatively lower SDO than students pursuing careers in law enforcement, politics, business, science, and sales, the findings of the study by Levin (1996) suggest the

possibility that, under certain conditions of threat, social workers may exhibit higher levels of SDO. The review of literature for this dissertation study identified conflict among social workers and between social workers and clients arising out of differences in political ideology. Some social workers imposed or were willing to impose their perspective on other social workers whereas some social workers experienced harsh treatment for sharing a differing opinion. However, the findings of the study by Morrison and Ybarra (2008) suggest that *only* social workers identifying more with the dominant (liberal) ideology of the profession or their dominant status in the hierarchical client-social worker system may exhibit higher SDO under certain conditions of threat. The implications of higher SDO among helping professionals such as social workers may be detrimental to the client. Halabi, Dovidio and Nadler (2008) conducted a study to examine the effects of social dominance orientation (SDO) and threat to dominant group status on the type and amount of help offered. The researchers found a relationship among Jewish participants with respect to their helping intentions towards Jewish and Arab students. The participants with higher SDO individuals were less willing to offer help to Arab students especially if they perceived threat to their group status (Halabi et al., 2008). Even though SDO and perception of threat to group status was not measured in the study, Akers et al. (2008) found that religious and conservative social worker students reported that they may deny certain services to clients when faced with ideological conflict. Halabi et al. (2008) also found that when high SDO participants did report willingness to help, they were more likely to offer dependency-oriented (vs. autonomy-oriented) help to Arab students. Autonomy-oriented assistance aims to foster independence by helping subordinate groups to improve their status. In contrast,

dependency-oriented helping reinforces the different status of groups because the dominant groups provide a solution to the problem because of perceptions that the subordinate groups cannot help themselves (Halabi et al., 2008).

The findings from the studies on SDO conducted by Halabi et al. (2008), Morrison and Ybarra (2008), Levin (1996), and Pratto et al. (1994) suggest the need for an initial examination of social workers SDO because if the social work population is populated by individuals with varying degrees of SDO, and if SDO is contextual and varies according to the context or under perceptions of threat, then high SDO in social workers might potentially influence whether or not help is offered to clients as well as the type of help that is offered to clients. In addition, both the NASW's Code of Ethics and Standards and Indicators on Cultural Competence emphasize the importance of social workers advocating on behalf of clients and oppressed groups. However, if high SDO - irrespective of the presence of absence of threat, indicates a preference for hierarchies and inequalities, then it is possible that social workers high in SDO may prefer not to oppose, eliminate, or reduce hierarchies, and thus also fail to advocate on behalf of clients and oppressed groups which may negatively impact their cultural competence. Thus, it is possible that social dominance theory and SDO may be useful in understanding aspects of social workers response to diverse clients in different areas of social work practice, as well as unraveling some of the complexities associated with cultural competence.

Aims and Objectives

The current exploratory study aims to bridge the gap in the literature on social dominance orientation and cultural competence of social workers. The review of

literature suggests the likelihood of differences between social worker and clients on political ideology, religious affiliation, and political preferences. Even though social work students are low on SDO and SDO was positively related to political economic conservatism and Republican Party affiliation (Pratto et al., 1994), the review of literature for this dissertation study identified only study each that examined the relationship between cultural competence and political ideology (Paez, Allen, Carson, & Cooper, 2008) or cultural competence, measured as multicultural case conceptualization ability (MCCA), and SDO (Weatherford, 2010). Neither of the two studies involved social workers. Therefore, this exploratory study aims to address this limitation in the field of cultural competence in social work by examining the relationship between social workers' political ideology, political party affiliation, religious affiliation, and SDO with their cultural competence.

This dissertation study will survey social workers licensed with the Oregon Board of Licensed Social Workers and has the following aims:

Aim 1: To examine the relationship between social workers' SDO and cultural competence.

Aim 2: To examine the relationship of social workers' socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race/ethnicity, religious affiliation and education), practice related variables (cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, and work experience), political ideology, political affiliation, and social desirability with SDO.

Aim 3: To examine the relationship of social workers' socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race/ethnicity, religious affiliation and education), social work

practice related variables (cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, and work experience), political ideology, political affiliation, and social desirability with cultural competence.

Aim 4: To examine if social workers' socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race/ethnicity, religious affiliation and education), social work practice related variables (cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, and work experience), political ideology, political affiliation, and social desirability predict SDO.

Aim 5: To examine if social workers' socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race/ethnicity, religious affiliation and education), social work practice related variables (cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, and work experience), political ideology, political affiliation, social desirability, and SDO predict cultural competence.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Cultural Competence

Generally, there have been few studies that have examined the relationship between the characteristics of social workers and their cultural competence. Therefore, this review includes studies involving both social workers and other professionals such as nurses, doctors, counselors, psychologists, and counseling students. Some of the most commonly studied variables in the studies reviewed were age, cultural competence training, education, gender, work experience, and race/ethnicity. On the other hand, life experience with diverse groups, political ideology, SDO, and social desirability have been poorly studied. A review of the relevant findings of these studies along with their strengths and limitations is provided below.

Age

Benkert, Templin, Schim, Doorenbos, and Bell (2011) found that nurses' age was correlated with the cultural competence behaviors ($r = .14$) but not awareness or sensitivity. Studies that involved bivariate analysis to examine the relationship between age and cultural competence in various types of service providers such as hospice workers including nurses (40%), social workers (14%), and nursing assistants (11%) (Doorenbos & Schim, 2004); counselors (Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999); counselors, clinical psychologists, counseling psychologists (Middleton et al., 2005); and MSW students (Harnek Hall, 2008) did not find a significant relationship. Several studies that used multivariate analysis (i.e., multiple regression analysis) to examine the relationship between the two variables in predominantly nurses in Ontario and Michigan (Schim, Doorenbos, & Borse, 2005), hospice nurses (Schim, Doorenbos, & Borse, 2006), predominantly doctors (Paez et al., 2008); and physicians (Reimann, Talavera, Salmon,

Nuñez, & Velasquez, 2004) also did not find a significant relationship. Brathwaite (2006) studied predominantly nurses from Ontario and Michigan to determine how their characteristics influenced increases in cultural knowledge and competence after completing a cultural competence intervention. Results of multiple regression analyses showed that age did not predict cultural knowledge or competence.

However, these studies have several limitations warrant exercising caution while interpreting their results. The study by Paez et al. (2008) was underpowered. The validity of the measure of cultural competence used by Holcomb-McCoy and Myers (1999) was not reported. Reimann et al. (2004) used an unnamed measure of cultural competency that had unknown validity and reported that the sample size may have been inadequate to detect relationships with small effect sizes.

Gender

Middleton et al. (2005) found that female counselors, clinical psychologists, and counseling psychologists scored higher than males but in only 1 or 2 of the 4 subscales of the MCI. The relationship between cultural competence and gender was not found to be significant in other studies (Harnek Hall, 2008; Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999; Lampley, Little, Beck-Little, & Xu, 2008; Paez et al., 2008; Reimann et al., 2004). The study by Lampley et al. (2008) had 97% female respondents, and thus this finding must be viewed with caution.

Race/Ethnicity

Some studies have reported a significant relationship between practitioner's race/ethnicity and cultural competence. Holcomb-McCoy and Myers (1999) used multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to show that there were differences

between counselors' ethnicity with the measures of cultural competence. However, ethnicity-specific differences were not reported, and the authors used a broader term for ethnic minorities such as Latinos/Hispanics, African Americans, and Asians, which comprised 30% of the sample. Recording ethnicity distinct from race is not a recent phenomenon. As far back as 1997, the U.S. Census Bureau used four categories of race (White, Black, American Indian and Alaska Native, Asian and Pacific Islander) and two ethnicity categories (Hispanic, non-Hispanic) to promote consistency in record keeping and data presentation (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999). In another study, both independent samples t-test and multiple regression analyses showed that African American school social workers were more culturally competent than their Caucasian-American colleagues (Teasley, 2005). Teasley, Baffour, and Tyson, 2005, using the same data set, reported similar findings. Both studies used the same measure of cultural competence, the Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire (CCSAQ) Revised for School Social Workers. However, the information provided by the authors suggest that this modified measure may not have adequate validity data and there is lack of clarity about the total number of items and subscales in this instrument. Teasley et al. (2005) used the entire scale of 74 items and reported that the instrument comprised of three subscales. On the other hand, Teasley (2005) stated that the 54-item measure had four sub-scales but appears to have used only 50 items in this study. Teasley et al. also report that the measure demonstrates criterion-related validity due to the positive relationships between the three subscales and social worker variables. For example, the Resources and Linkage subscale was significantly related to respondents' licensure, years of experience as a social worker and school social worker, and years worked with the agency – assumed to

be either the school or school system. It is difficult to comprehend how these relationships provide evidence of criterion-related validity of the CCSAQ Revised for School Social workers. Based on these limitations, the findings of the two studies must be viewed with a high degree of caution. Constantine (2001) conducted one of the few studies that have examined the relationships between provider race/ethnicity, self-reported and client-reported cultural competence. The study involved 52 counseling practicum students in doctoral and masters programs. Constantine found that counselor race/ethnicity was not correlated to self-reported cultural competence. However, observer-reported cultural competence was correlated to the counselors' race/ethnicity. Specifically, Black (African) American ($r = .51$) and Latino American ($r = .49$) counselors were rated to be more culturally competent than White American counselors. Hierarchical regression analyses confirmed that counselor's race/ethnicity predicted observer-rated cultural competence.

Using linear regression, Paez et al. (2008) found that African-American primary care physicians reported greater frequencies of cultural competence behaviors than Whites. No significant differences were found between Whites and Asian and Other (East Indians & Hispanics) but the last two groups accounted for only 6 of the 49 participants in the study. However, racial differences were not significant in three other subscales of the measure. Similarly, Reimann et al. (2004) found that Latino physicians ethnicity predicted only cultural awareness but not cultural knowledge or actions.

In contrast, several other studies found no relationship between service provider's race/ethnicity and cultural competence (Doorenbos & Schim, 2004; Harnek Hall, 2008; Lampley et al., 2008; Schim et al., 2005; Schim et al., 2006). Doorenbos and Schim

(2004) reported that ANOVA analysis revealed no significant differences between cultural competence based on providers' race (White vs. non-White). However, non-Whites comprised only 14% of the sample (N = 113) with African Americans alone making up 12% of the sample. Similarly, Schim et al. (2005) did not find respondents' race/ethnicity to be a predictor of cultural competence. For the purposes of analyzing data, participants in this study were categorized as either White or non-White. Non-whites included the three major racial minority groups and Others comprised only 22% ($n=16$) and 15% ($n=11$) of Ontario and Michigan participants, respectively. The study by Lampley and colleagues involved only five non-White nurses, whereas African Americans/Black, Asian Americans/Asian, and Native Americans made up only 16.1% of the sample in the Harnek Hall study; Hispanic/Latinos/as made up 7.5% of the sample. Therefore, suitable caution must be exercised while interpreting these results because some of the studies had little racial or ethnic diversity.

Education

The evidence for a relationship between practitioner educational level and their cultural competence is fair. MANOVA analysis found no association between education level and cultural competence (Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999). Teasley (2005) found that while bivariate analysis showed a significant positive relationship between cultural competence and social work education, multiple regression analysis did not show this relationship to be significant. Schim et al. (2006) found that educational attainment (college or higher) predicted cultural competence awareness/skills but not behaviors.

Other studies have shown a positive relationship between educational levels and cultural competence. Benkert et al. (2011) found a positive correlation between education

and cultural competence awareness/sensitivity ($r = .11$), and educational levels and cultural competence behaviors ($r = .09$). However, with 90.3% of the sample in the Benkert et al. study possessing a master's degree, generalizability of results may be low. Doorenbos and Schim (2004) conducted an ANOVA and found that hospice workers with a high school education had significantly lower cultural competence scores than those with bachelor's or master's degree. Sargent, Sedlak, and Marsolf (2005) reported that results from an ANOVA showed fourth year nursing students and faculty were significantly more culturally competent than first year nursing students. Using ANOVA, Lampley et al. (2008) found that nurses with master's degree had a significantly higher mean score of cultural competence compared to those with either an associate's or bachelor's degree. Respondents with an associate's degree ($n=33$) also had a marginally higher mean score of cultural competence as compared to those with bachelor's degree. Using multiple regression analysis, Schim et al. (2005) found that nurses with higher levels of educational measured as high school degree, associate's degree, bachelor's degree, and graduate degree predicted higher cultural competence. Additionally, multiple regression analyses showed that nurses with higher levels of education measured as some college, bachelor's, and master's, had significant increases in both cultural knowledge and competence after completing a cultural competence intervention (Brathwaite, 2006).

Work experience

A significant relationship was found between years of work experience and cultural competence (Lampley et al., 2008; Sargent et al., 2005). Results from an ANOVA showed that nurses with more than 20 years of experience were higher in cultural competence than nurses with 1 to 5 years of experience (Paez et al., 2008).

Bivariate analyses indicated that total number of years of direct work experience and number of years worked as a school social worker at the current agency were significantly associated with two of three subscales of cultural competence, that is, service delivery and practice, and community resources and linkages (Teasley et al., 2005). However, multivariate analyses showed that only number of years worked as a school social worker at the current agency predicted cultural competence in this subscale. Number of years of direct work experience or as a school social worker did not predict cultural competence. However, in another study using the same dataset, Teasley (2005) found that while correlational analyses showed a significant positive relationship between cultural competence and years worked as a school social worker, multiple regression analysis did not show this relationship to be significant.

Other studies have also found that years of work experience (Harnek Hall, 2008), years worked in hospital settings (Schim et al., 2005) or hospice setting (Doorenbos & Schim, 2004), with a specific agency (Paez et al., 2008), or work experience with clients from diverse groups were not associated with cultural competence (Doorenbos & Schim, 2004; Harnek Hall, 2008; Schim et al., 2005). In addition, percentage of ethnic minority (Mexican American) clients seen in practice did not predict physicians' cultural competence (Reimann et al., 2004). On the contrary, multiple regression analyses showed that less experienced nurses had significant increases in both cultural knowledge and competence after completing a cultural competence intervention (Brathwaite, 2006).

Life experience

There are few studies examining life experiences and its relationship to cultural competence. Benkert et al. (2011) found that life experience with diverse groups (e.g.,

Native American, gay/transgender) was correlated to both cultural competence awareness/sensitivity ($r = .16$) and behaviors ($r = .32$). Structural Equation Model (SEM) analyses found that life experience had significant direct effects on both cultural competence awareness/sensitivity and cultural competence behaviors. Cultural competence awareness/sensitivity also mediated the effect of life experience on cultural competence behavior. Benkert et al. (2011) used the 13-item Life Experiences Scale (LES) to measure nurses' life experience with diverse groups. Higher scores on the LES indicated more life experience with diverse groups. In contrast, using multiple regression and structural equation modeling, Reimann et al. (2006) found that an educational experience in a culturally diverse setting predicted physicians' cultural awareness and knowledge but not culturally competent actions. Reimann et al. (2006) used a single item measure of educational experience in a culturally diverse setting.

Cultural competence training

Studies have mostly found that attending cultural competency workshops or diversity training predicted cultural competence. Doorenbos and Schim (2004) used a t-test to show that hospice workers with previous diversity training had significantly higher cultural competence scores than those without training. Lampley et al. (2008) also conducted a t-test analysis to find that nurses who had received continuing education of workplace cultural diversity had higher scores on a cultural competence measure (Inventory for Assessing the Process of Cultural Competence Among Healthcare Professionals (IAPCC)) as compared to those who did not receive continuing education. Constantine (2001) found a positive and very high correlation between the number of prior multicultural courses taken by counseling practicum graduate students and

observer-reported cultural competence ($r = .76$). Results from hierarchical regression analysis confirmed that number of multicultural courses predicted cultural competence. Teasley (2005) reported that both correlational ($r = .38$) and multiple regression analyses showed a positive relationship between cultural competence and attending cultural competence workshops. Harnek Hall (2008) found that number of cultural competence workshops attended was the only predictor of MSW students' cultural competence. Schim et al. (2005) reported that previous cultural competence training predicted both cultural competence knowledge/attitudes, and behavior. On the other hand, Schim et al. (2006) found that prior diversity training predicted cultural competence behaviors but not knowledge/attitude. Likewise, Benkert et al. (2011) reported a positive correlation between diversity training and cultural competence behaviors ($r = .22$) subscale of the Schim–Doorenbos cultural competence assessment (SD-CCA) but not with the cultural awareness and sensitivity subscale. SEM analyses confirmed that diversity training had a significant direct effect but only on the cultural competence behaviors subscales. Paez et al. (2008) reported that multiple regression analysis did not show significant differences in cultural competence between physicians who had or had not completed cultural competence training. Interestingly, Brathwaite (2006) used multiple regression analysis to find that nurses with less experience and higher levels of education had significant increases in both cultural knowledge and competence after completing a cultural competence intervention.

Political Ideology

Only one study examined the relationship the relationship between political ideology and cultural competence, but multivariate linear regressions did not show a

significant relationship between political ideology (conservative vs. liberal) and cultural competence (Paez et al., 2008). However, this finding must be viewed with caution because sample size was inadequate for analysis.

Practice setting

The only study that examined practice setting and cultural competence did not find a significant relationship between the two settings despite acceptable diversity in data for setting (Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999).

Social Desirability

In a study involving service providers at therapy centers in three universities, Fuertes et al. (2006) found that clients (Students) did not perceive their service providers (Therapists) to be culturally competent whereas the self-reports of service providers indicated that they believed that they were culturally competent. Self-rated provider cultural competence was also significantly higher than client-rated provider cultural competence. This disparity suggests the need to examine another variable that may be influencing the self-reported measure of provider cultural competence, such as social desirability. Benkert et al. (2011) found a positive relationship between cultural competence behaviors and social desirability and ($r = .22$) which was measured using the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale - Form C (MCSDS-Form C). SEM analyses confirmed that social desirability had a significant direct effect on cultural competence behaviors. Constantine and Ladany (2000) found significant correlations between social desirability measured using the MCSDS and cultural competence measured using the CCCI-R ($r = .18$), and social desirability and only some subscales of other measures of cultural competence including the MCKAS Awareness subscale ($r = -.31$), MCI

relationship ($r = .30$), and MAKSS Skills ($r = .20$). Additional analyses found similar results but only for the MCKAS Awareness and MCI Relationship subscales. The relationship with MAKSS Skills subscales was no longer significant. However, the MAKSS Knowledge subscale was found to be significantly related to social desirability. Harnek Hall (2008) used the Multicultural Social Desirability Scale (MCSD) to measure multicultural social desirability bias in MSW students. Hierarchical regression analysis showed that the variable did not predict cultural competence.

Social Dominance Orientation

Only two studies were identified that examined the relationship between SDO and cultural competence. In a study of Italian nurses, Active Behaviour, i.e., seeking to address intercultural issues in practice setting ($r = -.25$), and Sensitivity ($r = -0.19$) dimensions of the CCAI, a measure of cultural competence, were significantly and negatively correlated to SDO (Caricati, Dicembrino, Gionti, Petre, & Ungurean, 2015). However, two other dimensions, Seeking Information and Awareness were not significantly correlated. It must be noted that Caricati et al. used a 4- item measure of SDO which had Cronbach's alpha of only .51 for the sample. Weatherford (2010) used the Multicultural Case Conceptualization Ability (MCCA), which assesses service providers on the degree to which conceptualizations of the etiology (MCCA-E) and treatment (MCCAT) of a client's presenting problems are made based on identification and integration of cultural factors. A significant correlation ($r = -.24$) was found but only between in-training counselors' SDO and MCCAT. Subsequent SEM analysis did not show a relationship between SDO and MCCA. The author attributed these non-significant findings to the lack of variability in the data for the variables. A review of the scores for the MCCA-E ($M = 0.71$, $SD = 0.87$, $Range = 0-5$) and SDO ($M = 29.9$, $SD =$

11.9, *Range* = 16-67) show lack of sufficient variability which may have contributed to the non-significant results. No other limitations were found in the two studies, but it is useful to note that in both the studies, SDO was negatively correlated with service delivery or advocacy aspects of cultural competence.

Summary

Based on the above findings, and the strengths and limitation of the individual studies, a summary of the quality of the evidence of the relationship of the variables with cultural competence is as follows:

- Evidence indicates a positive relationship between attending cultural competence training and cultural competence. Of the ten studies examining this relationship, six studies used bivariate and/or multivariate analyses to show a significant and positive relationships between the two variables (Constantine, 2001; Doorenbos & Schim, 2004; Harnek Hall, 2008; Lampley et al., 2008; Schim et al., 2006, Teasley, 2005). Two other studies also used bivariate and/or multivariate analyses including SEM to show that diversity training predicted cultural competent behaviors only, and no other aspects of cultural competence (Benkert et al., 2011; Schim et al., 2005). Only one study, with low sample size, found that diversity training did not predict cultural competence (Paez et al., 2008). The findings from the studies reviewed also indicate that training in cultural diversity is the most common predictor of service provider cultural competence. Additionally, results from the study by Brathwaite (2006) indicate that certain providers with less experience and higher levels of education may have significant increases in both cultural knowledge and competence after completing cultural competence trainings or workshops.

- The evidence for a positive relationship between practitioner educational level and their cultural competence is fair. Only one study using bivariate analysis did not find this relationship significant. However, this study did not report validity for the measure of cultural competence used (Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999). Another study found a significant correlational but not a predictor relationship between the variables. This study too had serious concerns regarding its measurement of cultural competence (Teasley, 2005). A third study found that cultural competence was predicted by cultural competence awareness and skills but not behavior (Schim et al., 2006). On the other hand, six studies, two of which used multiple regression analyses, found a significant relationship between the two variables or found that higher levels of education predicted higher cultural competence. The study by Benkert et al. (2011) lacked heterogeneity in scores for levels of education, since most participants had a master's degree or higher and the correlation with cultural competence was weak. However, the evidence did not show a clear pattern of increasing or higher cultural competence with every increasing level of education. It is also likely that higher levels of education may facilitate higher gains in cultural knowledge and competence after cultural competence training.
- Evidence for a relationship between work experience and cultural competence is weak. Using bivariate analyses, two studies reported a positive association between the two variables (Lampley et al, 2008; Sargent et al., 2005) but another study which showed that very highly experienced nurses were more culturally competent than less experienced nurses had limitations to statistical conclusion

validity due to low sample size (Paez et al., 2008). Teasley et al. (2005) found significant bivariate relationships between subscales of a measure of cultural competence and years of direct work experience, and years worked at current agency. However, multivariate analysis found a significant relationship but only for years worked at current agency. On the other hand, using the same dataset, Teasley (2005) found a positive and significant correlation for years worked as a school social worker but multiple regression analysis did not show this variable to be a significant predictor of cultural competence. However, there are limitations to construct validity due concerns about the measure of cultural competence used (Teasley, 2005; Teasley et al., 2005). Three studies have found that the relationship between cultural competence and work experience whether or not in specific settings, and between cultural competence and work experience with clients from diverse groups is not significant (Doorenbos & Schim, 2004; Harnek Hall, 2008; Schim et al., 2005). The last two studies used multiple regression analyses to examine this relationship, and none of the three studies have any limitations of concern. Paez et al. (2008) too conducted multiple regression analysis and did not find a significant relationship between cultural competence and work experience in a specific setting. However, there are limitations of statistical conclusion validity due to low sample size.

- At best, there is weak evidence to support the existence of a relationship between race and cultural competence. Only the study by Constantine (2001) which had no limitations of concern, showed that African-American counselors were more culturally competent than White-Americans. Holcomb-McCoy and Myers (1999)

reportedly found differences in cultural competence based on counselor's ethnicity but their use of the terms race and ethnicity was overlapping, and they did not report the validity of their measure of cultural competence. Two studies found significant relationships between cultural competence and race but there are concerns about how cultural competence was measured (Teasley, 2005; Teasley et al., 2005). Another study found that African American physicians reported higher competency than White physicians but only on one subscale of cultural competence (Paez et al., 2008). However, the relevant analysis was underpowered. Five studies did not find a significant relationship between the two variables but one of these studies lacked heterogeneity in racial demographic (Lampley et al., 2008).

- The study by Holcomb-McCoy and Myers (1999) discussed above included, the evidence for the presence or lack of relationship between ethnicity and cultural competence is weak. Constantine (2001) found that Latino American counselors were more culturally competent than White-Americans. Reimann et al. (2004) found a significant relationship for Latino physicians but with only one subscale of the measures of cultural competence used. However, there are concerns about the validity of the measure of cultural competence. Harnek Hall (2008) did not find any significant difference in cultural competence scores of Hispanics, who constituted only 7.5% of the sample.
- Evidence indicates that age does not predict cultural competence. Four studies that examined the relationship of age with cultural competence had various limitations. Of the remaining six studies, only one study reported a positive

correlation but only for one of the three subscales in the measure of cultural competence (Benkert et al., 2011); five other studies found non-significant results (Doorenbos & Schim, 2004; Harnek Hall, 2008; Middleton et al. 2005; Schim et al., 2005; Schim et al., 2006). Therefore, the variable of age will be selectively used in the data analyses.

- Evidence indicates that gender does not predict cultural competence. Six studies examined the relationship between gender and cultural competence but only one study found a significant relationship indicating that female service providers scored higher than male providers on 2 of the 4 subscales of the MCI (Middleton et al., 2005). The study had 64% female and 35% males. Of the five studies that did not find a significant relationship, only one study had acceptable heterogeneity for gender and the sample of MSW students in this study had similar in gender-based characteristics to the social work population (Harnek Hall, 2008).
- Of the two studies that examined the relationship between life experience with diverse groups and service provider cultural competence, only the study by Benkert et al. (2011) had no limitations. In that study, bivariate and SEM analyses had shown that diverse life experience was correlated with, and predicted cultural competence
- The only study examining the relationship between political ideology (conservative vs. liberal) and cultural competence using multivariate linear regressions did not find a significant relationship (Paez et al., 2008). However,

this finding must be viewed with caution because sample size was inadequate for analysis.

- Three studies have examined the relationship between social desirability and cultural competence. Bivariate analyses showed a significant relationship between social desirability and total cultural competence scores and/or subscales of cultural competence (Benkert et al., 2011; Constantine & Ladany, 2000). However, the hierarchical regression analysis did not show a significant relationship (Harnek Hall, 2008). All three studies had sufficient heterogeneity in scores for both variables.
- Only two studies examined the relationship between SDO and cultural competence, and neither demonstrated a significant relationship between the two variables (Caricati et al., 2015; Weatherford, 2010). However, low reliability for the measure of SDO (Caricati et al., 2015), and lack of sufficient variability for SDO and a subscale of the measure of cultural competence (Weatherford, 2010) may have influenced these results. The studies did not have any other limitations but there is not enough research on the two variables to determine the presence or absence of a relationship.
- The only study that examined the relationship between practice setting and cultural competence did not find a significant relationship but there are concerns about the measure of cultural competence used (Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999).

It is also important to note that the findings of these studies are limited because the studies, in addition to using different measures of cultural competence, also used

different models and definitions of cultural competence. Middleton et al. (2005) and Paez et al. (2008) did not define cultural competence or use a model in their studies.

Of the three studies involving social workers or social work students, Teasley (2005) and Teasley et al. (2005) used the NASW's definition of cultural competence. However, no models of cultural competence were described in these two studies. The third study involving social work students conducted by Harnek Hall (2008) used various definitions of cultural competence and described a generic model with the domains of awareness, knowledge, and skills of cultural competence. Similarly, Constantine (2001) and Weatherford (2010) described models with three domains of cultural competence (i.e., attitudes/beliefs, knowledge, and skills). However, Weatherford (2010) used the definition proposed by Sue et al. (1982) to define the construct whereas Constantine (2001) did not define cultural competence.

The other studies generally used the Campinha-Bacote model of cultural competence (Campinha-Bacote, 2002) or the Schim Miller Model of Cultural Competence (SMCCM; Schim, Doorenbos, Miller, & Benkert, 2003). Four studies (Brathwaite, 2006; Lampley et al., 2008; Reimann et al., 2004; Sargent et al., 2005) used the Campinha-Bacote definition and model of cultural competence which includes the domains of awareness, knowledge, skills, cultural encounter, and cultural desire. However, one study did not define cultural competence (Lampley et al., 2008) whereas two studies described the model without referring to the cultural desire domain (Lampley et al., 2008; Sargent et al., 2005).

Four studies (Benkert et al., 2011; Doorenbos & Schim, 2004; Schim et al., 2005; Schim et al., 2006) used the SMCCM or described a model similar to the SMCCM. This

model includes the domains of cultural diversity, sensitivity, awareness, and behavior. Benkert et al. (2011) did not define cultural competence.

The limitations of the measures used in three studies (Lampley et al., 2008; Teasley 2005; Teasley et al., 2005) have been described earlier. The other studies used one of the three measures of cultural competence – the MCI, the Inventory for Assessing the Process of Cultural Competence Among Healthcare Professionals (IAPCC) based on the Campinha-Bacote model, or the Cultural Competence Assessment (CCA) which is based on the SMCCM model and developed to measure the cultural competence of nurses.

Social Work Studies

As has been highlighted earlier, it must be stressed that only three of the studies reviewed involved representatives of the social work profession (Harnek Hall, 2008; Teasley, 2005; Teasley et al., 2005) yet their results may have limited generalizability to the social worker population. While up-to-date demographic data for the social work population is not available, NASW members in 2002 comprised of 79% females, 87% Whites, had a median age of 50 years, and 18 years of work experience after earning their first social work degree (Risley-Curtiss, 2010). The same convenient sample of school social workers was used in both Teasley (2005) and Teasley et al. (2005) and comprised of 87-89% females, 54% White social workers, had a mean age of 43.8 years, and mean work experience of 14.7 years. However, there was no major difference in educational characteristics between the samples in the two studies and NASW members in the North Carolina chapter (Siebert, 2008). The sample of MSW students in the study by Harnek Hall (2008) comprised of 86% females, 72% Whites, and had a mean age of 34.2 years.

Nevertheless, there is lack of sufficient research on the relationship between demographic characteristics of social workers and cultural competence. This dissertation study will partly address that gap by examining whether SDO and the other eight variables identified by this literature review will be related to social workers' cultural competence. As described in Chapter I, there are potential differences between social worker and clients on religious and political affiliation. Therefore, this dissertation study will also examine the effects of social worker's religious and political affiliation on cultural competence.

Theoretical Framework

The following sections discuss various features of social dominance theory including its assumptions, mechanisms of group-based hierarchies, and the role of individuals, institutions, and collaborative intergroup processes in the creation of group-based social hierarchies and concludes with a discussion on its limitations including a brief critique by other scholars.

Social dominance theory

Social dominance theory focuses on group-based social hierarchies to explain inequalities, oppression and discrimination (Pratto et al., 2006; Pratto et al., 2013). Whereas most theories on prejudice and discrimination focus on a single level of analysis such as individuals, groups, or institutions to explain the cause of oppression, social dominance theory emphasizes the importance of multiple levels of analysis of the processes that produce and maintain prejudice and discrimination (Pratto et al., 2006; Sidanius, Pratto, van Laar, & Levin, 2004). Social dominance theory claims to integrate the most valid features of important theories and models of intergroup relations and

discrimination, such as social identity theory, realistic group conflict theory, and several modern racism theories, into a more comprehensive and multileveled understanding of the dynamics of group-based social oppression (Sidanius et al., 2004). Thus, the theory highlights the interplay between the psychological predispositions of individuals, the interaction between the evolved psychologies of men and women, relations between and across group members, cultural ideologies and policies, and organizational practices.

Moreover, because social dominance theory views human societies as systems (Pratto et al., 2006), it theorizes how processes at different societal levels work together to produce systemic effects. Social dominance theory describes how processes at one level of analysis (e.g., individual differences) both affect and are affected by processes at other levels of analysis (e.g., institutional), all resulting in the creation and recreation of group-based social hierarchy (Sidanius et al., 2004). While the congruence between the ideologies of individuals and institutions helps maintain hierarchies (Pratto et al., 2013), social dominance theory also postulates the operation of opposing forces in power relationships even in instances where there is apparent stability of hierarchies. One of the strengths of social dominance theory is that operationalization of the construct of SDO allows measurement of individuals' preferences for hierarchies and testing of the assumptions of the theory. The theory's versatility has found utility in other disciplines including business, ethnic studies, and international relations (Pratto et al., 2013).

There are three basic assumptions of Social Dominance Theory:

- (1) While age- and gender-based hierarchies will tend to exist within all social systems, arbitrary-set systems of social hierarchy will invariably emerge within social systems producing sustainable economic surplus.
- (2) Most forms of group

conflict and oppression (e.g., racism, ethnocentrism, sexism, nationalism, classism, regionalism) can be regarded as different manifestations of the same basic human predisposition to form group-based social hierarchies. And (3) Human social systems are subject to the counterbalancing influences of hierarchy-enhancing (HE) forces, producing and maintaining even higher levels of group-based social inequality, and hierarchy-attenuating (HA) forces, producing greater levels of group-based social equality (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999, p. 38).

According to the first assumption of social dominance theory, societies (i.e., non-hunter-gathering) producing stable economic surplus (Sidanius & Pratto, 2003) have three distinct systems of group-based hierarchies based on age, gender and arbitrary-set systems (Pratto et al., 2006; Pratto et al., 2013). In all these systems, groups are either dominant or subordinate based on the amount of power they yield. In the age system, adults form the dominant group as they wield more power than children who comprise the subordinate group. Likewise, in the gender system, men have more power than women in social, political, military and other domains. The arbitrary-set systems comprise of group hierarchies that are not based on the human life cycle as is the case with the age and gender systems; rather they are arbitrarily based on socially constructed and highly salient groups based on any characteristic that the human mind can imagine (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999) such as class, ethnicity, religious affiliation, or nationality (Pratto et al., 2006; Pratto et al., 2013).

Mechanisms of group-based hierarchies

Across societies, dominants (i.e., members of more powerful groups) have a vested interest in the acceptance and maintenance of group-based hierarchies as

compared to subordinates (i.e., those in less powerful groups). It is in the interest of dominants to convince subordinates of group-based hierarchies that both dominants and subordinates have similar attitudes toward hierarchies (Lee, Pratto, & Johnson, 2011). It is suggested that the goal of creating consensus on and acceptance of hierarchies is to minimize group conflict (Pratto et al., 1994).

Social dominance theory emphasizes the importance of **legitimizing myths**, which are instrumental in the favoring of dominant groups over subordinate ones. Legitimizing myths are consensually held beliefs, values, stereotypes and cultural ideologies that shape the action and behaviors of individuals, the operation of institutions, and the development of new social practices all of which work together to create and maintain social hierarchies. Dominant groups need to maintain their hegemonic position over subordinate groups. The two mechanisms by which this is done is the use of threat or actual force and control over discourse and ideology. The latter is preferred, more efficient, safe, and offers an opportunity to create myths (values, attitudes, beliefs, ideologies, value attributions), which provide moral and intellectual justification for social practices that increase social inequality (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). While it is not clearly stated how these myths are disseminated, one mechanism may be that the dominant groups have control over discourse.

Social dominance theory categorizes legitimizing myths as either **hierarchy-enhancing** or **hierarchy-attenuating**. Hierarchy-enhancing legitimizing myths such as racism, sexism, just world beliefs, nationalism, etc., are used to provide a legitimate, natural or moral justification for discrimination against and inequality between groups. Legitimization of myths not only organizes individuals, groups and institutions to favor

dominant groups but also ensures collaboration of subordinate groups in the sustenance of oppression. On the other hand, hierarchy-attenuating legitimizing myths such as socialism, democracy, and feminism oppose the forces of domination (see Figure 1).

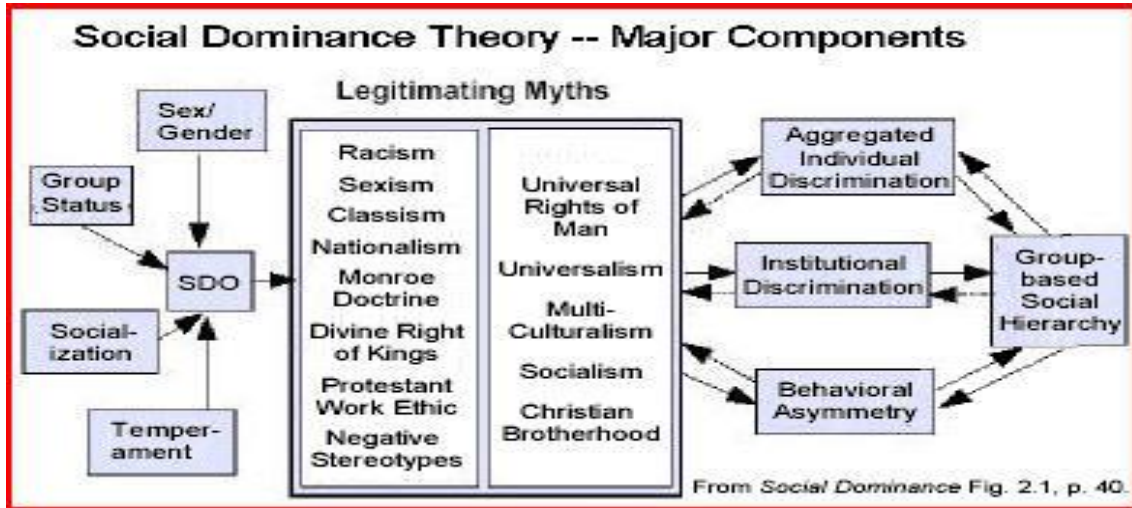


Figure 1. Major components of social dominance theory. Adapted from “Social Dominance: an Intergroup Theory of Social Hierarchy and Oppression,” by J. Sidanius and F. Pratto, 1999, p. 40. Copyright 2001 from the Cambridge University Press.

Both types of legitimizing myths exist in social systems. However, members of dominant groups will generally support hierarchy-enhancing legitimization myths more than members of subordinate groups, while members of subordinate groups will support hierarchy-attenuating legitimization myths more than members of dominant groups. Whether or not a legitimizing myth enhances or attenuates hierarchies is dependent on the **degree of consensus** between dominant and subordinate groups with respect to the legitimacy of the myth. According to social dominance theory, in stable social systems, the degree of consensus between dominant and subordinate groups on the legitimizing myths is higher than there is disagreement.

Social dominance theory partially draws from Marx’s term “superstructure,” which refers to two related phenomena, ideology that influences people’s lives and structures or organizations that are constructed to implement this ideology (Grabb, 2007).

Thus, social dominance theory posits that the net effects of discrimination across **multiple levels** of individuals, institutions, and collaborative intergroup processes result in the creation of group-based social hierarchy.

Individuals

According to social dominance theory, the structure of societies facilitates discrimination by some individual members. People in powerful positions or belonging to high-power groups have more materials of positive value that they can assign to in-groups and have power to allocate negative values to people in out-groups (Pratto et al., 2006). However, rather than simply being dependent upon position, discrimination perpetrated by individuals is linked to their psychological orientation, or SDO, towards group-based inequality (Pratto et al., 1994; Pratto et al., 2006). This would suggest that high SDO individuals in powerful positions are more likely to discriminate than low SDO individuals in powerful positions. The second assumption of social dominance theory is that this basic human predisposition to form group-based hierarchies is manifested in different forms of group conflict and oppression including racism, classism, etc. (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Initially defined as the degree of an individual's desire for the dominance of their in-group over out-groups (Pratto et al., 1994), SDO has been refined to indicate a general orientation of individuals to favor hierarchies and inequality among groups *irrespective* of whether it results in domination or subordination of their ingroup (Pratto et al., 2006). Social dominance theory draws from research on prejudice and discrimination to claim that SDO is influenced by an individual's socialization, cognition, motivation, and identity development. The theory places a high emphasis on the development of SDO in

individuals to their socialization in hierarchical systems such as patriarchal families or racial segregation in societies (Pratto et al., 2013).

As compared to individuals with low SDO, high-SDO individuals favor hierarchy-enhancing legitimizing myths over hierarchy-attenuating legitimizing myths (Pratto et al., 2006). Based on this premise, high SDO individuals support policies that enhance hierarchies and oppose policies that reduce hierarchies. On the other hand, low SDO individuals support hierarchy attenuating legitimizing myths that support policies to reduce hierarchies and oppose policies that enhance hierarchies (Pratto et al., 2006).

Social dominance theory provides a quantifiable criterion to test the function of legitimizing myths or ideologies in any given context (Pratto et al., 2013). Studies have found that mean levels of SDO are significantly higher for dominant group members (e.g., men) than subordinate group members (e.g., females) across nations (Lee et al., 2011; Pratto et al., 1994). SDO is also positively correlated with nationalism, political economic conservatism, anti-Black racism, and Republican Party preference. On the other hand, SDO has a negative correlation with women's rights, social programs, and gay and lesbian rights. SDO is also negatively correlated with empathy (Pratto et al., 1994). SDO is a useful tool to assess the legitimization of ideologies, and to determine whether ideologies and legitimizing myths mediate the relationship between SDO and support for policies that either enhance or reduce hierarchies and outcomes (Pratto et al., 2006).

Institutions

Social dominance theory considers institutional discrimination to be a major influence in the creation and maintenance of group-based hierarchy (Sidanius et al.,

2004) due to their influence and ability to mobilize and allocate more resources than individuals alone (Pratto et al. 2006). Institutions can be classified as either hierarchy enhancing or hierarchy attenuating. By assigning disproportionately more positive or desirable social values to dominant groups and more negative or undesirable values to subordinate groups, hierarchy-enhancing institutions encourage and maintain inequality between groups (Pratto et al., 2006; Pratto et al., 2013). The U.S. criminal justice system is a prime example of a hierarchy-enhancing organization wherein it assigns a higher rate of incarceration to African Americans which is disproportionate to the rates of criminal culpability of this group (Pratto et al., 2006) and to their proportion in the U.S. population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). Hierarchy-attenuating institutions predominantly focus on assisting members of subordinate groups such as the poor and ethnic minorities, using welfare organizations and civil liberties groups. Thus, institutional functions rather than their organizing principles are used to categorize them as either hierarchy enhancing or hierarchy-attenuating.

The third assumption of social dominance theory states that the operation of opposing hierarchy-enhancing and hierarchy-attenuating forces in power relationships is present even in instances where there is apparent stability of hierarchies (Pratto et al., 2013; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). However, unlike hierarchy-enhancing institutions, hierarchy-attenuating institutions rarely have the power and resources to assign negative social values to dominant groups. Thus, hierarchy attenuating institutions may only have a limited impact in reducing or balancing the actions of hierarchy-enhancing institutions (Pratto et al., 2006). While this imbalance may be responsible for the differential effects between these two opposing institutions and results in the maintenance of hierarchies, a

critical factor in the stability of systems is public acceptance or tolerance of the bias and discrimination perpetuated by these institutions (Pratto et al., 2006).

