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THE CONTRIBUTION OF PRACTICING SCHOOL COUNSELORS' LEVEL OF
ALTRUISM TO THEIR DEGREE OF BURNOUT

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the Department of Educational and Human Services
in the College of Education
at the University of Central Florida
Orlando, Florida

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2013

Major Professors: Glenn W. Lambie & E. H. Mike Robinson

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This dissertation is dedicated in memory of my Mom and Jenny.
Both have taught me about perseverance and never giving up.

ABSTRACT

The present study investigated the directional relationship between practicing school counselors' level of altruism to their degree of burnout. Specifically, this investigation tested the hypothesized directional relationship that practicing school counselors scoring at higher levels of altruism would have lower levels of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment). In addition, the investigation examined the relationship between the practicing school counselors' levels altruism and burnout and their reported demographic information (e.g., age, school counseling level, self-reported levels of wellness).

A thorough review of the literature is presented with supporting empirical research for each construct (altruism and burnout). A descriptive, correlational research design (Frankel et al., 2012) was employed to investigate the research hypothesis and exploratory questions. The research hypothesis was analyzed using structural equation modeling (SEM). More specifically, multiple regression, path analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis (Ullman, 2007) were conducted. The exploratory research questions were examined using: descriptive statistics, Spearman's rho correlations, multiple regressions, Kruskal-Wallis test and Mann Whitney U test (Pallant, 2010). The results are reviewed and compared to existing research in the field. Furthermore, limitations of the current study are explained, and recommendations for future research are provided. Finally, implications of the study regarding professional school counseling and counselor education are discussed.

The overall sample for this study is 437 practicing school counselors (ASCA members, $n = 344$; non-ASCA members, $n = 93$). The results of the study support that school counselors with higher levels of altruism have lower levels of burnout. The findings of this study show two dimensions of altruistic motivation: (1) *positive future expectations* and (2) *self-efficacy*

contribute significantly to all dimensions of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment). Additionally, a significant relationship was found between altruism and burnout and self-reported wellness.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the directional relationship between practicing school counselors' level of altruism to their degree of burnout. This investigation tested the theoretical model that practicing school counselors' levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981] will contribute to their levels of burnout (as measured by the three dimensions [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach, Jackson, Leiter, Schaufeli, & Schwab, 1996]). Specifically, this investigation tested the hypothesized directional relationship that practicing school counselors scoring at higher levels of altruism would have lower levels of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment). In addition, the investigation examined the relationship between the practicing school counselors' levels altruism and burnout and their reported demographic information (e.g., age, school counseling level, self-reported levels of wellness).

The professional organizations of the counseling field support the importance of counselor altruism and burnout (low levels of burnout) in counselors' delivery of ethical and effective services. Counselors have an ethical obligation to be altruistic by showing care and concern to their clients (Corey, Corey, & Callahan, 2007). The American Counseling Association (ACA) developed a task force to promote counselor wellness and prevent burnout (Lawson & Venart, 2005). Additionally, the American School Counselor Association (ASCA, 2010) *Ethical Standards for School Counselors* state that it is the ethical duty of school counselors to care for their students without expecting something in return or putting their needs

first (altruism, and to identify when they are unable to provide appropriate care to students (burnout), and implement well-being into their own lives.

The construct of burnout has been examined in the school counseling literature (e.g., Butler & Constantine, 2003; Lambie, 2007; Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006; Wilkerson, 2009). However, there is a void in the research regarding altruistic caring and school counselors (Curry, Smith & Robinson, 2009). Curry and colleagues (2009) suggest that there is a need for further understanding the development and manifestation of altruism and its relationship with other factors within the counseling field. Flynn and Black (2011) conducted a qualitative study in which the findings suggested an emergent theory of altruism and wellness within the counseling field. Additionally, research findings have identified positive correlations, in the helping profession, between altruism and wellness (Rushton, 1980; Brown, Consedine, & Magai, 2005), and the negative relationship between wellness and burnout (Harr & Moore, 2011; Maslach, 2001; Young & Lambie, 2007). Therefore, an exploratory investigation of self-reported levels of wellness was conducted. Moreover, the investigation aligns with the professional standards in the counseling field, and contributes to the need for more research focused on the constructs of altruism and burnout in practicing school counselors.

Statement of the Problem

Focusing on altruism within the counseling field may provide insight on developing caring relationships with clients (Curry et al., 2009). Understanding altruism, within the helping profession, is important to enhance the field and improve training of new helping professionals (Wakefield, 1993). Byrne (2008) suggests that altruism has an influence on one's desire to enter the helping profession. Individuals' level of altruism may impact their career choice, career satisfaction, and their level of burnout within their career (Wakefield, 1993). Educators,

including school counselors, have a responsibility to promote an altruistic environment within a school through role modeling, caring behavior, and empathic understanding (Robinson & Curry, 2005). Therefore, investigating school counselors' level of altruism may help counselor educators and administrators identify attributes of counselors that may benefit their caring relationship with students and possibly reduce incidents of counselor burnout.

The effects of burnout may lead to mental health issues, alcoholism, substance abuse, and other negative consequences (e.g. low self-esteem, low work productivity) that may directly impact school counselors and other stakeholders within the school (i.e. students; Freudenberger, 1984; Maslach, 2003). Researchers (e.g., Butler & Constantine, 2003; Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006) have identified external factors (e.g., student-counselor ratio, years of experience) that relate to school counselor burnout. Nevertheless, limited research has examined specific intrapersonal counselor characteristics of school counselors related to burnout. Lambie (2007) investigated the contribution of school counselors' ego development level to their degree of burnout; however, no other studies were identified that examined the relationship between specific personal counselor qualities and burnout.

Professional organizations (i.e., ACA, ASCA) within the counseling field state that being altruistic is an ethical obligation of counselors (Corey et al., 2007) and the ACA Task Force on Wellness (Lawson & Venart, 2005) contended that counselors have a responsibility to take care of themselves. Additionally, ASCA (2010) states that school counselors are ethically responsible for (a) their well-being; (b) their needs may not hinder those of students; and (c) monitoring their own impairment to avoid potential risks to students. Professional school counselors have an ethical obligation to be altruistic, promote their wellness and mediating burnout. Therefore, the

relevance of this study is meaningful for the counseling field; specifically, professional school counseling.

Significance of the Study

The contribution of the findings of the current study to the counseling literature' provide: (a) increased awareness of altruism within the field of counseling, (b) further understanding of the relationship between altruism and burnout, and (c) greater knowledge about school counselor qualities (e.g., self-reported level of wellness) and their relationship to counselors' levels of altruism and burnout. In addition, this investigation clarifies the existing definitions of altruism within the school counseling field. The relationship between the constructs of altruism and burnout are clarified, addressing an identified gap in the counseling literature. Furthermore, assessing school counselors' levels of altruism supports the psychometric properties of the two altruism measures used in this study.

Altruism is a core school counselor attribute (Rogers, 1957; Corey, Corey, & Callahan, 2007); however, it is one that is often forgotten due to bureaucracy (i.e., high caseload, limited resources, high-stakes testing) within educational settings. Bureaucracy is often a catalyst for burnout (Butler & Constantine, 2006); it varies between school environments and cannot be controlled by school counselors, and is not decreasing. Additionally, school counselors who are experiencing burnout may be complacent in their positions and *not* being an effective school counselor. Considering the logistical, financial, and negative impact that burnout has on students and the school environment, this research identifies a variable (altruism) that has an inverse relationship with burnout. The inverse relationship between altruism assists in the understanding of intrapersonal characteristics of school counselors that may prevent burnout and increase their effectiveness within a school environment. Therefore, identifying and fostering altruistic caring

of school counselors and clarifying the relationship between altruism and burnout is significant to the counseling field.

Theoretical Framework

Altruism

There is debate regarding the definition and existence of altruism. A simplistic definition of altruism (i.e., a behavior that benefits others; Ruston, 1981) does *not* provide an in-depth understanding of the construct of altruism. The definition of altruism is better described on a continuum (Krebs & Van Hesteren, 1994; Rushton, 1982; Walters, 1975). One end of the altruism continuum is the idea that a true altruistic act cannot exist because there is always something received as a consequence of the act (Rushton, 1981). On the other end of the altruism continuum is selfless give, for example, Mother Theresa. The middle of the continuum is the combination of the behavior and the motivation of the act and that something is received as part of the act but it is not expected (Eisenberg et al., 1999). Additionally, altruism may be situational, as evidenced by the murder of Kitty Genovese in 1964 in which 38 witnesses did nothing to help. This non-altruistic event led to the phenomenon of the bystander effect, where people abstain from taking responsibility because they believe others will take responsibility (Darley & Latane, 1968). This non-altruistic incident does *not* mean that the bystanders were not altruistic, but in this situation they choose not to do anything. The Kitty Genovese murder motivated social science researchers to investigate why and when people perform altruistic acts.