Social dominance theory suggests that individuals high in SDO prefer careers or working with organizations that enhance hierarchies whereas people with low SDO tend to have careers in professions or work with institutions that attenuate hierarchies such as welfare organizations or civil rights groups (Haley & Sidanius, 2005). Pratto et al. (2006) state that women, who are usually lower on SDO than men, prefer hierarchy attenuating careers and institutions as compared to men who prefer hierarchy enhancing careers and institutions. Careers such as those in business, law, law enforcement, and politics, which focus on benefitting, protecting, or serving elite groups or members of society and can be categorized as hierarchy enhancing professions. On the other hand, hierarchy attenuating professions (e.g., social work) focus on providing services to or benefitting oppressed groups (Pratto et al., 1994; Pratto et al., 2006). A third category of professions are called the “middlers,” where professions such as sales or science that do not directly enhance or reduce hierarchies (Pratto et al., 1994). Results from multivariate analyses of two samples showed that students who intended to work in hierarchy attenuating professions had lowest SDO of three groups (Pratto et al., 1994). In both samples, students intending to work in hierarchy-enhancing professions had the highest SDO, while students in the “middlers” profession had higher SDO than students intending to work in hierarchy attenuating professions. These differences existed even after controlling for participants’ gender. Therefore, it is not surprising that the liberal ideology of the social work profession is a good fit not only for liberal social workers but also for women. The social work profession is comprised of a higher percentage of liberals than moderates or

conservatives (Flaherty et al., 2013; Ritter, 2006; Rosenwald & Hyde, 2006). In addition, data from the Practice Research Network Survey of 2002 shows that nearly 80% of regular NASW members are females (Risley-Curtiss, 2010).

Irrespective of their hierarchy enhancing or attenuating roles, institutions can also be comprised of both hierarchy attenuating and enhancing units. One such institution is the U.S. criminal justice system which comprises of both hierarchy enhancing prison guards and hierarchy attenuating social workers (Haley & Sidanius, 2005). However, irrespective of whether they are hierarchy enhancing or attenuating, institutions ensure that they serve their purpose regardless of the divergent attitudes of the individuals working within these institutions (Pratto et al., 2013). Studies involving multiple samples have shown that SDO varies as a function of political ideology such that conservatism is positively correlated to SDO (Pratto et al., 1994). Thus, it is expected that the social work profession will be composed of individuals with varying degrees of SDO even though studies have shown that the social work profession embraces a hierarchy attenuating ideology by focusing on providing services to or benefitting oppressed groups (Pratto et al., 1994; Pratto et al., 2006). On the other hand, studies have also shown that intra-group SDO levels for both dominant and subordinate groups vary as per their function of identification with their groups (Morrison & Ybarra, 2008).

Intergroup processes

Pratto et al. (2006) state that group-based inequality is also created and sustained by the combined effects of behaviors of members of both dominant and subordinate groups. The combination of differences in behaviors of dominantes and subordinates, termed as *behavioral asymmetry*, which helps produce positive outcomes for members of

dominant groups than for subordinate groups. Behavioral asymmetry consists of asymmetrical ingroup bias, self-debilitating behavior, and ideological asymmetry hypothesis. In stable group-based hierarchies where legitimizing myths are endorsed as true, there exists *asymmetrical ingroup bias* such that the in-group favoritism of dominants (e.g., Whites) outweighs the in-group favoritism of subordinates (e.g., African-Americans or Latinos). On the other hand, when the myths are perceived as false or unjust, then subordinates show higher levels of ingroup favoritism than do dominants. (Pratto et al., 2006). *Self-debilitating behavior* among subordinate group members results from the power of legitimizing myths in influencing the thoughts, actions and outcomes for subordinate group members irrespective of whether they endorse these myths. Self-debilitating behaviors include higher criminality, intra-group violence, truancy, and school attrition (Pratto et al., 2006). The third type of behavioral asymmetry involves the *ideological asymmetry hypothesis*, which proposes that, “There is generally greater compatibility between psychological processes, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours that facilitate group dominance among dominant group members than among subordinate group members” (Pratto et al., 2006, p. 281). Social dominance theory states that SDO is more strongly related to support for legitimizing myths among dominants than among subordinates. For example, the relationship between SDO and negative stereotypes of interracial relationships (e.g., Whites dating Blacks is a sign of their rebellion against their parents and a Black man considers a White woman on his arm to be a symbol of his success) was significant and positive for White Canadians but not for Black Canadians (Lalonde, Giguère, Fontaine, Smith, 2007).

In addition, ingroup identification and SDO are positively associated among members of dominant groups whereas they are negatively associated for members of subordinate groups (Pratto et al., 2006). The association of high SDO and ingroup identification among dominant members also results in higher discrimination against subordinates (Pratto et al., 2006).

Criticisms & Limitations of Social Dominance Theory

There is some confusion, skepticism, and limitations about the assumptions of SDO and the theory itself. To some extent, this is not surprising given that there are many different versions and explanations of the theory that have been proffered by the some of its developers over a long period of time. A detailed critique of social dominance theory has been made by Turner and Reynolds (2003):

There are numerous criticisms to be made of SDT but we think the six most important are: (1) that the supposed evolutionary basis of the social dominance drive is largely fantasy; (2) that the social and psychological substance of the theory does not follow from and indeed is at odds with the so-called ‘ubiquitous drive’; (3) the meaning and role of ‘social dominance orientation’ (SDO), the trait variable that dominates the research, are rendered problematic by a growing amount of evidence (see Schmitt, Branscombe, & Kappen, 2003, hereafter SBK; Wilson & Liu, 2003, hereafter WL); (4) the BA [behavioural asymmetry] hypothesis (in which subordinate groups support the hierarchy which oppresses them to the same extent as dominant groups) has already been demonstrably falsified (leading to the unacknowledged adoption of SIT to explain the conditions under which low-status groups will accept or reject the status quo and

favour or derogate the dominant group); (5) the hypothesis of 'ideological asymmetry' (IA) supposedly an aspect of BA, is in fact patently inconsistent with it and illustrates that attitudes to dominance hierarchies and group inequalities are a function of one's group identity, interests and position in the social structure rather than any invariant biological drive, just as realistic conflict and social identity theories would expect; and (6) that SDT is both reductionist and philosophically idealist in that it seeks to derive all political ideologies, intergroup relations and indeed the whole social structure from one psychological drive or, in the theory's weaker but no less implausible form, one attitude (SDO), abstracted, reified and distorted to stand for some hard-wired original sin of biology ('the beast within'). Whereas, in fact, intergroup attitudes are not prior to but follow from social structure; they follow from the beliefs, theories and ideologies which groups develop to make sense of their place in the social structure and the nature of their relationships with other groups. SDO is a product of social life rather than an underlying cause. (pp. 199-200)

Turner and Reynolds (2003) claim that the behavioral asymmetry hypothesis which purportedly suggests that subordinate group members high in SDO act against their own interests to support hierarchies, has been falsified. Findings of two studies on SDO are reported in support of this claim along with the conclusion that falsification of this hypothesis is an unacknowledged acceptance of social identity theory developed by Tajfel and Turner. Sidanius et al's (2004) response to this criticism includes a reference to the ideological asymmetry hypothesis which is one of the three components of behavioral asymmetry along with asymmetrical ingroup bias and self-debilitating

behavior. However, the hypothesis has inconsistent definitions. One definition is, “The notion that legitimizing ideologies will be differentially related to ingroup favoritism and ingroup identities among members of dominant and subordinate groups is known as the asymmetry hypothesis” (Sidanius et al., 2004, p. 864) whereas another definition is, “The hypothesis that there is generally greater compatibility between psychological processes, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours that facilitate group dominance among dominant group members than among subordinate group members is called ideological asymmetry” (Pratto et al., 2006, p. 281). Thus, the critique by Turner and Reynolds pertaining to behavioral asymmetry may have resulted from the use of inconsistent definitions by the developers of the theory.

Turner and Reynolds (2003) assert that there is increasing evidence to show that the meaning and role of SDO is problematic but discuss only three studies including the study by Schmitt et al. (2003). Compiling results from these studies, Turner and Reynolds question the single-dimension structure of the SDO scale as reported by Jost and Thompson (2000), claim that group identity influences SDO for women thus contradicting the invariance hypothesis, and conclude that SDO does not measure a general attitude towards inequality, and state that it makes little sense to force all aspects of social and political ideology into a single dimension of being either for or against inequality vis-à-vis SDO. Jost and Thompson (2000), one of the studies cited with respect to this discussion, found that SDO contains two factors which they named as opposition to equality (OEQ) which supposedly operates at the system level, and group-based dominance (GBD) which may operate at the group level. In response to these findings, Lee et al. (2011) tested for gender (15 samples), ethnic/racial (17 samples), and non-

ethnic/racial (4 samples) differences between the two factors. Correlations were high ranging from .47 to .93, and the weighted mean effect size differed for only the ethnic/racial groups. The researchers state that these results along with the scale's high internal consistency support the unidimensional structure of SDO scale.

This dissertation indicated that SDO was initially defined as the extent of an individual's desire for the dominance of their in-group over out-groups (Pratto et al., 1994) and further refined to signify a general orientation of individuals to favor hierarchies and inequality among groups *irrespective* of whether it resulted in domination or subordination of the individual's' ingroup (Pratto et al., 2006). Pratto et al. (2013) posited that an individual's SDO reflects ideologies that are salient to individuals and their contexts. Based on these definitions, it can be assumed that rather than measuring a general preference of individuals for group-based hierarchies, SDO captures psychological preferences of individuals towards specific hierarchies that are most salient to individuals. A similar claim is made by Schmitt et al. (2003) who found that when responding to the SDO measure, 58% of White American undergraduate students at the University of Kansas were more likely to think about race than any other social categorization. In addition to the saliency of race, participants also reported another 14 categories which included social class (35%), nations (21%), and gender (20%). In addition, participants also reported spending about 75% of their time thinking about race, slightly more than half their time thinking about other nations, and about one third of their time thinking about gender. Another seven categories were also reported which included occupations (42% of the time). Inexplicably, social class was not listed in the second list of categories. Schmitt et al. (2003) state that these findings challenge the

assumption of social dominance theory that SDO is a general measure of an individual's preference for group-based hierarchies. However, it must be noted that the participants had also completed a questionnaire on racism eight weeks prior to completing the SDO scale. Therefore, it is difficult to conclude whether race was indeed the most salient category for participants or if their responses were influenced because they were primed to think about racism in the study, a possibility despite the time gap because some students may have made the connection between the two phases of the study.

Contesting the above conclusion made by Schmitt et al. (2003) about SDO, Sidanius and Pratto (2003) state that the findings of the study actually support their conception of SDO and add that the SDO scale was developed to capture attitudes towards hierarchies or groups that are most salient to individuals within specific contexts. In their description of SDO, Sidanius and Pratto (1999) had clarified that in modern Europe, social stratification or hierarchy was *primarily* driven by social class and was therefore *most likely* to be salient in influencing SDO whereas in the U.S., race rather than social class has been and continues to *primarily* define social stratification and was therefore most likely to influence SDO. According to Sidanius and Pratto (2003), the findings of the study by Schmitt et al. (2003) that majority of the respondents were thinking about race, thus confirm this assumption of social dominance theory. However, given that some clarifications about or additions to the definition of SDO have been made more than a decade after the theory was proposed (Pratto et al., 1994; Pratto et al., 2006; Pratto et al., 2013), the resulting skepticism and criticism of the theory are understandable. Sidanius et al. (2004) have provided additional clarification to the concerns raised by Turner and Reynolds.

In addition to criticism of social dominance theory by others, there are additional concerns and limitations of the theory and/or research surrounding the theory that are discussed below. It is also important to mention that similar to the criticism of SDO and Behavioral Asymmetry by Turner and Reynolds, the key concept of arbitrary-set systems as defined by Sidanius and Pratto (1999) also appears to be ambiguous at best.

Differences in SDO across societies/nations

Social dominance theory predicts that more hierarchical societies should have more powerful hierarchy-enhancing legitimizing myths and policies and larger differences in SDO between dominant and subordinate groups (Pratto et al., 2006). However, the results of a meta-analysis by Lee et al. (2011) did not support the existence of larger group differences in SDO in more hierarchical societies. Contrary to this assumption of social dominance theory, Lee et al. (2011) found that SDO differences between dominant and subordinate groups in hierarchies based on gender and arbitrary-sets including race hierarchies were larger in societies that were more liberal, individualistic, modern and wealthier. However, this inconsistency between the findings of the meta-analysis and the hypothesis of social dominance theory appears to have gone unnoticed in the explanation of these results. Lee et al. (2011) conclude that individualistic cultures offer individuals including members of subordinate groups more freedom to become more aware of inequality between groups, reject group-based hierarchy, and allow expression of dissent and demands for equality. On the other hand, cultures that value tradition restrict freedom preventing egalitarian sentiments and dissent especially among members of subordinate groups, which is instrumental in creating consensus on, and maintenance of hierarchies. However, the researchers do not provide

an explanation as to why inter-group racial/ethnic differences in SDO were smaller in effect size than gender differences both in the U.S. and other individualistic cultures.

If, as proposed by social dominance theory, group differences on arbitrary-sets or socially constructed hierarchies are indeed completely contextual, and exist only if there are perceptions of power differences between groups (Pratto et al., 2006), then Lee et al. (2011) fail to explain why in individualistic cultures that offer more freedom, racial/ethnic minorities did not recognize or acknowledge the saliency of racism or differences in power between dominant and subordinate racial groups to the same degree as subordinates (females) did in the gender-based hierarchies. In other words, what influenced women in the US to perceive greater freedom to recognize inequality in the gender-based hierarchy as compared to the subordinate groups in the race/ethnicity hierarchy? Does the high percentage of White women (subordinates in the gender hierarchy but dominant in the racial hierarchy) influence the larger gender SDO differences compared to the smaller racial/ethnic SDO differences in the US context? To clarify further, does more freedom for White American women influence their perceptions of higher gender inequality whereas less freedom for racial minorities influence their perceptions of lower racial inequality? The explanation by Lee et al. (2011) also does not take into consideration that Sidanius and Pratto (1999) found that the relationship between group dominance orientation or GDO, a proxy for SDO, and ethnicity was moderated by educational level, political ideology, and GPA. However, these three variables did not moderate the relationship between GDO and gender. Additionally, if, unlike individualistic cultures, collectivist societies do not offer freedom to individuals to become aware of inequalities or to express dissent, then what explains

the genesis and the comparative success of the arguably more violent Arab Spring movement and the suppression of the comparatively more peaceful Occupy Wall Street movement across the United States? Nevertheless, while these results highlight the importance of the influence of cultural and political contexts on individuals' differing psychological orientations to diverse group-based hierarchies, they also highlight a limitation of social dominance theory in its inability to explain the degree of differences in psychological orientation between dominants and subordinates in cultures differing on a number of factors (see Lee et al., 2011).

Consensus over legitimizing myths

Pratto et al. (2006) state that a critical factor in the stability of hierarchy-enhancing systems is public acceptance or tolerance of the bias and discrimination perpetuated by these institutions. The authors indicate that there is a consensus over legitimizing myths (e.g., fairness of the criminal justice system, higher criminality among non-Whites), which allows dominant groups to ascribe higher rates of criminality to subordinate groups such as African Americans. This ensures tolerance and stability of the criminal justice system that incarcerates African-Americans (five times) and Hispanics (three times) at a higher rate than for Whites (Pew Research Center, 2018). However, this assumption of consensus appears to be somewhat flawed. If subordinate racial and ethnic minorities generally endorsed the myth of higher criminality, then it is expected that they would perceive that the system treated them fairly. However, Pratto et al. (2006) themselves point to a body of evidence which shows that White Americans generally favor the police more than African-Americans.

Following the killings of Eric Garner and Michael Brown, the Pew Research Center (2014) reported that at least two-thirds of African Americans believed that African Americans in their community were treated less fairly than Whites by the police (70%) and the courts (68%). While a comparatively lower percentage of Hispanics said that African Americans in their community were treated less fairly than Whites by the police (51%) and courts (40%). However, the percentage of Whites who believed that African Americans in their community were treated less fairly than Whites by the police (37%) and courts (27%) was lower than African Americans and Hispanics respondents. Another recent report showed similar results. A very high majority (84%) of African-Americans perceived being treated less fairly than Whites while dealing with the police, but only 50% of Whites shared this perception (Pew Research Center, 2016). While dealing with courts, 75% of African Americans perceived being treated less fairly than Whites, whereas only 43% of Whites shared this perception. This data would suggest some interesting yet inconsistent conclusions relevant to social dominance theory. Perceptions of African Americans that the police and courts were more discriminatory towards African-Americans than Whites suggest that most African Americans do not agree with the myth of higher criminality among African Americans. On the other hand, half of Hispanics or perhaps even a slight majority appear to endorse the myth of higher criminality of African-Americans. It is not known if respondents were asked about their perceptions of Hispanics and Whites being treated differently by police and courts. Thus, it can be concluded that one subordinate racial/ethnicity group may not endorse a myth when it was relevant to them, but another subordinate racial/ethnicity group may endorse a myth if it is relevant to another subordinate racial/ethnic group. It is difficult to

determine if this perception of Hispanics translates to higher SDO towards African Americans, but the results appear to support the need for further studies on SDO similar to the study conducted by Levin (1996). The results also suggest that rather than simply consensus between dominant and subordinate groups on the legitimacy of myths regarding higher criminal activity among subordinate racial/ethnic minorities, the stability of the criminal justice system may be influenced more by the control exerted by Whites on powerful institutions (the criminal justice system) and social discourse (on criminality and mass incarceration as is proposed by social dominance theory. Control over social discourse may partly account for the reason why nearly half of Hispanics believed that African-Americans were treated on par with Whites by the police and courts.

Social work and social control

Social Dominance Theory suggests that hierarchy-attenuating professions including social work strive to reduce hierarchies and are generally populated by individuals who are low in SDO. However, there is some criticism in the social work literature that the profession serves as an agent of social control. Beresford and Croft (2001) charge that if social work practice were to become a joint and collaborative activity between social workers and clients rather than as an expert-driven process, then it would represent a significant departure from the maintenance of status quos by asking questions about the profession's role in propagating social control and curbing clients civil and human rights. While discussing the issue of prostitution, Wahab (2002) states that because of concerns about prostitution, women have been subjected to regulation, and "social workers have contributed to and perpetuated the social control of women's

bodies by exclusively targeting women through reform and rescue efforts, and therefore contributing to the belief that women are at the heart” (p. 44) of the problem of prostitution. In effect, social workers are alleged to have maintained the hierarchy that accords women a lower status than men, and thus women need more control, scrutiny, and intervention than men. The social work profession’s association with the institution of social welfare that imposes statutory responsibilities may have impeded social change efforts thus leading to social control and continuance of status quos (Gray & Fook, 2004). Reisch and Jani (2012) suggest that lack of understanding about the relationship between politics and practice inhibits social workers from challenging the status quos, thus helping in the maintenance of institutional power differentials. Akers et al. (2008) found that religious and conservative social worker students reported that they would deny certain services to clients in need of information or services. If these social workers acted upon this perspective, then by denying services they would contravene not only the relevant standard of cultural competence but also the ethical responsibility that requires them to refrain from practicing, condoning, facilitating, and collaborating with all forms of discrimination. More importantly, it also violates social workers’ ethical responsibility to prevent and eliminate any form of dominance, abuse, and discrimination against any person. In addition, in instances of ethical conflict in practice, the NASW recommends that social work practice must refer to and be informed first by the NASW Code of Ethics and then, if required, by the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights. However, given the power structure within these two organizations, the recommendation to refer to the Code of Ethics and specifically to the UDHR appears to be motivated more by the need to emphasize the superiority of liberal or Eurocentric values over others rather than

by a genuine acknowledgement of the complexity involved in resolving ethical dilemmas. Nevertheless, there appears to be some justification to examine the relevance of SDT, if any, to the social work profession.

In summation, while the theory has its critics and supporters, and potential shortcomings and advantages, a more detailed discussion of the controversies surrounding social dominance theory is beyond the scope and purpose of this dissertation. Indeed, this dissertation is an attempt to introduce social dominance theory into social work literature rather than advocate for its acceptance or refutation.

Research on gender and race/ethnicity-based hierarchies

Social dominance theory postulates that gender-based hierarchical systems are less contextual, and even when context does play a role, the inequalities between the two groups is not eliminated. This hypothesis is called the *invariance hypothesis* (Pratto et al, 2006). On the other hand, group differences on arbitrary-set hierarchies such as those based on race are completely contextual, will exist only when there are perceptions of power differences between groups and when differences between groups are at least minimally salient (Pratto et al, 2006).

Meta-analysis by Lee et al. (2011)

Results from the meta-analysis using 206 samples from 118 studies across the globe initially appear to support the hypotheses pertaining to gender-based and arbitrary-set hierarchical systems. Lee et al. (2011) examined the relationship of socio-structural and psycho-cultural characteristics with support for group-based hierarchy based on gender and arbitrary-set groups based on race/ethnicity and non-racial categories. Nonracial group-based hierarchies were classified on the basis of academic major,

educational level, job type, language, and political party affiliation or identification.

Analysis of 169 samples showed that women had higher SDO than men in only five non-US samples, one each from Canada, France, and Sweden, and two from Taiwan. The high mean effect size ($d_+ = 0.43$, 95% CI [0.39, 0.47]) confirmed that, as compared to men, women had a lesser preference for supporting gender-based hierarchies, measured by their social dominance orientation (SDO). On the other hand, analysis of 56 samples of racial/ethnic groups and 24 non-racial samples showed that dominant and subordinate arbitrary-set groups were *higher on SDO in nearly the same number of samples as they were lower on SDO*. Yet, the weighted mean effect size for arbitrary-set groups indicated that overall dominant arbitrary-set groups ($d_+ = 0.15$, 95% CI [0.06, 0.25]) and racial/ethnic groups ($d_+ = 0.15$, 95% CI [0.05, 0.26]) were higher on SDO than subordinate groups. The weighted mean effect size ($d_+ = 0.43$) for the gender difference was almost three times larger than that for arbitrary-set groups ($d_+ = 0.15$). Samples examining racial/ethnic groups in the U.S. were found to have a larger mean effect size ($d_+ = 0.26$, 95% CI [0.13, 0.39], $k = 37$) whereas studies examining racial/ethnic differences in other parts of the world had almost a zero mean effect size ($d_+ = -0.04$, 95% CI [-0.23, 0.15], $k = 19$) indicating that generally dominant racial/ethnic groups in the U.S. were higher in SDO than subordinate groups whereas overall there were no differences in SDO between dominant and subordinate racial/ethnic groups outside the U.S. Additionally, in U.S. samples, there were no significant overall differences between Whites and Asians ($d_+ = -0.12$, 95% CI [-0.33, 0.09], $k = 9$), whereas dominants were overall higher in SDO as far as other ethnic/racial comparisons were concerned ($d_+ = 0.40$, 95% CI [0.28, 0.52], $k = 28$). In fact, a review of data presented in the meta-analysis

for all 28 US samples comparing SDO between Whites and non-Whites excluding Asians showed that in all samples, except two, Whites were higher in SDO than non-Whites. The two samples with discordant findings involved White, African American, and Latino police officers in a Southwestern city (Sabir, 2007). Lee et al. (2011) reported that in both samples, White police officers were lower in SDO than African American ($d = -0.33$) and Latino police officers ($d = -0.18$).

A review of the dissertational study by Sabir (2007) showed no significant differences in SDO between African Americans, Hispanics, and Whites. In fact, mean SDO score in the sample indicated near moderate or marginally low SDO ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 0.56$, Range = 2.1=5.3) based on the scale mid-point of 4 and there was only a marginal difference in mean SDO scores across the three groups ($M_{AfricanAmericans} = 4.0$, $SD = 0.63$; $M_{Hispanic} = 3.9$, $SD = 0.48$; $M_{White} = 3.8$, $SD = 0.58$). Pratto et al., (2006) state that individuals *high* in SDO prefer careers or working with organizations that enhance hierarchies, and careers such as law enforcement can be categorized as hierarchy enhancing professions. Among other factors, individual socialization in the ideological hierarchy within the profession and/or identification with the ideology of the profession is likely to influence individual SDO (Haley & Sidanius, 2005). In the case of SDO of racial/ethnic minorities in law enforcement careers, it can be argued that the saliency of being police officers may override that of being racial/ethnic minorities accounting for comparable or the slightly higher SDO than White police officers. However, a critical finding of the study by Sabir (3007) is that police officers may have higher SDO than others, and while this difference may have real-world ramifications, police officers and those belonging to hierarchy enhancing professions may not necessarily be high in SDO.

None of the other 35 U.S. samples in the meta-analysis classified as racial/ethnic comparisons involved hierarchy enhancing professions or groups.

However, the findings from the meta-analysis pertaining to racial/ethnic comparisons must be viewed with some caution. A cursory perusal of the summary of the samples provided in the meta-analysis showed interchangeable use of race and/or ethnicity in U.S. samples and classification of religious groups as racial/ethnic groups in certain non-US samples. This interchangeable use of race and/or ethnicity was similar to the study by Holcomb-McCoy and Myers (1999) which was reviewed earlier for cultural competence.

The meta-analysis did not discuss the findings for nonracial group hierarchies in detail, but data provided for 24 samples indicated similarities with results for race/ethnicity-based group differences. Only one US sample in the meta-analysis was examined for education (Caldwell, 2007), and only two samples were examined for party affiliation (Nelson & Milburn, 1999; Pratto & Lemieux, 2011) as variables of interest.

Despite the minor anomaly in findings for gender-based hierarchies, the meta-analysis by Lee et al. (2011) provided strong support to the invariance hypothesis of social dominance theory. The findings also provide some evidence to support the hypothesis that members of subordinate groups are low on SDO as compared to members of dominant groups. It must also be noted that about half of the samples were from the US, about 75% of the participants in the sample were students and Caucasians, and one of every two participants had a college level education. Nevertheless, the 169 gender group comparison samples in the meta-analysis comprised nearly 53,000 participants in 22 countries or areas (Palestine included); an almost an equal number of participants

from 13 countries or areas comprised the 80 arbitrary-set group comparison samples. Other than samples from western nations, the meta-analysis included samples from Asia (27), Africa (12), Eastern Europe (2), and Colombia (1). Thus, there is enough geographical diversity in the samples to support the relevance and assumptions of social dominance theory in western and non-western contexts.

Other Studies

In addition to the findings of the above meta-analysis, Trawalter, Chung, DeSantis, Simon, and Adam (2011) also found that White participants' SDO scores ($M = 2.68$) were significantly higher than those of Black participants ($M = 1.32$; $t(47) = 5.85$, $p < .001$). There was acceptable variability in the sample for race. Between 1990 and 1992, Pratto et al. (1994) conducted a set of studies with 14 samples involving 1,952 undergraduate students at University of California at Berkeley, San Jose State University, and Stanford University. A secondary goal of these studies was to determine the relationship between SDO and gender. In ten of 12 samples that were examined for gender differences, point biserial correlations showed that men had significantly higher SDO than women. Significant correlations ranged from 0.26 to 0.36 of which 5 were weak correlations and 5 were moderate correlations. Mean scores for men and women in sample 2 ($N = 463$) were 3.03 and 2.51, respectively, whereas in merged samples 5, 6, 8, and 9, they were 3.07 and 2.90 ($N = 405$), respectively. Mean SDO scores for men and women from other samples were not reported. There were no statistically significant differences in SDO between men and women in samples 5 and 9. In the study by Trawalter et al. (2011), there was good variability in data for gender, and sufficient variability in SDO scores ($M = 2.5$, $SE = 1.3$) which overall indicated low SDO in the

sample. However, there was no significant difference in SDO scores between male and female university students, $t(47) = .25, p = .81$. Nelson and Millburn (1999) examined SDO using the 14-item SDO and other variables in 101 undergraduate but predominantly freshman students. Overall, both men and women were also low in SDO but men ($M = 2.94$) were significantly higher in SDO than women ($M = 2.51$). Variability in SDO scores was not reported but there was good variability in data for gender.

Research on ideologies including political ideology

Pratto et al. (1994) also sought to determine the relationship between SDO and students' support for legitimizing myths, ideologies, and policy attitudes. In one sample of 190 Stanford University students that had near equal number of male and female students, an equal percentage of Caucasian American (38%) and Asian American (40%) students, and about a third of students with family income above \$100,000, (Pratto et al., 1994) found that support for military engagement with Iraq and the suspension of liberties for war were positively associated with SDO. On the other hand, SDO had a negative correlation with students' support for gay and lesbian rights in four out of 5 sample (denoted as 4/5), noblesse oblige (7/7), women's rights, social programs, and racial policy (6/6 for all three), and miscegeny (4/6). In addition, SDO was negatively correlated to empathy in five (5/6) samples.

Political economic conservatism was measured in eight samples using a 3-item questionnaire on foreign policy, economic, and social issues with responses ranging from 1 = Very liberal to 4 = middle of the road to 7 = Very conservative. Statistically significant and positive *correlations* were found between SDO and political economic conservatism (7/8). The authors also stated that conservatives were higher in SDO than

liberals. Fisher's z-to-r formula was used to compute the average correlation between SDO and political ideology across seven samples and was found to be 0.38. Correlations in the seven samples ranged from 0.17 to 0.72 with 4 weak correlations, 2 moderate correlations, and 1 strong correlation. Similarly, sample 9 which had the weakest correlation ($r = 0.17$) of all significant correlations between SDO and conservatism also did not have a significant difference in SDO across gender. Samples 5 and 9 included undergraduate students from SJSU but then so did sample 2, and all samples had acceptable variability for gender, race, and family income. No other socio-demographic characteristics were reported. Thus, it is not clear if there are issues with the SDO scale, the methods used to obtain the wide-ranging samples, the inconsistency with methodology across the many studies or all the above.

Crawford and Bhatia (2012) used the 16 item SDO scale along with two measures of ideology both with seven response options ranging from Extremely Liberal to Extremely Conservative. Scores for the single-item measure of ideology were labeled as self-reported conservatism, and scores for the non-standardized 10-item measure were labeled as issue-based conservatism. It was found that SDO was significantly and positively correlated with increasing conservatism with strong effect size of 0.63 and 0.51, respectively. The sample of undergraduate students ($n = 27$) was slightly low in SDO ($M = 2.62$, $SD = 0.92$), moderate on self-reported ideology ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 1.4$), and slightly liberal on issue-based ideology ($M = 2.93$, $SD = 0.84$). Thus, respondents were found to be more liberal when asked about specific issues as compared to being asked about their overall ideology.

Using the Social and Economic Conservatism Scale (SECS) and the 8-item SDO scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$), Everett (2013) reported similar results for SDO, and economic ($r = 0.56$) and social conservatism ($r = 0.39$), and overall conservatism ($r = 0.49$). Overall, SECS scores ($M = 5.80$, $SD = 1.94$) were slightly above the midpoint 5.0 of the scale thus indicating that respondents in the sample ($n = 291$) were overall slightly conservative, and that there was acceptable variability in scores for SECS. The sample also had acceptable variability for age, and comprised of 85.2% Whites, 43.3% females, 46.0% Democrats, 30.9% Independents, and 16.8% Republicans but additional details of SDO scores were not reported.

Balliet, Tybur, Wu, Antonellis, and Van Lange (2016) used the 8-item SDO, and a non-standardized three item measure of general political ideology with seven response options ranging from extremely left to extremely right. They found significant and positive correlations between SDO and political ideology ($r = 0.41$, $n = 725$). The sample obtained through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), which is an online labor market that allows researchers and businesses to gather human intelligence through surveys (MTurk.com, 2018), was low in SDO ($M = 2.29$, $SD = 1.27$) and very slight liberal ($M = 3.23$, $SD = 1.61$).

In samples of Swedish students and non-students, Grina, Bergh, Akrami, and Sidanius (2016) used the 16 item SDO₆ scale and a single item measure of political orientation (ideology) with seven response options. Correlations in four samples ($Ns = 106, 153, 276, 286$) ranged from 0.43 to 0.66 but mean SDO scores ranged from 1.87 to 1.92, and standard deviations were less than 0.70 indicating low SDO and lack of heterogeneity in scores. Mean ideology scores ranged from 3.35 to 3.89 whereas standard

deviations ranged from 1.44 to 1.75 indicating moderate ideology and acceptable heterogeneity.

Research on political party affiliation

In the examination of six samples by Pratto et al. (1994), political party preference was apparently measured by a single item with response options ranging from 1 (Strong Democrat) to 4 (Independent) to 7 (Strong Republican), and others. After excluding others, SDO was positively and significantly correlated with the Republican option with an average correlation of 0.28. Correlations in the six samples ranged from 0.15 to 0.45 with 4 weak correlations and 2 moderate correlations. Crawford and Bhatia (2012) reported a significant and positive correlation ($r = 0.47$) between SDO and political party affiliation ($M = 3.50$, $SD = 1.66$, $N = 27$) which was measured using a single item question with seven responses ranging from strong Democrat to strong Republican. The data indicates that the sample was equally divided between Democrats and Republicans but with different levels of affiliation. Balliet et al. (2016) used a single-item measure for political party affiliation with three response-options and found significant and positive *zero-order* correlations between SDO and *political party affiliation* (Republicans = 1, Democrats = 2; $r = 0.39$, $n = 580$).

Nelson and Millburn (1999) found that Republicans were significantly higher ($M = 3.09$) than Democrats ($M = 2.55$) in SDO. Variability in SDO scores was not reported but there was good variability in data for political party affiliation which was apparently measured using a single item with three responses. Pratto and Lemieux (2001) used a short 6-item SDO scale ($\alpha = .72$) in a sample ($N = 348$) with acceptable variability for gender and political party registration and reported significant differences in means of

three groups: Democrats ($M = 1.86$; $n = 198$), Nonpartisans and Others ($M = 2.22$, $n = 48$), and Republicans ($M = 2.72$, $n = 72$). While there was a progressive increase in SDO across groups, additional interpretation of results cannot be done due to lack of information about standard deviation and response items or total scale scores. In a sample consisting predominantly of University of Virginia students, Trawalter et al. (2011) used the 16 item SDO but did not mention how political party preference was measured. Results showed that SDO scores for Republicans ($M = 3.61$) was significantly higher than scores for Democrats ($M = 1.78$) yet mean scores also indicated that Democrats were generally low in SDO whereas Republicans was generally in the middle of the range for SDO; overall the sample was low in SDO ($M = 2.5$, $SE = 1.3$, $n = 49$). Scherer, Windschitl, and Graham (2015) used a sample obtained from Mechanical Turk, and a 2-item measure of political party affiliation from the American National Election Studies, responses from which are then used to create a 7-point response ranging from Strong Democrat to Strong Republican. Results showed that Republicans were significantly higher in SDO than Democrats ($d = 1.37$) but conclusions including for clinical significance cannot be made due to lack of information about the SDO scale used including which version, number of response options or scale range, and reliability. Nevertheless, the sample ($N = 219$) had good variability for gender, age, race, and political party affiliation.

Justification for Research Questions

Social dominance theorists suggest that social workers should be low in SDO but only one study involving MSW students has been identified that examined SDO (Osteen, Vanidestine, & Sharpe, 2013). As summarized in the literature review for SDO, there is

strong support for the relationship of SDO with gender, race, political ideology/conservatism, and Republican Party preference. Concerns about the methodology used in the meta-analysis by Lee et al. (2011) substantially dilutes the evidence for the relationship between SDO and ethnicity. The relationship between SDO and the variables of age, education, religious affiliation, social desirability, social work license, social work position, practice setting, work experience, and cultural competence training have not been previously studied.

As summarized in the literature review for cultural competence, there is research to support the relationship between cultural competence with cultural competence training, and the level of education. On the other hand, evidence for the relationship between cultural competence and race, ethnicity, and work experience is weak, whereas evidence shows that age and gender do not predict cultural competence. Political ideology, SDO, and practice setting have been poorly studied as has been social desirability for which the evidence is mixed. The relationship between cultural competence and the variables of religious affiliation, social work license, social work position, and political affiliation have not been examined.

Therefore, this exploratory study aims to address some of the above-mentioned gaps in the social work literature on SDO and cultural competence by seeking to answer the following questions:

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between social workers' social dominance orientation and self-reported cultural competence?

Research Question 2: What is the relationship of social workers' age, gender, race/ethnicity, religious affiliation, education, cultural competence training,

practice setting, social work license, social work position, work experience, political ideology, political affiliation, and social desirability with SDO?

Research Question 3: What is the relationship of social workers' age, gender, race/ethnicity, religious affiliation, education, cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, work experience, political ideology, political affiliation, and social desirability with cultural competence?

Research Question 4: Do social workers' age, gender, race/ethnicity, religious affiliation, education, cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, work experience, political ideology, political affiliation, and social desirability predict SDO?

Research Question 5: Do social workers' age, gender, race/ethnicity, religious affiliation, education, cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, work experience, political ideology, political affiliation, social desirability, and SDO, predict cultural competence?

Based on the findings from the review of literature on SDO and cultural competence, and the research questions above, the following conceptual models for this study are proposed:

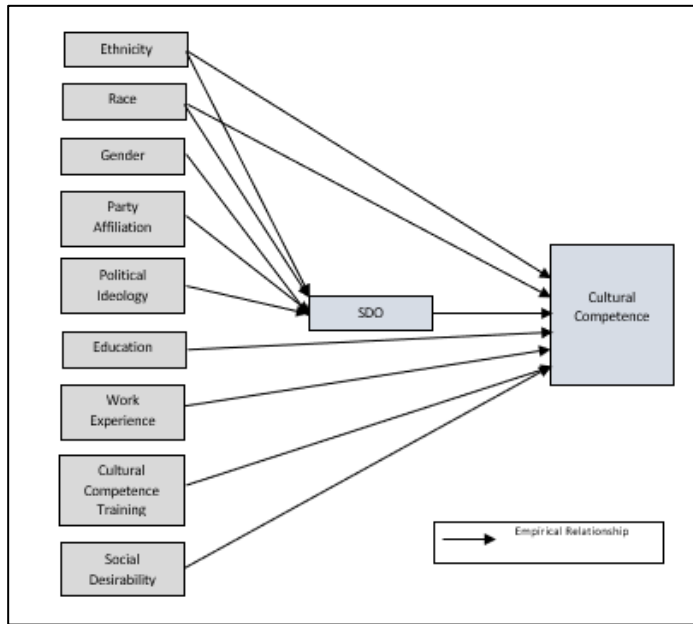


Figure 2. Theoretical model for SDO and cultural competence based on prior research.

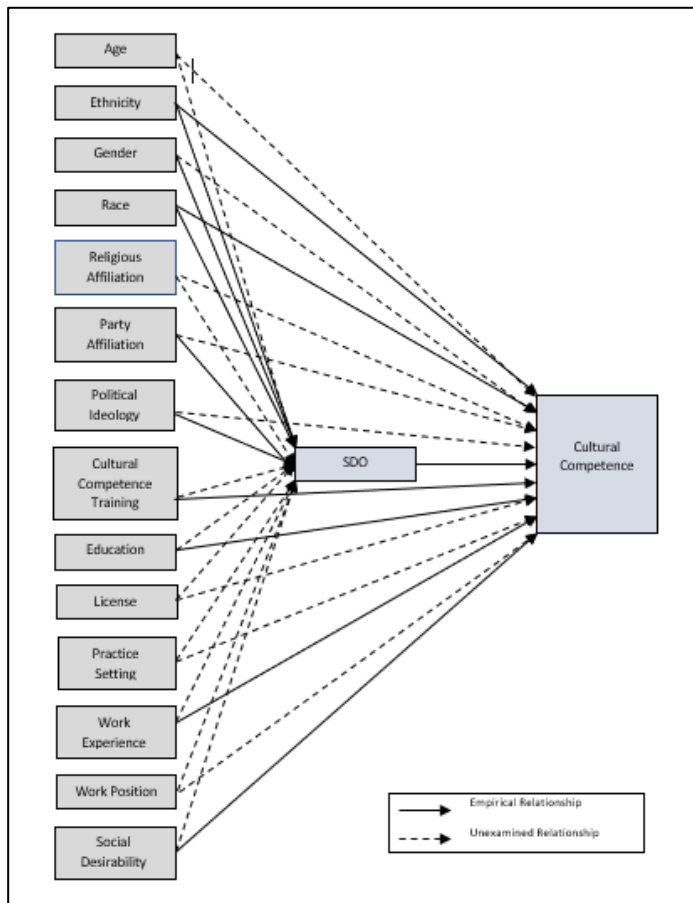


Figure 3. Theoretical model for SDO and cultural competence based on research questions.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Study Design

This exploratory study used a cross-sectional design to answer the research questions that seek to determine the relationship between political ideology, religious affiliation, political affiliation, SDO, and cultural competence.

Sampling procedure

A power analysis using G*Power (version 3.1.9.2; <http://www.gpower.hhu.de/en.html>) was conducted to estimate the necessary sample size to detect relationships in the research questions (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). Using a .05 level of significance, a small effect-size (.10), power of .95, and 39 predictor variables (8 continuous predictor variables with continuous responses, 1 predictor variable with 2 categories, and 30 dummy variables which were recoded from 37 categorical responses from another 7 categorical variables; described in data analysis), G*Power estimated a minimum sample size of 420 participants to answer research question #5 using multiple regression analysis. Question #5 was the basis for the power analysis, since multiple regression would require the largest sample size. Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009) indicate a response rate of 30% for an internet survey.

The initial goal of this study was to survey a random sample of social workers drawn from the list of regular members of the NASW. However, trying to procure the list of members from Infocus Marketing, the NASW's contractor, and work with the contractors' terms and conditions was unfeasible in terms of time, money, effort, control, and convenience. Despite a 15% discount offered by the NASW for the study, Infocus Marketing provided an estimate of nearly \$4400 to send the initial and reminder emails to

selected participants. Thus, it was not only financially prohibitive to use the list for non-commercial or non-profit research purposes, but this researcher would also not have access to the complete list of 106,652 active and paid NASW members with email addresses. Additionally, this researcher would have little control on critical methodological aspects of this study. For example, on behalf of the researcher, Infocus Marketing would draw a random sample from the list of members and send block initial and reminder emails to NASW members selected to participate in the study. This researcher was also initially informed that commercial online software could be used to collect data from participants but then subsequently informed that only a non-commercial software developed by this researcher or this researcher's academic institution and not available for purchase or use by the general public could be used. Thereafter, efforts were also made to procure a list of members from the Pennsylvania State Board of Social Workers, Virginia Board of Social Work, NASW's Maryland Chapter, Maryland State Board of Social Work Examiners, etc., but without success primarily because the Boards did not collect email addresses from members. An internet-based survey was the best option for this study given the required sample size, and the time and effort that would otherwise be needed to prepare and mail survey packets, and record responses on a spreadsheet. The Oregon Board of Licensed Social Workers (OBSW), a state agency in Oregon which maintains a database of social workers with their email addresses was also approached. For a fee of only \$25, this database was directly purchased from the Board in the form of an Excel file via email.

The sample for this study comprised of social workers licensed, certified or registered with the OBSW. According to the Oregon Rules and Statutes (ORS 675.520),

excluding some exceptions, the title social worker may be used by only those licensed, certified or registered with the Board as an LCSW, CSWA, LMSW or RBSW (OBLSW, n.d.). The Board awards a RBSW certificate and LMSW license to those BSW and MSW applicants, respectively, who desire to practice in a non-clinical capacity.

MSW applicants working towards clinical licensure are awarded the CSWA certificate, whereas applicants who have an MSW degree and are practicing clinical social work are awarded the LCSW license. Anyone currently working in a clinical capacity must have either the CSWA certificate or the LCSW license. Thus, a RBSW certificate holder possesses at least a bachelor's degree in social work, whereas those holding other licenses and/or certificates would possess at least a master's degree in social work. However, it must be noted that social workers are not required to update their education level upon attaining a doctoral degree. As of 6/28/2017, the OBLSW database had 5195 members. This database contained email addresses of all social workers in Oregon. In addition to email addresses, the database provides information about licensed social worker's first, middle, and last name, degree, license number, license type, gender, and work address. A Qualtrics survey was sent to everyone listed in the database.