An altruistic act involves someone who gives (a benefactor) and someone who receives (a recipient; Krebs, 1970). Pivian and Charing (1990) suggest that there are two components of altruism: motivation and behavior. The actual doing of an altruistic act is the behavior; the reason for doing the altruistic act is the motivation. To determine the moral value of an act, it is

important to examine motivation rather than consequences to define its moral value (Kohlberg, 1964; Piaget, 1932). Altruistic behavior, “(a) must benefit another person, (b) must be performed voluntarily, (c) must be performed intentionally, (d) the benefit must be the goal by itself, and (e) must be performed without expecting any external reward” (Bar-Tal, 1985, p. 5). “Altruism is juxtaposed to *egoism*, a motivational state with the ultimate goal of increasing one's own welfare” (Batson, 1991, p. 16). Synonyms of altruism, such as: (a) pro-social behavior (Bandura & Walters, 1963), (b) helping behavior (Berkowitz & Freidman, 1967), and (c) volunteering (Rosenbaum, 1956) imply concern for others through behavior, but does *not* identify the motivation behind the behavior.

There are four theoretical hypotheses of the development of altruism: (a) biological (Eisenberg et al., 1999; Eisenberg, Miller, Shell, McNalley & Shea, 1991; Zahn-Waxler, Radke-Yarro, Wagner, & Chapman, 1992), (b) cognitive (McGuire, 2003), (c) social learning (Simmons & Sands-Dudelczyk, 1983), and (d) religion/spirituality (Robinson & Curry, 2007). For the purposes of this investigation *altruism* is defined as “behavior motivated by the concern for others or by internalized values, goals, and self-rewards rather than by the expectation of concrete or social rewards, or the desire to avoid punishment or sanctions” (Eisenberg et. al., 1999, p. 1360). In addition, altruism is a multidimensional construct influenced by an individual’s motivation and behavior (Krebs, 1970; Kreb & Van Hesteren, 1994); therefore, this investigation examined both altruistic motivation and behavior in practicing school counselors.

Burnout

Burnout is described as a process or something that develops (Freudenberger, 1989). Freudenberger (1981) first looked at burnout as an individual experience, but he and other researchers (e.g., Pines & Maslach, 1978; Maslach & Jackson, 1986) expanded the definition of

burnout to include the impact society has on individual and organizational burnout.

Freudenberger (1990) suggested that the motivating factors that people pursue the helping profession are: (a) desire to for personal growth, (b) to achieve, (c) financial rewards, and (d) a desire to help people. Specifically, Freudenberger (1989) suggested that research on burnout should include examination of individual and societal values, ethics, and morals, and why some experience burnout and others don't. Initially, research examining burnout was conducted in the helping profession, but burnout research has been expanded to other professions such as the corporate world (Freudenberger, 1989; Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

Freudenberger (1974) and Maslach (1978) are seminal authors on the construct of burnout. Pines and Maslach (1978) describe burnout as physical and emotional exhaustion that creates a negative self-image, poor outlook of one's job, and negative impact on clients. The counseling field views burnout as a cause of impairment, which is one's inability to be an effective counselor (Lawson & Verant, 2007). Kottler and Hazler (1996) stated that approximately 6,000 counselors in the United States were suffering from some type of mental or emotional impairment. Maslach and Jackson (1986) found three factors that comprise the burnout construct: (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) depersonalization, and (c) reduced personal accomplishment. Of the two constructs in the proposed study, burnout has been examined the most. Previous studies have identified contributors to burnout; specifically, student-counselor ratio, years of experience, and role discrepancies (Butler & Constantine, 2003; Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006).

The symptoms of burnout often manifest themselves into impairment. Freudenberger (1990) described that a hazard of working in the helping profession, specifically psychotherapy, is becoming impaired due to burnout. He described personality characteristics of professionals

who are impaired, “highly competitive, are rigid, have high expectations of themselves, have excessive concerns for details, may be passive-aggressive individuals, are narcissistic, or dependent people” (p. 32-33). He also suggests they struggle to say “no”. Helping professionals who are impaired may be more susceptible to “physical and mental disability, alcoholism, substance abuse, debilitation through again, loss of motor skills, and become sexually involved with patients” (Freudenberger, 1984, p. 175). For the purpose of this investigation, *burnout* is defined as the “condition of physical and emotional exhaustion, involving the development of negative self-concept, negative job attitude, and a loss of concern and feeling for clients” (Pines & Maslach, 1978, p. 234).

Operational Definition of Terms

Altruism

Altruism is “behavior motivated by the concern for others or by internalized values, goals, and self-rewards rather than by the expectation of concrete or social rewards, or the desire to avoid punishment or sanctions” (Eisenberg et. al., 1999, p. 1360).

Altruistic Motivation

Altruistic motivation is the intention to enhance another’s welfare (Batson, 2010).

Altruistic Behavior

Altruistic behavior is the actual act of a behavior motivated by benefiting another that is not motivated by the expectation of external rewards or avoiding punishments (Batson, 2010; Rushton, et al., 1981; Chou, 1996).

Counselor Altruism

“Altruism consists of a counselor engaging in a helping relationship, motivated by unselfish caring and concern, without the expectation of receiving concrete rewards or reciprocal care and concern from the client” (Swank, Ohrt, & Robinson, in press, p. 3).

Burnout

Burnout is defined as a “condition of physical and emotional exhaustion, involving the development of negative self-concept, negative job attitude, and a loss of concern and feeling for clients” (Pines & Maslach, 1978, p. 234).

Emotional Exhaustion (EE)

Emotional exhaustion is a dimension of burnout and is described as “feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one’s work” (Maslach, Jackson, Leiter, Schaufeli, & Schwab, 1986, p. 4).

Depersonalization (DP)

Depersonalization is a dimension of burnout and is described as “negative, cynical attitudes and impersonal response toward recipients of one’s service, care, treatment, or instruction” (Maslach, et al., 1986, p. 4).

Personal Accomplishment (PA)

Personal accomplishment is a dimension of burnout and is described as “feelings of competence and successful achievement in one’s work with people” (Maslach, et al., 1986, p. 4).

Practicing School Counselor

A practicing school counselor is a “professional school counselor who is a certified/licensed educator with the minimum of a master’s degree in school counseling and is uniquely qualified to address the developmental needs of all students through a comprehensive

school counseling program addressing the academic, career and personal/social development of all students” (ASCA, 2009, p. 1) and who is currently employed in a school setting in the role of a school counselor.

Wellness

Myers, Sweeney, and Witmer’s (2000) define wellness as:

a way of life oriented toward optimal health and well-being, in which body, mind, and spirit are integrated by the individual to live life more fully within the human and natural community. Ideally, it is the optimum state of health and well-being that each individual is capable of achieving. (p. 252)

Research Hypothesis & Exploratory Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the directional relationship between practicing school counselors’ level of altruism and their degree of burnout. The following research hypothesis and exploratory questions were examined:

Primary Research Question

Do practicing school counselors’ levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981] contribute to their levels of burnout (as measured by the three dimensions [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996])?

Research Hypothesis

The research hypothesis tested in this investigation was: Practicing school counselors’ levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the

Self-Report Altruism Scale, [SRA-scale; Rushton,Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981] will contribute to their levels of burnout (as measured by the three dimensions [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]). Specifically, this investigation tested the hypothesized directional relationship that practicing school counselors scoring at higher levels of altruism would have lower levels of burnout (see Figure 1 & 2).