Procedure

Taking into consideration the required sample size for this study, the number of questions in the survey, and the restricted manpower for data cleaning and entry, an internet-based survey was the best option for this study because it was more efficient in time and cost. Participation in the study was voluntary and anonymous, and satisfied the criteria for an exemption from the University of Maryland's Institutional Review Board

(IRB). After approval for this study from the University of Maryland IRB, ConstantContact was used to send an email to all 5195 social workers listed in the OBLSW database. The email contained a link to the University of Maryland School of Social Work HTML webpage. Only potential participants for this study were able to view this webpage. The webpage provided a brief description of the study and contained a link to the online Qualtrics survey. Qualtrics is a web-based software program that enables the creation and distribution of survey questionnaires for online data collection (Qualtrics, 2014). The software allows anonymous collection of responses by selection of settings that disable the tracking of the respondents' IP and/or email addresses. Respondents were restricted to only one completed response but could go back to items they had visited or completed previously if they had not completed the survey. Qualtrics automatically saves respondents' answers as they progress through the survey. In addition, respondents could leave the survey without saving or completing it, and then re-enter the survey if they returned within two weeks and used the same internet browser and computer they used earlier. This information was provided to potential participants in the description and procedures of the study on the introduction page of the Qualtrics survey before they moved on to provide consent and start the survey. The introduction page of the Qualtrics survey also provided participants with a description of the study, and the procedures addressing risks, benefits, privacy, and confidentiality. Participants were also informed that participation in the study was voluntary, and while their decision to start the survey would be considered as their informed consent, they had the option of withdrawing from the study whenever they choose. For privacy concerns, the participants were requested to complete the internet-based survey in a quiet, private location of their choice. After the

description of the study, participants were requested to provide their consent to participate in the study after which they could move onto first page of the online survey. Social workers who did not provide consent were directed to the Qualtrics homepage.

After providing consent, participants first completed a section on socio-demographic information and all other variables followed by the SECS, SDO, and SWCCSA measures. Participants also had opportunity to enter a raffle for a limited number of gift cards (i.e., 25 gift cards each with a \$25 value). To enter the raffle, participants exited the survey after answering/viewing the last question in the survey and were then directed to another Qualtrics survey which was used solely for the purpose of collecting email addresses of those respondents who wished to participate in a raffle. In lieu of receiving the \$25 gift cards, the winners of the raffle/draw were also offered the option of donating an equivalent amount (\$25) to one of five national-level non-profits. However, the option of donating \$25 had to be subsequently withdrawn due to financial requirements of the concerned office at University of Maryland Baltimore overseeing the distribution of funds. Due to delays in receiving the funds, the raffle was conducted in the early part of 2018. Only winners of the 25 gift cards were requested for their names and postal mailing addresses to ensure that the gift cards could be mailed out. It was also stressed to respondents that their survey responses could not be linked to their email or IP addresses even after they provided their email address to participate in the raffle. This information was also provided to participants on the last page of the survey questionnaire.

It was initially planned that two weeks after the initial email, a reminder email was to be sent out to all 5195 social workers with a request to complete the survey if they have not already done so. Based on the recommended by Dillman et al. (2009), the design

and content of the webpage in the reminder email was slightly modified to stimulate recipients interest and participation. The voluntary participation of respondents and the anonymity of their responses was stressed in the reminder email. However, the reminder email was sent out in 12 days rather than 2 weeks to ensure that there was some gap in time between when the reminder was sent out, and when the Qualtrics software would record incomplete responses because of 2 weeks of inactivity. The activity report from ConstantContact for the initial email shows that while the goal was to invite all 5195 social workers in the OBLSW database to participate in the study, emails were not sent to 23 social workers on the database, and an additional 54 emails bounced back. The reasons for the same could not be determined. In total, 5018 invitation emails were successfully delivered. About 35.1% of email recipients opened the email, and 25.5% of email recipients clicked the link to the Qualtrics survey. Fifty-seven recipients unsubscribed from receiving additional emails. The activity report for the reminder email shows that emails were not sent to 80 social workers on the database, whereas another 153 emails bounced back. It is assumed that the 80 social workers who did not receive the emails included the 23 who did not receive the first email, and the 57 who unsubscribed upon receiving the first email but the reasons for the 153 mails bouncing back could not be determined again. In total, 4962 reminder emails were successfully delivered. About 34.8 of email recipients opened the email, and 16.6% of email recipients clicked the link to the Qualtrics survey. Forty-two recipients unsubscribed from receiving additional emails.

Participants

As of 6/28/2017, the OBLSW database of 5195 social workers consisted of 4062 (78.2%) females and 959 (18.5%) males. Missing data accounted for the remaining 174 (3.3%) of social workers in the database. A total of 623 survey responses were recorded in Qualtrics which included 497 survey responses submitted by participants indicating their desire that their responses be recorded. The remaining 126 responses which were in various stages of completion were also recorded either by Qualtrics during various times that the survey was open, or by the researcher after the survey was closed. These 126 responses had not been completed either within two weeks of respondents last attempt, or by the time the survey was closed but it was decided to record the responses – which would otherwise be deleted, to ensure availability of this data for analysis if required. Sixteen survey respondents were deleted from the dataset because they either did not provide consent or provided consent but did not move beyond the consent page. Thus, a total of 607 respondents were received from the 5018 social workers who actually received emails to participate in the study, yielding a response rate of 12.1%. The survey dataset of 607 respondents comprised of 474 (78.1%) females, 127 males (20.9%), 5 (0.8%) Other, and 1 (0.2%) missing. The study sample of 497 respondents consisted of 391 (78.7%) females, 103 males (20.7%), and 3 (0.6%) Other.

The OBLSW does not require social workers to update their education level in the OBLSW database upon attaining a doctoral degree. Therefore, it may be problematic comparing the sample and database on educational achievement. Nevertheless, most of the social workers in the OBLSW database (5135 or 98.9%) possessed a master's degree (4973 or 95.7% possessed a MSW degree), 40 (7.7%) possessed a bachelor's degree (35

or 6.7% had a BSW degree), and 16 who possessed doctoral (2 had a DSW degree). The database had 3 missing entries and one invalid entry. In the survey dataset of 607 respondents, 593 (97.7%) social workers had a master’s degree in social work, 4 (0.7%) social workers with a bachelor’s degree in social work, and 10 (1.6%) social workers with a doctoral degree in social work. The study sample of 497 respondents comprised of 485 (97.6%) social workers with a master’s degree in social work, 4 (0.8%) social workers with a bachelor’s degree in social work, and 8 (1.6%) social workers with a doctoral degree in social work. Table 1 provides details of this basic analysis.

Table 1. Comparative data of OBLSW database (5195), survey dataset (607), and sample (n=497).

	OBLSW		Survey Dataset		Sample	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
	5195	100.0	607	100.0	497	100.0
Gender						
Male	959	18.5	127	20.9	103	20.7
Female	4062	78.2	474	78.1	391	78.7
Other	-	-	5	0.8	3	0.6
Missing	174	3.4	1	0.2	-	-
Highest Social Work Degree*						
BSW† or Bachelors	40	7.7	4	0.7	4	0.8
MSW† or Masters	5135	98.9	593	97.7	485	97.6
Social Work Doctorate or Other Doctorate†	16	0.3	10	1.7	8	1.6
Missing/Invalid	4	0.0	-	-	-	-

*Exercise caution while comparing across groups

† Not collected in the study

Some characteristics of regular NASW members from the Practice Research Network Survey of 2002 (Risley-Curtiss, 2010) are similar to characteristics of the sample in this study, such as 79 % female NASW members vs 79% in the current sample; median age of 50 years vs 49 years, mean work experience of 16 years after earning their first social work degree vs 18 years. There were some differences between the NSW members and the current study on race with 87% of regular NSW members being

White/Caucasian vs 93% (Risley-Curtiss, 2010), and 91% with a master's degree vs 98% (Siebert, 2008). However, this data from the NASW is over 15 years old and the original document is no longer available online. Thus, the sample in the study did not differ substantially on the variables of gender and highest social work degree from the OBLSW and survey dataset. However, representativeness of the sample to social workers in the OBLSW dataset cannot be determined because there is no comparative data for 17 additional variables that were examined in this study.

Measures

Social workers' socio-demographic information of age, gender, race, ethnicity, education, and religious affiliation was collected through six single-item questions. Single-item questions were used to collect social work practice related variables including practice setting, years of work experience, social work license, cultural competence training, and primary social work position. Respondents' political affiliation, general economic ideology, and general social ideology were also assessed using single-item questions. A standardized measure was used to measure issue-based economic and social ideology. Social desirability, cultural competence, and social dominance orientation were also measured using standardized instruments. All these measures are described below, and more details can be found in Appendix A.

Socio-demographic variables

Age: A single-item open-ended question, "What is your age" was used to measure respondents' age in years. Respondents moved a slider to the relevant answer on a scale of 0 to 100.

Gender: A single-item with three response options, male, female, and other, was used to measure respondents' gender.

Race: The variables for race and ethnicity were measured separately in the current study. Respondents' race was measured by using all the five response options used in the US Census to measure race (US Census Bureau, 2013). These five options were White, Black or African American, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander. Respondents were also provided the option of choosing more than one response.

Ethnicity: Respondent's Hispanic/Latino ethnicity was measured using the two minimum categories required of federal agencies by the U.S. Office of Management and Budget (US Census Bureau, 1999).

Religious Affiliation: A single-item from the General Social Survey (GSS) "*What is your religious preference?*" was adapted to measure the religious preference of respondents (Davis et al., 2012). However, rather than an open-ended question, this item provided the following response options: Protestant, Catholic, Jewish, Hindu, Buddhist, Muslim, Other, and None.

Social Work Practice Related Variables

Education: Respondents' level of social work education was measured by the item, "What is your highest social work degree?" and four response options, Bachelors, Masters, Doctorate, and None/Other.

Work Experience: A single-item asked respondents for the number of years of *paid* work experience after earning their first social work degree. This item was adapted

from the Practice Research Network Survey of 2002 (Risley-Curtiss, 2010). Respondents moved a slider to the relevant answer on a scale of 0 to 100.

Social Work Position: Aparicio, Michalopoulos, and Unick (2013) used a single-item question and four response options, Direct Practice, Supervisor, Administrator, and Other, in a study involving licensed social workers in Maryland State. This item and response options were used in the current study to assess respondents' current social work position.

Practice setting: Aparicio et al. (2013) measured practice setting of licensed social workers through a single-item question and three response options, Agency, Private Practice, and Other. The current study provided respondents with two additional options, educational and healthcare, and also offered respondents the option of choosing more than one option.

Social Work License: A single-item question with two response options (yes, no) was used to measure whether respondents had ever possessed a social work license.

Cultural competence training: This study measured respondents' cultural competence training attendance with the item used by Harnek Hall (2008). The open-ended question asked was, "How many workshops or trainings related to multicultural counseling or cultural competence have you attended? (Please **do not** include courses related to this content)." Respondents moved a slider to the relevant answer on a scale of 0 to 100.

Political Variables

Political Affiliation: A single-item question from the GSS with 8 response options (Davis et al., 2012) was used to determine respondents' political party affiliation.

Response options were slightly modified such that the range of options was from 1-8 instead of 0-7 as provided in the GSS: 1 = *Strong Democrat*, 2 = *Not Strong Democrat*, 3 = *Independent Near Democrat*, 4 = *Independent*, 5 = *Independent Near Republican*, 6 = *Not Strong Republican*, 7 = *Strong Republican*, and 8 = *Other Party*.

Political Ideology: A number of studies examining the variable of political ideology were reviewed as part of the process to select a measure of political ideology for the current study. Most studies used a single-item measure of political ideology (Federico & Sidanius, 2002; Flaherty et al., 2013; Landsman & McNeel, 2003; Reyna, Henry, Korfmacher, & Tucker, 2005; Ritter, 2006; Weber & Federico, 2013). The GSS also uses a single-item measure of political ideology (Davis et al., 2012). On the other hand, other measures of political ideology have too many items. Rosenwald and Hyde (2006) used the 40-item Political Opinion Scale (POS) which has items on a variety of issues. Using the POS in the current study would result in more than 110 questions being asked of respondents in the survey. Along with a single-item measure of political ideology, Weber and Federico (2013) also determined political ideology of respondents based on 19 items or issues; these items were analyzed separately using latent profile analysis rather than as a single combined variable of political ideology. These 19 items were also not developed to be used as a standardized measure (Weber, personal communication, July 31, 2014).

While validating the Social and Economic Conservatism Scale (SECS), Everett (2013) measured conservatism using both a single-item measure and the 12-item SECS, which consists of two subscales: a 5-item economic conservatism and a 7-item social conservatism. Response options for the SECS are typically offered on a 0-100 scale where scores can also be tied to intervals of 10 or as a continuous measure. Overall SECS

scores were slightly above the midpoint 5.0 of the scale ($M = 5.80$, $SD = 1.94$) whereas conservatism measured by the single item measure was almost a whole scale point below the scale midpoint of 4.00 ($M = 3.14$, $SD = 1.71$). Thus, participants tended to rate themselves as more liberal on the single-item measure than on the multi-item SECS (Everett, 2013). Response options for the single-item measure were not reported thus preventing determination of the direction of increasing conservatism, and ability to review this finding. On the other hand, Crawford and Bhatia (2012) reported contrary findings. The authors used a single-item and a 10-item measures of conservatism, which both used a seven-response option that ranged from Extremely Liberal to Extremely Conservative. The authors found that their sample was moderate using the single-item measure ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 1.4$), but slightly liberal on issue-based ideology ($M = 2.93$, $SD = 0.84$). Thus, given this inconsistency in respondents' self-reports of conservatism, for the purposes of this dissertation, both single-item and multiple-item measures were used to examine the variable. Additionally, political ideology was examined as four variables – issue-based economic and social ideology, and general economic and social ideology.

Two single-item measures that measured ideology for social and economic issues were adapted from the GSS (Davis et al., 2012). The two items were: “Regarding your ideology on various economic issues, with which of the following options do you most strongly identify with?” and “Regarding your ideology on various social issues, with which of the following options do you most strongly identify with?” The response options for these items ranged from 1 = *very liberal* to 7 = *very conservative*. Higher scores for the items reflected a more conservative ideology on social and/or economic issues. The responses for the two items were analyzed separately as two independent

variables, *general economic and social ideology*. The 12-item SECS was used to measure *issue-based social and economic ideology*. Response item scores can also be presented or tied to other intervals (Everett, personal communication, September 30, 2014). Therefore, to ensure ease of use for respondents, response options in the current study were offered on a 5-point ranging from 1 = greater disapproval to 5 = greater approval. Items 1 and 5 were reverse-scored, and overall mean scores for the two subscales were calculated. Respondents moved a slider to the relevant answer on a scale of 0 to 100. Higher scores indicate greater conservatism.

Everett (2013) used the SECS in an American sample ($n = 291$), which was obtained through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). MTurk is described as an online labor market but is in effect an online source of registered survey-takers who receive token compensation for completing surveys. Everett (2013) reported that principal axis factoring extraction using direct oblimin rotation identified a bi-dimensional factor structure with items loading strongly onto either the social or economic factor. No items cross-loaded at the cut off of 0.32 and the minimum factor loading of any variable was 0.45. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) confirmed the two-factor structure of the SECS.

Furthermore, Everett (2013) found that the SECS and its two subscales had positive and generally moderate to high correlations with each other and the single-item measure of conservatism. The SECS and its two subscales had positive and generally moderate to high correlations with measures of SDO, Right Wing Authoritarianism, Dogmatism, Fair Market, and Resistance to Change thus demonstrating construct validity

of the scale and its sub-scales (Everett, 2013). However, there is no evidence for the discriminant validity of the SECS or its subscales.

Various studies have reported acceptable to good internal reliability for the scale and its subscales. Everett (2013) reported Cronbach's alpha of .88 for the 12-item scale, an alpha of .70 for the economic conservatism subscale, and an alpha of .87 for the social conservatism subscale. Sawyer (2015) reported a lower alpha of .66 for the 12-item SECS for a sample ($N = 72$) that was composed entirely non-Hispanic non-Latino undergraduate students, two-thirds White, one-fifth Black or African-American, 40% male, 50% female, nearly four-fifth Christian, almost 14% with no religious affiliation. Ordabayeva and Fernandes (2017) reported Cronbach alphas of .71 for the economic conservatism subscale and .88 for the social conservatism subscale in a sample of 518 American participants recruited through MTurk. The sample had 49% females but no other sociodemographic was reported. Yilmaz and Saribay (2017) reported Cronbach alphas of .62 for the economic conservatism subscale, and .85 for the social conservatism subscale for 426 American participants recruited through MTurk. The sample had good diversity for age, gender, and political party affiliation. Participants were 55% female, 39% male, 37.1% Democrats, 20% Republican, and 22.5% Independent; however, no other sociodemographic variables were reported. Ellingsen (2017) replaced and reverse-coded one of the original 12 items "traditional marriage" with "same-sex marriage," and reported an alpha of .88 for the total scale. The sample ($n = 100$) consisted of 13 Georgia Tech undergraduate students, and 87 MTurk participants, 40 males, 58 females, 26 with a bachelor's degree, 14 possessing or pursuing a graduate degree, and had good variability for age. Various other dissertational studies have also used the SECS, but reliability of

the scale has not been reported. In the current study, Cronbach's alphas for the total scale was .84, for the economic conservatism subscale was .67, and for the social conservatism subscale was .82. These statistics are generally consistent with those from other studies.

Social Desirability: Social desirability is a pattern of response that reflects an individual's need to appear favorable to an interviewer or researcher. This results in the provision of responses that are perceived to be socially acceptable rather than reflect the individual's actual feelings or behaviors (Engel & Schutt, 2013; Vella-Brodrick & White, 1997). Constantine and Ladany (2002) state that self-reports of cultural competence are problematic because they do not measure actual behaviors or attitudes related to cultural competence. The authors found that self-reported cultural competence is significantly related to social desirability. Therefore, the current study will control for respondents' social desirability when examining the relationship between cultural competence and other variables.

The original Marlowe-Crowne scale for social desirability is a 33-item scale with true/false response options (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). Since its creation, a number of short forms have been developed and used in research (Barger, 2002; Reynolds, 1982). A major use of the Marlowe-Crowne scale in research has been as an adjunct measure to assess the impact of social desirability on self-report measures specific to the primary purpose of the investigation (Barger, 2002).

The Marlowe-Crowne short form C (M-C Form C) is a 13-item measure that was used in this study to measure respondents' social desirability (Andrews & Meyer, 2003; Reynolds, 1982). This scale (see Appendix A) was placed after the survey question on cultural competence training. Based on the analysis of the reliability and validity of

various short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne scale, Barger (2002) concluded that the 13-item M-C Form C has the best psychometric properties of all short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne scale and recommended its use to assess social desirability. Concurrent validity of the Form C is demonstrated by a high correlation (0.93) with the *single* factor Marlowe-Crowne scale (Reynolds, 1982). While reviewing and analyzing the various short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne scale using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), Barger (2002) found that internal consistency reliabilities for the Form C ranged from .62 to .89 across six studies, indicating low to good reliability. It must also be noted that based on the findings of the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and the CFA, Barger (2002) claimed that the apparent adequacy of model fit for some short forms might be influenced by the number of items in the form. Barger discouraged the use of the Marlowe-Crowne scale or its various short forms as a control for response bias. Cronbach's alpha for the scale in the current study was .69 indicating that it had acceptable reliability. However, the inter-item correlation for items 4 and 10 was -.005. An examination of coding of reverse-coded items showed no issues with data entry.

Similar to the original scale, the 13 items from M-C Form C uses a true or false response options. Each *true* response for items 5, 7, 9, 10, and 13 received a one point while a *false* response for items 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, and 12 also received 1 point (reverse-coded). The scores for all items were added to create a total score for social desirability. The total scores on the MC Form-C ranged from 0-13 with higher scores indicating higher social desirability among respondents.

Social Dominance Orientation: There are many versions of the SDO scale. For this dissertation study, the 14-item SDO₅ scale was used to measure participants'

preference for group-based hierarchies (Pratto et al., 1994). The scale contains a series of statements toward which participants' reactions are measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *do not agree at all* to 7 = *strongly agree* (see Appendix A). The SDO scale consists of items such as “This country would be better off if we cared less about how equal all people were,” and “Some people are just more deserving than others” (Pratto et al., 1994, p. 761). Half of the items are negatively worded items for which reverse scoring is required. The scores range from 14 to 98, with higher scores on the SDO scale indicate a higher preference for group-based hierarchies.

The one-dimensional factor of the 14-item SDO₅ scale has been identified through principal component analyses using 14 samples involving 1,952 undergraduate students from three US universities and established by confirmatory factor analysis using the largest sample of 446 students (Pratto et al., 1994). The researchers studied these samples from 1990-1992, and samples were drawn from students attending University of California at Berkeley, San Jose State University, and Stanford University. The stability of the SDO₅ scale was demonstrated by the high correlation ($r = .84$, $p < .001$) between scores at a 3-month interval; mean difference in scores was almost zero. There was no change in the classification (high, low) of any subject based on their SDO scores from time 1 to time 2.

Discriminant validity of the SDO₅ scale has been demonstrated across five samples by lack of (4/5) or very weak correlations (1/5) with dominance subscales of two different measures; correlations were also lacking (6/9) or negative and weak with a measure of self-esteem (Pratto et al., 1994). Convergent validity of the SDO scale was demonstrated by negative correlations with empathy (5/6), tolerance (3/3), altruism (2/4),

and communality (2/4). Of the four subscales of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index empathy measure used to demonstrate the convergent validity of the SDO scale with empathy, SDO was negatively correlated to the Concern for Others (6/6), Fantasy (4/6), Perspective-taking (3/6), and the Distress (2/6) subscales.

Lee et al. (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of 206 samples in 118 cross-national studies examining SDO for groups based on gender and arbitrary-set hierarchies. About one half of the 118 studies were conducted in the US and the majority of participants were Caucasian (about 70%), college students (about 75%), and young adults. At least a quarter of the 118 studies used the 14-item SDO₅ scale among samples primarily from the US (Lee et al., 2011). While a mean reliability of .85 with 95% confidence interval (CI: 0.84, 0.86) was calculated across 173 samples and all versions of the SDO scale, the mean reliability for the SDO₅ scale was .84 indicating comparable and good reliability. In addition, all significant relationships between SDO (measured by different versions of the SDO scale including the SDO₅) and hierarchy-enhancing ideologies (racism, sexism, heterosexism, right wing authoritarianism, nationalism, and others) found in all the samples, remained significant in the meta-analysis of these samples. These findings support the convergent validity and reliability of the SDO₅ scale. The current study found that the 14-item SDO had a Cronbach's alpha of .85, which is comparable to findings from Lee et al. (2011). For the purposes of this dissertation study, the SDO₅ scale will hereby be referred to as the SDO scale/measure.

Cultural Competence: This study aims to add to the literature base on cultural competence in the field of social work by using an instrument that has been designed for social work professionals or students. The Social Work Cultural Competencies Self-

Assessment (SWCCSA) instrument developed by Lum (2011) was used to measure respondents' perceptions of cultural competence (see Appendix A). The SWCCSA is a 36-item scale with Likert-type responses ranging from *1 = Unlikely* to *4 = Definitely* and covers three areas of cultural competence (awareness, knowledge acquisition, and skill development) based on the Core Competencies of the Council of Social Work Education's (CSWE) Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards (EPAS) (Lum, 2011). The SWCCSA (Lum, 2011) is a newer version of the earlier scale developed by Lum (2003), which had 8 more items (total of 44) that were dropped in the newer version. Sample items in the instrument include, "I am aware of my life experiences as a person related to a culture (e.g., family heritage, household and community events, beliefs, and practices)," and "I know how to establish joint goals and agreements with the client that are culturally acceptable." Total scores in the SWCCSA range from 36 to 144 with higher scores reflecting higher cultural competence. Total scores are classified into four levels: level 1 = 36-69, level 2 = 70-94, level 3 = 95-128, and level 4 = 129-144 (Lum, 2011). However, the justification or interpretation of these levels is not provided. Therefore, only total scores were taken into consideration for the data analysis and interpretation of the results.

The SWCCSA has high internal consistency reliability. In 388 undergraduate social work students, Lum (2011) reported pretest and posttest alphas of .94 and .93. Humphreys (2011) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .94 in a sample of 72 undergraduate social work students. In the current study, Cronbach's alpha for the SWCCSA was .95, which is comparable to findings from other studies. The validity and factor structure of the SWCCSA have not been examined or reported in previous studies, and the instrument

has not been used in samples drawn from populations of social work professionals, graduate, or post-graduate students. Therefore, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted in the current study using SPSS to identify the factors in this instrument.

Data Analysis

Recorded responses from the Qualtrics survey were saved as a SPSS sav data file with raw data and then uploaded to IBM SPSS Statistics Grad Pack 24.0 Premium software for data screening and analysis.

Univariate analysis

Univariate analyses were conducted pre-imputation for missing data and post-imputation for all variables in the study. These analyses were also used to determine if there were any substantial changes in descriptive data because of multiple imputation for missing information.

Data Screening

Based on the checklist to screen data provided by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), univariate descriptive data were reviewed for accuracy of entries, missing data, and normality and outliers for continuous variables. Box-plots, cases with extreme values, and/or standardized z-scores were used to identify univariate outliers. Outliers were identified for all variables except work experience and social desirability. Five cases with very low scores (0, 1, 1, 12, and 17) for age which are unusual for the population, and suggest incorrect entries or no response, and four cases all with a score of 100 for cultural competence training which may not be unusual for the variable but were disconnected from other scores – the next highest score was 71, were labeled as user missing. All other outlier scores which were within the respective scale range, and not disconnected

from other scores were retained. Since all continuous variables were candidates for transformation due to non-normality, it was expected that the impact of these outliers would be reduced after transformation (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007). No outliers were identified after transformation of variables based on box-plots and/or standardized z-scores for the variables.

Missing data

Results of pre-imputation univariate analysis showed that while there was no missing data for the five variables of gender, religious affiliation, education, social work position, and practice setting, substantial amount of data was missing for some variables (see Appendix B).

- The SECS scale had 40.4% missing data whereas its two subscales issue-based social ideology and issue-based economic ideology had 34.6% and 19.1% missing data, respectively.
- Cultural competence had 14.9% missing data.
- Age had 5.4% missing data.
- Five variables had between 1%- 5% missing data. These variables were experience (2%), social desirability (2%), cultural competence training (2.6%), ethnicity (3%), and SDO (4%).
- The five variables of race, social work license, and political party affiliation; general economic ideology, and general social ideology had less than 1% missing data.

Missing Values Analysis

After identifying missing data for all variables including individual scale items through descriptive data, the Analyze Patterns sub-command under Multiple Imputation in SPSS was used to determine the amount and distribution of missing data. The latter required visual inspection of the graph showing patterns of missing values to determine if missing data was Missing Completely at Random (MCAR). Then the Missing Value Analysis command in SPSS was used to conduct Little's MCAR test, and to obtain descriptive statistics of all variables including individual scale items. The minimum percentage of missing values for a variable to be included was selected as .01% (against the SPSS default of 5%) to ensure that all missing data were identified in the analyses. Variable summaries from the analysis showed that of the 89 variables or items that were entered for analysis, only 12 items (13.5%) did not have missing data. Only 214 cases (43.06%) out of the total sample size of 497 did not have missing data. On the other hand, only 1.9 % of all values had missing data. However, the analysis showed high percentage of missing data for individual items of the measures of issue-based political ideology (SECS) and cultural competence (SWCCSA). Even though missing data for all 12 items of the scale measuring issue-based economic and social ideology ranged from 1.4% (item 5) to 16.5% (item 3), the cumulative effect of missing data in the individual items resulted in 34.6% of cases (172/497) with missing data for the subscale/variable of for issue-based social ideology, and 19.1% (95/497) with missing data for the subscale/variable of for issue-based economic ideology. The items of issue-based political ideology that had a substantial percentage of missing data pertained to military/national security (missing data 16.5%), traditional values (10.7%), gun ownership (9.3%), limited government

(9.3%), religion (8%), abortion (7.8%), patriotism (7.4%), business (5.8%), and traditional marriage (5.6%). The remaining 3 items of issue-based political ideology pertained to the family unit (missing data 3%), fiscal responsibility (2.4%), and welfare benefits (1.4%). All items in the measure of cultural competence except one had missing data, and even though, none of the items had more than 2.8% missing data. the cumulative effect of missing data in the individual items resulted in 74 cases, i.e., 14.9% of 497 cases with missing data for cultural competence. Similarly, 3 items each in the measures of social desirability and social dominance orientation had missing data (see Appendix C for overall summary of missing values through pie charts, and missing value patterns through a graph plot of patterns against variables).

The missing value patterns showed accumulation of missing data in far right of the graphs which coincide primarily with individual items of the measures of issue-based political ideology and cultural competence. This along with the variable summary clearly suggests that, for some reason, a substantial percentage of respondents did not answer some questions specifically pertaining to issue-based political ideology and cultural competence, and therefore, the responses may not be missing completely at random (MCAR) else the pattern for missing values would have been consistent across all items and variables. However, Little's MCAR test was non-significant ($p = .927$) thus indicating that the data was MCAR which indicated that the pattern of missing data posed less serious problems than if the data was not missing at random (Graham, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Multiple Imputation

As discussed above, patterns of missing values showed that only 214 cases out of the total sample size of 497 did not have missing data even though only 1.9 % of all values had missing data. Listwise deletion of cases while calculating correlations between continuous variables resulted in retention of only 221 – a marginally higher number of cases, which was almost a 56% reduction in sample size. Graham (2009) recommends replacing missing data if even 5% of cases have missing data. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommend using more sophisticated ways of dealing with missing data when missing values are more than 5% of the sample, and if deleting the variable not an option, and state that multiple imputation (MI) is the most respectable method to handle missing data for standardized measures. Advantages of this method are that it can be applied to single observations, it does not make any assumptions regarding the nature of missing data (i.e., whether it is MCAR or not, and is an option available in SPSS). For categorical variables with more than two levels with or without missing data, Graham (2009) states that the variables must first be dummy coded before being included in a normal-model MI. If these categorical variables have missing data, then Allison's ad-hoc fix may be needed post-imputation (Graham, 2009). Allison (2001) states that while assigning a final value to a dummy variable post-imputation, the imputed value for the reference category, for which a dummy variable is not created, is calculated as 1 minus the sum of imputed values for the other dummy variables. Then if the highest imputed or calculated value corresponds to a dummy variable, then the final value of 1 is assigned to that variable. If the highest value corresponds to the reference category, then a 0 is assigned to all dummy variables. Allison (2001) suggests that variables relevant to primary analysis must be

included in the multiple imputation model even if they don't have missing data. Schafer and Graham (2002) suggest that imputing scale scores based on partial data (i.e. when respondents do not answer all items on a scale) may be problematic. In such situations, either deleting cases with partial data or imputing data at the item level is an option (Graham, 2009). The variables of issue-based economic and social ideologies, which had the highest missing data, were of significant interest in this study, and could not be deleted. Therefore, multiple imputation which can be conducted in sample sizes as low as 50, and with as much as 50% missing data in the dependent variable (Graham, 2009) was conducted at the item level rather than at the scale level for continuous variables.

Recoding categorical variables

Descriptive analysis showed that there was little or no data for some of the response categories for variables of gender, education, ethnicity, race, religious affiliation, and political party affiliation.

- Ethnicity had 20 responses (4%) for Hispanic/Latino and only 2 responses (0.4%) for both Hispanic/Latino and non-Hispanic/Latino. Ethnicity was dichotomized: non-Hispanic/Latino responses were coded 1, and the other ethnicities were coded as 0.
- Gender was dichotomized by coding the response option Female as 1, and the response options Male and Other as 0.
- Race was dichotomized such that the response category White was coded as 1, and all other racial responses which included bi-racial or multiracial Whites were coded as 0.

- Education was dichotomized such that the response option Masters was coded as 1, and all other response options (Bachelors, Doctorate, and None/Other) were coded 0.
- Social Work License was coded as 1 for Yes, and 0 for No.
- The religion response category of “Hindu” which had only one response was merged with the response category “Other” for the variable of religious affiliation.
- Four response categories for Political Party Affiliation, such as Independent Near Republican, Not Strong Republican, Strong Republican, and Other Party which had 8, 9, 3, and 16 responses, respectively, were merged into a new category “Republican or Other Party.”

In addition, based on Allison’s (2001) recommendation, all categorical variables with more than two levels were transformed into dummy variables. Before imputation, the following dummy variables were created dummy variables. For regression analyses, the same dummy variables were used except for the reference groups, which according to the recommendation by Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003), should serve as a useful comparison, and not have a small sample size, or be poorly defined (e.g., Others).

- Religious Affiliation was transformed into 5 dummy variables with the response option None with nearly 43% responses chosen as the reference group. The choice of None as the reference group was also to allow the possibility of comparing respondents with no religious affiliation to those affiliated with a religion.
 - The dummy variable Buddhist was coded 1 for Buddhist, and 0 for Other.
 - The dummy variable Catholic was coded 1 for Catholic, and 0 for Other.

- The dummy variable Jewish was coded 1 for Jewish, and 0 for Other.
 - The dummy variable Protestant was coded 1 for Protestant, and 0 for Other.
 - The dummy variable (Religious Affiliation) Other was coded 1 for those who chose either Hindu – a single respondent, or Other as their religious affiliation; all others were coded 0.
- Practice Setting was transformed into 4 dummy variables with Agency which had 20.5% responses chosen as the reference group.
 - The dummy variable Healthcare Only was coded 1 for Agency, and 0 for Other.
 - The dummy variable Private Practice Only was coded 1 for Private Practice, and 0 for Other.
 - The dummy variable Other Setting was coded 1 for Other Setting, and 0 for Other.
 - The dummy variable Mixed Setting was coded 1 for those who chose more than one of the response options including Other Setting, and 0 for Other.

There were no changes in the descriptive data for the dummy variables or the reference group.

- Social Work Position was transformed into 3 dummy variables with Direct Practitioner with 73.2% responses chosen as the reference group.
 - The dummy variable Supervisor was coded 1 for Supervisor, and 0 for Other.

- The dummy variable Administrator was coded 1 for Administrator, and 0 for Other.
- The dummy variable Other Position was coded 1 for Other Setting, and 0 for Other.

There were no changes in descriptive data for the dummy variables or reference group.

- Political party affiliation was transformed into 4 dummy variables with Strong Democrat with 53.9% responses chosen as the reference group.
 - The dummy variable Not Strong Democrat represented that category and was coded 1 whereas all others were coded 0.
 - The dummy variable Independent Near Democrat represented that category and was coded 1 whereas all others were coded 0.
 - The dummy variable Independent represented that category and was coded 1 whereas all others were coded 0.
 - The dummy variable Republican or Other Party represented Independent Near Republican, Not Strong Republican, Strong Republican, and Other Party response categories, and was coded 1 whereas all others were coded 0.

Multiple imputation was conducted using the Multiple Imputation tab in SPSS, and then choosing the Impute Missing Values Data option. As suggested by Allison (2001), all variables including individual items for scales but excluding dummy variables were included in the model. The default option of 5 imputations, and the Fully Conditional Specification Method (MCMC) with the default of 10 maximum iterations

were chosen. Constraints were specified after using the Scan Data option and based on data from univariate analysis. The output which was saved to a separate SPSS sav file provided the original dataset along with five imputed datasets. Mean scores for interval/ratio items from the imputed datasets were calculated and replaced missing values; missing nominal/ordinal values were calculated and replaced as recommended by Allison (2001). Multiple imputation was successful in replacing the missing values without a substantial change in the statistical characteristics of the sample (see Appendix D for detailed descriptive analysis of the sample after multiple imputation).

Normality and data transformation

In large samples, the actual size of skewness and the visual appearance of the distribution are much more important than the significance level because the variable does not deviate enough from normality to make a substantial difference in the analysis level (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Also, the influence of deviation from zero kurtosis also decreases in samples with 200 or more cases (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Examining frequency histograms is an important tool to assess for normality but reviewing normal probability plots or Q-Q Plots to determine if points for most cases fall along the diagonal for a normal distribution is a more helpful option (Kim, 2013; Norušis, 2006 or 2007; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, there is lack of clarity and consistency about acceptable limits of z-scores or absolute values for skewness and kurtosis to determine normality of distributions. While not providing any explicit guidelines, Tabachnick & Fidell (2007) appear to suggest that in samples with at least 465 cases, variables with z-scores for skewness and kurtosis as high as -4.04 and 6.89, respectively, may yet be considered to have acceptable normality if their histogram

distribution resembles a normal curve. They also appear to suggest that for such large samples, inclusion in regression analysis of untransformed variables with significant positive skew in histograms and skewness absolute values and z-scores as high as .602 or .533, respectively, are acceptable. Kim (2013) states that for samples with more than 300 cases, histograms and the absolute values of skewness and kurtosis rather than z-scores should be considered but adds that an absolute value of skew larger than 2 or an absolute value of kurtosis larger than 7 may be considered as indicating substantial non-normality. However, if the *z-score* is greater than 3.29 for sample sizes between 50 to 300 as is expected for some levels of categorical variables in the current study, then the distribution is to be considered as non-normal. If the standardized z-score is greater than 1.96 for sample sizes less than 50 as is expected for some levels of categorical variables, then the distribution is to be considered as non-normal.

Therefore, to err on the side of caution, the normality of distributions for continuous variables was determined in a variety of ways including reviews of absolute values of skewness and kurtosis, histograms, Q-Q plots, and Shapiro-Wilk tests of normality, and/or calculating and reviewing standardized z-scores for skewness and kurtosis. Depending upon the extent to which the distribution of the variable differed from normal, a square root transformation was performed for mild skewness, log transformation for moderate skewness, or inverse transformation for severe skewness. Variables also underwent reflection if they were negatively skewed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, variables were transformed only after resolving issues of missing data as is recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007).

Scatter-plots of all continuous variables for SDO and cultural competence appeared to be acceptable, but the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality was significant ($p < .001$) for all continuous variables. Histograms and Q-Q plots for only age, work experience, social desirability, issue-based economic ideology, issue-based social ideology, and cultural competence appeared to indicate some approach to normality. Preliminary correlation analyses conducted by excluding missing cases listwise showed that the minimum number of cases included in analysis was 221 and 325, respectively. To err on the side of caution in applying the standards suggested by Kim (2013), the lower sample size was taken into consideration, z-scores for skewness were calculated for all continuous variables (see Table 2), and it was found that except for Age ($z = 1.11$), the z-scores for all other continuous variables were greater than the absolute value of 4.16; however, they had to be 3.29 or lower to be considered normal distributions. Z-scores for skewness were especially very high for the variables of cultural competence training ($z = 20.53$), general social ideology ($z = 18.66$), and SDO ($z = 16.30$). In fact, even the skew values for the three variables were greater than or approached 2 suggesting that their distributions were not normal even if the standard for the larger sample size was applied.

Testing for normality between SDO and categorical variables showed that the assumption of normality of SDO was violated for at least one category of all categorical variables (see Appendix E). Testing for normality between cultural competence and categorical variables showed that the assumption of normality was violated for at least one category of gender, race, religious affiliation, and political party affiliation (see Appendix F). Therefore, it was decided that all continuous variables would undergo

transformation to determine if normality could be improved. Nonnormality and univariate outliers – if any, were successfully addressed through transformations of all variables whereas untransformed age and social desirability were retained for bivariate and multivariate analyses (see Table 2).

Additional details of variables or their transformations retained for bivariate and multivariate analyses are provided in next chapter. Detailed results about various transformations that were considered or completed for each variable, and the rationale for the selection of untransformed or transformed variables for bivariate and multivariate analyses is provided in Appendix G.

Table 2. Pre-Imputation and Post-Transformation Normality

	<i>Pre-Imputation/Transformation</i>				<i>Post-Imputation/Transformation</i>			
	<i>Shapiro-Wilk</i>		<i>z-score</i>		<i>Shapiro-Wilk</i>		<i>z-score</i>	
	df	Skew value	Skew	Kurt	df	Skew Value	Skew	Kurt
Age*	470	0.13	1.11	-4.40	497	0.11	1.04	-4.35
Social Desirability*	487	-0.49	-4.44	-1.66	497	-0.50	-4.53	-1.66
Cultural Competence Training	484	2.28	20.53	35.39	497	-0.37	-3.33	-0.21
Work Experience (In Years)	487	0.62	5.58	-2.10	497	-0.07	-0.67	-3.69
General Economic Ideology	496	0.98	8.9	2.49	497	0.07	0.66	-5.33
General Social Ideology	493	2.05	18.66	21.32	497	-0.38	-3.44	-7.10
Issue-based Economic Ideology	402	0.60	4.93	3.26	497	0.15	1.37	2.50
Issue-based Social Ideology	325	0.56	4.16	1.50	497	0.17	1.56	1.72
SDO	477	1.83	16.30	14.36	497	-0.48	-4.38	-4.32
Cultural Competence	423	-0.53	-4.49	0.59	497	-0.31	-2.84	-1.62

p < .01 for all relationships

*Only variables that have not been transformed.

For sample sizes > 300, assumption of normality is met if the absolute skew value is less than 2. Normality was met for all the above variables post-imputation/transformation.

Bivariate analysis

Pearson’s product moment correlations were conducted to examine relationships between continuous variables; independent samples t-tests were conducted to examine differences in mean SDO and cultural competence scores of categorical variables with

two response options; one-way ANOVA's were conducted to test for differences in mean SDO and cultural competence scores of categorical variables with more than two response options.

Before conducting bivariate analyses between continuous variables and SDO and cultural competence, they were examined for independence of linearity, normality, and homoscedasticity. Before conducting bivariate analyses between categorical variables and SDO and cultural competence, they were examined for independence of observations, normality, and homogeneity of variance. Normality of distributions was determined in a variety of ways including through reviews of absolute values of skewness and kurtosis, histograms, Q-Q plots, and Shapiro-Wilk tests of normality, and/or calculating and reviewing standardized z-scores for skewness and kurtosis. Scatter-plots were used to determine homoscedasticity of variables. Heterogeneity of variance was determined through Levene's test for equality of variance. Box-plots were used to identify bivariate outliers. Pre-transformation bivariate analyses help identify any issues of nonlinearity, normality, or heteroscedasticity whereas post-transformation bivariate analyses help determine whether transformation has resolved these issues (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Therefore, bivariate analyses were conducted both before and after transformation of non-normal continuous variables.

Non-parametric Tests

For data from pre-transformation bivariate analyses involving SDO and cultural competence that violated the assumption of normality, nonparametric analyses were conducted for these variables. The Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test, which is a non-parametric analog test to the t-test, was conducted to examine differences in mean SDO

and cultural competence for categorical variables with two response options. The Kruskal Wallis test, which is the non-parametric version of ANOVA, was used to examine differences in mean SDO and cultural competence for categorical variables with more than two response options. Spearman rank correlations which is the non-parametric version of Pearson's product moment correlation was conducted to examine the relationship of SDO and cultural competence with continuous variables (Cohen et al., 2003). Nonparametric post-transformation bivariate analyses were also conducted for pairs of variables if the distribution violated the assumption of normality despite transformation of variables.