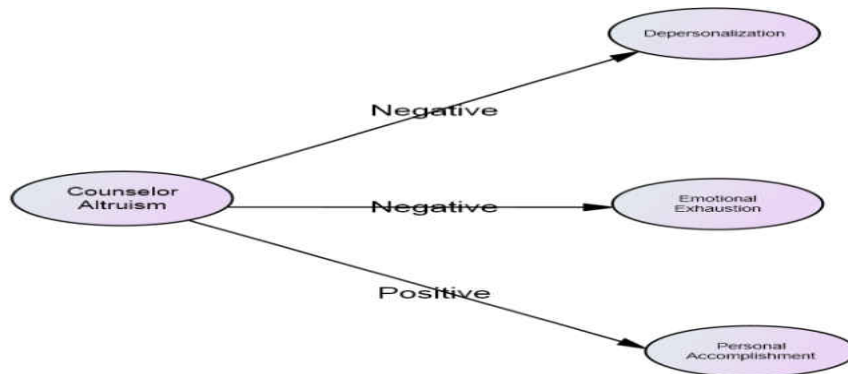


Figure 1: Hypothesized Path Model

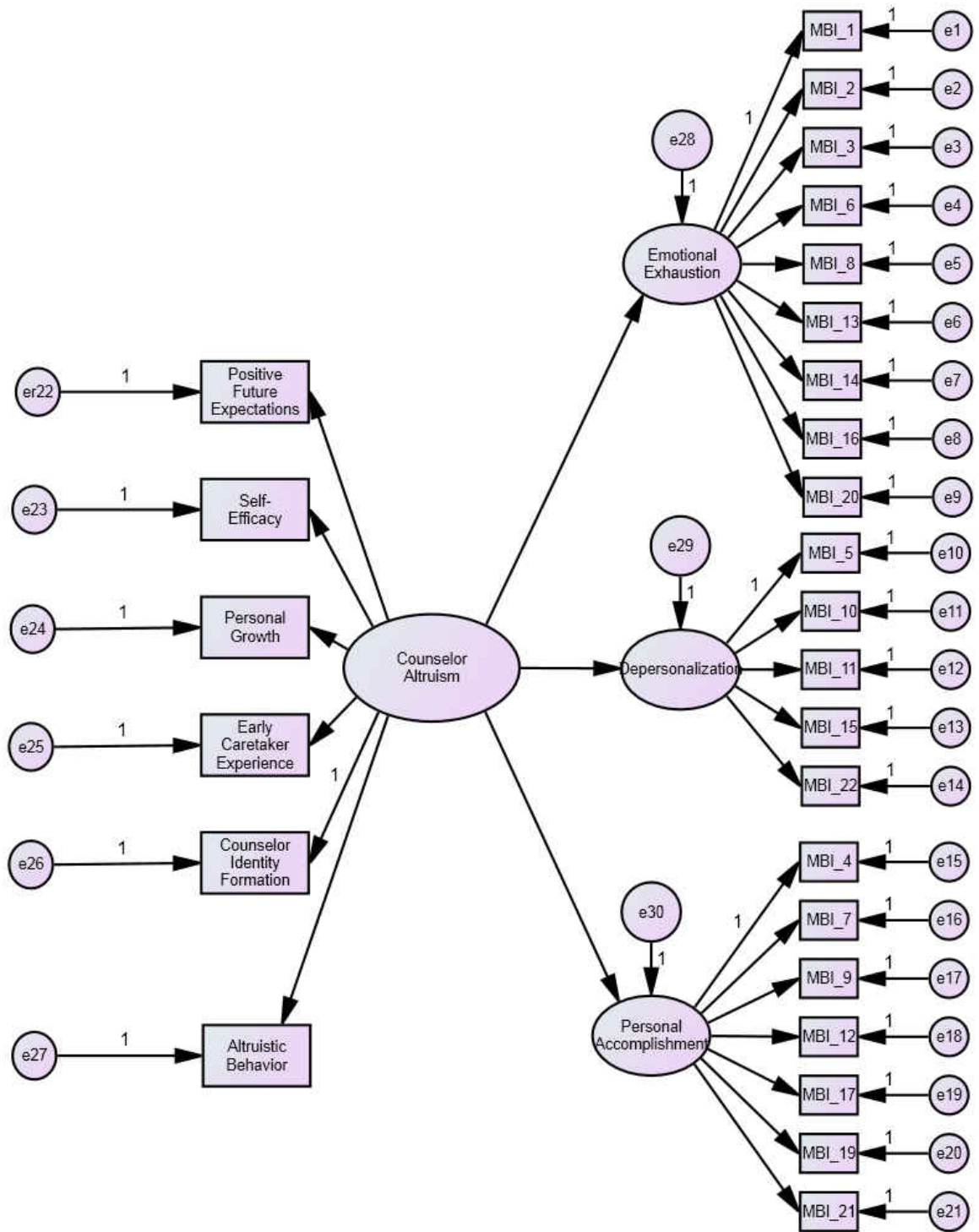


Figure 2: Hypothesis

Exploratory Research Questions

Exploratory research question 1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between practicing school counselors' level of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory*; [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981]) and their reported demographic variables (e.g., age, school level, years of school counseling experience, preparation program accreditation, and self-reported wellness)?