Multivariate Analyses

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the predictors of SDO and cultural competence. All other continuous and categorical variables were included in the regression models. Both models were checked for normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, multivariate outliers, and sample size. The shape of the scatterplots of standardized residuals against standardized predicted scores of SDO or cultural competence were checked to determine if assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were met. Presence of multicollinearity was determined by checking the results of regression analyses, specifically, to verify if both Tolerance values were less than .1, and VIF values were greater than 10, or correlations were greater than .70, or both Condition Index was greater than 30 along with 2 Variance Proportions greater than .50 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Guidelines by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) were used to address issues of multivariate outliers. Such outliers were detected by seeking and evaluating The Mahalanobis distance

or statistic which was generated upon running the regression model. Cases with Mahalanobis statistic greater than the critical χ^2 at a very conservative estimate, $p < .001$, were identified as outliers. Multiple runs of the regression model were completed to identify and delete multivariate outliers, if required, that were hiding behind other multivariate outliers. However, outliers identified in latter screens were not deleted if deleting them did not change the results from the previous run of the regression model.

The recoding of categorical variables into dummy variables reduced both the number of categorical responses in the study from 38 to 31, and the sample size required for multiple regression analysis.

Specific Data Analysis: The specific data analysis for each research question is provided below.

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between social workers' social dominance orientation and self-reported cultural competence?

Analysis: A Pearson Product-Moment correlation was used to calculate the relationship between social dominance orientation and cultural competence. P-value and correlation coefficient (r) indicated the statistical significance and strength of the relationship, respectively.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship of social workers' age, gender, race, ethnicity, religious affiliation, education, cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, work experience, overall economic ideology, overall social ideology, issue-based economic ideology, issue-based social ideology, political affiliation, and social desirability with SDO?

Analyses: Pearson's Product-Moment correlations were conducted to answer the research question pertaining to the relationship between SDO and the variables of age, cultural competence training, work experience, overall economic ideology, overall social ideology, issue-based economic ideology, issue-based social ideology, and social desirability. P-values and correlation coefficients (r) indicated the statistical significance and strength of the relationships between these variables.

Independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare differences in means of SDO across categories of gender, race, ethnicity, education, and social work license; one-way ANOVAs were conducted to test differences in means of SDO across categories of social work position and practice setting; Kruskal Wallis tests were conducted to examine differences in means of SDO across categories of religious affiliation and political party affiliation.

P-values for the t-tests and ANOVA's indicated whether there are differences in SDO between the different categories of each variable. P-values and mean rank indicated whether there are differences in SDO between the different categories of each variable.

Research Question 3: What is the relationship of social workers' age, gender, race, ethnicity, religious affiliation, education, cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, work experience, overall economic ideology, overall social ideology, issue-based economic ideology, issue-based social ideology, political affiliation, SDO, and social desirability with cultural competence?

Analyses: Pearson's Product-Moment correlations were conducted to answer the research question pertaining to the relationship between cultural competence and the variables of age, cultural competence training, work experience, overall economic

ideology, overall social ideology, issue-based economic ideology, issue-based social ideology, SDO, and social desirability. P-values and correlation coefficients (r) indicated the statistical significance and strength of the relationships between these variables.

Independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare differences in means of cultural competence across categories of gender, race, ethnicity, education, and social work license; one-way ANOVAs were conducted to test differences in means of cultural competence across categories of social work position, practice setting, religious affiliation, and political party affiliation. P-values for the t-tests and ANOVA's indicated whether there are differences in SDO between the different categories of each variable

Research Question 4: Do social workers' age, gender, race, ethnicity, religious affiliation, education, cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, work experience, overall economic ideology, overall social ideology, issue-based economic ideology, issue-based social ideology, political affiliation, and social desirability predict SDO?

Analysis: Hierarchical multiple regression was used to predict the effects of these variables on respondents' SDO. As summarized in the literature review on SDO, there is very strong evidence to support the relationship of SDO with gender, and there is good evidence to support the relationship of SDO with race, political ideology/conservatism, and Republican Party preference. Evidence for the relationship between SDO and ethnicity may be good, but methodology that was used is a concern. Other variables have not been examined for their relationship with SDO. Cohen et al. (2003) state that causal priority should dictate the hierarchical order of entry of variables. However, prior research on the variables being examined in the current study has been mostly

correlations. Therefore, control variables (socio-demographic, social desirability, and practice-related variables) were entered first into the model, followed by political variables. Therefore, variables were entered into the hierarchical regression in the following order: (1) age, gender, race/ethnicity, education, religious affiliation, social desirability; (2) social work license, social work position, practice setting, work experience, cultural competence training; (3) political affiliation, overall social ideology, issue-based economic ideology, and issue-based social ideology. This allowed assessing for changes, if any, in variance (R^2) in SDO after addition of these variables.

P-value for the model indicated the statistical significance of the model; the R^2 statistic indicated that amount of variance in SDO accounted for by all predictors in the model; semipartial correlations (sr_i^2) indicated the unique contribution of a predictor to the variance in SDO; p-values for the variables in the model, if statistically significant, identified them as being significant predictors of SDO; unstandardized coefficients (B) helped explain how changes in the predictor variable produced changes in SDO.

Research Question 5: Do social workers' age, gender, race/ethnicity, religious affiliation, education, cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, work experience, overall economic ideology, overall social ideology, issue-based economic ideology, issue-based social ideology, political affiliation, social desirability, and SDO, predict cultural competence?

Analysis: Hierarchical multiple regression was used to predict the effects of these variables on respondents' cultural competence. As summarized in the literature review on cultural competence, there is good evidence to support the relationship between cultural competence and cultural competence training, and there is fair evidence in support of the

relationship between cultural competence with level of education. On the other hand, evidence for the relationship between cultural competence and race, ethnicity, and work experience is weak, whereas evidence shows that age and gender do not predict cultural competence. Political ideology, SDO, and practice setting have been poorly studied as has been social desirability for which the evidence is mixed. Other variables have not been examined for their relationship with cultural competence. However, prior research on the variables being examined in the current study has been mostly correlations.

Therefore, control variables (socio-demographic, social desirability, and practice-related variables) were first into the model, followed by political variables and SDO. Therefore, variables were entered in the hierarchical regression in the following order: (1) age, gender, race/ethnicity, education, religious affiliation, social desirability; (2) social work license, social work position, practice setting, work experience, cultural competence training; (3) political affiliation, overall social ideology, issue-based economic ideology, and issue-based social ideology; (4) SDO. This allowed assessing for changes, if any, in variance (R^2) in cultural competence after addition of these variables.

P-value for the model indicated the statistical significance of the model; the R^2 statistic indicated that amount of variance in cultural competence accounted for by all predictors in the model; semipartial correlations (sr_i^2) indicated the unique contribution of a predictor to the variance in cultural competence; p-values for the variables in the model, if statistically significant, identified them as being significant predictors of cultural competence; unstandardized coefficients (B) helped explain how changes in the predictor variable produced changes in the dependent variable.

Chapter 4: Results

Univariate Analyses

Descriptive analysis of the sample ($n = 497$) showed that respondents in the study were generally female, middle-aged, and not affiliated with a major religion or any religion. They were nearly all non-Hispanic/Latino, White, and in possession of a social work license and a master's degree in social work as their highest social work degree. On an average, the respondents had about 18 years of paid work experience after earning their first social work degree, had attended about 10 workshops or trainings related to multicultural counseling or cultural competence, and currently worked as a direct practitioner in either a healthcare or agency setting. Overall, they predominantly aligned with the Democratic Party, were mid-point on social desirability, slightly liberal on issue-based economic ideology and issue-based social ideology, liberal in both overall economic ideology and overall social ideology, very low in SDO, and high in cultural competence (see Appendix D for detailed descriptive analysis of the entire sample before transformation of some variables).

The mean SDO score for the sample was 21.8 ($SD = 9.8$) with nearly 95% of respondents having a score of 43 or less on a scale ranging from 14 to 98. The scale range for SDO is not split up into levels that would allow interpretation of SDO scores. Thus, the sample was almost exclusively low in SDO which indicates that they did not prefer hierarchies or group domination. This preference of social workers in this study is consistent with findings from the study of MSW students by Osteen et al. (2013). In fact, nearly all MSW students in that study were low in SDO ($M = 79.2$, $SD = 8.9$, Scale Range 16-96). Osteen et al. had reverse scored the scale, so higher scores indicate lower SDO,

and vice versa. The findings of the current study also support the postulation of social dominance theory that individuals with low SDO tend to have careers in hierarchy attenuating professions that focus on providing services to or benefitting oppressed groups (Pratto et al., 1994; Pratto et al., 2006). Additional comparison with the two studies cannot be done due to lack of information on characteristics of the samples or variability of SDO scores.

Descriptive analysis also showed that the mean cultural competence in the study was 117.5 ($SD = 16.3$) with nearly 68% of the sample having a score of 110 or above on a scale ranging from 36 to 144. Thus, there was more variability in scores for cultural competence than SDO. While the SWCCSA total scores are classified into four levels (Lum, 2011), no justification or interpretation of these levels was provided. Nevertheless, initial results for both the primary variables of interest are very encouraging from the perspective of the social work profession.

Transformation of continuous variables

Before presenting the results of post-imputation bivariate analyses, the results of the transformation or attempted transformation of continuous variables are presented because further analyses involved transformed variables.

Age

The untransformed variable of age was retained for bivariate and multivariate analyses because normality did not improve substantially after various transformations. The untransformed variable remained statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality, and even though z-scores for skewness (1.04) and kurtosis (- 4.35) did not change substantially after various transformations, the untransformed variable was

considered to have an acceptable normal distribution based on the moderate departure of kurtosis from zero, histogram and Q-Q plot for the untransformed variable, and an absolute skew value of only 0.11 (see Table 2) which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). Tabachnick and Fidel (2007) state that while cases with z scores greater than 3.29 ($p < .001$, two-tailed test) are potential outliers, a few such scores are expected in samples with a large N. However, standardized z-scores for all cases of the untransformed variable were less than the absolute value of 2.76 which confirmed the absence of outliers.

Work Experience

The square root transformation of work experience was selected for bivariate and multivariate analyses as it was most successful in resolving the issues of nonnormality of the untransformed variable. The square root transformed variable was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality. However, histograms and Q-Q Plots of the square root transformed variable closest to having a normal distribution, z-scores for skewness and kurtosis were low and much improved ($z_s = -0.67$, $z_k = -3.69$), and the absolute skew value for the transformed variable was only 0.07 (see Table 2) which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). No outliers were identified in the box plot, and standardized z-scores for the variable was less than 2.54 thus confirming the absence of outliers.

Cultural Competence Training

The log transformation of cultural competence training was selected for bivariate and multivariate analyses as it was most successful in resolving the issues of nonnormality and outliers – which were not of significant concern, of the untransformed

variable. The log transformed variable was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality but the z-scores for skewness and kurtosis ($z_s = -3.33$, $z_k = -0.21$) came closest to zero, its histogram appeared to be closest to a normal curve, and the absolute skew value was only 0.37 (see Table 2) which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). Additionally, standardized z-scores were spread over a smaller range and did not show any outliers.

Social Desirability

The untransformed variable of social desirability was retained for bivariate and multivariate analyses because normality did not improve substantially after various transformations. The untransformed variable remained statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality. However, the histogram of the untransformed variable came closest to resembling a normal curve, and the absolute skew value for untransformed variable was only 0.50 which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). No outliers were identified through the box plot or standardized z-scores for the untransformed variable.

General Economic Ideology

The log transformation of general economic ideology was selected for bivariate and multivariate analyses as it was most successful in resolving the issues of nonnormality and outliers - which were not of significant concern, of the untransformed variable. The log transformed variable was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality but had low z-score for skewness ($z_s = 0.66$, $z_k = -5.33$), a more linear Q-Q Plot, and an absolute skew value of only 0.07 which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). The box-plot for the log transformed variable (log_

Gen_Eco_Imp) did not show any outliers, and none of the standardized z-scores had an absolute value greater than 2.2.

General Social Ideology

The inverse transformation of general social ideology was selected for bivariate and multivariate analyses as it was most successful in resolving the issues of nonnormality and outliers - which were not of significant concern, of the untransformed variable. The inverse transformed variable was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality but had low z-score for skewness ($z_s = -3.44$, $z_k = -7.10$), and an absolute skew value of only 0.38 which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). The variable that did not have any outliers in the boxplot, and all standardized z-scores were lower than the absolute value of 1.93 indicating the absence of outliers.

Issue-Based Economic Ideology

The square root transformation of issue-based economic ideology was selected for bivariate and multivariate analyses as it was most successful in resolving the issues of nonnormality and outliers - which were not of significant concern, of the untransformed variable. The square root transformed variable was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality, but its distribution resembled a normal curve, the z-scores for skewness and kurtosis approached zero or acceptable values ($z_s = 1.37$, $z_k = 2.49$), and the absolute skew value was only 0.15 which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). The box-plot for the variable identified 2 outliers both of which had the minimum possible score/value (2.24) for the variable but this score/value was not disconnected from other scores for the variable, and none of the standardized z-scores had an absolute value greater than 3.29.

Issue-Based Social Ideology

The square root transformation of issue-based economic ideology was selected for bivariate and multivariate analyses as it was most successful in resolving the issues of nonnormality and outliers, which were not of significant concern of the untransformed variable. The square root transformed variable was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality but the z-scores for skewness and kurtosis approached zero or acceptable values ($z_s = 1.56$, $z_k = 1.72$), the histogram came closest in resemblance to a normal curve, and the absolute skew value was only 0.17, which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). None of the cases had standardized z-scores greater than the absolute value of 2.92, and therefore 14 outliers identified through box-plots were retained in the variable without being rescored.

SDO

The inverse transformation of SDO was selected for bivariate and multivariate analyses as it was most successful in resolving the issues of nonnormality and outliers - which were not of significant concern, of the untransformed variable. The inverse transformed variable was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality, and its distribution did not resemble a normal curve, but it had low z-score for skewness ($z_s = - 4.38$, $z_k = - 4.32$), and the absolute skew value was only 0.48 which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). The inverse transformed variable did not show outliers in the box plot, and none of the cases had absolute value for standardized scores greater than 2.23 which was well within the limit of 3.29 recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007).

Cultural Competence

The reflected and square root transformation of cultural competence was selected for bivariate and multivariate analyses as it was most successful in resolving the issues of nonnormality and outliers, which were not of significant concern of the untransformed variable. The inverse transformed variable was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality but the z -score for skewness was low ($z_s = -2.84$, $z_k = -1.62$), the histogram appeared to be closest to a normal curve, and the absolute skew value was only 0.31 which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). No outliers were displayed in the box-plot, and no z -score was greater than the absolute value of 2.59.

Post-Imputation/Transformation Bivariate Analyses

Categorical Variables and SDO

Before conducting bivariate analyses between inverse transformed SDO and categorical variables, they were examined for independence of observations, normality, and homogeneity of variance². The assumption of independence of observations was met for all variables and SDO; the assumption of homogeneity of variance of SDO was not met for three variables (i.e., gender, religious affiliation and political party affiliation). The assumption of normality was met for SDO and all variables other than religious affiliation and political party affiliation (see Appendix E). Therefore, one-way ANOVAs were conducted to determine differences in means of SDO across categories of social work position and practice setting; Kruskal Wallis tests were conducted to examine differences in means of SDO across categories of religious affiliation and political party affiliation; independent samples t -tests were conducted to examine differences in means of cultural competence across categories of all other variables.

² *Descriptive results from bivariate analyses between categorical variables and untransformed SDO and Cultural Competence are provided in Table 3.*

Table 3. Descriptive Data for Categorical Variables from Pre-Transformation Bivariate Analyses (N = 497)

<i>Variables</i>	<i>SDO</i>			<i>Cultural Competence</i>	
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Ethnicity					
Hispanic/Latino or Both	29	24.0	9.8	121.1	15.5
Non-Hispanic/Latino	468	21.7	9.8	117.3	16.3
Gender					
Male/Other	106	25.3	11.5	116.0	16.1
Female	391	20.8	9.1	118.0	16.4
Race					
Other	33	20.0	7.5	127.5	14.6
White	464	21.9	10.0	116.8	16.2
Religious Affiliation					
Buddhist	34	20.3	8.0	116.0	17.3
Catholic	36	24.0	11.2	118.2	16.1
Jewish	26	19.9	6.0	109.4	22.5
Protestant	86	23.8	10.9	117.8	16.2
Other	102	22.5	11.1	120.1	13.8
None	213	20.8	9.0	117.3	16.3
Highest Social Work Degree					
Bachelors or Doctorate	12	25.0	13.8	127.3	9.6
Master	485	21.7	9.7	117.3	16.4
Social Work License*					
No	29	20.5	7.3	116.5	14.2
Yes	467	21.8	10.0	117.6	16.4
Practice Setting					
Agency	102	20.6	8.4	118.3	14.5
Healthcare	178	21.9	10.3	119.5	15.7
Private Practice	85	21.9	10.3	112.2	17.9
Other Setting	69	22.6	9.4	116.0	18.5
Mixed Setting	63	22.6	10.4	119.5	14.8
Prim. Social Work Position					
Direct Practitioner	364	21.6	9.8	118.2	15.7
Supervisor	52	20.2	8.4	119.9	14.6
Administrator	29	22.1	9.6	115.1	16.9
Other Position	52	24.4	11.4	111.4	20.6
Political Party Affiliation					
Strong Democrat	268	20.0	8.0	116.9	17.1
Not Strong Democrat	60	20.1	9.0	116.1	16.8
Independent, Near Democrat	92	21.9	8.8	117.6	15.1
Independent	41	27.8	12.5	118.4	15.5
Republican or Other Party	36	30.6	14.6	123.5	12.4

* *n* = 496

Results from the independent samples t-tests of categorical variables (see Table 4), after accounting for the inverse transformation of SDO, showed that females ($M = 20.8$, $SD = 9.1$) were lower in SDO as compared to males and others ($M = 25.3$, $SD = 11.5$; $t_{150,562} = -3.728, p < .001$). However, no other significant differences were found in the means of SDO across categories of race ($t_{495} = 0.895, p > .10$), ethnicity ($t_{495} = -1.733, p > .05$), education ($t_{495} = -0.947, p > .10$), and social work license ($t_{495} = 0.307, p > .10$).

Result of one-way ANOVAs (see Table 4) showed no significant differences in SDO across categories of practice setting, $F(4,492) = .684, p = .603$, and social work position, $F(3,493) = 1.604, p = .188$. Visual inspection of box-plots from Kruskal Wallis tests showed that distributions of SDO across categories of religious affiliation and political party affiliation were not similar. However, there were no significant differences in mean rank of SDO across categories of religious affiliation, $H(5) = 9.31, p = .097$, but there were significant differences in mean rank of SDO across categories of political affiliation, $H(4) = 35.427, p < .001$ (see Table 4). After accounting for the inverse transformation of SDO, results showed that respondents who were strong Democrats ($M = 20.0, SD = 8.0$) were significantly lower in SDO than respondents who were Independent ($M = 27.8, SD = 12.5; p < .001$) or affiliated with the Republican or Other (Non-Democratic) party ($M = 30.6, SD = 14.6; p < .001$). Respondents who were not strong Democrats ($M = 20.1, SD = 9.0$) were also lower in SDO than respondents who were Independent ($p = .002$) or affiliated with the Republican or Other (Non-Democratic) party ($p = .001$). Not strong Democrats were marginally lower in SDO than strong Democrats by 0.1 unit, but there were no significant differences between the two or other categories of political affiliation ($p > .05$).

Table 4. Results of Bivariate Analyses between Categorical Variables and Post-Transformed SDO (N = 497)

<i>Variables</i>	<i>SDO</i>					
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t/F/H</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>M_d[*]</i>
Ethnicity				-1.733	.084	
Hispanic/Latino or Both	29	.048	.016			
Non-Hispanic/Latino	468	.053	.016			
Gender				-3.728	< .001	
Male/Other	106	.047	.018			
Female	391	.054	.016			-.007
Race				0.895	.371	
Other	33	.056	.015			
White	464	.053	.017			
Religious Affiliation				9.313 [†]	.097	
Buddhist	34	277.81 ^{††}				
Catholic	36	213.69 ^{††}				
Jewish	26	245.69 ^{††}				
Protestant	86	221.11 ^{††}				
Other	102	245.25 ^{††}				
None	213	263.83 ^{††}				
Highest Social Work Degree				-0.947	.344	
Bachelors or Doctorate	12	.048	.018			
Master	485	.053	.016			
Social Work License**				0.307	.759	
No	29	.054	.015			
Yes	467	.053	.017			
Practice Setting				0.684	.603	
Agency	102	.055	.016			
Healthcare (<i>b</i>)	178	.053	.017			
Private Practice (<i>c</i>)	85	.053	.016			
Other Setting	69	.051	.016			
Mixed Setting	63	.052	.017			
Prim. Social Work Position				1.604	.188	
Direct Practitioner	364	.053	.016			
Supervisor	52	.055	.015			
Administrator	29	.051	.016			
Other Position	52	.049	.018			
Political Party Affiliation				35.427[†]	< .001	
Strong Democrat (<i>a</i>)	268	227.07 ^{††}			< .001_{ad}	
Not Strong Democrat (<i>b</i>)	60	222.41 ^{††}			.001_{be}	
Independent, Near Democrat	92	260.65 ^{††}				
Independent (<i>d</i>)	41	328.45 ^{††}			< .001_{bd}	
Republican or Other Party (<i>e</i>)	36	336.33 ^{††}			< .002_{ae}	

* *Difference in means*; ** *n* = 496; [†] *H-statistic from Kruskal-Wallis test*; ^{††} *Mean Rank from Kruskal-Wallis test*

Thus, as far as categorical variables were concerned, low SDO was associated with being female, and being a strong Democrat or not strong Democrat. On the other hand, higher SDO was associated with being an Independent or affiliating with the Republican or Other (Non-Democratic) Party. It may be useful to note that there were *some differences* in these results as compared to the results of bivariate analyses conducted before imputation and transformation. Pre-imputation Kruskal-Wallis and subsequent Mann Whitney tests had also identified significant differences in SDO for the same four pairwise categories of political affiliation. However, significant differences in SDO between Independent near Democrat and Independent, and Independent near Democrat and Republican or Other (Non-Democratic) Party had also been identified.

Dummy Variables and SDO

In addition, it was also decided to conduct bivariate analyses between inverse transformed SDO and dummy variables. The assumptions of normality and independence of observations was met for all variables and SDO, whereas the assumption of homogeneity of variance of SDO was not met for the Jewish dummy variable. Therefore, independent samples t-tests were conducted to examine differences in means of cultural competence across categories of all dummy variables.

Results of independent samples t-tests showed that Protestants were higher in SDO by .0041 units as compared to others ($t_{495} = 2.121, p = .034$); Independents were higher in SDO by .0014 units as compared to others ($t_{495} = 4.008, p < .001$); Those affiliated with the Republican or Other Party (not Democratic) were higher in SDO as compared to others ($t_{38.693} = 3.797, p = .001$). However, no significant differences were found in the means of SDO across categories of Buddhist ($t_{495} = -1.041, p > .10$),

Catholic ($t_{495} = 1.547, p > .10$), Jewish ($t_{30.216} = -0.375, p > .10$), Religious Affiliation – Other ($t_{495} = 0.382, p > .10$), Agency ($t_{495} = -1.272, p > .10$), Healthcare ($t_{495} = -0.163, p > .10$), Private Practice ($t_{495} = 0.040, p > .10$), Other Setting ($t_{495} = 1.195, p > .10$), Mixed Setting ($t_{495} = 0.419, p > .10$), Not Strong Democrat ($t_{495} = -1.617, p > .10$), Independent Near Democrat ($t_{495} = -0.761, p = .447$), Direct Practitioner ($t_{495} = -0.815, p > .10$), Supervisor ($t_{495} = 0.510, p > .10$), Administrator ($t_{495} = -0.947, p > .10$), and Other Position ($t_{495} = 1.911, p > .05$).

Even though the t-test identified a significant difference in SDO between Protestants and others, the Kruskal Wallis test conducted post-imputation and transformation showed no significant differences in SDO across categories of religious affiliation.

Continuous Variables and SDO

Pearson's correlation tests were conducted to identify if the continuous variables had any significant relationships with SDO. Assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were met for all variables (see Table 2 for normality statistics). Results of correlational analysis showed that inverse transformed SDO was significantly and positively correlated with inverse transformed general social ideology, whereas it was significantly and negatively correlated with (square root) work experience, (log) general economic ideology, (square root) issue-based economic ideology, (square root) issue-based social ideology, and (reflected and square root) cultural competence (see Table 5).

After accounting for transformations of all variables, it was found that low SDO was associated with being less experienced and being more liberal or less conservative on general economic ideology, general social ideology, issue-based economic ideology, and

issue-based social ideology. *Non-parametric* bivariate analysis conducted before imputation and transformation had also identified all of the above relationships except the significant relationship between work experience and SDO (see Table 5). It must be noted that even though *parametric* tests for correlations were not the appropriate tests before imputation and transformation due to non-normality of variables, results of those tests were similar to results of post-imputation *parametric* bivariate analysis.

In summary, lower SDO was associated with being female, less experienced, a strong Democrat or not strong Democrat, more liberal or less conservative on general economic ideology, general social ideology, issue-based economic ideology, and issue-based social ideology. Being an Independent or affiliating with the Republican or Other (Non-Democratic) Party was associated with higher SDO.

Continuous Variables and Cultural Competence

Pearson's correlation tests were conducted to identify if the continuous variables had any significant relationships with cultural competence. Assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were met for all variables (see Table 2 for normality statistics). Results of correlational analysis showed that reflected and square root transformed cultural competence was significantly and positively correlated to age, (square root) work experience, and (log) general economic ideology, whereas it was significantly but negatively correlated with social desirability, (log) cultural competence training, (inverse) general social ideology, and (inverse) SDO (see Table 5).

After accounting for the reflected effect of the reflected and square root transformed variable of cultural competence, it was found that lower cultural competence was associated with being older, more experienced, lower in social desirability, higher on

SDO, less liberal or more conservative on general economic ideology and general social ideology and having attended less cultural competence trainings. These results were similar to the results of *non-parametric* bivariate analysis conducted before imputation and transformation (see Table 5).

Table 5. Correlations of SDO and Cultural Competence (Pre-Imputation & Post-Imputation)

Variables	SDO				Cultural Competence			
	Pre-Imputation [†]		Post-Transformation		Pre-Imputation [†]		Post-Transformation	
	<i>r</i> *	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i> **	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i> *	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i> **	<i>p</i>
Age	.06	.185	-.07	.140	-.18	<.001	.18	<.001
Cultural Competence Training	-.01	.782	.01	.763	.32	<.001	-.29	<.001
Work Experience	.08	.073	-.09	.039	-.11	.021	.12	.006
General Economic Ideology	.39	<.001	-.43	<.001	-.14	.005	.14	.003
General Social Ideology	.40	<.001	.44	<.001	-.10	.042	-.11	.017
Issue-based Economic Ideology	.40	<.001	-.42	<.001	.00	.939	.00	.992
Issue-based Social Ideology	.33	<.001	-.32	<.001	-.04	.541	.02	.630
Social Desirability	-.06	.213	.07	.138	.15	.003	-.16	.001
Social Dominance Orientation	-	-	-	-	-.16	.001	-.18	<.001
Cultural Competence	-.16	.001	-.18	<.001	-	-	-	-

[†] *Pre-transformation*

* *Spearman Rank Correlation*

***Pearson's Correlation*

Categorical Variables and Cultural Competence

Before conducting bivariate analyses between reflected and square root transformed cultural competence and categorical variables, they were examined for independence of observations, normality, and homogeneity of variance. All assumptions were met (see Appendix F). Therefore, independent samples t-tests were conducted to examine differences in means of cultural competence across categories of dichotomous variables whereas one-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine differences in means of

cultural competence across categories of religious affiliation, political party affiliation, social work position, and practice setting.

Results of t-tests (see Table 6) showed that after accounting for the reflected effect of the reflected and square root transformed variable of cultural competence, respondents who were White were lower in cultural competence by 1.25 units than others including biracial or multiracial Whites ($t_{495} = -4.178, p < .001$). There were no significant differences in the means of cultural competence across categories of gender, ethnicity ($p > .10$ for all), social work education ($p > .05$), and social work license ($p > .05$).

Result of one-way ANOVAs (see Table 6) showed significant effects for practice setting, $F(4,492) = 2.77, p = 0.027$. *Post-hoc* analysis of pairwise comparisons using Tukey HSD showed that after accounting for the reflected effect of the reflected and square root transformed variable of cultural competence, respondents working in healthcare settings were higher in cultural competence than those in private practice by 0.7 units ($p = .012$). No other significant differences were found across other categories of this variable ($p > .10$), or across categories of religious affiliation, $F(5,491) = 1.145, p = .335$, political affiliation, $F(4,492) = 0.986, p = .415$, and social work position, $F(3,493) = 2.016, p = .111$.

After accounting for the reflection and transformation of cultural competence, lower cultural competence was associated with being White and working in private practice rather than in healthcare settings. The only difference in results between pre- and post-imputation/transformation bivariate analyses was that the pre-imputation analysis had also found that respondents working in positions other than direct practitioner, administrator, or supervisor were lower in cultural competence than supervisors.

Table 6. Results of Bivariate Analyses between Categorical Variables and Post-Transformed Cultural Competence (N = 497)

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Cultural Competence</i>					
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t/F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>M_d</i> *
Ethnicity				-1.378	.169	
Hispanic/Latino or Both	29	4.542	1.829			
Non-Hispanic/Latino	468	4.988	1.683			
Gender				1.235	.217	
Male/Other	106	5.142	1.613			
Female	391	4.913	1.713			
Race				-4.178	< .001	
Other	33	3.792	1.808			
White	464	5.045	1.655			-1.253
Religious Affiliation				1.145	.335	
Buddhist	34	5.10	1.77			
Catholic	36	4.87	1.81			
Jewish	26	5.58	2.16			
Protestant	86	4.94	1.66			
Other	102	4.73	1.57			
None	213	5.00	1.66			
Highest Social Work Degree				-1.897	.058	
Bachelors or Doctorate	12	4.048	1.218			
Master	485	4.985	1.698			
Social Work License**				.457	.648	
No	29	5.104	1.609			
Yes	467	4.956	1.700			
Practice Setting				2.767	.027	
Agency	102	4.95	1.48			
Healthcare (<i>b</i>)	178	4.76	1.70			0.713_{bc}[†]
Private Practice (<i>c</i>)	85	5.47	1.71			
Other Setting	69	5.03	1.95			
Mixed Setting	63	4.81	1.57			
Prim. Social Work Position				2.016	.111	
Direct Practitioner	364	4.90	1.65			
Supervisor	52	4.76	1.60			
Administrator	29	5.19	1.75			
Other Position	52	5.45	1.99			
Political Party Affiliation				0.986	.415	
Strong Democrat (<i>a</i>)	268	5.015	1.736			
Not Strong Democrat (<i>b</i>)	60	5.064	1.820			
Independent, Near Democrat	92	4.986	1.591			
Independent (<i>d</i>)	41	4.870	1.722			
Republican or Other Party (<i>e</i>)	36	4.447	1.321			

* Difference in means; ** *n* = 496; [†] *p* < .05

In summary, lower cultural competence was associated with being White, older, more experienced, lower in social desirability, working in private practice rather than in healthcare settings, being less liberal or more conservative on general economic ideology and general social ideology, higher SDO, and having attended less cultural competence trainings.

Dummy Variables and Cultural Competence

In addition, it was also decided to conduct bivariate analyses between reflected and square root cultural competence and dummy variables. The assumptions of normality and independence of observations was met for all variables and cultural competence SDO whereas the assumption of homogeneity of variance of cultural competence was not met for only the Jewish dummy variable. Therefore, independent samples t-tests were conducted to examine differences in means of cultural competence across categories of all dummy variables.

Results of t-tests showed that after accounting for the reflected effect of the reflected and square root transformed variable of cultural competence, respondents working in Other Positions were lower in cultural competence by 0.54 units as compared to those working as direct practitioners, supervisors, and administrators ($t_{495} = -2.196, p = .029$); respondents working in healthcare settings were higher in cultural competence by 0.32 units as compared to others ($t_{495} = 2.034, p = .042$); respondents working in private practice settings were lower in cultural competence by 0.61 units as compared to others ($t_{495} = -3.060, p = .002$). There were no significant differences in the means of cultural competence across categories of Buddhist, Catholic, Jewish, Protestant, religious affiliation (other, none) ($p > .10$ for all), direct practitioner, Supervisor, Administrator,

agency setting, other setting, mixed setting, strong Democrat, not strong Democrat, Independent Near Democrat, Independent ($p > .10$ for all), and Republican or Other Party (not Democratic) ($p > .05$).

Even though the t-test identified a significant difference in cultural competence for respondents working in position other than as direct practitioners, supervisors, and administrators Protestants and others, the one-way ANOVA test conducted post-imputation and transformation had shown no significant differences in cultural competence across categories of social work position.

Multivariate outliers in the regression model of SDO

A hierarchical multiple regression was performed to identify multivariate outliers by seeking the Mahalanobis distance or statistic while running the regression model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Socio-demographic, social desirability, practice-related, and political variables were entered in 3 different steps into the model. For the sake of understanding, transformed variables are referred to by their untransformed names unless specified otherwise. One case with missing data for social work license was excluded from the regression model. The first run of the regression model with 29 independent variables and 496 cases identified 16 multivariate outliers based on the Mahalanobis distance. When these cases were excluded from the subsequent regression analysis, 4 additional multivariate outliers were identified in the second regression model of SDO. Screening multiple times to identify and delete multivariate outliers is recommended if multivariate outliers hide behind other multivariate outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). After exclusion of these 4 outliers from the subsequent regression analysis, another 2 multivariate outliers were identified in the third regression model. Finally, after exclusion

of these 2 outliers, no additional multivariate outliers were identified in the fourth model of SDO. In summary, the original model had 496 cases, the 1st variant had 480 cases, 2nd variant had 476 cases, and the 3rd variant had 474 cases.

The first model and its three variants were statistically significant ($p < .001$) and had significant but weak to moderate correlations between at least the same 10 IVs and SDO. However, the original model and 1st variant had a significant correlation between ethnicity and SDO; the three variants also had a significant correlation between the DV and the variables of Other Position, social desirability, and Catholic; the 2nd and 3rd variants had a significant correlation between age and SDO; the 2nd variant had a significant correlation between education and SDO. In summary, the original model had 11 significant correlations, the 1st and 3rd variants had 14 each, and the 2nd variant had 15 significant correlations. The original model and three variants had at least the same 5 predictors of SDO: gender, general social ideology, and issue-based economic ideology, Not Strong Democrat, and Social Desirability. Neither the original model nor its variants showed a significant correlation between Not Strong Democrat and SDO, and yet all showed that the variable predicted SDO. The three variants also had ethnicity as a significant predictor of SDO. The variable of education was, by default, excluded from the last two regression models. The original model and its three variants did not differ substantially in statistics for R^2 and the F-value. R^2 changed from .318 to .324 to .325 to .324 and the F-value changed from 7.504 to 7.426 to 7.682 to 7.618.

Tolerance values were greater than .1, and VIF values were less than 10 in both the original model and its variants. However, a Condition Index greater than 30, and with 2 Variance Proportions greater than .50 was found in the first model and the last two

variants thus indicating potential multicollinearity between issue-based economic ideology and issue-based social ideology. However, these correlations were of moderate effect size with r ranging from .542 to .537, and not different from the effect size ($r = .541$) for the two variables in the 1st variant. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) state that inclusion of correlated variables in regression analysis is problematic only if r is .70 or higher. Therefore, the inclusion of both these variables in the regression model was not a concern, and it could be assumed that the assumption of multicollinearity was met for the original model and its variants. All other assumptions of multiple regression were also met for the model and its three variants. There were sufficient number of cases for analysis, and the shape of the scatterplots of standardized residuals against standardized predicted scores of SDO was acceptable thus indicating that the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were met. The inclusion of outliers in the three variants of the original model was not considered problematic given the large sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thus, there were no substantial differences in the overall results of the last three variants. Based on the recommendation of Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) that outliers identified in latter screens should not be deleted if they are not influencing results, it was decided that the results of the 1st variant with 29 independent variables and 480 cases would be used to help answer the fourth research question of the current study.

Hierarchical regression analysis of SDO

A hierarchical multiple regression was performed to determine which variables predicted SDO. Socio-demographic variables and social desirability, and then practice-related, and political variables were entered in 3 steps in the model. Inclusion of social

desirability and 10 sociodemographic variables in step 1 resulted in a significant model ($R^2=.076$, $F(11, 468) = 3.493$, $p < .001$) with the variables of gender ($p < .001$), ethnicity ($p = .039$), and Protestant ($p = .007$) being significant predictors of SDO. However, these three variables accounted for only 7.6 % of the variance in SDO. Table 7 shows the unstandardized (B) and significance level for each variable during the three steps of the model. Addition of 10 practice variables in step 2 resulted in a non-significant increase in R^2 of .019 ($F(10, 458) = 0.963$, $p = .475$). Gender ($p < .001$), ethnicity ($p = .049$), and Protestant ($p = .012$) remained significant whereas Catholic ($p = .048$) was a new predictor of SDO; the four predictors accounted for 9.5% of the total variance in SDO. Addition of eight political variables resulted in a substantial and significant change in R^2 of .229 ($F(8, 450) = 19.026$, $p < .001$), and a significant final model ($R^2=.32$, $F(29, 450) = 7.426$, $p < .001$). The variables of Catholic and Protestant were not significant predictors of SDO in the final model, but the variables of gender ($p = .018$), ethnicity ($p = .012$), general social ideology ($p < .001$), issue-based economic ideology ($p < .001$), not strong Democrat ($p = .003$), and social desirability ($p = .002$) remained significant. The final model explained 32.4% of the total variance in SDO. The 6 predictor variables uniquely accounted for 9.5% of the total variance with general social ideology uniquely accounting for 2.8% of the total variance in the model. The predictor variables jointly accounted for the remaining 22.9% of the total variance in SDO.

The regression analyses found correlations between SDO and work experience. Other variables that had significant bivariate relationships with SDO, such as, social work position (other), practice setting (other), Catholic, Protestant, Independent, Republican or Other Party, general economic ideology, and issue-based social ideology, were not

significant predictors in the regression models for SDO. Thus, after taking into consideration the transformation and dummy coding of various variables, the results show that being female, non-Hispanic/Latino, not strong Democrat, higher on social desirability, and more liberal or less conservative on general social ideology, and issue-based economic ideology predicted lower SDO in social workers. Table 8 shows the standardized (β) regression coefficient for each variable along with their t-statistic, Tolerance, VIF, and semipartial correlations (sr_i^2) in the final model. Appendix H shows the correlations between inverse transformed SDO and independent variables or their transformations after all the variables were entered in the final SDO model.

Multivariate outliers in the regression model of cultural competence

A hierarchical multiple regression was performed to identify multivariate outliers by seeking the Mahalanobis distance or statistic while running the regression model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Socio-demographic, social desirability, practice-related, and political variables, and SDO were entered in 4 different steps into the model. For the sake of understanding, transformed variables are referred to by their untransformed names unless specified otherwise. One case with missing data for social work license was excluded from the regression model. The first run of the model with 30 independent variables and 496 cases identified 15 multivariate outliers based on the Mahalanobis distance. When another regression was run after excluding these 15 outliers, an additional 5 outliers were identified based on the Mahalanobis distance. After exclusion of these 5 outliers, no additional multivariate outliers were identified in the third regression model of cultural competence. In summary, the original model had 496 cases, the 1st variant had 481 cases, and the 2nd variant had 476 cases.

Table 7. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model for SDO (n=480)[†]

Variables	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
	B	p	B	p	B	p
(Constant)	.054	<.001	.053	<.001	.073	<.001
Age	-9.236E-5	.106	-1.227E-05	.886	-2.766E-5	.716
Gender	.007	<.001	.007	<.001	.004	.018
Ethnicity	.007	.039	.006	.049	.007	.012
Race	-.004	.135	-.004	.238	-.003	.196
Buddhist	.002	.544	.001	.659	.003	.270
Catholic	-.005	.065	-.006	.048	-.002	.467
Jewish	-.001	.672	-.001	.732	-.003	.312
Protestant	-.006	.007	-.005	.012	.000	.902
Other	-.001	.654	-.001	.732	.002	.273
Education	-.006	.584	-.006	.569	-.009	.362
Social Desirability	.001	.051	.000	.081	.001	.002
Cultural Competence Training			.003	.194	.002	.231
Work Experience			-.001	.296	-.001	.421
Social Work License			-.002	.631	-.002	.474
Supervisor			.002	.485	.001	.587
Administrator			1.882E-05	.996	-.002	.443
Other Position			-.003	.216	.001	.697
Practice Setting – Healthcare			-.001	.683	.000	.900
Practice Setting – Private Practice			.000	.947	.001	.685
Practice Setting – Other			-.004	.202	-.004	.092
Practice Setting - Mixed			-.001	.807	-.002	.489
Not Strong Democrat					.006	.003
Independent Near Democrat					.000	.820
Independent					-.001	.670
Republican or Other					-.002	.417
Overall Economic Ideology					-.008	.061
Overall Social Ideology					.014	<.001
I-Based Economic Ideology					-.008	<.001
I-Based Social Ideology					4.307E-5	.978
Total R ²		.076		.095		.324
ΔR^2		-		.019		.229
P [^]		<.001		<.001		<.001

$\Delta R^2 = R$ square change

P[^] = Significance of model

[†]Some variables have been transformed. Interpret with caution.

All assumptions of multiple regression were met in both the original model and its variant. Tolerance values were greater than .1, and VIF values were less than 10 in the original model and its variants. However, a Condition Index greater than 30, and with 2 Variance Proportions greater than .50 were found in the original model and the 2nd variant indicating multicollinearity between issue-based economic ideology and Issue-based social ideology. However, r for these variables in the model and its 2nd variant was

only .560 and .542, and therefore not considered problematic. In addition, none of the correlations were greater than .728, and none of the Condition Indices were greater than 30 in the 1st variant. In addition to meeting the assumption of multicollinearity, all other assumptions of multiple regression were met. The shape of the scatterplot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted scores of cultural competence was acceptable thus indicating that the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were met. There were sufficient number of cases for analysis, and while outliers were present in the 1st variant, their inclusion for analysis was not considered problematic given the large sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The original model and its variants were statistically significant ($p < .001$) and had significant but weak correlations between at least the same 12 IVs and cultural competence. The original model and 1st variant also had a significant correlation between education and cultural competence; the original model also had a significant correlation between Jewish and cultural competence; the 2nd variant also had a significant correlation between Religious Affiliation - Other and cultural competence. The original model and its variants also had the same predictors of cultural competence (i.e., age, race, cultural competence training, general economic ideology, political party affiliation (Republican or Other), social desirability, and SDO). The original model and its variants also did not differ substantially in statistics for R^2 and F-value, or on significant predictors of cultural competence. R^2 changed from .277 to .269 to .265 to .267; F-value changed from 5.940 to 5.522 to 5.543. A substantial difference between the model/variants was that the second variant of the model did not include the variable for Education. Other than that, there was not a substantial change in the results of the 1st and 2nd variants. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommend that

Table 8. Final Regression Model for SDO (n=480)[†]

Variables	Standardized Coefficient		Tolerance	VIF	sr ²
	β	t			
(Constant)		5.130			
Age	-.022	-.364	.399	2.506	.000
Gender*	.097	2.378	.910	1.099	.009
Ethnicity*	.103	2.511	.897	1.115	.009
Race	-.052	-1.296	.925	1.082	.003
Buddhist	.046	1.105	.884	1.132	.002
Catholic	-.031	-.728	.805	1.242	.000
Jewish	-.043	-1.102	.842	1.188	.002
Protestant	.006	.123	.686	1.459	.000
Other	.050	1.096	.724	1.381	.002
Education	-.036	-.913	.952	1.050	.001
Social Desirability*	.130	3.170	.887	1.127	.015
Cultural Competence Training	.054	1.200	.742	1.347	.002
Work Experience	-.114	-1.881	.368	2.716	.001
Social Work License	-.031	-.717	.829	1.206	.000
Supervisor	.023	.544	.824	1.213	.000
Administrator	-.032	-.767	.861	1.161	.001
Other Position	.018	.389	.710	1.409	.000
Practice Setting – Healthcare	-.007	-.126	.495	2.022	.000
Practice Setting – Private Practice	.023	.407	.486	2.059	.000
Practice Setting – Other	-.088	-1.691	.554	1.803	.004
Practice Setting - Mixed	-.033	-.692	.665	1.503	.000
Not Strong Democrat*	.130	2.986	.797	1.255	.014
Independent Near Democrat	.010	.228	.794	1.259	.000
Independent	-.019	-.426	.729	1.371	.000
Republican or Other	-.036	-.812	.755	1.325	.001
Overall Economic Ideology	-.114	-1.881	.408	2.449	.005
Overall Social Ideology*	.263	4.345	.411	2.432	.028
I-Based Economic Ideology*	-.203	-3.681	.496	2.014	.021
I-Based Social Ideology	.002	.028	.477	2.098	.000

[†]Some variables have been transformed. Interpret with caution.

* Significant at $p < .05$

outliers identified in latter screens should not be deleted if they are not influencing results. Therefore, it was decided that the 1st variant with 30 independent variables and 481 cases would be considered as the final model of cultural competence, and the results would be used to help answer the fifth research question of the current study.

Hierarchical regression analysis of cultural competence

A hierarchical multiple regression was performed to determine which variables predicted cultural competence. Socio-demographic, social desirability, practice-related, and political variables, and SDO were entered in 4 steps in the model. Inclusion of social desirability and 10 sociodemographic variables in step 1 resulted in a significant model with $R^2=.098$, $F(11, 469) = 4.646$, $p < .001$, with the variables of age ($p < .001$), race ($p < .001$), and social desirability ($p < .001$) being significant predictors of cultural competence. However, these three variables accounted for only 9.8 % of the variance in the dependent variable. Table 9 shows the unstandardized (B) and significance level for each variable from the four steps of the model. Addition of 10 practice variables in step 2 resulted in a significant increase in R^2 of .114, $F(10, 459) = 6.632$, $p < .001$. Age ($p = .017$), race ($p = .003$), and social desirability ($p = .001$) remained significant, while the practice variable of cultural competence training ($p < .001$) was a new predictor of cultural competence; These four predictors accounted for 21.2% of the total variance in the dependent variable. Addition of eight political variables resulted in a significant increase in R^2 of .045, $F(8, 451) = 3.401$, $p = .001$. Age ($p = .009$), race ($p = .005$), social desirability ($p = .002$), and cultural competence training ($p < .001$) remained significant whereas two political variables, Republican or Other Party ($p = .023$) and general economic ideology ($p = .001$), were new predictors of cultural competence. The six predictors jointly accounted for 25.7% of the variance in the dependent variable. Finally, addition of SDO resulted in a significant change in R^2 of .012 ($F(1, 450) = 7.475$, $p = .007$), and a significant final model, $R^2 = .269$, $F(30, 450) = 5.522$, $p < .001$. Age ($p = .010$), race ($p = .007$), social desirability ($p = .006$), cultural competence training ($p <$

.001), Republican or Other Party ($p = .017$), and general economic ideology ($p = .001$), remained significant whereas SDO was a new predictor of the dependent variable ($p = .007$). The seven variables uniquely accounted for 10.4%, of the variance, jointly accounted for 16.5% of the variance, and altogether accounted for 26.9% of the variance in cultural competence. Cultural Competence Training was the most important predictor as it uniquely accounted for 9.1% of the total variance in the model.

Table 10 shows the standardized (β) regression coefficient for each variable along with their t-statistic, Tolerance, VIF, and semipartial correlations (sr_i^2) in the final model.

Appendix I shows the correlations between reflected and square root transformed cultural competence and independent variables or their transformations in the final model.

After taking into consideration the transformation and dummy coding of various variables, the results indicate that age, race, cultural competence training, general economic ideology, social desirability, and Republican or Other (non-Democratic) Party, and SDO predicted social workers' cultural competence. Thus, being younger, non-white or of mixed race including bi-racial or multi-racial White, higher on social desirability, attending more cultural competence trainings, more liberal or less conservative on general economic ideology, affiliating with the Republican or Other Party, and lower on SDO predicted higher cultural competence in social workers. Attending more number of cultural competence trainings was the most important predictor of higher cultural competence. Even though regression analysis found significant correlations between cultural competence and education, other position, Practice Setting – Healthcare, Practice Setting – Private Practice, and general social ideology, these variables along with other

variables included in the regression model were not significant predictors of cultural competence.

Table 9. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model for Cultural Competence (n=481)[†]

Variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
	B	B	B	B
(Constant)	1.825	**3.500	**5.225	*6.240
Age	*.024	** .020	** .022	** .021
Gender	-.099	-.081	.004	.058
Ethnicity	-.040	-.148	-.124	-.027
Race	*1.092	** .869	** .823	** .776
Buddhist	-.162	-.024	-.115	-.075
Catholic	-.049	.068	-.019	-.047
Jewish	.244	.138	.236	.191
Protestant	-.055	-.144	-.174	-.171
Other	-.340	-.335	-.338	-.310
Education	1.910	1.570	1.945	1.817
Social Desirability	*-.099	**-.087	**-.084	**-.073
Cultural Competence Training		-*1.613	*-1.612	*-1.581
Work Experience		.137	.121	.113
Social Work License		-.159	-.211	-.243
Supervisor		.315	.265	.283
Administrator		.594	.615	.587
Other Position		.445	.328	.342
Practice Setting – Healthcare		-.033	-.075	-.077
Practice Setting – Private Practice		.170	.184	.197
Practice Setting – Other		-.068	-.102	-.161
Practice Setting - Mixed		-.121	-.007	-.030
Not Strong Democrat			-.128	-.039
Independent Near Democrat			-.028	-.022
Independent			-.150	-.167
Republican or Other			**-.729	**-.760
Overall Economic Ideology			**1.533	**1.426
Overall Social Ideology			-.445	-.248
I-Based Economic Ideology			-.319	-.425
I-Based Social Ideology			-.228	-.228
Social Dominance Orientation				** -13.971
Total R^2	.098	.212	.257	.269
ΔR^2	.098	.114	.045	.012
P^\wedge	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001

* $p < .001$; ** $p < .05$

ΔR^2 = R square change

P^\wedge = Significance of model

[†]Some variables have been transformed. Interpret with caution.

Table 10. Final Regression Model for Cultural Competence (n=481)[†]

Variables	Standardized Coefficient		<i>Tolerance</i>	<i>VIF</i>	<i>sr</i> ²
	β	<i>t</i>			
(Constant)		3.949			
Age*	.165	2.579	.399	2.507	.011
Gender (Female)	.014	.325	.895	1.117	.000
Ethnicity	-.004	-.087	.892	1.121	.000
Race*	.113	2.687	.924	1.082	.012
Buddhist	-.011	-.263	.881	1.135	.000
Catholic	-.007	-.160	.805	1.242	.000
Jewish	.025	.560	.840	1.191	.001
Protestant	-.038	-.783	.679	1.472	.001
Other	-.074	-1.552	.723	1.383	.004
Education	.069	1.672	.950	1.052	.005
Social Desirability*	-.120	-2.767	.867	1.154	.013
Cultural Competence Training*	-.351	-7.501	.744	1.345	.091
Work Experience	.104	1.556	.367	2.723	.004
Social Work License	-.031	-.693	.828	1.208	.001
Supervisor	.051	1.140	.824	1.214	.002
Administrator	.080	1.839	.860	1.162	.006
Other Position	.061	1.278	.709	1.410	.003
Practice Setting – Healthcare	-.022	-.384	.494	2.025	.000
Practice Setting – Private Practice	.044	.766	.485	2.061	.001
Practice Setting – Other	-.032	-.592	.551	1.815	.001
Practice Setting - Mixed	-.006	-.118	.665	1.505	.000
Not Strong Democrat	-.008	-.168	.782	1.278	.000
Independent Near Democrat	-.005	-.113	.795	1.259	.000
Independent	-.027	-.564	.729	1.372	.001
Republican or Other*	-.112	-2.394	.742	1.347	.009
Ideology – Economic*	.205	3.225	.402	2.488	.017
Ideology – Social	-.044	-.687	.392	2.552	.001
Political Ideology - Economic	-.109	-1.860	.475	2.103	.006
Political Ideology - Social	-.080	-1.362	.471	2.122	.003
Social Dominance Orientation*	-.134	-2.734	.673	1.487	.012

[†]Some variables have been transformed. Interpret with caution.

* Significant at $p < .05$

Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Social Work Cultural Competencies Self-Assessment (SWCCSA)

The validity and factor structure of the 36-item SWCCSA have not been reported, and the instrument has been used in only two studies both of which used samples of undergraduate social work students. Therefore, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to identify the underlying latent structure of the scale. There were no univariate outliers as all scores were within expected range, and even though the Shapiro-

Wilk test for normality was significant for all 36 items/variables, the absolute skew values for all items, with only four response options, were less than 2. Thus, the assumption of normality was also met based on the criterion suggested by Kim (2013) for more than 300 cases. The assumption of linearity was assessed via bivariate analyses and considered met. The assumption of multicollinearity was also met as only four of the possible 630 correlations between individual items of the SSWCSA were greater than 0.70 yet less than .76. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < .001$) which confirmed the presence of patterned relationships among variables. The KMO statistic was 0.95, and the and the individual diagonal elements of the Anti-Image Correlation matrix were at least .93 well above the cut-off of .50 thus confirming that the data was suitable for EFA, and distinct and reliable factors could be produced (Yong & Pearce, 2013). Yong and Pearce (2013) state that a model with a good fit has less than 50% of non-redundant residuals with absolute values greater than .05. The EFA model in the current study was a good fit with only 23% of nonredundant residuals with absolute values greater than 0.05. Beavers et al. (2013) indicate that sufficiency of a sample size is dependent upon the stability of the solution, and the strength of the factors and items, and hence cannot be conclusively determined until the EFA has been conducted. However, their review of literature found a recommendation for a minimum sample size of at least 300 for factors with few items and low to moderate ($< .40$) factor loadings. The findings of the EPA for the SWCCSA confirm that the sample size of 423 may have been adequate for analysis. Listwise deletion was used for the analysis to exclude missing data, and avoid overestimation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A review of the Factor Transformation Matrix's off diagonal elements showed an asymmetrical off-diagonal

element thus indicating that orthogonal rotation techniques may not be appropriate (Yong & Pearce, 2013). A direct Oblimin rotation was run and the component correlation matrix showed that eight of the 15 correlations were greater than 0.3. Four of these 8 correlations were greater than 0.32 and ranged from absolute values of 0.33 to 0.38 thus indicating that the oblique rotation technique was appropriate for the EFA (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

To apply the Kaiser criterion for analysis with more than 250 cases requires a minimum average extracted communality of 0.60. This requirement was barely met as the average extracted communality for the analysis was 0.60. Using the criterion resulted in the identification of a six-factor solution for the SWCCSA whereas it reportedly covers three areas of cultural competence (i.e., awareness, knowledge acquisition, and skill development) based on the Core Competencies of the Council of Social Work Education's (CSWE) Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards (EPAS) (Lum, 2011). The six factors cumulatively accounted for 60.6% of the total variance with Factor 1 accounting for 40.4%, Factor 2 accounting for 6%, Factor 3 accounting for 4.6%, Factor 4 accounting for 3.7%, Factor 5 accounting 3.1%, and Factor 6 accounting for 2.9% of the total variance. On the other hand, inspection of the scree plot indicated a single-factor solution.

For a sample size of at least 300, a factor loading would need to be at least .32 to be considered statistically meaningful (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Using the recommended factor loading cut-off of .32 allowed the item with the smallest loading factor of .33 to be loaded onto Factor 4. Overall, 5 items loaded on Factor 1, 10 items loaded on Factor 2, 3 items loaded on Factor 3, 6 items loaded on Factor 4, 8 items

loaded on Factor 5, and 4 items loaded on Factor 6. The primary loading of individual variables on all six factors excluding complex variables ranged from poor (.33) to excellent (.84). However, the average variable loading on all six factors excluding complex variables ranged from fair to very good corresponding to absolute values of 0.51 to 0.62. Seven of the 36 items were complex variables (i.e., they had moderate to high loading factors for one factor but (secondary or cross) loading factors greater than .34 for another factor). Two of these complex variables had secondary loading factors greater than .42 whereas three complex variables had both primary and secondary loading factors between .35 and .38. Factors with many complex variables are typically not desirable (Yong & Pearce, 2013). Guidelines for maximum acceptable limits for cross-loading factors vary from .32 to .40 (Beavers et al, 2013). Schönrock-Adema, Heijne-Penninga, van Hell, and Cohen-Schotanus (2009) recommend that variables with cross-loading factors greater than .40 should be deleted, and the analysis run again. Deleting complex variables resulted in failure of the rotation to converge after 25 iterations or did not substantially improve the factor structure. Item 17 asks if “I use professional self-disclosure with a multicultural client.” While this item may be relevant to social work practice with clients, the NASW’s Standards and Indicators on Cultural Competence do not make either an implicit or explicit reference for the need for social workers to share or disclose personal information while working with clients. Interpretation of the results is challenging because multiple standards are represented in single factors. For example, items 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 which load on to Factor 1 pertain to Standards 3, 4, and/or 5. Similarly, Factor 4 has items relevant to Standards 2, 3, and 4. Items 27 to 36 which load

on to Factor 2 pertain to 6 different Standards including Diverse Workforce (Item 33) and Language Diversity (Item 32).

However, while the EFA identified some issues with the SWCCSA including ongoing lack of clarity about the number of factors, it is important to make note of the limitation of this analysis that may have influenced the findings. The correlation matrix between individual items of the SSWCSA was reviewed to identify which correlations were less than .30 or greater than .69. It was found that 25.2% of the 630 possible correlations were less than the minimum cut-off of .30 recommended by Yong and Pearce (2013) who also recommend that items with such weak correlations should be excluded from the EFA. However, these items were retained for the analysis because deleting these items from the EFA would have resulted in only 9 of the 36 items of the SWCCSA being retained for and included in the EFA analysis thus possibly making the analysis redundant. The EFA requires heterogeneity in the sample whereas the sample in the study lacked heterogeneity on various socio-demographic characteristics including scores on the SWCCSA ($M = 117.4$, $SD = 16.4$, $n = 423$). In fact, nearly 75% of respondents had scores higher than 107 out of the maximum possible of 144. The high percentage of weak correlations reported above may have resulted from the lack of variability and heterogeneity which may have resulted in lower loading factors or even failure to identify a factor (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999).

Exploratory Factor Analysis of the SDO Scale

The one-dimensional factor of the 14-item SDO scale has been identified through principal component analyses using 14 samples involving 1,952 undergraduate students from three US universities (Pratto et al., 1994). However, Balliet et al. (2016) state that

the scale has been found to have two dimensions, opposition to equality and group-based dominance. In addition, some of the items may be redundant because they appear to be measuring similar concepts. For example, item 8 simply asks, “Economic equality,” item 9 asks “Social equality” whereas item 10 simply asks, “Equality.” It can well be argued that the concept of equality would include both economic and social justice, and thus items 8 and 9 are redundant. Therefore, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to identify the underlying latent structure of the scale and to determine if any items may not be a good fit to the scale.

There were no univariate outliers as all scores were within expected range. The assumption of normality was not met for all 14 items based on the Shapiro-Wilk test, and not met for 11 items because their absolute skew values were greater than 2. Since the absolute skew values ranged from 1.66 to 4.84, all items were inverse transformed. Despite improvements in skew values for all items, absolute skew values for 6 items remained greater than 2 – the absolute values ranged from 2.02 to 2.75. Since there were no other options to address this issue, it was decided to proceed with the EFA analysis because the items could be regarded as ordinal variables which the analysis can handle. The assumption of linearity was assessed via bivariate analyses and considered met. The assumption of multicollinearity was also met as only two of the possible 91 correlations between individual items of the SDO scale were greater than 0.70 yet less than .80. The Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ($p < .001$) which confirmed the presence of patterned relationships among variables. The KMO statistic was 0.87, and the and the individual diagonal elements of the Anti-Image Correlation matrix were at least .82 well above the cut-off of .50 thus confirming that the data was suitable for EFA, and distinct

and reliable factors could be produced (Yong & Pearce, 2013). Yong and Pearce (2013) state that a model with a good fit has less than 50% of non-redundant residuals with absolute values greater than .05. The EFA model in the current study was a good fit with only 31% of nonredundant residuals with absolute values greater than 0.05. Beavers et al. (2013) indicate that sufficiency of a sample size is dependent upon the stability of the solution, and the strength of the factors and items, and hence cannot be conclusively determined until the EFA has been conducted. However, their review of literature found a recommendation for a minimum sample size of at least 300 for factors with few items and low to moderate ($< .40$) factor loadings. The findings of the EPA for the SDO confirm that the sample size of 477 may have been adequate for analysis. Listwise deletion was used for the analysis to exclude missing data, and avoid overestimation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A review of the Factor Transformation Matrix's off diagonal elements showed an asymmetrical off-diagonal element thus indicating that orthogonal rotation techniques may not be appropriate (Yong & Pearce, 2013). A direct Oblimin rotation was run, and the component correlation matrix showed that two of the 3 correlations had effect sizes of .31 and .42 thus confirming that the oblique rotation technique was appropriate for the EFA.

To apply the Kaiser criterion for analysis with more than 250 cases requires a minimum average extracted communality of 0.60. This requirement was barely met as the average extracted communality for the analysis was 0.62. Using the criterion resulted in the identification of a three-factor solution for the SDO whereas it is reported to have a one-dimensional factor structure (Pratto et al., 1994). The three factors cumulatively accounted for 61.6% of the total variance with Factor 1 accounting for 38.1%, Factor 2

accounting for 14.5%, and Factor 3 accounted for 9%. Inspection of the scree plot confirmed the three-factor solution.

For a sample size of at least 300, a rotated factor loading would need to be at least .32 to be considered statistically meaningful (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, using a factor loading cut-off of .30 allowed for a simple factor structure, and yielded 5 items loading on Factor 1, 5 items loading on Factor 2, and 4 items loading on Factor 3. The primary loading of individual variables on all three factors excluding complex variables ranged from fair (.53) to excellent (.87). However, the average variable loading on all three factors excluding complex variables ranged from very good to excellent corresponding to absolute values of 0.65 to 0.77. Only item 11 was a complex variable with a secondary loading factor of .33 which was eliminated after the loading factor cut-off was set at .45. However, since guidelines about maximum acceptable limits for cross-loading factors vary from .32 to .40 (Beavers et al, 2013), this cross-loading item is not of significant concern. All 14 items had moderate to strong loading factors ranging from .528 to .866, and effect size of the correlations of item 10 with items 8 and 9 were 0.67 and 0.71, respectively, thus indicating the absence of singularity.

The EFA identified three factors in the 14-item SDO scale, although it has been reported to have a single dimension (Lee et al., 2011; Pratt et al., 1994). However, the results of the EFA must be viewed with some caution because of limitations of the analysis. The correlation matrix between individual items of the SDO was reviewed to identify which correlations were less than .30 or greater than .69. It was found that of the 91 possible correlations, 48 correlations (53.7%) were less than the minimum cut-off of .30 recommended by (Yong & Pearce, 2013). Two additional correlations were greater

than 0.7 but less than 0.8. While items with such weak correlations should be excluded from the EFA (Yong & Pearce, 2013), these items were retained for the analysis because deleting them would have resulted in elimination of all 14 items from the EFA analysis. The EFA requires heterogeneity in scores whereas SDO scores in the current study had little variability. The high percentage of weak correlations reported above may have resulted from the lack of variability and heterogeneity which may have resulted in lower loading factors or even failure to identify a factor (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Related to lack of variability in scores for cultural competence is the non-normality of six of the 14 items in the scale despite inverse transformation. However, while non-normality may weaken the solution, the findings may still be useful (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), and if these items with seven response options ranging from “Do Not Agree At All” to “Strongly Agree” are regarded as ordinal rather than interval, then non-normality is not a cause for concern.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The objectives of this research study were to determine if there was a relationship between social workers' social dominance orientation and cultural competence, as well as ascertain which variables would have significant relationships with and predict the two variables. In addition, this study attempted to identify the underlying latent structure of both the SWCCSA and SDO scales. The results of these analyses are discussed below.

Relationship between social workers' social dominance orientation and self-reported cultural competence

The purpose of the first research question was to determine if there was a relationship between social workers' social dominance orientation and cultural competence. Post-imputation/transformation correlational analyses showed a negative but weak relationship ($r = -.18$) between SDO and cultural competence. The strength of the relationship increased by .2 post-imputation/transformation which may be a result of the nearly 18% increase in sample size post-imputation. However, the weak relationship between SDO and cultural competence may have been influenced by limited variability in the data for both SDO and cultural competence which in turn may be attributed primarily to the characteristics of the sample. This result is somewhat consistent with other studies that found a significant relationship between SDO and subscales of cultural competence. Weatherford (2010) found a significant correlation ($r = -.24$) between SDO and in-training counselor's Treatment Ability (MCCAT), one of the two subscales of the Multicultural Case Conceptualization Ability (MCCA) that measures cultural competence. The relationship between SDO and the other subscale, Etiology Ability (MCCA-E) was not statistically significant. The author attributed these non-significant

findings to the lack of variability in the variables. In a study of Italian nurses, Caricati et al (2015) found that two of the four dimensions of the CCAI a measure of cultural competence, Active Behaviour ($r = -.25$) and Sensitivity ($r = -0.19$) were negatively correlated to SDO, whereas the other dimensions of Seeking Information and Awareness were not significantly related. It must be noted that Caricati et al. used a 4- item measure of SDO which had Cronbach's alpha of only .51 for the sample. A common feature of results from the current and prior studies is the weak correlation between measures of SDO and cultural competence (or their subscales). The identification of a significant and negative relationship between SDO and cultural competence is important because this may be one of the first studies to examine the relationship between the two variables in social workers. Higher SDO among social workers was correlated with lower cultural competence, i.e., social workers with a higher preference for hierarchies and inequalities were less likely to be culturally competent. Halabi et al. (2008) found that high SDO individuals were less willing to offer help to others especially if they perceived threat to their group status, and when high SDO individuals did report willingness to help, they were more likely to offer dependency-oriented help wherein dominant groups provide a solution to the problem because there is the perception that subordinate groups cannot help themselves. Thus dependency-oriented help reinforces the difference in status between groups. Pratto et al. (1994) found that SDO is negatively correlated with support for gay and lesbian rights, women's rights, social programs, racial policy, miscegeny, and empathy. Based on these findings, it can be assumed that social workers high in SDO may be lower in empathy, and not adhere to or find it challenging to implement the NASW's Code of Ethics and/or standards and indicators of cultural competence

including those pertaining to non-discrimination, cross-cultural skills, and empowerment and advocacy while working with clients who are female, racial and sexual minorities including biracials; if social workers high in SDO do help these clients, then this may be done by ignoring client perspectives and/or imposing dominant or social worker's perspectives for resolution of issues resulting in fostering dependence and maintenance of hierarchies.

Relationship between social workers' social dominance orientation, social desirability, and socio-demographic, practice, and political variables

This study sought to determine the relationship between social workers' SDO and age, gender, race, ethnicity, religious affiliation, education, cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, work experience, general economic and social ideology, issue-based economic and social ideology, political affiliation, and social desirability.

Results of both bivariate and multiple regression analyses identified a significant relationship between SDO and gender, general social ideology, issue-based economic ideology, and political party affiliation.

Gender

In the current study, females were significantly lower in SDO as compared to males and other. This finding is consistent with results of the meta-analysis of the 169 samples by Lee et al. (2011) and other studies (Nelson & Milburn, 1999; Pratto et al., 1994). Only five samples from non-US studies in the meta-analysis found females to have higher SDO than males (Lee et al., 2011); however, 3 samples from two studies included in the meta-analysis and also reviewed in this dissertational study reviewed in

this dissertation found no significant differences in SDO scores between females and males (Pratto et al., 1994; Trawalter et al., 2011). Lack of discussion and additional data in the above studies inhibits an understanding of these inconsistent results. Nevertheless, findings of the current study provide further support the invariance hypothesis of social dominance theory which proposes that there are gender-based differences in SDO (Pratto et al, 2006). A more important finding in this study was that gender predicted SDO. Gender uniquely accounted for only 0.9% of the total variance in SDO; however, gender's influence on SDO is negligible. In fact, there small but significant difference in the means for SDO scores between females ($M = 20.8$) and others ($M = 25.3$). This finding is consistent with findings from previous research (Nelson & Millburn, 1999; Pratto et al., 1994; Trawalter et al., 2011). An important challenge in the current study is that males ($n = 103$) and others ($n = 3$) only comprised only 21% of the sample, and it is possible that more a more heterogeneous sample may have yielded different results. Social dominance theory indicates that gender-based differences in SDO are not a social construction, and yet these differences may be attributed to gender socialization in which women are expected to be accepting, cooperative, and nurturing whereas men are expected to be dominating and individualistic (Yoder, 2012). Nevertheless, the findings of this study are important because no other studies have explored this relationship in a sample of social workers. Findings indicate that as compared to male and other social workers, female social workers have a lower preference for hierarchies and a higher preference for equality than men (and others). Based on findings from other studies, it can be assumed that as compared to male and other social workers, female social workers may have higher empathy, may be more comfortable working with clients who are

female, racial and sexual minorities including biracials, and may offer help that fosters autonomy rather than dependence.

Social and Economic Ideology

Bivariate analyses in the current study showed that lower SDO was correlated with being less conservative or more liberal on both measures of economic and social ideology. Other studies have also shown a significant and positive relationship between SDO and political ideology or conservatism, or between SDO and economic ideology/conservatism, and SDO and social ideology/conservatism. The current study found moderate correlations between the variables even though there was limited variability in scores for general economic and social ideology, and moderate variability in scores for issue based economic and social ideologies. In comparison, Pratto et al. (1994) found weak correlations between SDO and political economic conservatism in three samples, moderate correlations in four samples, and no significant relationship in the eighth sample; however, no explanation was offered for the non-significant findings in the eighth sample. The average correlation across the seven samples with a significant relationship between the two variables was 0.38. Other studies have found at least moderate correlations between these two variables (Balliet et al., 2016; Crawford & Bhatia, 2012; Everett, 2013; Grina et al., 2016) despite use of non-standardized multiple-item measures (Balliet et al., 2016; Crawford & Bhatia, 2012), and lack of heterogeneity in SDO scores (Grina et al., 2016). However, these studies did not provide basic information like standard deviation statistics that inhibited additional comparison with the current study.

An important finding of the current study was that general social ideology and issue-based economic ideology predicted SDO and accounted for 2.8% and 2.1% of the total variance in cultural competence, respectively. However, general economic ideology and issue-based social ideology did not predict SDO even though general economic ideology approached significance ($p = .061$). Everett (2013) reported that general political ideology, comprising of general economic and social ideology, explained 35% of the variance in the first linear regression model for SDO, while SECS scores explained 24% of the variance in the second linear regression model for SDO. However, the author did not enter any other independent variables into the SDO regression models. The findings of the current study raise some important questions about why SDO was predicted by issue-based economic ideology but not by general economic ideology, and why SDO was predicted by general social ideology but not by issue-based social ideology even though all four ideology variables had significant bivariate relationships with SDO. The significant bivariate relationships suggest that the difference in results between bivariate and multivariate analyses may not be entirely because of measurement issues, i.e., the reliability or validity of the measures used, or that the issue-based economic ideology subscale consisted of only five items whereas the issue-based social ideology subscale consisted of only seven items, and that items in the two subscales did not include many important issues such as racism, mass incarceration, immigration, healthcare, etc. which are more relevant to the U.S. context. In the current study, all four ideology variables and SDO had been transformed with both general social ideology and SDO undergoing inverse transformations. However, the magnitude, direction, or significance of the correlations between the variables and SDO remained unchanged.

before and after transformation. Bivariate analyses had shown that all four variables were moderately correlated to SDO. Data from multiple regression analysis too showed moderate zero-order correlations for general economic ideology ($r = .43$), general social ideology ($r = .43$), issue-based economic ideology ($r = .42$), and issue-based social ideology ($r = .31$). However, partial correlations for general social ideology and issue-based economic ideology were reduced to $.20$ and $.17$, respectively, thus indicating that other variables in the model may have influenced the strength of the relationship of these two variables and SDO. Despite moderate heterogeneity in scores, general economic and issue-based social ideology did not predict cultural competence. Data from multiple regression analysis showed that partial correlations for general economic ideology and issue-based social ideology were substantially reduced to $.09$ and $.001$, respectively, thus indicating that other variables in the model may have substantially reduced or eliminated the relationship of these two variables and SDO.

These findings are important because no other studies have examined whether general or issue-based economic or social ideology predicted SDO. The findings indicate that social workers espousing an overall liberal outlook on social issues and a liberal outlook on issues pertaining to welfare benefits, fiscal responsibility, limited government, gun ownership, and business were likely to have a low preference for hierarchies but a higher preference for equality between groups. Based on findings from other studies, it can be assumed that as compared to other social workers, liberal social workers may have higher empathy, may be more comfortable working with clients who are female, racial and sexual minorities including biracials, and may offer help that fosters autonomy rather than dependence.

Political Party Affiliation

Respondents identifying as Independent (8.2%) or affiliating with either the Republican or Other (non-Democratic) (7.2%) party constituted only a small part of the sample in the current study. Bivariate analyses showed significant differences were found in mean scores between the two non-Democrat groups and strong Democrats and not strong Democrats. These findings are generally consistent with findings from other studies (Nelson & Milburn, 1999; Pratto & Lemieux, 2001; Scherer et al., 2015; Trawalter et al., 2011). Other studies have reported significant and positive correlations between SDO and being Republican (Pratto et al., 1994) and SDO and political party affiliation (Crawford & Bhatia, 2012); however, it is unclear if Pratto et al. (1994) used the appropriate analysis, or if there was an error in reporting results given that a single-item measure of political affiliation with seven response options was included in the analysis. In the current study, for all four above-mentioned groups, both average scores for SDO, and scores within 1 standard deviation of the mean were well-below the midpoint of the SDO scale. This indicates that even though significant differences were found between the groups, all the groups were still low in SDO. Other studies too have found that both Republicans and Democrats were overall low in SDO even though the magnitude of group difference varied across studies (Nelson & Milburn, 1999; Pratto & Lemieux, 2001; Trawalter et al., 2011). On the other hand, results from the multiple regression analysis using strong Democrat as the reference group for political party affiliation showed that being not strong Democrat predicted lower SDO in social workers. However, the variable uniquely accounted for only 1.4% of the variance in SDO. The multiple regression analysis revealed that the partial correlation for not strong

Democrat increased to $-.14$, which also indicates a weak relationship, whereas the zero-order correlation was lower ($r = -.06$). This indicates that other variables in the regression model may have influenced the strength of the relationship between not strong Democrat and SDO. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest comparing standardized β coefficients with their simple correlations for the IV and DV. Such IVs are suppressor variables if the absolute value of their correlation is substantially smaller than their beta weight, or if the simple correlation and the beta weight have opposite direction; however, there is no guideline on how different the two statistics must be to identify suppression. Only social desirability ($r = -.08$, $\beta = -.13$) appeared to meet the criteria for suppressor variables. Results of regression analysis showed that dummy variables of Independent, and Republican or Other (non-Democratic) Party had significant zero-order correlations with SDO (See Appendix H). However, partial correlations were considerably lower, and no other dummy variable for political party affiliation predicted SDO. Nevertheless, these findings are important because no studies were identified in the review of literature that had examined this relationship using multivariate analysis. The findings indicate that social workers affiliating with the Democratic Party – but not strongly, were likely to have a low preference for hierarchies but a higher preference for equality between groups. Based on findings from other studies, it can be assumed that as compared to other social workers, these social workers may have higher empathy, may be more comfortable working with clients who are female, racial and sexual minorities including biracials, and may offer help that fosters autonomy rather than dependence.

Ethnicity

Results of multiple regression analysis showed that ethnicity predicted SDO. That is, non-Hispanic/Latinos were significantly lower in SDO than Hispanic/Latinos even though bivariate analysis had found no significant difference in mean SDO scores between non-Hispanic/Latinos ($M = 21.7$) and others ($M = 24.0$). As far as prior research on race/ethnicity is concerned, despite the meta-analysis of 37 U.S. samples reportedly comparing dominant racial/ethnic groups (Lee et al., 2011), no studies were identified that actually compared differences in SDO based on ethnicity. Consequently, there is no clear prior evidence to conclude that Hispanics/Latinos ethnic groups in the U.S., are lower in SDO than non-Hispanics/Latinos ethnic groups. Ethnicity accounted for only 0.9% of the variance in SDO and thus, the influence of ethnicity on SDO is negligible. Data from multiple regression analysis showed that the partial correlation for ethnicity increased to $-.12$ whereas zero-order correlation was lower ($r = -.08$), thus clearly indicating that other variables in the regression model may have influenced the strength of the relationship between the two variables. Only social desirability ($r = -.08$, $\beta = -.13$), and not strong Democrat ($r = -.06$, $\beta = -.13$) appear to meet the criteria for suppressor variables. Non-significant results for bivariate analysis and the weak relationship between ethnicity and cultural competence in the regression model may have been influenced by the lack of heterogeneity in scores for ethnicity as almost 95% of the sample comprised of non-Hispanics/Latinos.

Missing variable analysis had shown that 15 respondents had not entered a response for ethnicity and while multiple imputation disproportionately allocated 47% of imputed data to Hispanic/Latinos and others whereas this category comprised only 4.6%

of respondents ($n = 482$) pre-imputation, there were no substantial differences in descriptive data pre and post-imputation within and between the two categories for ethnicity, i.e., Hispanic/Latinos and others ($M = 24.1$, $SD = 10.3$, $n = 22$ vs $M = 24.0$, $SD = 9.8$, $n = 29$) and non-Hispanic/Latinos ($M = 21.4$, $SD = 9.6$, $n = 460$ vs $M = 21.7$, $SD = 9.8$, $n = 468$), respectively. However, Hispanic/Latinos and others accounted for 5.8% of the sample post-imputation ($n = 497$). The category of Hispanic/Latinos and others was created because 20 respondents reported being Hispanic/Latino and 2 respondents reported being both Hispanic/Latino and non-Hispanic Latino. The pre-imputation mean SDO score for these two respondents was 21 which was lower than the pre-imputation mean SDO score for Hispanic/Latinos and others thus confirming that the SDO scores for these two respondents decreased the difference in SDO scores between the two recoded categories of ethnicity. Thus, the findings that subordinate Hispanic/Latinos (and others) were higher in SDO compared to non-Hispanic/Latinos does not appear to have arisen because of the use of multiple imputation.

If the interchangeable use of race and ethnicity in the 37 U.S. samples included in the meta-analysis conducted by Lee and others is ignored, then in all except two of the 28 U.S. samples comparing SDO between dominant Whites and subordinate racial/ethnic groups excluding Asians or Asian Americans, Whites were found to be higher in SDO than others. The two samples in the study by Sabir (2007) had no significant differences in SDO between African Americans, Hispanics, and White police officers and while there was only a marginal difference in mean SDO scores across the three groups, Whites were generally lower than African Americans and Hispanics in SDO. Similarly, Lee et al. (2011) reported no significant overall differences between Whites and Asians in the other

9 U.S. samples. However, when data presented in the meta-analysis was reviewed by this researcher, it was noted that in eight of these 9 samples, Asians or Asian Americans were higher in SDO than Whites. Similarly, the results of the meta-analysis showed that there were no significant overall differences in SDO between dominant and subordinate racial/ethnic groups outside the U.S. In the context of these results, both for U.S. and non-U.S. samples, it appears that the findings of the current study are somewhat inconsistent with findings from both non-U.S. studies and 11 U.S. samples two of which involved Hispanics. Based on the proposition of SDT that individual socialization in the ideological hierarchy within the profession and/or identification with the ideology of the profession is likely to influence individual SDO (Haley & Sidanius, 2005), it is likely that the saliency of being police officers may override that of being racial/ethnic minorities accounting for comparable or the slightly higher SDO than White police officers in the samples from the Sabir study. On the other hand, Euro-Americans, Asian-Americans, African-Americans, and Latino-Americans generally perceived Asians to be second to Whites in the hierarchy of social status followed by Arabs, African-Americans, and Latinos (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). This suggests that subordinate racial/ethnic groups higher in the hierarchy of social status may be higher in SDO than subordinate racial/ethnic groups lower in the hierarchy of social status. While social class is not a predictor of SDO (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999) and was not measured in this study, it is likely that factors that were not examined in the current study such as respondents' SES or perceptions of their own social status or social class may account for the slightly higher SDO of Hispanic/Latinos in the current study. The findings from the non-U.S. samples also suggest the need to examine if national origin, U.S. citizenship/immigrant

status, or whether being U.S. or foreign-born influences SDO of social workers in the U.S.

Nevertheless, the findings of this study are important because this is the first study to examine the relationship between ethnicity and SDO in social workers. The findings indicate that as compared to Hispanic/Latino and biethnic social workers, non-Hispanic/Latino social workers were likely to have a low preference for hierarchies but a higher preference for equality between groups. Based on findings from other studies, it can be assumed that as compared to other social workers, non-Hispanic/Latino social workers may have higher empathy, may be more comfortable working with clients who are female, racial and sexual minorities including biracials, and may offer help that fosters autonomy rather than dependence.

Social Desirability

Results of multiple regression analysis showed that higher social desirability predicted lower SDO. Social desirability was one of the only two continuous variables that did not require transformation, but bivariate analysis had not found a significant relationship between the two variables. Despite the significant results, social desirability uniquely accounted for only 1.5% of the variance in SDO. Data from multiple regression analysis showed that the zero-order correlation ($r = -.08$) increased to $-.15$ thus indicating that other variables in the regression model may have influenced the strength of the relationship between the two variables. Only not strong Democrat ($r = -.06$, $\beta = -.13$) appeared to meet the criteria for suppressor variables recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). The findings suggest that low SDO scores for social workers in the current study may have been influenced by their desire to appear favorable and may not reflect

their actual preference for hierarchies. While social desirability did not have a substantial impact on SDO scores, these findings are important because no studies were identified in the review of literature that have examined the relationship between social desirability and SDO.

Work Experience

Despite a significant bivariate relationship, years of paid work experience after social workers earned their first social work degree did not predict SDO. The variable was also found to have a significant zero-order correlation in the regression analysis. Yet, it did not predict cultural competence despite moderate variability in scores. Partial correlations for work experience decreased from .09 to .04 thus indicating that the influence of other variables may have decreased the strength of the relationship of the two variables. However, this finding must be viewed with caution given that the weak relationship ($r = 0.09$) was found only after both SDO, which had poor variability pre-transformation, and work experience were transformed because of non-normality. In addition, pre-transformation bivariate analysis did not show a significant relationship between the two variables. Nevertheless, the current study is believed to be the first to examine this relationship.

Other Variables

Both bivariate and multiple regression analyses did not find a significant relationship between SDO and all other variables, such as age, race, religious affiliation, education, cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, and social work position. Except for race and/or ethnicity, there is no prior research on the relationship between SDO and the other variables. Despite the issues with the meta-

analysis by Lee et al., (2011), results from the prior research would suggest that White individuals should have been higher in SDO than non-Whites. Therefore, the non-significant relationship in this study is not consistent with findings from prior studies. However, given that the current sample is made up of social workers who were predominately White (93.4%) may have influenced this relationship in this study. Similarly, there was limited variability in responses for social work position but moderate heterogeneity in responses for age, religious affiliation, and practice setting. Interestingly, results of regression analysis showed that in addition to Independent, and Republican or Other (non-Democratic) Party, another four dummy variables which constituted a small/very small percentage of the sample, such as Catholic (7.2%), Protestant (17.3%), Other (Social Work) Position (10.5%), and Practice setting - Other (13.9%) were found to have significant zero-order correlations with SDO competence (See Appendix H). However, similar to results for Independent, and Republican or Other (non-Democratic) Party, none of the other four variables predicted SDO. The lack of diversity across these variables may have influenced these results. Similarly, nearly 98% of respondents in the current study possessed a master's degree as their highest social work degree, and 94.0% of the sample possessing an Oregon State social workers license. Therefore, these findings must be viewed with caution. Nevertheless, the results for these previously unexamined variables even if non-significant are important because they add to the knowledge base of SDO.

Relationship between social workers' cultural competence, social desirability, and socio-demographic, practice, and political variables

This study sought to determine the relationship between social workers' cultural competence and age, gender, race, ethnicity, religious affiliation, education, cultural competence training, practice setting, social work license, social work position, work experience, general economic and social ideology, issue-based economic and social ideology, political affiliation, social desirability, and SDO. Results of both bivariate and multiple regression analyses identified a significant relationship between cultural competence and age, race, cultural competence training, general economic ideology, political party affiliation, social desirability, and SDO.

Age

The current study found a negative but weak correlation between age and cultural competence. This result is partially consistent with results from the study by Benkert et al. (2011) who reported a positive correlation but only for one of the three subscales of the measure of cultural competence used in that study. Otherwise, findings from four other studies one of which involved MSW students (Harnek Hall, 2008) have consistently shown a non-significant bivariate relationship. In one of the four studies with non-significant results, the name and validity of the measure of cultural competency were not reported, thus construct validity of the measure is unknown. It is important to note that the strength of the relationship between age and cultural competence in the current study was unchanged after reflection and square root transformation of cultural competence, which was mildly skewed and moderately heterogenous. The current study also found that age predicted cultural competence, which is inconsistent with findings from five

other studies that found no relationship using the same statistical test. However, these studies involved healthcare professionals and two of these studies also had limitations due to inadequate sample size or unknown validity of the measure of cultural competence. In the only study that examined social workers (MSW students), Harnek Hall (2008) found that age had a weak but non-significant bivariate relationship ($r = .25$, $p = .47$) with cultural competence; age was therefore excluded from the final regression model. The correlation between the two variables in the current study was weaker ($r = .18$), and partial correlation was even weaker at $.12$ thus indicating that the relationship may have been influenced by the presence of other variables in the regression model. In addition, age uniquely accounted for a very small percentage (1.1%) of the total variance in cultural competence.