Exploratory research question 2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between practicing school counselors' level of burnout (as measured by the three subscale scores [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]) and their reported demographic variables (e.g., age, school level, years of school counseling experience, preparation program accreditation, and self-reported wellness)?

Research Design

A descriptive correlational research design was employed to examine the research hypothesis and questions. Correlational research examines the relationship between variables without researcher manipulation (Heppner, Wampold, & Kivilighan, 2008). In addition, correlational research determines the strength and direction of the relationship between variables, but does *not* provide a researcher the ability to determine causal relationships (Graziano & Raulin, 2004). However, descriptive correlational studies allow a researcher to investigate the potential cause and effect relationship between specific constructs and predictive outcomes (Fraenkel et al., 2012; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Correlational research designs are frequently used in the counseling field and contribute to the literature; however, it is important to use more sophisticated analyses (e.g., Structural Equation Modeling [SEM]) to gain better estimates of the

relationship between variables within a causal framework (Heppner et al., 2008; Lambie, 2007; Raulin & Graziano, 1995; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Research Method

Population and Sampling Procedures

The target population for the study was practicing school counselors. School counselors were selected because there is limited research on altruism and burnout in school counselors (Curry et al., 2009; Young & Lambie, 2006) and more studies were needed to identify school counselor personal attributes that prevent burnout (Lambie, 2007). A special emphasis was made to recruit participants holding membership in ASCA. According to ASCA school counselors need to be altruistic (i.e., care for students) and are responsible for their well-being in order to prevent burnout and impairment which will have a negative impact on students (ASCA, 2010; Corey, Corey, & Callahan, 2007; Lambie, 2007).

There are 281,400 practicing school counselors in the United States (U.S Department of Labor, 2010). To ensure a 95% confidence level of generalizability for a population for 281,000, a minimum sample size of 382 participants was needed (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). The sample for this study was comprised of both ASCA members and non-ASCA members (10.3% of practicing school counselors hold membership in ASCA). There are 29,000 members of ASCA (ASCA, 2012). The ASCA email directory list included 24,000 email addresses; however, only 12,161 are practicing school counselors (as signified by their member category, i.e., elementary, secondary on the ASCA website). The researcher contacted 2,521 ASCA members from the ASCA directory (which is available to all active members) to ensure a 95% confidence level of generalizability for a population of 12,161 school counselors (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970).

Additionally, to test the theoretical model that school counselors with higher levels of altruism

would have lower levels of burnout, SEM was employed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). SEM is a large sample technique; therefore, a minimum sample size of 200 is recommended (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996; Ullman, 2007).

Data Collection Procedures

This study was approved by the University of Central Florida's IRB Board. The researcher completed the IRB application and ensured all ethical research practices were followed. Additionally, permission was granted from the authors of the data collection instruments used in the study: (a) *Heintzleman Inventory* (August 1, 2012, personal communication date); and (b) *Self-Report Altruism Scale (SRA-scale)*; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981; personal communication December 2, 2011). Permission to use the *Maslach-Burnout Inventory Educator Survey* (MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996) was *not* needed from the authors because the instrument and training and scoring manual are available for purchase online at Mind Garden. A license to reproduce the *MBI-ES* was purchased by the researcher. All instruments were combined to create an online survey on SurveyGizmo. SurveyGizmo is an online data collection company which provides researchers tools to develop secure online surveys. In addition, SurveyGizmo provides organizational services to researchers, which includes: (a) documentation of when participants receive the email, (b) ensure that emails are *not* sent to spam, and (c) organizes data collection and storage.