To further analyze the discordant results of the current study as compared to previous studies, it was decided to analyze if there were difference in cultural competence based on different age cohorts. Age was recoded into 6 categories such that ages 0 thru 29=1, ages 30 thru 39=2, ages 40 thru 49=3, ages 50 thru 59=4, ages 60 thru 69=5, and ages 70 and above=6. Before conducting bivariate analyses between reflected and square root transformed cultural competence and age, they were examined for independence of observations, normality, and homogeneity of variance. All assumptions were met. Result of one-way ANOVAs showed significant effects for age, $F(4,491) = 4.22$, $p = 0.001$. Post-hoc analysis of pairwise comparisons using Tukey HSD showed that after accounting for the reflected effect of the reflected and square root transformed variable of cultural competence, respondents who were between the ages of 30-39 were higher in cultural competence ($M = 121.0$) than those between the ages of 60-69 ($M = 113.1$) by 7.9 units

($p = .003$) and those aged 70 or above ($M = 110.9$) by 10.1 units ($p = .027$). Similarly, respondents who were between the ages of 40-49 ($M = 120.0$) were higher in cultural competence than those between the ages of 60-69 by 7.0 units ($p = .016$). There were no significant differences in cultural competence between other categories but mean cultural competence scores decreased consistently from category 2 to category 6 whereas mean score for category 1 ($M = 119.2$) was third highest behind mean score for category 3. Mean score for category 4 was 117.1 units.

Therefore, despite the weak relationship between the two variables and small contribution of age to the total variance in cultural competence, the findings of this study are important because it suggests that unlike other professionals where cultural competence was not predicted by age, social workers who are older may be lower in cultural competence.

Race

Independent samples t-tests showed that social workers who were White were lower in cultural competence than those who were non-Whites (including biracial or multiracial Whites). Results from bivariate analyses from previous studies have shown mixed results, but three studies that compared Whites to specific racial minorities have shown results similar to the current study (Constantine, 2001; Teasley, 2005; Teasley et al., 2005). However, two of these studies have limitations because of concerns regarding the cultural competency measures used (Teasley, 2005; Teasley et al., 2005). Constantine (2001) found that African-Americans counselors were more culturally competent than White-Americans ($r = .51$); however, in the current study a weaker relationship was found ($r = .18$). The current study could not compare cultural competence of various racial

groups due to lack of variability on this demographic, since only 6.6% of the sample was non-White. On the other hand, three studies did not find a significant relationship between the race and cultural competence. The sample in study by Lampley et al. (2008) had less than 8% non-Whites which suggests that a lack of heterogeneity may be a concern. Regression analysis in the current study showed that being non-White or of mixed race including bi-racial or multi-racial White was associated with higher cultural competence. Harnek Hall (2008) examined MSW students and did not find a significant relationship between race and cultural competence. Similarly, Schim et al. (2005) did not find a relationship between race and cultural competence, but lack of heterogeneity in race in their sample may be a slight concern. Another study found that race had significant relationships but with only one subscale of the measure of cultural competence (Paez et al., 2008). However, the study had limitation of sample size. Three other studies have reported similar results to the current study. However, two of the three studies have limitations because of concerns regarding the cultural competency measures used (Teasley, 2005; Teasley et al., 2005). However, using multiple regression analysis, Constantine (2001) found that African-Americans counselors were more culturally competent than White-Americans. The study by Constantine had more variability of race/ethnicity (60% White American, 19% African American, 21% Latino American) in their sample than the current study (6.6% non-White). However, both the study by Constantine and the current study demonstrated the relationship between race and cultural competence using multivariate analyses. Even though race uniquely accounted for only 1.2% of the total variance in cultural competence, this finding is important because it is the first study involving social workers to identify this relationship despite

very limited heterogeneity in racial characteristics in the sample, and the findings indicate that social workers who are non-White or of mixed race including bi-racial or multi-racial White may be higher in cultural competence than Whites.

Cultural Competence Training

Results of post-imputation/transformation bivariate analyses showed that number of cultural competence trainings attended was positively correlated with cultural competence ($r = .29$). This finding is highly consistent with findings of previous research. There was a small decrease in the strength of this relationship as compared to pre-imputation/transformation bivariate analyses ($r = .32$). Cultural competence training was moderately skewed, and it is likely that its log transformation reduced the strength of the relationship. However, this correlation was of near moderate strength, and the largest of all correlations between cultural competence and other continuous variables. Multiple regression analysis showed that cultural competence training was a predictor of cultural competence. This result is consistent with findings from prior research which generally offer good evidence of this relationship (Constantine, 2001; Doorenbos & Schim, 2004; Harnek Hall, 2008; Lampley et al., 2008; Schim et al., 2006). Cultural competence training uniquely predicted 9.1% of the variance in cultural competence and was the most important variable of all seven predictors in the regression model. The partial correlation increased to .33 suggesting that other variables in the regression model may have influenced this relationship. Thus, the finding of this study not only confirm findings from previous research that found a positive relationship between the two variables, but it also indicates that cultural competence training may be the most important influence on social workers cultural competence.

Social Desirability

Social desirability was positively correlated with ($r = .16$) and a predictor of cultural competence; higher social desirability was associated with higher cultural competence. The significant bivariate relationship is consistent with findings from two other studies (Benkert et al., 2011; Constantine & Ladany, 2000); however, the result for regression analysis is not consistent with previous research (Harnek Hall, 2008). The current study had a larger sample size (481 vs 186), and more heterogeneity in scores for social desirability ($M = 7.5$, $SD = 2.8$, $Range = 0 - 13$ vs $M = 19.7$, $SD = 3.0$, $Range = 9 - 26$) as compared to the study by Harnek Hall (2008), which may explain the difference in results between the two studies. Despite the significant results, social desirability uniquely accounted for only 1.3% of the variance in cultural competence. The partial correlation decreased but only marginally. Therefore, even though the influence of social desirability on social workers cultural competence is statistically significant, it may not be a meaningful finding because a 1unit increase in social desirability ($B = 0.073$) would result in only very small (0.005 unit) increase in cultural competence holding all other variables constant. Nevertheless, this result is important not only because not only was this the first study to find that social desirability significantly predicted cultural competence rather than only some subscales but also because it indicates that social workers scores on cultural competence were influenced by their desire to appear favorable rather than reflect their actual cultural competence.

SDO

As discussed previously, there is a negative but weak relationship ($r = -.18$) between SDO and cultural competence. Multivariate analysis showed that SDO was a

predictor of cultural competence, where higher SDO among social workers predicted lower cultural competence. This result is contrary to the findings of Weatherford (2010) who reported that SEM analysis indicated a non-significant relationship between SDO and cultural competence. However, that result may have been a result of lack of sufficient heterogeneity in scores for SDO and one of the two subscales of the measure of cultural competence used. In addition, Weatherford studied students who were in various stages of their counseling education whereas the current study surveyed practicing social workers (98% of whom already possessed a master's degree, 74% of whom worked as direct practitioners). Regression analysis showed that partial correlation ($r_{\text{partial}} = -.13$) was lower than the zero-order correlation ($r = -.19$) thus indicating that the presence of other variables in the regression model may have affected the strength of this relationship. It is likely that the weak relationship between SDO and cultural competence may have been influenced by limited variability in the data for both SDO and cultural competence which in turn may be attributed primarily to the characteristics of the sample. In addition to the weak correlation, (inverse transformed) SDO uniquely accounted for only 1.2% of the variance in (reflected and square root transformed) cultural competence. Holding all other variables constant, a 14 unit decrease in transformed cultural competence can be predicted for every 1 unit increase in transformed SDO. Nevertheless, even though the influence of SDO on social workers cultural competence is not substantial, the finding of a negative relationship between the two variables is highly important. As discussed previously, this result and findings from previous studies that social workers high in SDO may face some challenges in implementing the NASW's Code of Ethics and/or standards and indicators of cultural competence, and this has the

potential to impact how they work with and serve clients. It is important to note that the measure of cultural competence used in the study did not include any items that asked social workers if they engaged in social/political advocacy and action on behalf of clients and oppressed groups as may be required in culturally competent practice (NASW, 2007), and therefore, there is no evidence that social workers in the current study challenged oppressive structures and hierarchies on behalf of clients. However, the significant and negative relationship between the two variables suggests that higher SDO among social workers – because it negatively influences cultural competence, may translate to unwillingness or failure to advocate on behalf of clients at local, state, and/or national levels which would provide some justification to the claims that some social workers, if not the social work profession, may function as agents of social control. It is recommended that future studies on SDO and cultural competence focus specifically examine if social workers engage in social/political action and advocacy.

Economic and Social Ideology

General economic ideology was negatively correlated ($r = -.14$) to and a predictor of cultural competence; higher general economic conservatism was associated with lower cultural competence in social workers. The only other study that has examined the relationship between (general) political ideology and cultural competence was by Paez et al. (2008). The sample consisted of internists, family physicians, and nurse practitioners and the authors found no relationship between political ideology and cultural competence. However, this study which conducted regression analyses with general economic ideology was underpowered ($n = 49$). No other studies were identified that examined the relationship between cultural competence and general or issue-based

economic or social ideology. On the other hand, the regression model for cultural competence in the current study had sufficient number of cases ($n = 481$) and power and used a single-item with 7-response options to measure general economic ideology. Yet, the variable uniquely accounted for only 1.7% of the variance in cultural competence, and a unit increase in general economic ideology/conservatism predicted a 1.4 unit decrease in cultural competence. On the other hand, general social ideology was negatively correlated with cultural competence ($r = -.11$) but the variable was not a predictor of cultural competence in the regression analysis. The other two ideology variables, issue-based economic and social ideology, were neither significantly correlated with or predictors of cultural competence. The findings of the current study raises questions about why cultural competence was predicted by general economic ideology but not by issue-based economic ideology or by general and issue-based social ideology even though both general economic and social ideology had significant bivariate relationships with cultural competence. It is likely that the five issues of welfare benefits, fiscal responsibility, limited government, gun ownership, and business measured in the issue-based economic ideology subscale did not substantially reflect or influence respondents general economic ideology. However, results from both bivariate and multiple regression analysis showed that zero-order correlations approached zero for issue-based economic and social ideology, and while partial correlations improved slightly, they continued to be less than .10. On the other hand, partial correlation decreased to .03 for general social ideology. Strength of correlations remained virtually unchanged for general economic ideology. This indicates very weak relationships between all four ideology variables and cultural competence. Heterogeneity in sample

was limited for the two general ideology variables but moderate for the two issue-based ideology variables. Thus, the lack of sufficient variability in response of both variables may have influenced the strength of these relationships. However, the findings of this study are important because no other studies have examined whether general or issue-based economic or social ideology were correlated with or predicted cultural competence, and the only study that examined whether political ideology predicted cultural competence did not find a significant relationship. The findings indicate that as compared to others, social workers espousing an overall liberal outlook on economic issues are likely to be more culturally competent but there may be no differences in cultural competence of social workers irrespective of their issue-based economic and social ideology and overall social ideology.

Political Party Affiliation

This study found that affiliating with the Republican or Other (Non-Democratic) Party predicted higher cultural competence. No other dummy variable for political party affiliation predicted cultural competence. The findings indicate that social workers affiliating with the Republican or Other (non-Democratic) were higher in cultural competence than others. Social workers affiliating with the Republican or Other (Non-Democratic) Party had the highest mean scores for cultural competence ($M = 123.5$, $SD = 12.4$) followed by Independent ($M = 118.4$), Independent Near Democrat ($M = 117.6$), and strong Democrats ($M = 116.9$) and whereas not strong Democrats had the lowest ($M = 116.1$). These findings are somewhat perplexing because social workers affiliated with the Republican or Other (non-Democratic) party were higher in SDO than others, and higher SDO predicted lower cultural competence. Thus, social workers affiliated with the

Republican or Other (non-Democratic) party would be expected to be lower in cultural competence. Previous research has shown that the general population is more conservative and religious with a lower preference for the Democratic Party than social workers, and it is possible social workers affiliated with the Republican or Other (non-Democratic) party reported higher cultural competence because there were more similarities in characteristics between them and their clients as compared to social workers in other categories. It is also important to note that post-imputation ANOVA had not found any difference in mean scores for cultural competence across categories of political affiliation including for Republican or Other Party. This suggests that the dummy variable of Republican or Other Party may be influenced by suppressor variables in the regression model. Based on the recommendation of Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), cultural competence training ($r = -.28, \beta = -.35$), general economic ideology ($r = .21, \beta = .15$), and issue-based economic ideology ($r = -.11, \beta = .02$) were identified as potential suppressor variables. Social workers affiliated with the Republican or Other Party were slightly higher in cultural competence than others; however, the dummy variable only uniquely accounted for 0.9% of the total variance in cultural competence which is not a meaningful contribution. Limited diversity of social workers affiliated with non-Democratic parties may have influenced these results. Nevertheless, these findings are important because political party affiliation has not been previously studied for its relationship with cultural competence.

Work Experience

Years of paid work experience after social workers earned their first social work degree did not predict cultural competence. This finding is partly consistent with results

from other studies which had used multiple regression analyses to examine the relationship between cultural competence and years of work experience (Harnek Hall, 2008), and years worked in hospital settings (Schim et al., 2005). On the other hand, bivariate analyses in the current study had shown a significant but negative and weak correlation ($r = -0.12$) between the two variables. The partial correlation between the two variables was even lower and weaker at $-.08$ thus indicating that the relationship may have been influenced by the presence of other variables in the regression model. The bivariate results in the current study are unique because review of literature did not identify a negative correlation between work experience and cultural competence – a review of results from pre-imputation/transformation and post-imputation/transformation bivariate analyses shows no change in direction, and a very marginal change (of $.01$) in the strength of the relationship. However, the results for age and work experience in the current study are similar as far as the direction of their relationship with cultural competence is concerned, and also similar in that they are inconsistent with the direction of the bivariate relationship of these variables with cultural competence found in other studies one of which involved MSW students (Harnek Hall, 2008) who were both substantially younger and with less work experience than in the current sample.

Practice setting

Bivariate analysis and the correlation matrix from the regression analysis had indicated significant differences in cultural competence between social workers in private practice and healthcare settings. Yet, despite good variability in scores across categories of practice setting, these or other dummy variables of practice setting did not predict cultural competence thus indicating that other variables included in the model may have

influenced these results. The only other study that examined the relationship between practice setting and cultural competence did not find a significant difference in scores across categories of practice setting; however, there are concerns about the measure of cultural competence used (Holcomb McCoy & Myers, 1999). In the current study, a one-way ANOVA with post-hoc analysis of pairwise comparisons using Tukey HSD showed that social workers working in healthcare settings ($M = 119.5$, $SD = 15.7$) were significantly higher in cultural competence than those in private practice ($M = 112.2$, $SD = 17.9$). Social workers in healthcare settings had the highest mean score for cultural competence, followed closely by those in mixed settings ($M = 119.5$), agency settings ($M = 118.3$), and other setting ($M = 116.0$). Social workers in private practice had the lowest mean score for cultural competence but there were no significant differences in mean scores for cultural competence between other practice settings.

Working in private practice settings may offer social workers opportunities to work with clients over several sessions and offer greater autonomy to implement the NASW's recommendations for culturally competent practice. While clients in private practice settings may not have as much diversity as clients in healthcare settings because private practitioners may prefer not to work with certain clients such as those who have only Medicaid, it would be expected that the lack of a diverse clientele would result in private practitioners being competent in working with clients with preferred characteristics.³ However, as reported by one respondent to this researcher by email, the lack of comprehensive response options in the SWCCSA may have forced this and other

³ *A similar lack of diversity among clients seen or similarities in characteristics between social workers and clients may explain the higher cultural competence of social workers affiliated with the Republican or Other (non-Democratic) Party.*

respondents working in private practice to choose response options with lower scores for items pertaining to agency settings⁴. This feedback also suggests that not only may some items in the SWCCSA not be relevant to private practice, but they may also be difficult to implement because of the lack of supports or infrastructure in private practice settings. On the other hand, social workers in healthcare settings may have limited autonomy to implement the NASW's recommendations for culturally competent practice given their position in the professional hierarchy in healthcare settings yet they are more likely to have various supports such as administrative or billing staff, formal care planning team meetings, informal feedback from others on the support team, community network, and employer-paid opportunities for professional development that may contribute to higher cultural competence. Agency settings may not have the financial resources of healthcare institutions or care planning team meetings and practitioners may have high caseloads, but practitioners may have access to supervisory and other informal supports, community network, and employer-paid opportunities for training. Respondents working in agency settings were only slightly lower in cultural competence than those working in healthcare settings even though this difference was not significant. It may also be useful to examine if aspects of social work practice setting such as caseload, informal supports from non-supervisors, formal care planning team meetings, or professional development opportunities have a relationship with cultural competence.

Additionally, the cultural competence standard on ethics and values requires social workers to practice according to the values, ethics and standards of the profession (NASW, 2007). While there is no prior research on the effects of supervision on social

⁴ Only 9.8% of respondents working in private practice had missing data for cultural competence as compared to 18.5% for those working in healthcare settings.

workers cultural competence, studies have shown that social workers relied more on supervision rather than the code of ethics to make ethical decisions (Landau, 1999; Millstein, 2000). Supervision was not only desired by social workers as a means of discussing ethical concerns (O'Donoghue, Munford, & Trlin, 2005) but was also the only avenue for social workers to discuss ethical issues (Rossiter, Walsh-Bowers, & Prilleltensky, 1996). Social workers and others have shared that it is also desirable for new graduates to receive supervision from a supervisor from the same profession to resolve ethical concerns (Strong et al., 2003). Frequency of contact, and time spent on discussing profession specific issues with a supervisor from the same profession has also found to be beneficial for practice (Kavanagh et al., 2003). These findings suggest that the availability of supervision from a social worker may have beneficial effects on aspects of social workers cultural competence that relate to the standard on ethics and values, and therefore future studies must examine the relationship between receiving supervision from a social worker, its effectiveness, and cultural competence.

It may also be useful to measure aspects of the social-worker client relationship. For example, working alliance between the service provider and client which comprises of four dimensions including the service provider's empathic understanding and involvement, and agreement between the service provider and client on treatment goals and tasks (Gaston, 1990) has been found to be significantly and highly correlated to client-reported cultural competence (Fuertes et al., 2006; Fuertes, Boylan, & Fontanella, 2008; Kim, Ng, & Ahn, 2009; Li & Kim, 2004). In a study of Israeli social workers, Levin and Schwartz-Tayri (2017) used path analysis and found that organizational support and ethical behavior significantly and positively contributed directly to shared

decision making. Organizational support also contributed to shared decision making via ethical behavior.

Other Variables

The variables of social work license, religious affiliation, primary social work position, general social ideology, issue-based economic and social ideology, and political party affiliation have not been previously studied for their relationship with cultural competence. Therefore, the inclusion of these variables in the current study was a first step to determine the role of previously unexamined practice and political variables on cultural competence of social workers. In addition to non-significant results for issue-based economic and social ideology, results of bivariate and multiple regression analyses also showed non-significant relationships between cultural competence and other variables, such as ethnicity, gender, religious affiliation, education, social work license, and social work position.

The overall evidence to support whether or not ethnicity is correlated to or predicts SDO is weak but the only study without major limitations reported that both results for correlational and multiple regression analyses showed that being a Latino American counselor predicted higher cultural competence than White-American counselors (Constantine, 2001). Thus, the findings of the current study are not consistent with the results from the previous study. However, non-Hispanic/Latinos constituted nearly 95% of the sample in the current study, and this may have been contributed to the non-significant relationship between the variables.

Females ($M = 117.9$) were only marginally higher in cultural competence than males & others ($M = 116.0$), and not surprisingly, gender was not correlated with or a

predictor of cultural competence. This finding is consistent with results from prior research. It needs to be mentioned that only six previous studies have examined this relationship using bivariate and/or multiple regression analysis, and all studies have limitations except the one by Harnek Hall (2008) who found that male MSW students were very slightly higher in cultural competence than female students, but gender did not correlate to or predict cultural competence. Both studies had some heterogeneity for gender, and thus, there are some similarities between the two studies.

Social workers' education, as defined as their highest social work degree, did not correlate with or predict cultural competence. This finding is not consistent with findings from prior research which provides fair evidence that higher levels of education correlate with and predict higher cultural competence. However, nearly 98% of respondents in the current study possessed a master's degree as their highest social work degree, and this lack of heterogeneity may have influenced the relationship between the two variables. Interestingly, the variable of education and the dummy variable of Other (Social Work) Position were found to have significant zero-order correlations with cultural competence in the regression analysis (See Appendix I). Partial correlations for the two variables decreased substantially indicating that the influence of other variables decreased the strength of the relationship of these variables with cultural competence. However, dummy variables of religious affiliation and social work position did not have a significant bivariate relationship with or predict cultural competence. There was moderate heterogeneity in scores for religious affiliation but variability in scores for social work position was limited.

Social work license too did not predict cultural competence, but this result may have been influenced by the fact that 94.0% of the sample possessed an Oregon State social workers license. The OBLSW awards four types of certificates or licenses to those registering with the Board depending upon their educational qualification (BSW or MSW), type of practice (clinical vs non-clinical), and/or whether the applicant is a licensed clinical social worker or working clinical licensure. Descriptive analysis showed that 76.8% of OBLSW members were licensed clinical social workers or LCSWs, 18.1% were working towards their LCSW demonstrated by their possession of a CSWA certificate. The remaining 5.1% were registered or licensed for non-clinical social work practice but were required to complete 20 (RBSW) or 30 (LMSW) CEU credit hours every two years. CSWA certificate holders did not have a CEU requirement but one of four criteria to receive an LCSW was to complete 100 hours of supervision. LCSWs were required to complete 20 (Semi-retired) or 40 CEU credit hours every two years. A previous study found a significant relationship between licensure and the Resources and Linkage subscale of the CCSAQ, a measure of cultural competence (Teasley et al., 2005) and while the current study did not examine whether the type of license or certificate predicted cultural competence, the identification of cultural competence training as a positive predictor of cultural competence dictates the need to determine if receiving or completing license-related clinical supervision and/or CEUs may have a similar beneficial effect on social workers cultural competence. Thus, it may be useful for future studies to examine whether the type of social work license or certificate predicted cultural competence.

Measurement Issues

SWCCSA

About a decade ago, the SWCCSA was not recommended for use in social work education because of the lack of item clarity, internal consistency reliability, test-retest reliability, and validity (Krentzman & Townsend, 2008). While subsequent studies, including this dissertation study, have found the SWCCSA's test-retest reliability and Cronbach's alpha to be greater than .90, which indicates a very high reliability, other concerns about the scale persist. One survey participant stated in an email to this researcher that he was not familiar with some of the concepts in the questionnaire. While he did not mention the concept or the scale, a review of all items in the survey questionnaire indicates that the SWCCSA has terminology such as agency linkage, visible services, credible staff, knowledge theories related to cultural competence, etc., which some participants may not be familiar with or fail to recall from their social work education or cultural competence training. Lack of comprehensive response options may be another potential issue with the scale. Another respondent communicated in an email that she was in private practice, and therefore items pertaining to agency ("I know how to design a service delivery and agency linkage and culturally effective social service programs in ethnic communities", and "I have participated as a staff member in fostering a conducive agency setting with an atmosphere that is friendly and helpful to multicultural clients") were not relevant to her. However, she was forced to choose the "not likely" response option because a not applicable response option was not offered. Results of exploratory factor analysis in the current study identified six factors whereas it is claimed to focus on the awareness–knowledge–skill model of cultural competence.

Five challenging cross-loading items were also identified indicating that these items may not be a good fit for the scale and may have to be excluded from the scale altogether for future use. However, lack of heterogeneity in cultural competence scores is a major limitation of the analysis which not only calls for additional examination of the scale using a more heterogenous sample but also treating with caution findings related to cultural competence in this study.

SECS

Similar to the feedback receives for the SWCCSA measure, two respondents emailed this researcher claiming that they decided not to finish the survey due to either inadequate response options or questions being too broad with the SECS. One respondent said that, (I) “decided not to continue when it got to the approve/disapprove section because I felt there was no accurate way to represent my beliefs according to the design of the survey.” Another respondent wrote, “When I came to Question 15 I was uncertain how to answer as the categories are too broad: Do I disapprove of religion as a concept? In politics? As a private choice? And so on. Given this inability to actually understand what you'd asked I had to stop the survey.” Another respondent wrote that she did not complete the survey because it was difficult to understand what some of the questions asked. However, it could not be determined if she was referring to the SECS or some other measure.

Analysis of missing data had shown that the SECS which measured issue-based economic and social ideology had the most missing data of all variables and scales in the study. Missing data for all 12 items of the scale ranged from 1.4% (item 5) to 16.5% (item 3) and the cumulative effect of missing data in the individual items resulted in

34.6% of cases (172/497) with missing data for the variable of issue-based social ideology, and 19.1% (95/497) cases with missing data for the variable of for issue-based economic ideology. Multiple imputation was used to address the issue of missing data. However, the SECS items were placed in the survey before the SDO and SWCCSA items. While it is understandable that the SWCCSA, which had the most missing data after the SECS, had missing values for items given that all 36 scale items were placed at the end of the survey, it appears that the missing data for the SECS indicates that a high percentage of respondents faced challenges in answering some questions in the scale. Items with more than 5% missing values pertained to military/national security (missing data 16.5%), traditional values (10.7%), gun ownership (9.3%), limited government (9.3%), religion (8%), abortion (7.8%), patriotism (7.4%), business (5.8%), and traditional marriage (5.6%). It is likely that some respondents perceived that the item questions did not capture the complexity of issues or lacked comprehensive response options.

A review of the literature showed that the SECS has been used with undergraduate students or samples obtained through MTurk. Only the study by Ellingsen (2017) provided some educational characteristics of the sample. In this study, 14 respondents in an MTurk subsample of 87 ($n = 100$) possessed a master's degree. Social workers especially those possessing graduate social work degrees are expected to be more critically informed of various issues and it is likely that the SECS by virtue of its simplicity may not be appropriate for use with this sample. However, other than unsolicited feedback from three respondents who may not have completed the SECS for this dissertational study, there is no evidence to support this assumption. A possible

reason for the non-significant findings for general social ideology for which missing data was not a concern, may be the skewed distribution of scores. Lack of sufficient heterogeneity in cultural competence scores which required the mildest of transformations to address normality issues, may also be a factor in non-significant or weak significant relationships. Yet, scores for all variables may simply reflect the characteristics of the population. Therefore, suitable caution must be exercised while interpreting or generalizing the findings of this study. Future research may consider using more heterogeneous samples to assess the SWCCSA and the SECS scales and their relationship of cultural competence. An interesting finding was that even though social workers reported being generally liberal in social ideology and generally between liberal and moderate-liberal in economic ideology, they were found to be generally moderate in both economic and social political ideology. In fact, they were marginally more moderate in social political ideology than in economic political ideology thus indicating that social workers may be less liberal or more conservative on social issues than they perceive themselves to be. Social workers political ideology, similar to SDO, may also vary based on specific issues and may be different from their own perceptions of their overall political ideology. These findings are consistent with other studies (Crawford & Bhatia, 2012; Everett, 2013; Weber & Federico, 2013). It is also important to note that the 12-item SECS measure of political ideology was developed to measure conservatism on peripheral rather than core issues and does not include items on healthcare (reform), racism and/or mass incarceration, legalization of marijuana and other drugs, immigration and/or accepting refugees from certain Middle-Eastern nations, tax reform, global

warming or pro-conservation legislation, etc., which are traditionally and/or currently relevant in the US.

Limitations

As with all research, this study had its limitations. Even though this study found significant predictors of SDO and cultural competence, only one predictor of cultural competence, cultural competence training, appears to have any substantial clinical significance. It is likely that the relationship of other independent variables with the two dependent variables may have been affected by the lack of sufficient heterogeneity in the sample, which was a major limitation of this study. Effects of interactions, mediators, and moderators were not examined in this study even though data for partial correlations indicated that these factors could be influencing relationships between the independent and dependent variables.

Even though Little's MCAR test was non-significant indicating that the data was MCAR, i.e., there was no pattern to the missingness of data, missing value patterns (see Appendix C), missing value analysis, and descriptive analysis showed significant amount of missing data for the measures of issue-based economic and social ideology and cultural competence. While the reasons for this cannot be conclusively determined, it is possible that certain features of the measures such as asking simplistic questions for complex issues, difficult terminology, or lack of comprehensive responses may have been found challenging by some participants. The timing of the survey which was sent out in September a few months after the election of Donald Trump, an event that appears to have ignited an already combustible political environment, may have made some

respondents averse to political items on the survey and other social workers lukewarm to completing a survey.

The high amount of missing data for issue-based economic and social ideology and cultural competence is additional cause for concern about the measures of these variables used in the current study. About a decade ago, the SWCCSA was not recommended for use in social work education for a variety of reasons including lack of validity (Krentzman & Townsend, 2008). The current study noted lack of item clarity and found a multi-factor structure with some complex variables. While most items in the scale appear to be relevant to the NASW's Standards and Indicators of Cultural Competence, the current study was not a measurement study that allowed for additional examination of the scale and there continues to be no evidence that the SWCCSA measures cultural competence. The 12-item SECS measure of political ideology was developed to measure conservatism on peripheral rather than core issues traditionally and/or currently relevant in the US, and while it has been tested and used in samples comprising of professional survey-takers and undergraduate students, it may not be suitable to measure ideology in social workers or other professionals. Additionally, both the current and prior studies have found that the 5-item subscale of economic conservatism which was used to measure issue-based economic ideology in the current study has low reliability thus raising concerns that the items may not fit well with each other.

There are also concerns about the measures of SDO and social desirability used in the current study. The current study found that the 14-item SDO₅ scale has a three-dimensional factor structure, although it is claimed to have a single factor (Lee et al.,

2011; Pratto et al., 1994). Response options that ranged from “Do not agree at all” to “Strongly agree” were poorly designed since there is no consistent rank order and options 2 to 6 are not labelled, which may have forced participants to either the extreme left or right of the response options. The measure of social desirability, the M-C Form C, was found to have low internal reliability (.69) and this result is generally consistent with findings from five out of eight samples/studies (Barger, 2002). Additionally, based on the results from exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses of different short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne scale, Barger (2002) discouraged use of the Marlowe–Crowne scale or its various short forms as a control for response bias even though he also recommended the use of the M-C Form C to assess social desirability because it had the best psychometric properties of all short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne scale. Thus, it is likely that while social desirability predicted both SDO and cultural competence, the M-C Form C did not measure what it intended to.

There are also concerns about overlapping items/concepts within and between some measures. For example, items 8, 9, & 10 in the SDO scale ask about economic and social equality, and equality, respectively. The concept of equality would include both economic and social equality thus making items 8 and 9 redundant. Conversely, inclusion of items 8 and 9 would make item 10 redundant. In addition, items 8 and 9 also appear to measure the same concepts as measured by the single-item measures of general economic and social ideology even though response options for the SDO and ideology measures were different. This may have contributed to the significant bivariate and multivariate relationship between general social ideology and SDO identified in the current study.

The current study relied on self-reports from participants to measure all variables such as political ideologies, social desirability, SDO, and cultural competence.

Respondents are likely to report themselves higher on positive traits and lower on negative traits. Social desirability, which predicted both the dependent variables, appears to support this conclusion and may have influenced the findings of this study.

The cross-sectional design of the study does not provide an opportunity to assess causal relationships between the variables under investigation. In addition, there were concerns that the use of an online survey with the possibility of having invalid or inactive email addresses, would substantially lower the response rate. While the latter was not a significant issue, the study had only a 12.1% response rate, substantially lower than the 30% for an internet survey indicated by Dillman et al. (2009). About one-third of email recipients opened the two emails that were sent; around 75% clicked the link for the survey after opening the first email, and around 50% clicked the link for the survey after opening the second email.

There is not enough public data available to determine if the findings of this study are generalizable to the NASW membership or the social work population in Oregon, other states and cities, or nationwide. There are similarities in gender and education between the sample and OBLSW members, but other important characteristics could not be compared. Likewise, there are some similarities in characteristics of gender, age, and experience with regular NASW members, yet some differences on education and race. However, this data from the NASW over 15 years old is outdated and no longer available online.

Strengths

One of the noteworthy strengths of this study was that it may be the first study to measure SDO in social work practitioners and to examine its relationship with various sociodemographic, practice-related, and political variables.

This study provided new evidence that ethnicity measured distinct from race, social desirability, political party affiliation, general social ideology, issue-based economic ideology predicted SDO. The current study also provided new evidence that highlights the relevance of the invariance hypothesis of social dominance theory to the social work profession. On the other hand, this study did not find a significant difference in SDO based on race, which is inconsistent with findings of other US studies featuring non-Asian racial minorities. Similarly, this study found that non-Hispanic/Latinos were lower in SDO than Hispanic/Latinos which may be contradictory to findings of prior studies. Suitable caution is being exercised here because methodological issues identified with prior studies on racial/ethnic comparisons may be unfounded. A useful approach of the current study was that race and ethnicity were measured and examined independently.

The current study also provided new evidence that age, race measured distinct from ethnicity, religious affiliation, education, cultural competence training, experience, practice setting, social work license, social work position, general economic ideology, and issue-based social ideology did not predict SDO.

Another noteworthy strength of this study is that it may be the first study to examine the relationship between SDO and cultural competence in social workers and examine the relationship of cultural competence with various poorly or not studied sociodemographic, practice-related, and political variables. This study provided

additional evidence that race and cultural competence training predicted cultural competence, whereas gender, education, and (social work) experience did not predict cultural competence. A very important finding of this study was that cultural competence training was the most significant predictor of cultural competence. This study offered new evidence that age, social desirability, general economic ideology, political party affiliation, and SDO predicted cultural competence.

This study also offered new evidence that ethnicity, religious affiliation, practice setting, social work license, social work position, general social ideology, issue-based economic and social ideology did not predict cultural competence.

A methodological strength of this study was measuring both general and issue-based economic and social ideology. An interesting finding was that respondents' general ideology did not match their issue-based ideology. Additionally, this may be one of the few studies that has tested the SECS in a sample that did not include either undergraduate students or professional survey takers. By using the SWCCSA, a measure developed in the field of social work, this study added to the knowledge base in the domain of measuring cultural competence in social workers. Lastly, the current study controlled for respondents' social desirability when examining the relationship between SDO, cultural competence, and other variables. Results showed that social desirability predicted both SDO and cultural competence thus supporting the argument that self-reports may be problematic because they do not solely measure the individual's actual behaviors or attitudes (Constantine & Ladany, 2002).

A major strength of the study was that it had sufficient power to identify the predictors of both SDO and cultural competence. Given the low response rate for online

surveys, the decision to select the entire OBLSW database for participation appears to have been beneficial.

Implications for Research

This study found that social workers were generally high in self-reported cultural competence and low in SDO. Social dominance theorists have suggested that law enforcement is a hierarchy-enhancing profession and attracts individuals that are high in SDO (Pratto et al., 2006). However, research by Sabir (2007) found that police officers were moderate in SDO (mean SDO score of 3.9 on a scale of 1-7). This may suggest that individuals in hierarchy enhancing professions such as law enforcement may not be high in SDO but may simply be higher in SDO as compared to other professions such as social workers. Sidanius and Pratto (1999) caution that their study samples comprised of normal populations and state that “extraordinarily high levels of SDO may not be necessary for the maintenance of group dominance” (p. 302). However, the lack of guidelines for interpreting total or mean SDO scores is problematic, especially in studies with no comparison groups. Thus, it is recommended that guidelines on how to interpret total or mean SDO scores be developed.

Findings from previous studies have raised concerns about the ability of some social work faculty, practitioners, and students adhere to the NASW’s Code of Ethics and implement the standards and indicators of cultural competence while working with clients who may have different values and beliefs than their own. Therefore, it may be helpful for future studies to provide social workers with real or symbolically threatening scenarios pertaining to social work practice or education to determine if SDO can be changed, as has been found with other groups. Levin (1996) found that SDO changes

depending upon the context; individuals with low SDO in one context can have high SDO under the perception of threat in a different context. Some studies have shown that members who identify more strongly with dominant groups exhibit higher SDO against non-members or outgroups in threatening conditions (Morrison & Ybarra, 2008, 2009). Morrison and Ybarra (2009) found that SDO can shift in directions consistent with protecting the in-group's identity. Specifically, they found that highly identifying Democrats had lower SDO levels under perceptions of threat whereas highly identifying Republicans had higher levels of SDO.

Social desirability was related to both cultural competence and SDO. Thus, it is possible that both these concepts may be influenced by social desirability. Future research using self-reports measures of SDO and cultural competence need to be conducted using the most reliable and valid scales available. Other approaches to measuring these variables, such as using observer or client-reports, could be used to that could be used to triangulate with these self-report scales would need to be developed. Moreover, measures of social desirability that are reliable and valid should be included as well. It may be helpful to further investigate and/or modify the SWCSSA to improve its validity as a measure of cultural competence in social workers or to use other reliable and more valid measures of cultural competence. Scores for respondents in the current study differed for general and issue-based (economic and social) ideology. Future studies interested in examining political ideology should measure both aspects of ideology using scales that capture issues relevant to the social work profession in the U.S

Another useful approach may be to assess race and ethnicity independently or to measure race in a more detailed manner as done by the US Census Bureau. The

identification of significant predictors of cultural competence including political ideology and political party affiliation needs to be further investigated by social work researchers. Conversely, the weak relationships and non-significant results in this study suggest that future studies must be conducted with samples with more demographic heterogeneity. More number of cultural competence training predicted higher cultural competence in social workers but the quality of these training programs or workshops was not examined. It is possible that social workers may perceive being more culturally competent simply because they completed more number of trainings. It may be useful for future studies to examine both the quantity and quality of cultural competence training completed by social workers.

Efforts should also be made to develop and implement a comprehensive cultural competence training program. While there is little research on using workshop-based interventions to enhance cultural competence, Williams (2005) designed and tested a four-session cultural competence workshop delivered over four weeks to social workers practicing in a mental healthcare setting. Each session was 3 hours long and targeted racial and ethnic diversity. The comparison group consisted of social workers who had access to clinical seminars, print and poster materials, diversity training, and in-service development activities relevant to all types of diversity. Post-intervention analysis found no differences between the intervention and comparison group even though the intervention group had larger improvements in scores on the awareness subscale of the measure of cultural competence. However, while the course content included various aspects of the NASW's standards and indicators, there was no content on ethics, empowering clients, social justice, advocacy, and agency-related issues. An

undergraduate semester-long social work course on diversity and cultural competence in social work practice required students to complete various coursework and assignments (Block, Rossi, Allen, Alschuler, & Wilson, 2016). One assignment included a reflective journal in which students were asked to write about one standard from the Code of Ethics which may potentially conflict with their own beliefs. Students were also asked to write about how they would apply their knowledge gained from the program to address a social justice issue relevant to their field placement or practice. The final course assignment required students to develop an action plan for developing cultural competence which needed to specify areas in need of improvement. An evaluation of the course post-semester found significant improvements in students' cultural competence scores with greater gains for students at rural community college campuses than students at the main urban campus. The above findings suggest that a more comprehensive curriculum in cultural competence training programs/workshops may be essential for any meaningful development or enhancement of cultural competence. While elements of the above intervention and course can be infused into cultural competence training programs/workshops, an ideal curriculum should incorporate all indicators if not all sub-indicators specified in the NASW's standards and indicators. It may also be helpful for trainers to use role-play during training programs/workshops wherein making mistakes, if any, while interacting with "clients" is seen as a normal part of the learning process aimed at enhancing competencies rather than something to be fearful or embarrassed about. An all-encompassing curriculum based on the NASW's standards and indicators may need to be delivered over a series of interconnected sessions so that previous

learning can be reinforced and serves as an expanding foundation for future learning and possibly increased competency.

The seven predictors of cultural competence accounted for only 26.9% of the variance in cultural competence. It may be helpful to examine if and how social workers birth or resident status (U.S. born or foreign born, or U.S. Citizen vs non-citizen) or national origin, socioeconomic status, life experience with diversity, effectiveness/quality of cultural competence training, caseload, social work license type, client characteristics, working alliance or shared decision-making, and organizational support including supervision received from a social work supervisor, informal supports at work, professional development opportunities, and care planning team meetings influence cultural competence. Research also needs to be conducted to determine if social workers undertake advocacy efforts on behalf of clients, and how this may influence their cultural competence. This would also help answer questions about whether the social work profession functions as an agent of social control.

Lastly, studies must be conducted with samples that represent populations of interest. The initial goal of this study was to survey members of the NASW. However, trying to procure the list of members from and work with the NASW's contractor's terms and conditions was unfeasible in terms of time, money, effort, and control. It may help for the NASW to rethink how it supports research in the field of social work as required by its very own Code of Ethics.

Implications for Education

This study found that social work education did not predict SDO or cultural competence. This finding may have been influenced by the poor variability in responses

for social work education and SDO. On the other hand, social desirability predicted both cultural competence and SDO, and therefore, it may be helpful to encourage discussions with social work students, faculty, and others in social work programs about the importance of being candid and mindful while relating to issues that may impact social work education and/or practice. Social work students, faculty, and others must be mindful that being older, white, espousing an overall conservative outlook on economic issues, or support for dominance or inequality may negatively impact cultural competence. Social work students, faculty, and others should take initiative in requesting, and social work programs should provide supports when requested or identified to help social work students and others address these concerns. Social work students, faculty, staff, and educational leaders must request for or be offered regular opportunities to discuss or reflect upon their own personal values, beliefs, biases, and attitudes, and how these could affect or may be affecting their working relationships with clients and provision of services. For students, these opportunities may be offered while meeting with field liaisons or academic advisors.

The review of literature for this dissertation identified two areas of concern pertaining to social work education. It is expected that social work students will learn to think independently and critically in the classroom if there exists an environment that encourages tolerance and open-minded dialogue (Galambos, 2009; Hansford et al., 2017). However, a number of studies found that social work educators who bear the primary responsibility for modeling tolerance and creating an environment that is conducive for learning, were themselves found to have biased opinions, and perpetrate negative treatment of those from religious backgrounds or having a different perspective (Flaherty

et al. 2013; Hansford et al., 2017; Ressler & Hodge, 2000). In fact, faculty were the most frequently reported perpetrator of negative treatment (Ressler & Hodge, 2000). In addition, research indicate that either no or inadequate content on religion is available during social work training and education (Furman et al., 2005; Ressler & Hodge, 2000). Furman et al. reported that about 75% of social workers in UK (N = 789) and US (N = 2069) did not receive content on religion or spirituality in their social work programs. This finding suggests that content on religious and nonreligious spirituality should become part of the BSW/MSW training. This training could be added to current diversity and/or cultural competence education, which could provide social workers with the necessary skills to be applied in a variety of practice settings and would assist them in interacting with clients, social workers, and others who differ from them in religion, gender, race, political views, etc. Liberal bias in course materials was another area of concern (Hansford et al., 2017). These studies suggest that social work program administrators need to critically evaluate the competency of faculty, content in curricula including the need for required or elective courses on religion and spirituality, and effectiveness of programs, and make necessary changes to ensure that social workers are well-prepared to work with most oppressed populations.

Implications for Practice

This study found that social workers were generally high in self-reported cultural competence and low in SDO. However, social desirability predicted both cultural competence and SDO, and it is likely that social workers reported higher scores of cultural competence and being anti-dominance and pro-equality to look more favorable. It is also likely that social workers simply overestimated their cultural competence as has

been found by Fuertes et al. (2006) in a study of therapists. Therefore, it may be helpful to encourage discussions with social work practitioners and others about the importance of being candid and mindful while relating to issues that may negatively impact their practice.