Data collection took place October 15, 2012 through December 15, 2012. The data collection time period was selected because the beginning of the school year is busy for practicing school counselors, but after the first month of school it is less hectic. Dillman's (2000) *Tailored Design Method* was implemented to increase response rate. The *Tailored Design Method* could *not* be used with all participants due to confidentiality (i.e., emails were sent

individually to participants; therefore, there was no way to tell if they had completed the survey, only an aggregate number who completed was available to the researcher). A random sample of 2,521 of ASCA members were selected, using *Research Randomizer* (Urbaniak & Plous, 2012), from the ASCA membership email database. Additionally, to support the external validity of the investigation, a purposive sample of 492 practicing school counselors (South Dakota sample, Texas sample, Florida/Minnesota/Wisconsin sample) was contacted to participate in this study through personal and professional contacts of the primary researcher. All participants, except those in the Texas purposive sample, were sent an invitation email that included: (a) the informed consent, (b) a secure link to the data collection instruments, and (c) explanation of the incentive to participate in the study. Participants in the random sample and the South Dakota purposive sample received an email one week after the initial email was sent as a reminder for those who had not completed the survey. Two weeks later (three weeks after the initial email) a final reminder was sent to these participants. A thank you email was sent immediately after the participants completed the survey, and their email was removed from the list to ensure they would *not* receive the reminder emails. Participants could unsubscribe from the list of participants, and contact the researcher directly to be removed from the list. The incentive for this study was that for each survey returned, a \$1.00 donation was made to cancer research. Cancer research is a personal cause to the researcher and also aligns with the altruistic construct of this study.

Instrumentation

General Demographic Survey

The *General Demographic Survey* is a questionnaire created by the researcher, which is a self-report of participants' demographic information (e.g., gender, age, ethnicity, level of

education, years of experience as a school counselor, geographic location etc.). These demographics were chosen because they are the most common demographics examined in research similar to the current study. In addition, Likert scaled questions were developed to ask participants to rank from 1 to 5 (1 = not well, 5 = well) components of their personal wellness. The *General Demographic Questionnaire* was reviewed by a panel of experts (committee members, counselor education faculty, experts in wellness within counseling) and was administered colleagues for review, supporting the readability and face validity of the assessment.

Heintzelman Inventory

The *Heintzelman Inventory* (Kuch & Robinson, 2008) was used to identify altruistic motivation. The *Heintzelman Inventory* is a self-reporting questionnaire that has two sections, and was designed for adult developmental level. The first section contains 40 items that are divided into five areas. The items in this section contain a 5 point Likert-scale format that ranges from (a) “not at all an influence” to “a very strong influence”, (b) “not at all satisfying” to “very satisfying”, or (c) “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Additionally, each section contains a “not applicable or irrelevant” category. The second section focuses on obtaining demographical information. There are six items in this section that include: (a) gender, (b) age, (c) birth order, (d) area of study, (e) program accreditation, and (f) degree level. However, for this investigation the demographic section was not used. The *Heintzelman Inventory* instrument takes approximately 10 minutes to complete.

The *Heintzelman Inventory* began as an initiative by Robinson in 2004. Robinson is the Heintzelman Eminent Scholar Chair, an endowment established to study the presence of greed and the promotion of altruism. The chair’s vision focused on creating an inventory to measure

altruistic motivation within the counseling profession. The *Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory* (RHI; Robinson, 2006), the original instrument designed to measure altruism among counseling students, was a self-reporting instrument that contained four root statements with a total of 28 items. Each item included a choice of three possible responses, with responses classified as: (a) altruistic, (b) greedy, or (c) in the middle. Participants were asked to select the response that best described them, with their total score indicating their level of altruism. Following the initial development of the RHI, a group of researchers examined the instrument to assess the reliability and validity. The findings indicated that the instrument did *not* exhibit strong psychometric properties. Therefore, using the RHI as a foundation, a revision of the inventory was created in order to develop a psychometrically sound instrument for measuring altruistic motivation of counselors. Initially it was named the Kuch-Robinson (2008); however, its name was changed during further development of the instrument. Four hypotheses: (a) empathy-altruism, (b) negative state relief model, (c) empathic-joy, and (d) self-efficacy, were used in the initial development of the KRI (2008) and guided the further development of the *Heintzelman Inventory*.

The empathy-altruism hypothesis focuses on empathic individuals feeling happiness by helping others (Smith, Keating, & Stotland, 1989). In contrast, the negative state relief model focuses on the empathic person engaging in caring acts to relieve feelings of sadness (Smith et al., 1989). The third hypothesis, empathic-joy hypothesis, combines the two previous hypotheses. Within this hypothesis, Smith and colleagues report that the empathic person engages in the caring act to relieve the feelings of sadness; however, the person also feels joy by engaging in the caring act. The final hypothesis, self-efficacy, focuses on the premise that a person who feels competent will be more willing to engage in a caring act because the person

knows what to do, and is therefore less fearful of making a mistake (Midlarsky, 1968). Thus, the four hypotheses presented a framework for the development of a scale focused on measuring altruism.