Social work practitioners, supervisors, and agency managers must be mindful that being older, white, espousing an overall conservative outlook on economic issues, or support for dominance of one group over others may negatively impact cultural competence. Prior research evidence for conflict among social workers and between social workers and clients suggests that differences in political ideology, religious affiliation, and political party affiliation between social workers and clients has the potential to create a strain in a relationship especially since social workers have a more dominant status as compared to their clients (i.e., power imbalance). Live supervision is rarely offered in practice settings and therefore there is potential for social workers to abuse this power imbalance. However, if services provided by agencies and social workers are constrained because of the political hierarchy of social services agency, then supervision, live or otherwise, is unlikely to ameliorate the quality of interaction between social workers and clients. Nevertheless, social workers should request, and agency managers should provide supports when requested or identified to help social workers address these concerns. Social workers must request for or be offered other regular opportunities to discuss or reflect upon their own personal values, beliefs, biases, and attitudes, and how these could affect or may be affecting their working relationships with clients and provision of services.

While this study did not provide evidence that social workers challenged oppressive structures and hierarchies on behalf of clients or that they served as agents of social control, the finding of a negative relationship between the SDO and cultural competence is problematic because it suggests that social workers high in SDO may struggle in implementing the NASW's standards and indicators of cultural competence which may impact how they work with and serve clients. This may further suggest an unwillingness or failure to advocate on behalf of clients at the micro, meso, and/or macro levels of practice. local, state, and/or national levels which, in essence, may result in the maintenance of the status quo. Reisch and Jani (2012) suggest that lack of understanding about the relationship between politics and practice inhibits social workers from challenging status quos thus helping in the maintenance of institutional power differentials. However, a major finding of this study was that cultural competence training was the most important predictor of cultural competence, and therefore social workers, supervisors, and administrators must use regular training as a means of providing enhanced culturally competent services to their clients.

Despite challenges in measuring cultural competence, social work supervisors and administrators should implement the NASW's Standards and Indicators. These standards can be used to critically evaluate the cultural competency of their staff and agencies and will allow for the identification areas of that are strengths and deficits, which may lead to positive changes. Collaborating with social work programs which may have human, if not financial resources, to evaluate employee and agency cultural competency may be a useful strategy. Social work practitioners, educators, students, leaders, scholars, and organizations must ensure that their most important priority are clients, especially

oppressed groups that do not have a voice in the political hierarchy of social services. A higher degree of commitment to clients and increased advocacy is required to change the status-quo.

Conclusion

The goal of this study was to introduce Social Dominance Theory to the social work profession, test some of its assumptions, examine if social workers political ideology, religious and political affiliation influence their perceptions of cultural competence, and fill other gaps in the knowledge base of cultural competence. This study found some evidence to show that social workers were low in SDO, which provide some support the invariance hypothesis of social dominance theory, but findings on racial or ethnic differences were inconsistent with previous research. Social workers in this study were found to be high in cultural competence. However, in addition to other variables, political party affiliation and political ideology predicted SDO whereas all the three variables predicted cultural competence. Prior evidence about conflict among social workers and between social workers and clients suggests the likelihood that differences in political party affiliation and/or political ideology between social workers and clients is likely to influence their relationship and potentially the social worker's level of cultural competence.

Appendix A

Email Requests, Consent Process, and Survey

1st Email



Dear Social Worker,

I am a social work doctoral candidate conducting a study to examine the relationship between various factors including political ideology, political party affiliation, religious affiliation, social dominance orientation, and cultural competence. If you are interested in participating in this study and/or need additional information, then please click the link below.

[Survey of Social Workers](#)

Thank you.

Naeem Shaikh, MSW
University of Maryland School of Social Work
[525 W Redwood St](#)
[Baltimore MD 21201 USA](#)
nshaikh@sww.umaryland.edu

2nd Email (Reminder)

Dear social worker,

About 2 weeks ago, you received an email requesting your participation in my dissertation study which seeks to examine the relationship between various factors including political ideology, political party affiliation, religious affiliation, social dominance orientation, and cultural competence. If you have already completed the survey and submitted your responses, thank you for your participation (If you had reached the section regarding the drawing for the gift cards after all the questions/items in the survey, then your responses were submitted, and nothing more needs to be done).

*If you have not yet started the online survey, then I would like to extend a reminder to you that you are still able to do so. To participate in the online survey, please click the link below for additional information and instructions. You have about 10 days to complete the survey.

** Please note that if you previously began the online survey but have not yet completed it, then you may simply click on the link below to be taken to the point in the survey at which you left off. Remember, you can also go back to previous questions irrespective of whether or not they were answered. However, you may have only 1-2 days to complete and submit your responses otherwise the survey software will automatically record the responses from your unfinished survey. So please take a few minutes to complete the survey by clicking the link below.

In appreciation of your time and effort to complete this survey, we are conducting a drawing of interested participants to win one of the twenty-five \$25 gift cards. If you wish to enter the drawing, then upon ending the survey you will be directed to another page to provide us with your email address. Please note that your responses to the survey questions cannot be linked to your email or IP address.

To participate in the online survey, please click on the following link:

Survey of Social Workers

Thank you.

Naeem Shaikh, MSW
University of Maryland School of Social Work
525 W Redwood St
Baltimore MD 21201 USA
nshaikh@ssw.umaryland.edu

Consent Process

Dear social worker,

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this study which seeks to examine the relationship between various factors including political ideology, political party affiliation, religious affiliation, social dominance orientation, and cultural competence.

Your participation in this research study is completely voluntary, and you will be asked to complete only one online survey. You have the right to withdraw at any time or refuse to participate entirely without any risk to you. If you desire to withdraw from the study after providing consent, then you can do so by simply closing your internet browser, and ignoring the reminder email that you will receive in 2 weeks requesting you to complete the study.

You will not directly benefit from participating in this study. However, your responses will help us to better understand the relationships between political ideology, political party affiliation, religious affiliation, social dominance orientation, and cultural competence. This study will use Qualtrics, a web-based software program that enables online distribution of survey questionnaires for data collection. We have selected the option for Qualtrics to disable the tracking of participants' IP and email addresses. Therefore, your responses will be anonymous, and will not be associated with you, your email address, or any other personal identifying information.

IMPORTANT SURVEY INSTRUCTIONS:

We would like you to answer all of the questions; however, you may skip any questions that you do not want to answer. Your responses are automatically saved after each and every response, and you can come back to complete the survey on the same device (laptop, computer, tablet, etc.) within 2 weeks of your last attempt. **Please note that as long as the survey has NOT been submitted,** you can start where you left off during your last attempt, or go back to a previously answered question to edit your response, or go back to an unanswered question to enter a response. Please make sure that you do not delete cookies for the survey or your history (in internet options) to ensure that you can complete the survey without any problems. Once the survey has been submitted, you cannot access the survey questionnaire again. You will also receive a reminder email to participate in this study. Kindly ignore that email if you have already completed the survey.

In appreciation of your time and effort to complete this survey, we are conducting a drawing of interested participants to win one of twenty-five \$25 gift cards. If you wish to enter the drawing, then at the end of this survey you will be directed to another survey to provide us with your email address. Please note that your email address cannot be linked to your original survey responses. The draw will be held in late 2017, and if you are a winner, then I will request you by email for your name and postal address in order to send you the gift card. Remember, your personal information cannot be linked to your survey responses. In lieu of receiving the gift card, you will have the option of requesting that an equal amount (\$25) be donated to one of these five organizations: the NASW, ASPCA, American Red Cross, Goodwill Stores, or the local Food Bank.

You can access the Qualtrics-created online survey questionnaire after you provide consent to participate in the study on the next page. Please complete the survey today in a quiet, private location. The questions should only take about 20 minutes to complete. It is anticipated that the results of the study will be available in the summer of 2018. Please feel free to email me for more information about the results. If you have any questions about this survey, then please contact Dr. Bruce DeForge at 410-706-5612 or bdeforge@ssw.umaryland.edu.

This study has been reviewed by the University of Maryland, Baltimore Institutional Review Board. If you have questions, concerns, complaints, or believe you have been harmed through participation in this research study as a result of researcher negligence, then you can contact members of the IRB or the staff of the Human Research Protections Office (HRPO) to ask questions, discuss problems or concerns, obtain information, or offer input about your rights as a research participant. The contact information for the IRB and the HRPO is:

University of Maryland School of Medicine
Human Research Protections Office
Lexington Building
620 West Lexington Street, Second Floor.
Baltimore, MD 21201
410-706-5037

Sincerely,
Naeem Shaikh, MSW
Doctoral Candidate
University of Maryland School of Social Work
525 W Redwood St
Baltimore MD 21201 USA
nshaikh@ssw.umaryland.edu

By clicking “Yes”, you are indicating that you are 18 years old or older, that you understand the consent form, and that you agree to participate in the study.

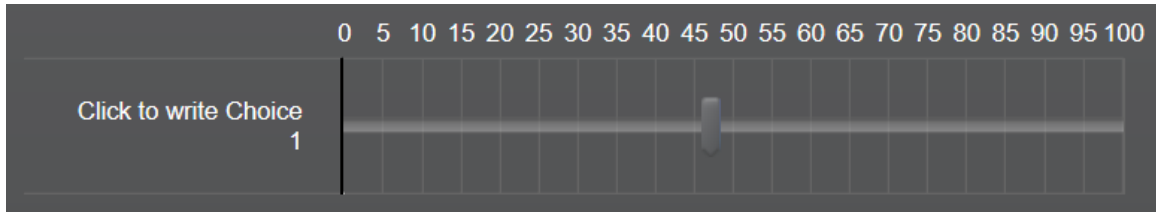
- Yes
- No

Survey

Q1.

What is your age?

(Move the slider below to the relevant answer - you can also see answer options to the right of the slider as you move it. If using a mouse, left click on the slider to move it)



0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75 80 85 90 95 100

Click to write Choice 1

Q2.

What is your gender?

- Female
- Male
- Other

Q3.

Your race? Choose more than one option if applicable.

- American Indian or Alaska Native
- Asian
- Black or African American
- Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- White

Q4.

Your ethnicity is:

- Hispanic/Latino
- non Hispanic/Latino

Q5.

What is your religious preference?

- Buddhist
- Catholic

- Hindu
- Jewish
- Muslim
- Protestant
- Other
- None

Q6.
What is your highest social work degree?

- Bachelors
- Masters
- Doctorate
- None/Other

Q7.
How many **years** of paid social work experience have you had after earning your **first** social work degree?
(Move the slider below to the relevant answer - you can also see answer options to the right of the slider as you move it. If using a mouse, left click on the slider to move it)

0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75 80 85 90 95 100

Years of paid social work experience

Q8.
What is your current primary social work position?

- Direct Practitioner
- Supervisor
- Administrator
- Other

Q9.
Specify your current work setting (choose all that apply)

- Agency
- Educational
- Healthcare
- Private Practice
- Other

Q10.
Have you ever possessed a social work license?

- Yes
- No

Q11.
How many workshops or trainings related to multicultural counseling or cultural competence have you attended? Please **do not** include academic courses related to this content.

(Move the slider below to the relevant answer - you can also see answer options to the right of the slider as you move it. If using a mouse, left click on the slider to move it)

Q12. Please indicate your response to the following items

- | | False | True |
|--|----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged | <input checked="" type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 2. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 3. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 4. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 5. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 6. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 7. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

- | | False | True |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 8. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 9. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 10. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 11. There have times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 12. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 13. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Q13.

Generally speaking, do you think of yourself as a Republican, Democrat, Independent, or what?

	Strong Democrat	Not Strong Democrat	Independent, Near Democrat	Independent	Independent, Near Republican	Not Strong Republican	Strong Republican	Other Party
Your response	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q14.

Regarding your

	very liberal	liberal	moderate-liberal	moderate	moderate-conservative	conservative	very conservative
Ideology on various economic issues, with which of the following options do you most strongly identify with?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ideology on various social issues, with which of the following options do you most strongly identify with?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q15.

Please indicate the extent to which you disapprove or approve each of the following issues.

1 indicates greater disapproval

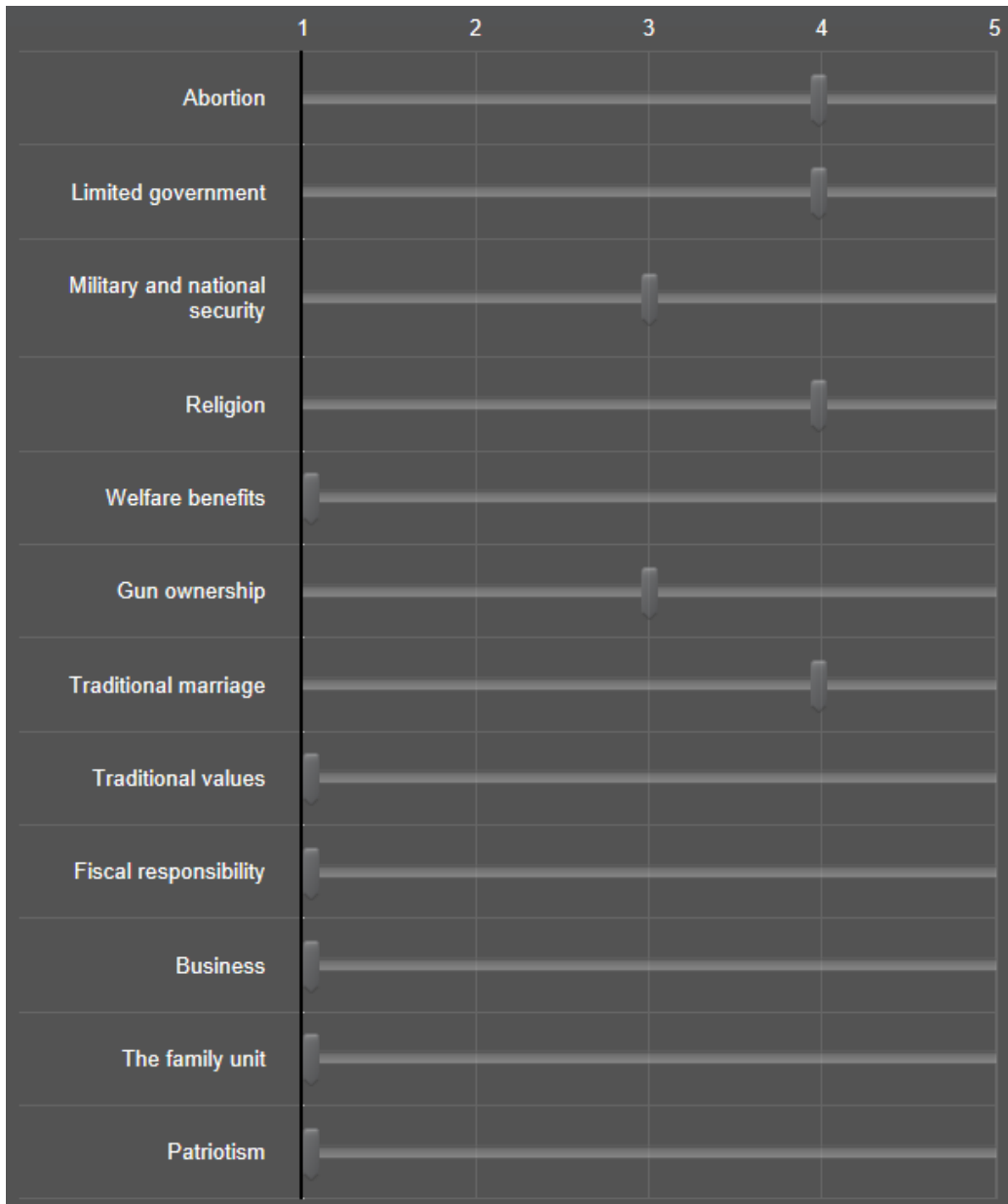
2 indicates some disapproval

3 indicates that you feel neutral about the issue.

4 indicates some approval

5 indicates greater approval.

(Move the slider below to the relevant answer - you can also see answer options to the right of the slider as you move it. If using a mouse, left click on the slider to move it)



Q16.

Please indicate your response to the following items

	1 - Do not agree at all	2	3	4	5	6	7 - Strongly Agree
1. Some groups of people are simply not the equals of others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Some people are just more worthy than others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. This country would be better off if we cared less about how equal all people were	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Some people are just more deserving than others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. It is not a problem if some people have more of a chance in life than others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Some people are just inferior to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Increased economic equality	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Increased social equality	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Equality	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. If people were treated more equally we would have fewer problems in this country	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. In an ideal world, all nations would be equal	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. We should try to treat one another as equals as much as possible	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. It is important that we treat other countries as equals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q17. Please indicate your response to the following items

	Unlikely	Not very likely	Likely	Definitely
1. I am aware of my life experiences as a person related to a culture (e.g., family heritage, household and community events, beliefs, and practices).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. I have contact with other cultural and ethnic individuals, families, and groups.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. I am aware of positive and negative experiences with cultural and ethnic people and events.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. I know how to evaluate my cognitive, affective, and behavioral experiences and reactions to racism, prejudice, and discrimination.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. I have assessed my involvement with cultural and ethnic people of color in childhood, adolescence, young adulthood, and adulthood.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. I understand such terms as positionality, intersectionality, and the dialogic self.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. I have had or plan to have professional employment experiences with culturally diverse clients and programs.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. I have assessed or plan to assess my academic and professional work experiences with cultural diversity and culturally diverse clients.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. I understand the following terms: critical thinking, identity development, social constructionism, and marginalization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. I have developed a critical thinking perspective on cultural diversity.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. I know about knowledge theories related to cultural competence.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. I understand the history of oppression and multicultural social group history.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. I know about culturally diverse values.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. I understand how to overcome the resistance and lower the communication barriers of a multicultural client.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. I know how to obtain personal and family background information from a multicultural client and determine the client's ethnic/community sense of identity.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. I understand the concepts of ethnic community and practice relationship protocols with a multicultural client.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. I use professional self-disclosure with a multicultural client.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18. I have a positive and open communication style and use open-ended listening responses.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19. I know how to obtain problem information, facilitate problem area disclosure, and promote problem understanding.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20. I view a problem as an unsatisfied want or an unfulfilled need.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
21. I know how to explain problems on micro, meso, and macro levels.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Unlikely	Not very likely	Likely	Definitely
22. I know how to explain problem themes (racism, prejudice, discrimination) and expressions (oppression, powerlessness, stereotyping, acculturation, and exploitation).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23. I know how to find out about problem details.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24. I know how to assess socio-environmental impacts, psycho-individual reactions, and cultural strengths.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
25. I know how to assess the biological, psychological, social, cultural, and spiritual dimensions of a multicultural client.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
26. I know how to establish joint goals and agreements with the client that are culturally acceptable.	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
27. I know how to formulate micro, meso, and macro intervention strategies that address the cultural needs of the client and special needs populations such as immigrants and refugees.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
28. I know how to begin the evaluation phase which links the client to ethnic community resources, reviews significant progress and growth development, evaluates goal outcomes, and establishes a follow-up strategy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
29. I know how to design a service delivery and agency linkage and culturally effective social service programs in ethnic communities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
30. I have been involved in services that have been accessible to the ethnic community.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
31. I have participated in delivering pragmatic and positive services that meet the tangible needs of the ethnic community.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
32. I have observed the effectiveness of bilingual/bicultural workers who reflect the ethnic composition of the clientele.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
33. I have participated in community outreach education and prevention that establish visible services, provide culturally sensitive programs, and employ credible staff.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
34. I have been involved in a service linkage network to related social agencies that ensures rapid referral and program collaboration.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
35. I have participated as a staff member in fostering a conducive agency setting with an atmosphere that is friendly and helpful to multicultural clients.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
36. I am involved or plan to be involved with cultural skill development research in areas related to cultural empathy, clinical alliance, goal-obtaining styles, achieving styles, practice skills, and outcome research.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Survey Completion

0% 100%

<<

>>

PLEASE READ THIS PAGE VERY CAREFULLY

This is the last page of the survey.

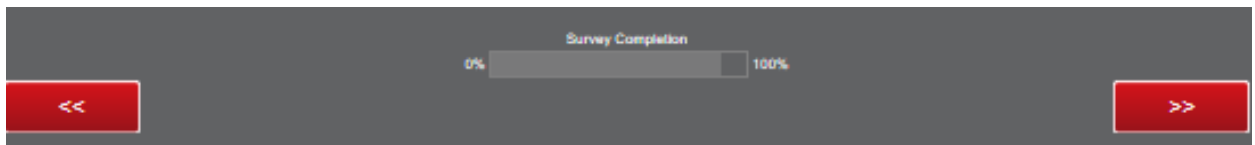
If you have completed the survey, and wish to submit your responses, then please click the next page >> option. Please note that once you choose this option, then your responses to the survey will be recorded, and you will not be able to access the survey again.

Remember, you have the option of going back to the previous sections of the survey by simply clicking the previous page << option.

Once you submit your responses, you will be provided with the option of providing your email address to participate in a draw to win one of twenty-five \$25 gift cards. Please bear in mind, that your email address cannot be linked to this survey or to your responses.

If you win a gift card, then I will need your postal address to send you the gift card. Your postal address will be requested for later - please do not provide it now. In lieu of receiving the gift card, you have the option of requesting that an equal amount (\$25) be donated to one of these five organizations: the NASW, ASPCA, American Red Cross, Goodwill Stores, or the local Food Bank.

Thank you for your participation!



Participation Information for Raffle/Draw


To participate in a draw to win one of twenty-five \$25 gift cards, please enter **only** your email address in the space provided below.

The draw will be held in the latter part of 2017. Only winners of the gift cards will be notified via email, and requested for their postal address for the purpose of sending the gift card. Your postal address will not be required if as one of the winners, you choose to donate an equal amount (\$25) to the NASW, ASPCA, American Red Cross, Goodwill Stores, or the local Food Bank.

Remember, your responses in this survey are completely anonymous, and your email address cannot be linked to your responses in the survey.

Thank you for your participation!





UNIVERSITY of MARYLAND
SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

We thank you for your time spent taking this survey.
Your response has been recorded.

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix B

Pre-imputation descriptive data of the sample (N = 497).

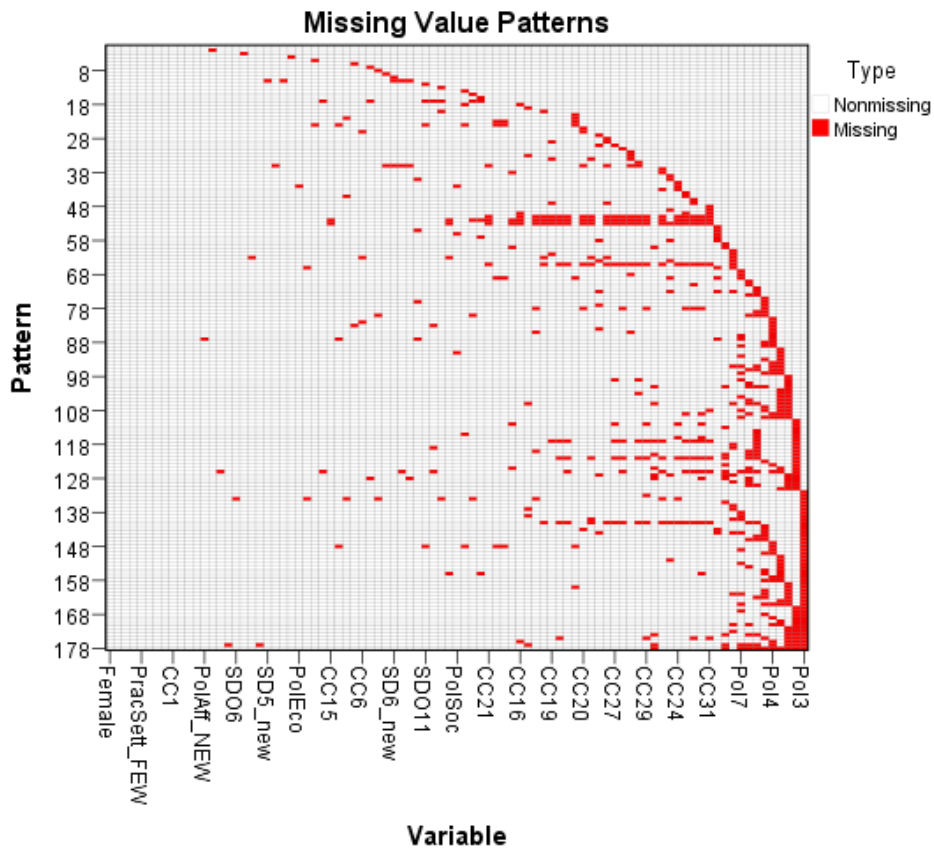
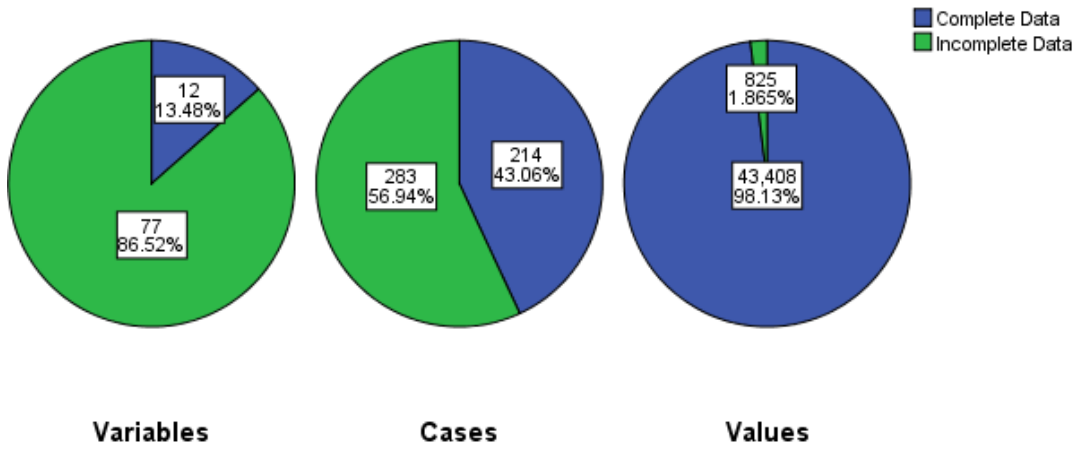
	<i>n</i>	%	Missing	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Socio-demographic Variables					
Age	470	94.6	27	49.8	13.2
Ethnicity	482	97.0	15		
Hispanic/Latino	20	4.0			
Non-Hispanic/Latino	460	92.6			
Both	2	.4			
Gender	497	100.0	-		
Female	391	78.7			
Male	103	20.7			
Other	3	0.6			
Race*	493	99.2	4		
Other	31	6.6			
White	462	93.0			
Religious Affiliation*	497	100.0	-		
Buddhist	34	6.8			
Catholic	36	7.2			
Hindu	1	0.2			
Jewish	26	5.2			
Protestant	86	17.3			
Other	101	20.3			
None	213	42.9			
Social Desirability	487	98.0	10	7.5	2.8
Practice Variables					
Cultural Competence Training	484	97.4	13	9.8	9.5
Education	497	100.0	-		
Bachelors	4	0.8			
Masters	485	97.6			
Doctorate	8	1.6			
Work Experience (In Years)	487	98.0	10	17.7	12.3
Social Work License	496	99.8	1		
No	29	5.8			
Yes	467	94.0			
Practice Setting**	497	100.0	-		
Agency	102	20.5			
Healthcare	178	35.8			
Private Practice	85	17.1			
Other Setting	69	13.9			

Mixed Setting	63	12.7			
Primary Social Work Position	497	100.0	-		
Direct Practitioner	364	73.2			
Supervisor	52	10.5			
Administrator	29	5.8			
Other Position	52	10.5			
Political Variables					
Overall Economic Ideology	496	99.8	1	2.4	1.3
Overall Social Ideology	493	99.2	4	1.8	1.2
I-Based Economic Ideology	402	80.9	95	13.6	3.3
I-Based Social Ideology	325	65.4	172	19.9	5.7
Political Party Affiliation	496	99.8	1		
Strong Democrat	268	53.9			
Not Strong Democrat	59	11.9			
Independent, Near Democrat	92	18.5			
Independent	41	8.2			
Independent, Near Republican	8	1.6			
Not Strong Republican	9	1.8			
Strong Republican	3	0.6			
Other Party	16	3.2			
SDO	477	96.0	20	21.7	9.7
Cultural Competence	423	85.1	74	117.4	16.4

Appendix C

Missing Data/Value Analysis

Overall Summary of Missing Values



Appendix D

Descriptive data with dummy variables pre-imputation and post-imputation

	Pre-Imputation				Post-Imputation			
	n	%	M	SD	n	%	M	SD
Socio-demographic Variables								
Age	470	94.6	49.8	13.2	497	100.0	49.9	13.1
Ethnicity	482	97.0			497	100.0		
Hispanic/Latino or Both (0)	22	4.4			29	5.8		
Non-Hispanic/Latino (1)	460	92.6			468	94.2		
Gender	497	100.0			497	100.0		
Male/Other (0)	106	21.3			106	21.3		
Female (1)	391	78.7			391	78.7		
Race	493	99.2			497	100.0		
Other (0)	31	6.6			33	6.6		
White (1)	462	93.0			464	93.4		
Religious Affiliation					497	100.0		
Buddhist	34	6.8			34	6.8		
Catholic	36	7.2			36	7.2		
Jewish	26	5.2			26	5.2		
Protestant	86	17.3			86	17.3		
Other	102	20.5			102	20.5		
None*	213	42.9			213	42.9		
Social Desirability	487	98.0	7.5	2.8	497	100.0	7.5	2.8
Practice Variables								
Cultural Competence Training	484	97.4	9.8	9.5	497	100.0	10.0	9.4
Education	497	100.0			497	100.0		
Bachelors/Doctorate	12	2.4			12	2.4		
Masters	485	97.6			485	97.6		
Work Experience (In Years)	487	98.0	17.7	12.3	497	100.0	17.9	12.3
Social Work License	496	99.8			496	99.8		
No (0)	29	5.8			29	5.8		
Yes (1)	467	94.0			467	94.0		
Practice Setting	497	100.0			497	100.0		
Agency*	102	20.5			102	20.5		
Healthcare	178	35.8			178	35.8		
Private Practice	85	17.1			85	17.1		
Other Setting	69	13.9			69	13.9		
Mixed Setting	63	12.7			63	12.7		
Primary Social Work Position	497	100.0			497	100.0		
Direct Practitioner*	364	73.2			364	73.2		
Supervisor	52	10.5			52	10.5		

Administrator	29	5.8			29	5.8		
Other Position	52	10.5			52	10.5		
Political Variables								
Overall Economic Ideology	496	99.8	2.4	1.3	497	100.0	2.4	1.3
Overall Social Ideology	493	99.2	1.8	1.2	497	100.0	1.8	1.2
I-Based Economic Ideology	402	80.9	13.6	3.3	497	100.0	13.6	3.2
I-Based Social Ideology	325	65.4	19.9	5.7	497	100.0	19.4	5.3
Political Party Affiliation	496	99.8			497	100.0		
Strong Democrat*	268	53.9			268	53.9		
Not Strong Democrat	59	11.9			60	12.1		
Independent, Near Democrat	92	18.5			92	18.5		
Independent	41	8.2			41	8.2		
Republican or Other Party	36	7.2			36	7.2		
SDO	477	96.0	21.7	9.7	497	100.0	21.8	9.8
Cultural Competence	423	85.1	117.4	16.4	497	100.0	117.5	16.3

* Reference group for the variable

Appendix E

Results of Tests of Normality and Homogeneity of Variance: SDO and Categorical Variables

	<i>Pre-Imputation/Transformation</i>					<i>Post-Imputation/Transformation</i>					
	<i>Shapiro-Wilk</i>		<i>z-score</i>	<i>HOV</i>		<i>Shapiro-Wilk</i>		<i>z-score</i>	<i>HOV</i>		
	<i>n</i>	<i>Sig</i>	<i>Skew</i>	<i>Kurt</i>	<i>Sig</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Sig</i>	<i>Skew Value</i>	<i>Skew</i>	<i>Kurt</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Ethnicity	465				.579						.575
Hispanic/Latino or Both	22	.004	2.50	0.90		29	.134	-0.00	0.00	-1.24	
Non-Hispanic/Latino*	443	.000	16.06	14.74		468	.000	-0.52	-4.57	-4.05	
Gender	477				.000						.003
Male/Other	103	.000	4.17	0.15		106	.000	0.01	0.03	-2.99	
Female**	374	.000	17.41	20.97		391	.000	-0.61	-4.94	-2.79	
Race	474				.186						.192
Other	30	.000	3.94	2.47		33	.002	-0.71	-1.72	-0.89	
White*	444	.000	15.61	13.44		464	.000	-0.47	-4.13	-4.25	
Religious affiliation	477				.041						.045
Buddhist	33	.000	2.73	0.74		34	.000	-.46	-1.13	-1.82	
Catholic	36	.000	4.15	2.83		36	.046	-.16	-0.42	-1.22	
Jewish	24	.000	4.02	3.58		26	.087	-.52	-1.13	0.10	
Protestant	81	.000	5.81	3.80		86	.000	-.20	-0.77	-2.37	
Other	98	.000	8.07	7.88		102	.000	-.52	-2.18	-1.92	
None††	205	.000	10.58	8.56		213	.000	-.64	-3.85	-2.25	
Education	477				.601						.736
Bachelors or Doctorate	11	.000	3.82	5.59		12	.492	-0.41	-0.64	-0.66	
Masters*	466	.000	15.91	13.60		485	.000	-0.48	-4.36	-4.29	
Social Work License	476				.175	496					.304
No	28	.000	3.32	2.02		29	.040	-0.41	-0.94	-1.04	
Yes*	448	.000	15.97	13.96		467	.000	-0.49	-4.32	-4.20	
Practice Setting	477				.619						.612
Agency	101	.000	7.61	7.08		102	.000	-.60	-2.52	-1.67	
Healthcare	173	.000	10.86	11.15		178	.000	-.50	-2.77	-2.53	
Private Practice	79	.000	7.28	6.46		85	.000	-.62	-2.39	-1.27	
Other Setting	65	.000	5.35	5.19		69	.000	-.15	-0.52	-2.17	
Mixed Setting	59	.000	4.33	1.30		63	.000	-.44	-1.45	-1.88	
Prim. Social Work Position	477				.159						.187
Direct Practitioner*	350	.000	14.40	13.44		364	.000	-.52	-4.05	-3.62	
Supervisor	50	.000	6.17	6.76		52	.000	-.72	-2.19	-0.63	
Administrator	29	.000	4.83	6.28		29	.063	-.32	-0.73	-0.76	
Other Position	48	.000	3.90	1.64		52	.001	-.11	-0.34	-2.02	
Political Party Affiliation	477				.000						.031
Strong Democrat††	257	.000	14.65	19.67		268	.000	-.64	-4.29	-1.99	

Not Strong Democrat	57	.000	16.48	10.84	60	.000	-.88	-2.84	-0.10
Independent, Near Democrat	89	.000	5.85	4.25	92	.000	-.30	-1.19	-2.37
Independent	39	.003	2.13	-0.38	41	.022	.21	0.56	-1.65
Republican or Other Party	35	.013	1.44	-0.92	36	.001	.49	1.25	-1.60

* Assumption of normality was not violated pre-imputation/transformation as the absolute skew values were < 2 (n > 300), i.e., 1.863 for Non-Hispanic/Latino, 1.811 for White, 1.798 for Education (Masters), 1.836 for Social work license (Yes), and 1.872 for Direct Practitioner.

** Assumption of normality violated pre-imputation/transformation as the absolute skew values were > 2 (n > 300), i.e., 2.194 for Female.

†† Assumption of normality was violated post-imputation/transformation as the absolute skew values were > 3.29 (49 < n < 301)

Appendix F

Results of Tests of Normality and Homogeneity of Variance: Cultural Competence and Categorical variables

	<i>Pre-Imputation/Transformation</i>					<i>Post-Imputation/Transformation</i>						
	Shapiro-Wilk		z-score		HOV	Shapiro-Wilk		z-score			HOV	
	n	Sig	Skew	Kurt	Sig	n	Sig	Skew Value	Skew	Kurt	Sig	
Ethnicity					.102							.536
Hispanic/Latino or Both	21	.441	0.42	-0.73		29	.190	-0.48	-1.11	-0.66		
Non-Hispanic/Latino*	389	.000	-4.36	0.51		468	.000	-0.30	-2.61	-1.57		
Gender					.219							.094
Male/Other†	97	.003	-3.32	2.80		106	.088	-0.37	-1.55	0.92		
Female*	326	.000	-3.40	-0.72		391	.000	-0.29	-2.38	-2.08		
Race					.402							.698
Other†	27	.005	-2.44	0.55		33	.243	0.15	0.36	-0.74		
White*	392	.000	-4.24	0.81		464	.000	-0.32	-2.84	-1.33		
Religious affiliation	423				.008							.337
Buddhist	26	.481	-0.83	-0.34		34	.202	-0.36	-0.89	-0.88		
Catholic	32	.610	-0.35	-0.72		36	.085	-0.58	-1.49	-0.63		
Jewish	17	.126	-0.68	-1.16		26	.253	-0.50	-1.09	-0.69		
Protestant	77	.033	-2.01	-0.46		86	.411	-0.20	-0.78	-0.88		
Other	86	.063	-0.25	-1.82		102	.003	-0.57	-2.39	-0.67		
None†	185	.000	-3.50	1.71		213	.012	-0.28	-1.66	-0.63		
Education					.069							.139
Bachelors or Doctorate	10	.132	-0.14	-1.40		12	.444	-0.35	-0.55	-0.53		
Masters*	413	.000	-4.28	0.44		485	.000	-0.33	-2.99	-1.54		
Social Work License					.428	496						.459
No	25	.555	0.52	0.79		29	.014	-1.09	-2.51	1.34		
Yes*	397	.000	-4.60	0.67		467	.000	-0.28	-2.46	-1.76		
Practice Setting					.245							.187
Agency	92	.019	-2.39	0.09		102	.730	-0.22	-0.90	-0.28		
Healthcare	145	.001	-2.15	-1.32		178	.006	-0.30	-1.66	-1.76		
Private Practice	78	.041	-1.65	0.57		85	.052	-0.42	-1.60	-0.29		
Other Setting	53	.209	-1.15	0.27		69	.018	-0.45	-1.56	-0.63		
Mixed Setting	55	.120	-1.79	0.89		63	.458	-0.28	-0.91	-0.19		
Prim. Social Work Position					.029							.354
Direct Practitioner*	312	.000	-3.33	0.11		364	.000	-0.32	-2.51	-1.71		
Supervisor	47	.180	-1.01	-0.97		52	.308	-0.40	-1.21	-0.27		
Administrator	24	.714	-0.91	0.36		29	.230	-0.65	-1.49	0.90		
Other Position	40	.395	-0.98	-0.65		52	.253	-0.43	-1.29	-0.60		
Political Party Affiliation	422				.102							.227

Strong Democrat†	222	.000	-3.59	0.81	268	.005	-0.23	-1.56	-1.66
Not Strong Democrat	54	.532	-0.25	-0.86	60	.013	-0.66	-2.13	-0.27
Independent, Near Democrat	83	.208	-1.76	0.40	92	.087	-0.49	-1.93	0.44
Independent	32	.363	-0.60	-0.25	41	.059	-0.58	-1.58	-0.40
Republican or Other Party†	31	.011	-2.85	2.11	36	.501	0.24	0.62	-0.17

* Assumption of normality was not violated pre-imputation/transformation as the absolute skew values were < 2 (n > 300), i.e., .540 for Non-Hispanic/Latino, .458 for Female, .522 for White, .514 for Education (Masters), .561 for Social work license (Yes), and .459 for Direct Practitioner.

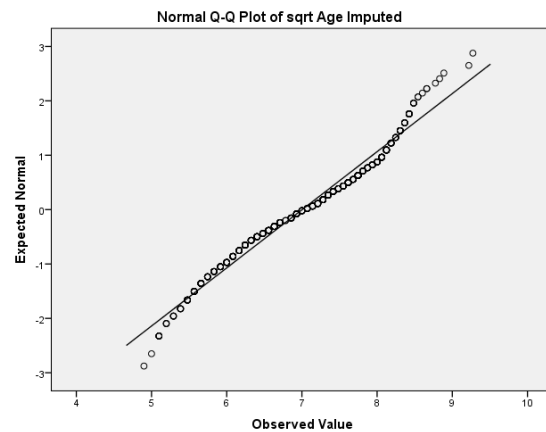
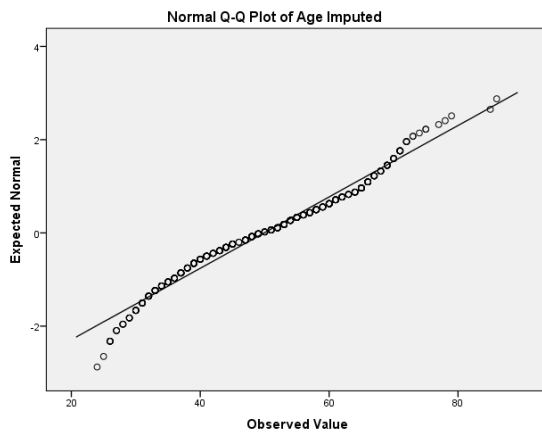
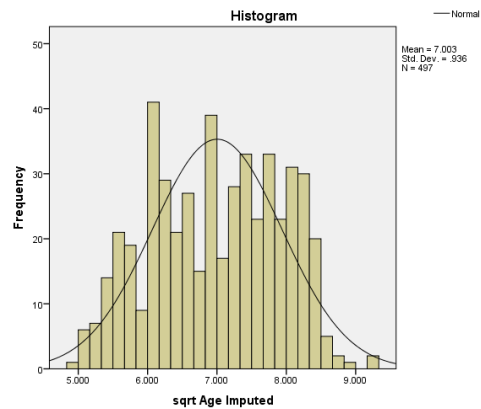
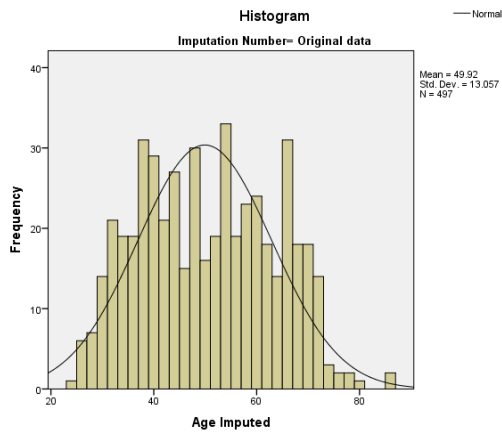
† Assumption of normality violated pre-imputation/transformation.

Appendix G

Transformations of Continuous Variables

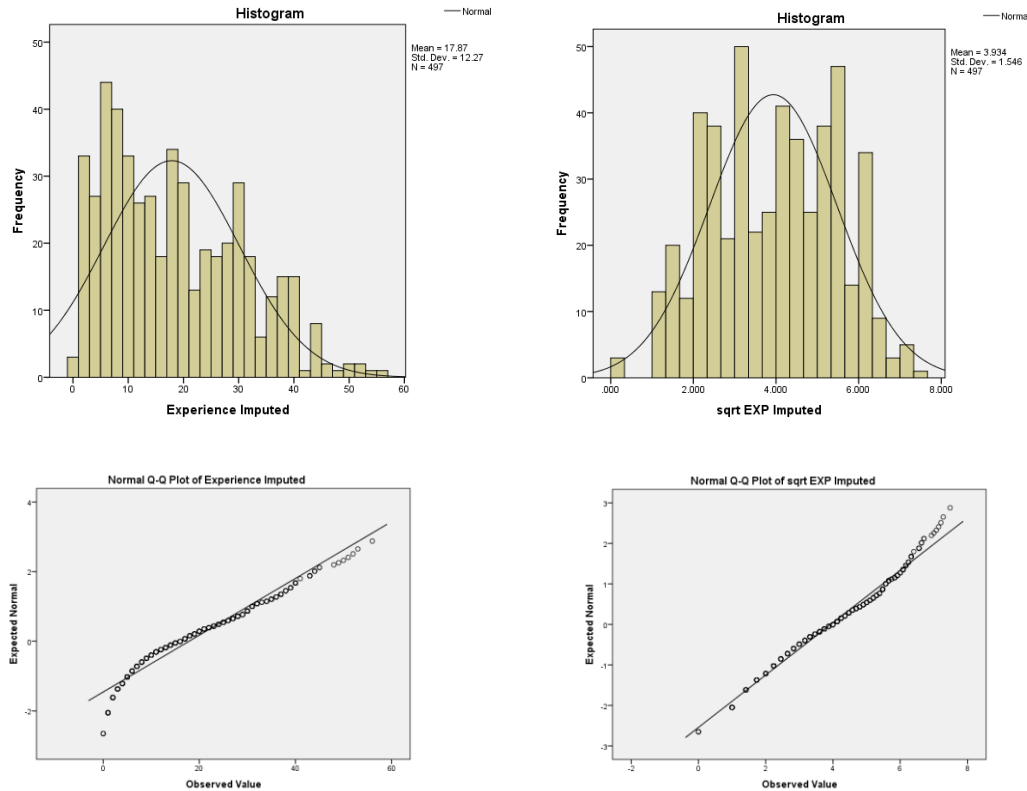
Transformations for Age

The untransformed variable of age (Age_Imputed) was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality as were square root, log, inverse, and centered transformations of Imputed SDO. Cases with scores of 85 and 86 were identified as outliers in the box plot of only the inverse transformation of Age_Imputed. Standardized z-scores for all cases of the untransformed variable were not greater than the absolute value of 2.76 whereas Tabachnick & Fidel state that while cases with z scores greater than 3.29 ($p < .001$, two-tailed test) are potential outliers, a few such scores are expected in samples with a large N. Thus, no outliers were found for Imputed Age. Z-scores for skewness (1.04) and kurtosis (- 4.35) for Imputed Age did not change substantially after the transformations, and despite the moderate departure of kurtosis from zero, histogram and Q-Q plot for Age_Imputed indicated that the variable had an acceptable normal distribution. Lastly, the absolute skew value for the untransformed variable was only 0.11 (see Table 2) which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). Therefore, it was decided that the untransformed variable for Age (Age_Imputed) with all 497 cases would be included in bivariate and multivariate analyses.



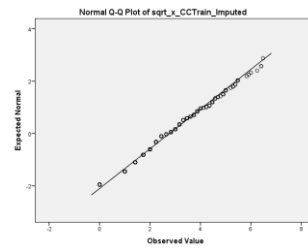
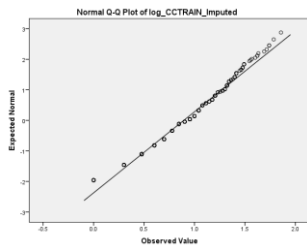
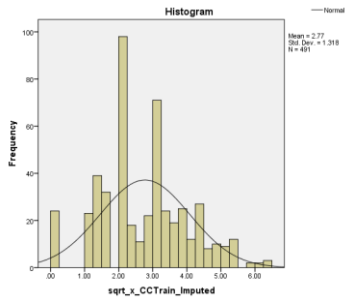
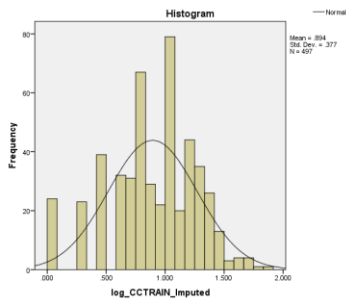
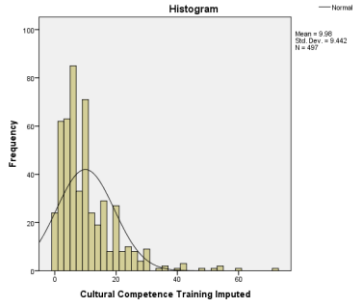
Transformations for Work Experience

Imputed Work experience (Exp_Imputed) was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality as were square root, log, and inverse transformations of Imputed Work Experience. A new variable (x_Exp_Imputed) which excluded 3 cases with the score of zero from Imputed Work Experience, and its square root, log, and inverse transformations also had significant non-normal distributions on the Shapiro-Wilk test. Of all the transformations, only the z-scores for skewness of the square root transformation (sqrt_Exp_Imputed, $z_s = -0.67$, $z_k = -3.69$) of Imputed Work Experience with all 497 cases, and the square root transformation (sqrt_x_Exp_Imputed, $z_s = -0.17$, $z_k = -4.18$) of x_Exp_Imputed with 494 cases were less than the z-score for skewness of Imputed Work Experience ($z_s = 5.31$, $z_k = -2.33$). However, the sqrt_Exp_Imputed variable retained all cases including those with no work experience - these cases were not unusual or disconnected from other cases or perhaps even the population. Histograms and Q-Q Plots showed that of all the variables and their transformations, sqrt_Exp_Imputed came closest to having a normal distribution. Given the only marginal difference in z-scores for skewness & kurtosis of sqrt_Exp_Imputed and sqrt_x_Exp_Imputed both of which did not deviate substantially from zero, it was decided that square root transformation (sqrt_Exp_Imputed) of Imputed Work Experience with all 497 cases would be used for bivariate and multivariate analyses. The absolute skew value for the transformed variable was only 0.07 – see Table 2, which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). No outliers were identified in the box plot for both the untransformed (Exp_Imputed) or its square root transformation (sqrt_Exp_Imputed). Standardized z-scores for both the variables were less than 3.11 and 2.54, respectively, thus confirming the absence of outliers.



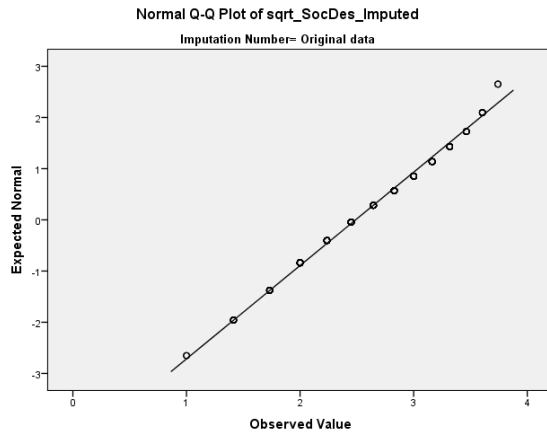
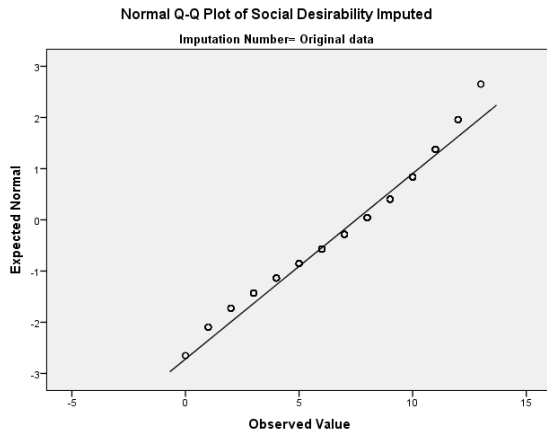
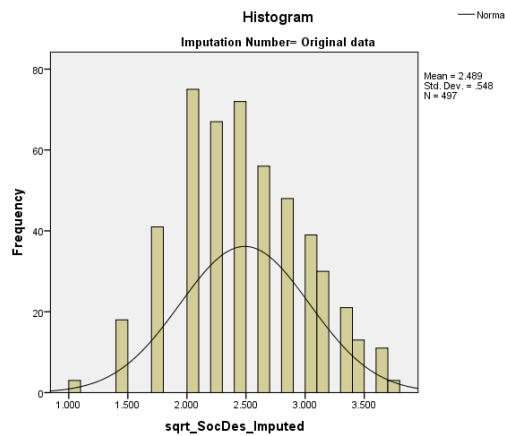
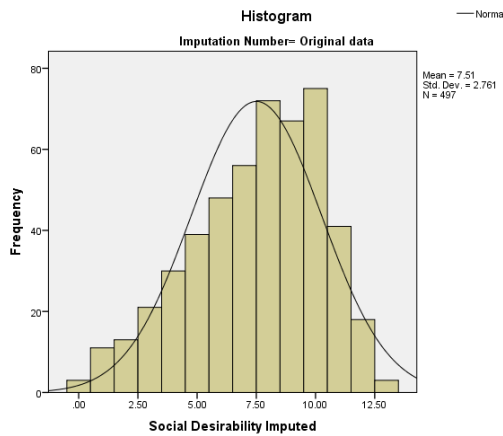
Transformations for Cultural Competence Training

Imputed Cultural Competence Training (CCTrain_Imputed) was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality as were square root, log, and inverse transformations of the imputed variable. Z-scores for skewness and kurtosis of Imputed Cultural Competence Training were high ($z_s = 20.02$, $z_k = 34.35$). The box-plot for the variable showed 17 outliers with scores ranging from 30 to 71 whereas standardized z-scores were greater than 3.29 for only 7 outliers which had raw/imputed scores ranging from 42 to 71; another 2 cases had standardized z-scores of 3.29 corresponding to a raw/imputed score of 41. While some of the raw/imputed scores for these outliers were high, they were not unusual or disconnected from other cases. Hence, these outliers were not considered a cause for concern for further analyses. For the purposes of additional investigation, a new variable ($x_CCTrain_Imputed$) which excluded 6 cases with the highest scores for Imputed Cultural Competence Training, i.e., scores ranging from 48 to 71, and its square root, log, and inverse transformations were created but they too were statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test. Nevertheless, of all the transformations, only the z-scores for skewness and kurtosis of the log transformed variable ($log_CCTrain_Imputed$, $z_s = -3.33$, $z_k = -0.21$) with all 497 cases, and the square root transformation ($sqrt_x_CCTrain_Imputed$, $z_s = 1.41$, $z_k = -0.86$) with 491 cases were closest to zero. Despite a higher z-score for skewness as compared to $sqrt_x_CCTrain_Imputed$, the log transformed variable ($log_CCTrain_Imputed$) did not exclude any cases, and its histogram appeared to be closest to a normal curve of all variables and transformations most likely because of being lowest in kurtosis. The absolute skew value for the log transformed variable ($log_CCTrain_Imputed$) was only 0.37 – see Table 2, which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). Additionally, unlike the square root transformation ($sqrt_x_CCTrain_Imputed$), the box plot for log transformation ($log_CCTrain_Imputed$) did not show any outliers. It must be noted that standardized z-scores did not show outliers for both these variables (as well as the log transformation of $x_CCTrain_Imputed$). However, standardized z-scores for $log_CCTrain_Imputed$ were spread over a smaller range than standardized z-scores for $sqrt_x_CCTrain_Imputed$ thus indicating the log transformation of the variable was most successful in bringing outliers identified through box-plots and standardized z-scores of Imputed Cultural Competence Training (CCTrain_Imputed) closer to other scores as well as brining all cases closer to other scores. Therefore, the log transformed variable was used in further bivariate and multivariate analyses.



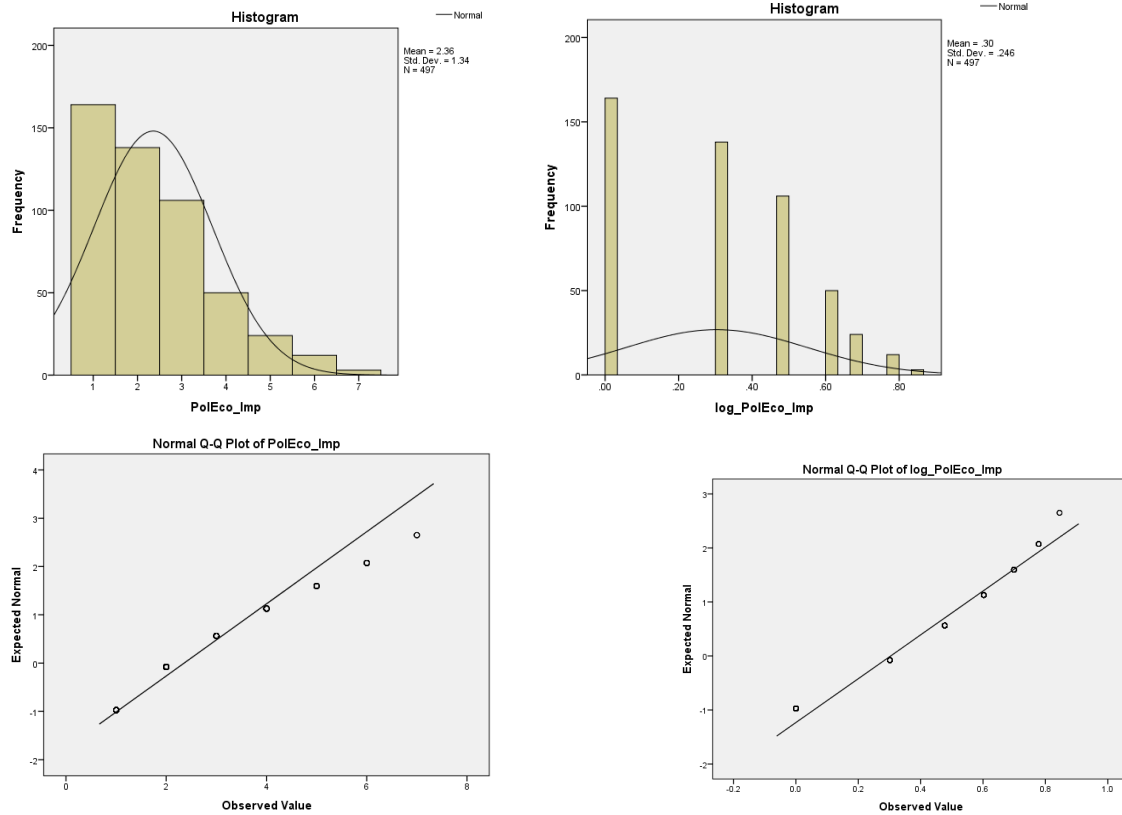
Transformations for Social Desirability

Imputed Social Desirability (SocDes_Imputed) was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality as were square root, log, and inverse transformations of the imputed variable. Of the three transformations, only the z-score for skewness of the log of SocDes_Imputed ($z_s = 0.19$, $z_k = -2.20$) was less than that for SocDes_Imputed ($z_s = -4.53$, $z_k = -1.66$). However, the lower kurtosis for the untransformed variable appeared to influence its distribution such that it appeared to be closer to a normal curve as compared to the log transformation despite greater deviation from zero skewness of the untransformed variable. The absolute skew value for untransformed variable was only 0.50 – see Table 2, which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). Therefore, it was decided that the untransformed variable (SocDes_Imputed) would be used for bivariate and multivariate analyses. No outliers were identified through the box plot or standardized z-scores for the untransformed variable.



Transformations for General Economic Ideology

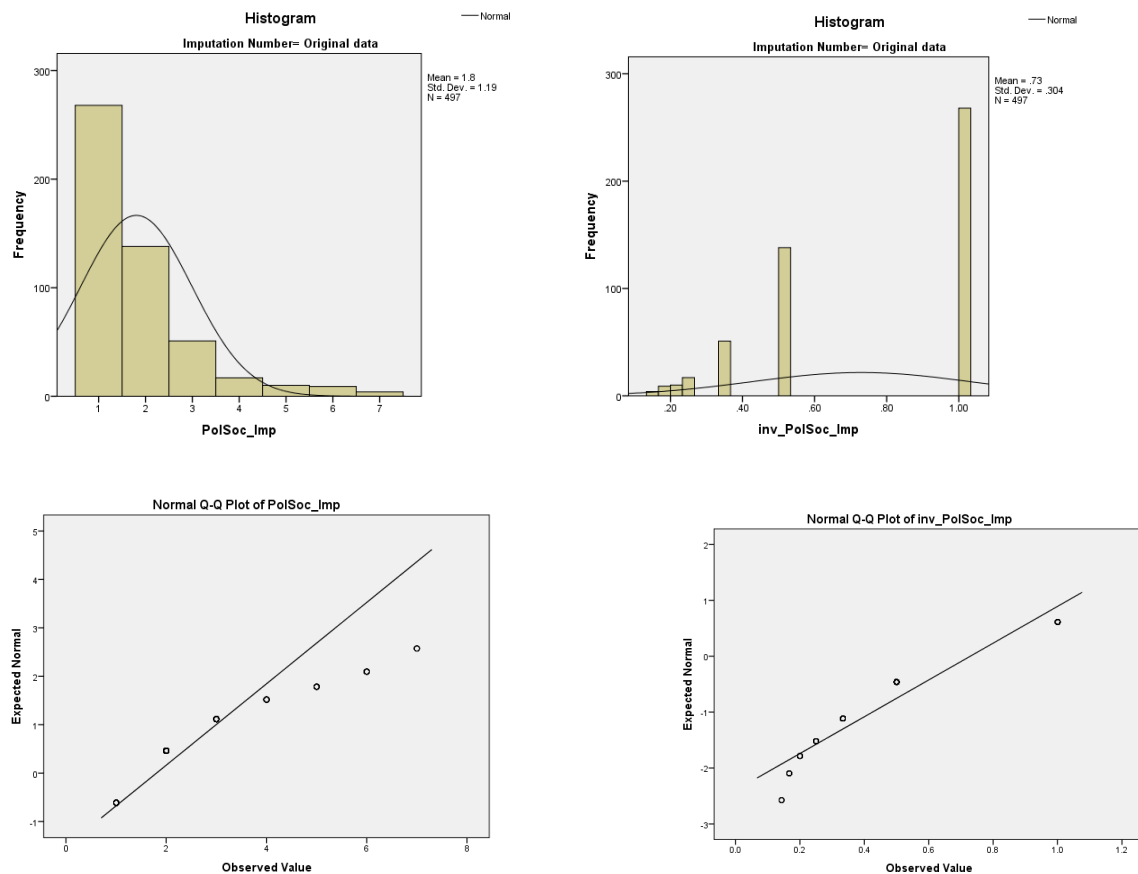
Imputed general economic ideology (Gen_Eco_Imp) with z-scores for skewness and kurtosis 8.9 and 2.49, respectively, was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality as were square root, log, and inverse transformations of the imputed variable. The untransformed variable with a Weibull-like distribution was the only variable that had some resemblance to a normal distribution, but skewness and/or kurtosis z-scores improved with the transformations. The log transformation (log_Gen_Eco_Imp) had the lowest z-score for skewness ($z_s = 0.66$, $z_k = -5.33$), and a more linear Q-Q Plot than the untransformed variable. Additionally, the absolute skew value for the log transformation (log_Gen_Eco_Imp) was only 0.07 – see Table 2, which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). Therefore, the log transformation (log_Gen_Eco_Imp) was retained for use in bivariate and multivariate analyses.



Both the box-plot and standardized z-scores for the untransformed variable identified the same 3 outliers. While outlier standardized z-scores - albeit for only 3 cases in this instance, are not unusual in a large sample, these outliers corresponded to raw scores of 7 on a scale where response options ranged from 1 to 7. These scores were also not disconnected from lower scores for the variable. The box-plot for the log transformed variable (log_Gen_Eco_Imp) did not show any outliers, and none of the standardized z-scores had an absolute value greater than 2.2. Thus, while outliers identified through box-plots and standardized z-scores were not a cause for concern, log transformation of Imputed general economic ideology (Gen_Eco_Imp) was successful in bringing those few outliers closer to other scores.

Transformations for General Social Ideology

Imputed general social ideology (Gen_Soc_Imp) with z-scores for skewness and kurtosis 18.36 and 20.43, respectively, was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality as were square root, log, and inverse transformations of the imputed variable. The untransformed variable with a Weibull-like distribution was the only variable that had some resemblance to a normal distribution, but skewness and/or kurtosis z-scores improved with the transformations. The inverse transformation (inv_Gen_Soc_Imp) had the lowest z-score for skewness ($z_s = -3.44$, $z_k = -7.10$) with an absolute skew value of only 0.38 – see Table 2, which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). Therefore, the inverse transformation variable (inv_Gen_Soc_Imp) was retained for use in bivariate and multivariate analyses.



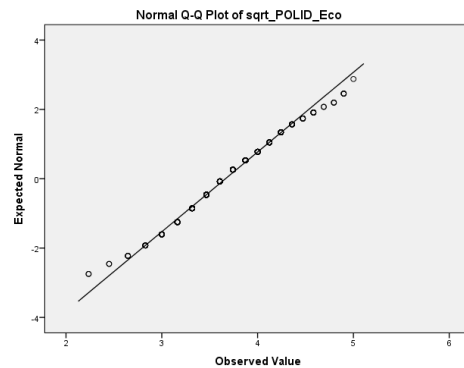
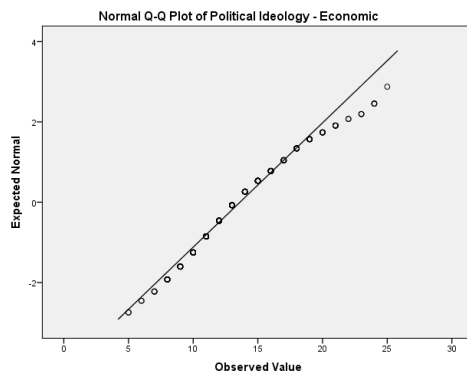
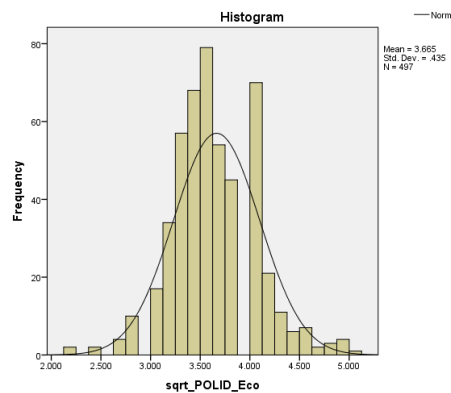
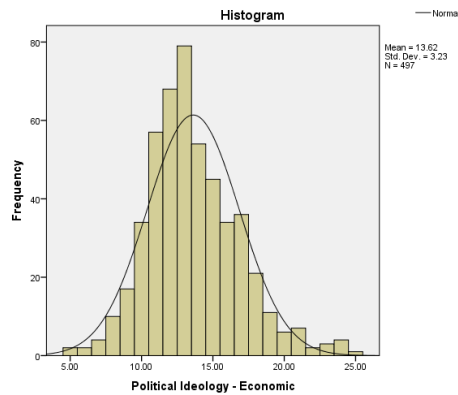
The box-plot for the untransformed variable (PolSoc_Imp) showed 15 outliers which had scores ranging from 4 to 7. For some reason, only 4 of the 9 cases with a score of 6 were identified as outliers, and therefore the reliability of using box-plots to identify outliers was questionable. On the other hand, 13 cases were identified as outliers based on their standardized z-scores exceeding the absolute value of 3.29. However, while the presence of such outliers - less than 3% of responses in this instance, is not considered unusual in samples with a large N, the standardized scores for these 13 outliers corresponded to raw scores of 6 and 7 on a scale with response options ranging from 1 to 7. The scores for these outliers were disconnected from lower scores. The inverse transformation (inv_Gen_Soc_Imp) was the only variable that did not have any outliers in the boxplot, and all standardized z-scores were lower than the absolute value of 1.93 indicating the absence of outliers. Thus, while outliers identified through box-plots and

standardized z-scores were not considered to be cause for concern, inverse transformation of PolSoc_Imp was successful in bringing those few outliers closer to other scores.

Transformations for Issue-Based Economic Ideology

Imputed issue-based economic ideology (IB_Eco_Imputed) was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality as were square root, log, and inverse transformations of the imputed variable. However, while distributions for only the untransformed variable and its square root transformation (sqrt_POLID_Eco_Imputed) resembled a normal curve, only the z-scores for skewness and kurtosis of the square root transformation ($z_s = 1.37$, $z_k = 2.49$) approached zero or acceptable values. Additionally, the absolute skew value for the square root transformation (sqrt_POLID_Eco_Imputed) was only 0.15 – see Table 2, which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). Therefore, it was retained for use in bivariate and multivariate analyses rather than the non-transformed variable ($z_s = 5.32$, $z_k = 3.53$).

The box-plot for Imputed issue-based economic ideology showed 5 outliers but only 1 case was identified as an outlier based on its standardized z-score being greater than 3.29. however, a few outlier standardized z-scores are not unusual given the sample size or this study. In addition, raw scores (24 & 25) for all outliers were within range of the minimum (5) and maximum (25) possible scores for the variable and were not disconnected from lower scores for the variable. On the other hand, the box-plot for the square root transformed variable identified 2 outliers both of which had the minimum possible score/value (2.24) for the variable but this score/value was not disconnected from other scores for the variable. None of the standardized z-scores had an absolute value greater than 3.29. Thus, while outliers identified through box-plots and standardized z-scores were not a cause for concern, square root transformation of Imputed issue-based economic ideology (IB_Eco_Imputed) was successful in bringing those few outliers closer to other scores.

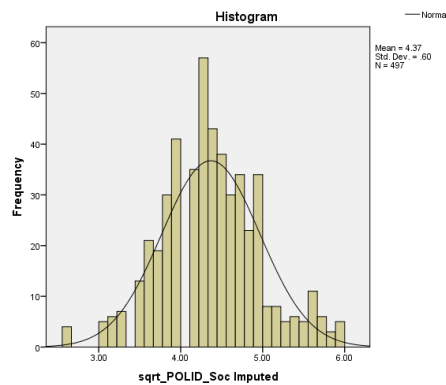
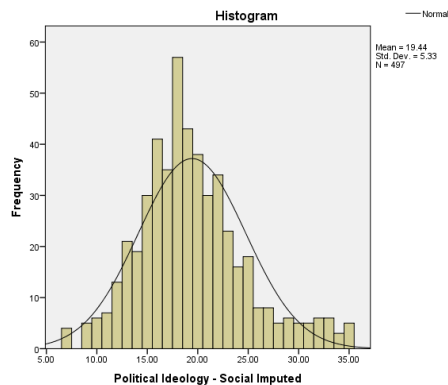


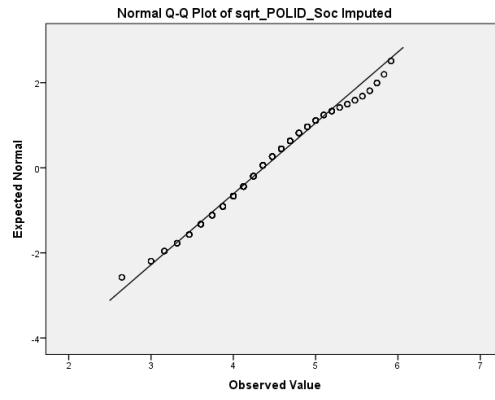
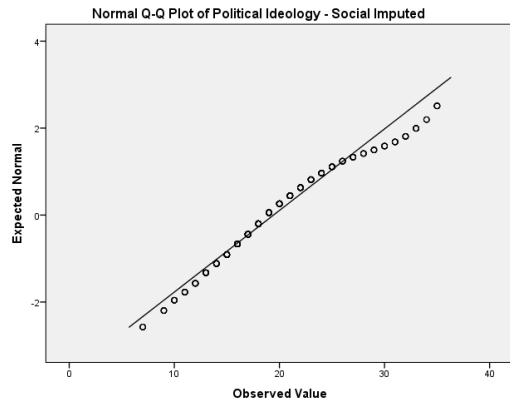
Transformations for Issue-Based Social Ideology

Imputed issue-based social ideology (IB_Soc_Imputed) was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality as were square root, log, and inverse transformations of the imputed variable. Of the three transformations, only the z-scores for skewness and kurtosis of the square root transformation ($z_s = 1.56$, $z_k = 1.72$) approached zero or acceptable values of skewness and kurtosis. Additionally, the distribution/histogram for the square root transformation (sqrt_POLID_Soc) came closest in resemblance to a normal curve, and the absolute skew value for the square root transformation (sqrt_POLID_Soc) was only 0.17 – see Table 2, which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). Therefore, this variable was retained for use in bivariate and multivariate analyses.

The box-plot for Imputed issue-based social ideology ($z_s = 5.77$, $z_k = 2.73$) showed 14 outliers with scores of 32 or above. However, for some inexplicable reason, not all cases with scores of 33 or 35 were included in these outliers. Additionally, all 14 cases identified as outliers had scores that were within range of the minimum (7) and maximum (35) possible sum scores for the variable and were not disconnected from lower scores for the variable. On the other hand, none of the cases for Imputed issue-based social ideology (IB_Soc_Imputed) had standardized z-scores greater than the absolute value of 2.92. Therefore, outliers identified through box-plots were retained in the variable without being rescored.

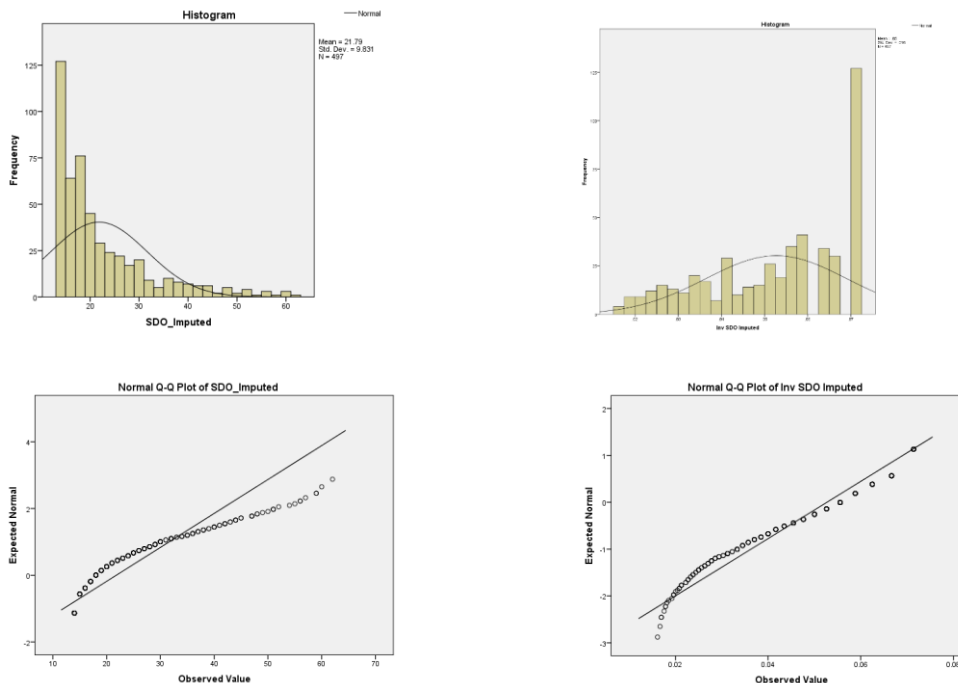
The box plot for the square root transformation of the variable also identified 14 outliers, 11 of which approached or had the maximum possible value (5.92) for the variable, and 3 of which approached or had the minimum possible value (2.65) for the variable. However, as was noted with the box-plot for Imputed issue-based social ideology (IB_Soc_Imputed), not all outliers were shown in the box-plot. One outlier with a maximum score/value of 5.83 was not identified. On the other hand, none of the cases for the square root transformed variable had standardized z-scores greater than the absolute value of 2.92. Therefore, outliers identified through box-plots were retained in the variable without being rescored.





Transformations for SDO

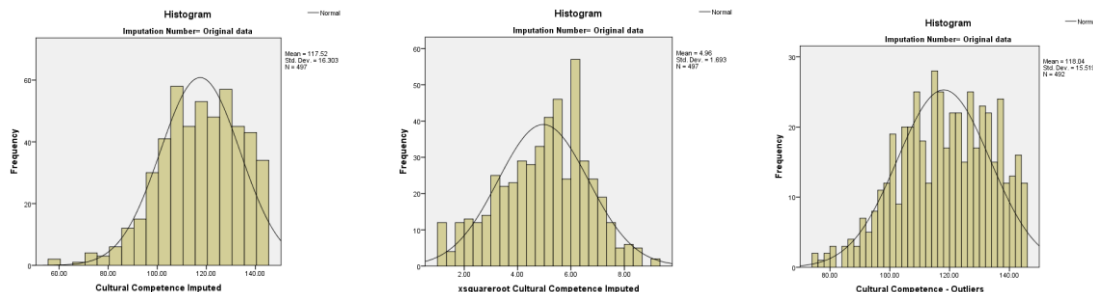
Imputed SDO (SDO_Imputed) was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality. Seven cases with highest scores for the variable, i.e., between 55 and 62, were deleted to create a new variable (outl_SDO_Imputed). The square root, log, inverse, and centered transformations of Imputed SDO, and the new variable (outl_SDO_Imputed) and its inverse transformation (inv_outl_SDO_Imputed) were all statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality. The untransformed variable (SDO_IMP) and the variable without 7 outliers (outl_SDO_Imputed) both had similar Weibull-like distributions but distributions for none of the variables under examination resembled a normal distribution. Z-scores for skewness and kurtosis ($z_s = 16.02$, $z_k = 13.00$) for the untransformed variable (SDO_IMP) did not change after centering but skewness and/or kurtosis z-scores improved with all other transformations with the inverse transformed variable (inv_SDO_Imputed) having the lowest z-score for skewness ($z_s = -4.38$, $z_k = -4.32$). Lastly, the absolute skew value for the inverse transformed variable (inv_SDO_Imputed) was only 0.48 – see Table 2, which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). Therefore, this variable with all 497 cases was selected to represent SDO in bivariate and multivariate analyses. The box-plot for Imputed SDO (SDO_Imputed) identified 29 outliers. Scores for these outliers ranged from 44 to 62. On the other hand, standardized z-scores of only 8 cases was higher than 3.29, and raw scores for these outliers ranged from 55 to 62. The very high standardized z-scores are not unusual given the sample size or this study, and the raw scores for outliers identified by both methods were well within range of the minimum (14) and maximum (98) possible scores for the variable, and not disconnected from each other or from lower scores for the variable. On the other hand, both inverse transformed variables were the only variables not to show outliers in their box plots, and none of the cases in the selected inverse transformed variable (inv_SDO_Imputed) had absolute value for standardized scores greater than 2.23 which was well within the limit of 3.29 recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Thus, while outliers identified through box-plots and standardized z-scores of Imputed SDO (SDO_Imputed) were not a cause for concern, inverse transformation of the variable was successful in bringing those few outliers closer to other scores.



Transformations for Cultural Competence

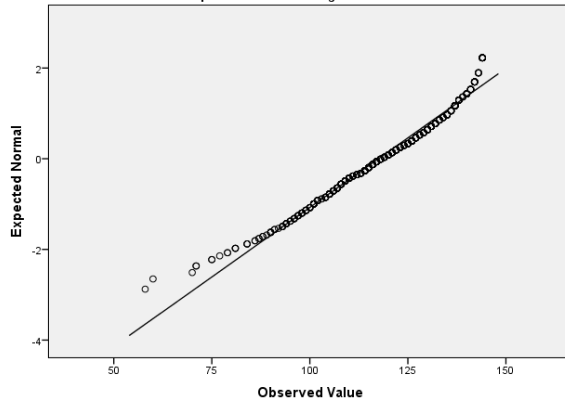
Imputed Cultural Competence (Cultural_Competence_IMP) was statistically significant on the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality as were square root, log, and inverse transformations of the variable with and without reflection, and centering transformation. Box plot and standardized z-scores for Imputed Cultural Competence (Cultural_Competence_IMP) identified 5 and 2 outliers, respectively. These 5 outlier cases were excluded to create a new variable (outl_Cultural_Competence_IMP). This variable and its square root, log, and inverse transformations of the variable with and without reflection were also statistically significant for skewness on the Shapiro-Wilk test. The z-score for skewness for the new Imputed Cultural Competence (outl_Cultural_Competence_IMP) ($z_s = -2.76$, $z_k = -2.58$) was the least followed closely by reflected and square root transformation (xsqrt_Cultural_Competence_IMP) ($z_s = -2.84$, $z_k = -1.62$) and Imputed Cultural Competence (Cultural_Competence_IMP) ($z_s = -4.57$, $z_k = .20$). However, the distribution/histogram for (xsqrt_Cultural_Competence_IMP) appeared to be closest to a normal curve of all variables and transformations, and there was only marginal difference in z-scores for skewness & kurtosis of outl_Cultural_Competence_IMP and xsqrt_Cultural_Competence_IMP both of which did not deviate substantially from zero. Lastly, the absolute skew value for xsqrt_Cultural_Competence_IMP was only 0.31 – see Table 2, which was well within the guideline proposed by Kim (2013). Therefore, it was decided that the square root transformed variable (xsqrt_Cultural_Competence_IMP) which retained all 497 cases would be used for bivariate and multivariate analyses.

The five lowest scores for Imputed Cultural Competence (Cultural_Competence_IMP) were identified as outliers in the box plot were 58, 60, 70, 71, and 7 whereas only 2 (of these) cases were identified as outliers based on their standardized z-scores being greater than 3.29. Tabachnick & Fidel state that while cases with z scores greater than 3.29 ($p < .001$, two-tailed test) are potential outliers, a few such scores are expected in samples with a large N. In addition, the five cases identified as outliers in the box plot had scores well within the scale range (36 – 144) for the variable and were not disconnected from each other or other lower scores for the variable. The variable (xsqrt_Cultural_Competence_IMP) selected for bivariate and multivariate analyses along with outl_Cultural_Competence_IMP and its square root transformation were the only variables not to show outliers in their respective box-plots. Standardized z-scores for the variable xsqrt_Cultural_Competence_IMP confirmed the above result; no z-score was greater than the absolute value of 2.59. Thus, while outliers identified through box-plots and standardized z-scores of Imputed Cultural Competence (Cultural_Competence_IMP) were not a cause for concern, square root transformation of the variable was successful in bringing those few outliers closer to other scores.



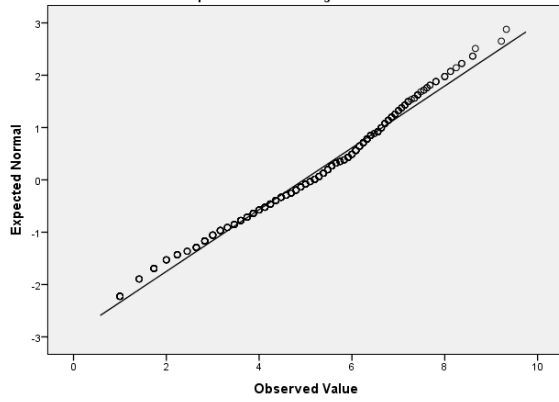
Normal Q-Q Plot of Cultural Competence Imputed

Imputation Number= Original data



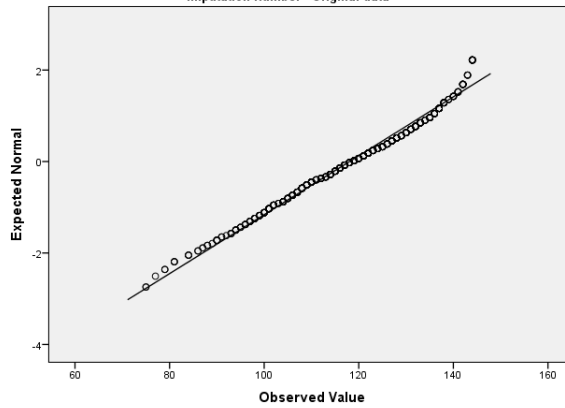
Normal Q-Q Plot of xsquareroor Cultural Competence Imputed

Imputation Number= Original data



Normal Q-Q Plot of Cultural Competence - Outliers

Imputation Number= Original data



Appendix H

Correlations of SDO with Independent Variables in the Final SDO model (n=480)[†]

Variables	Pearson's Correlation	<i>p</i>
Age	-.07	.057
Gender (Female)*	.18	<i>p</i> < .001
Ethnicity*	.08	.038
Race	-.06	.096
Buddhist	.04	.170
Catholic*	-.08	.042
Jewish	-.00	.478
Protestant*	-.10	.018
Other	-.00	.495
Social Desirability*	.08	.038
Education	-.03	.251
Cultural Competence Training	.02	.302
Work Experience*	-.09	.024
Social Work License	-.04	.208
Supervisor	.06	.106
Administrator	-.02	.363
Other Position*	-.10	.011
Practice Setting – Healthcare	.03	.269
Practice Setting – Private Practice	-.01	.412
Practice Setting – Other*	-.09	.029
Practice Setting - Mixed	-.01	.422
Not Strong Democrat	.06	.088
Independent Near Democrat	-.03	.232
Independent*	-.18	<i>p</i> < .001
Republican or Other*	-.18	<i>p</i> < .001
Overall Economic Ideology *	-.43	<i>p</i> < .001
Overall Social Ideology *	.43	<i>p</i> < .001
Issue-based Economic Ideology *	-.42	<i>p</i> < .001
issue-based Social Ideology *	-.31	<i>p</i> < .001

[†]Some variables have been transformed. Interpret with caution.

* Significant at *p* < .05

Appendix I

Correlations of Cultural Competence with Independent Variables in the Final Regression Model (n=481)[†]

Variables	Zero-order correlation	<i>p</i>
Age*	.18	<i>p</i> < .001
Gender (Female)	-.06	.104
Ethnicity	.05	.133
Race*	.18	<i>p</i> < .001
Buddhist	.02	.348
Catholic	-.00	.491
Jewish	.07	.057
Protestant	-.01	.400
Other	-.07	.057
Social Desirability*	-.14	.001
Education*	.08	.034
Cultural Competence Training*	-.28	<i>p</i> < .001
Work Experience*	.12	.004
Social Work License	-.04	.204
Supervisor	-.02	.301
Administrator	.02	.328
Other Position*	.11	.011
Practice Setting – Healthcare*	-.10	.017
Practice Setting – Private Practice*	.13	.003
Practice Setting – Other	.02	.296
Practice Setting - Mixed	-.03	.268
Not Strong Democrat	.03	.292
Independent Near Democrat	.01	.418
Independent	.01	.402
Republican or Other*	-.09	.026
Overall Economic Ideology *	.15	.001
Overall Social Ideology *	-.11	.007
Issue-based Economic Ideology	.02	.369
Issue-based Social Ideology	.03	.265
Social Dominance Orientation*	-.20	<i>p</i> < .001

[†]Some variables have been transformed. Interpret with caution.

* Significant at *p* < .05

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