Psychometrics of the Heintzelman Inventory

Using Statistical Analysis Software (SAS) procedures, and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) identified a five-factor structure for a 24- item scale, measuring counselor-in-training altruistic motivation with the five subscales: (1) five items measured on *Positive Future Expectation* factor, with loading from .89 to .97, accounted for 22.8% of the variance; (2) eight items measured *Self-Efficacy* factor, with loading from .55 to .76, accounted for 16.77% of the variance; (3) five items measured on *Personal Growth* factor, with loading from .74 to .87, accounted for 16.22% of the variance; (4) four items measured on *Early Caretaker Experience* factor with loading from .82 to .92, accounted for 13.64% of the variance; and (5) two items measured on *Counselor Identity Formation* factor with loading from .86 to .92. The five factors accounted for 76.61% of the total variance. The EFA process provided preliminary construct validity evidence for the five factors of a 24-item scale.

To cross-validate the psychometric properties of the *Heintzelman Inventory*, an independent validation sample of 227 was used to assess the adequacy of measurement model fit, item discrimination power, and the internal consistency reliability of the scale. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) confirmed the construct validity of the *Heintzelman Inventory* with five-factor performed a good fit to the model. The commonly used statistics to compare model-fit indices were examined as chi-square, comparative fit index, normed fit index, incremental fit index, goodness-of-fit index, parsimony comparative fit index, and root mean square error of approximation (Hu & Bentler, 1998). The five-factor model produced a chi-square of 393.49 (*df*

= 206, χ^2 ratio = 1.91. $p < .05$), root mean square error of approximation of .06. All other fit indices indicated a good model fit with AGFI = .84, NFI = .81, IFI = .90, and CFI = .90.

Cronbach's α assessing the internal consistency of the 24-item *Heintzelman Inventory* was .81, indicating a good internal consistency of the scale measuring five factors of altruistic motivation of counselors. The internal consistencies of the five subscales are: (1) .97 for *Positive Future Expectations*, (2) .85 for *Self-Efficacy*, (3) .88 for *Personal Growth*, (4) .88 for *Early Caretaker Experience*, and (5) .83 for *Counselor Identity Formation*. A strong positive correlation (investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient) was found between all five factors on the test-retest mean interval of two weeks: (1) *Positive Future Expectations*, $r = .72$, (2) *Self-Efficacy*, $r = .77$ (3) *Personal Growth*, $r = .70$, (4) *Early Caretaker Experience*, $r = .85$ and (5) *Counselor Identity Formation*, $r = .82$. Item-total correlation measured by Pearson correlation between each item and the total scale range from .05 to .4. The positive item-total correlation indicated that all items measure consistently with the total scale, suggesting a positive item discrimination power. Further investigation of the *Heintzelman Inventory* is being conducted.

Self-Report Altruism Scale

The *Self-Report Altruism Scale (SRA-scale)*; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981). The *SRA-scale* is a self-report instrument that has 20 items on it, focusing on altruistic behavior of a participant by assessing the frequency in which they participate in an altruistic act. The developmental level of participants who take the *SRA-scale* is adult. Altruistic behavior is defined as a voluntary, "intentional behavior to benefit another that is not motivated by the expectation of external rewards or avoiding externally produced punishments or aversive stimuli and it is considered to be morally an advanced form of prosocial behavior" (Chou, 1996, p. 297).

Participants are asked to rate the frequency of which they engage in specific altruistic behaviors using five categories: (1) never, (2) once, (3) more than once, (4) often, and (5) very often. Examples of specific altruistic behaviors include ‘I have helped carry a stranger’s belongings (e.g. books, parcels, etc.)’, ‘I have helped an acquaintance to move’, and ‘I have volunteered for a charity’. The *SRA-scale* takes approximately eight minutes to complete. The researcher received permission from the original author of this instruments to use in the current study and to adjust the wording (personal communication, 2011). Additionally, the researcher inquired to Rushton about scoring the *SRA-scale*. He provided the researcher with the means, standard deviations, and demographics of five different samples (Rushton et al., 1981). In addition, he stated “Give each item a score of zero to four depending on what the respondent answers and then sum over the 20 items” (personal communication, December 5, 2011). However, there are *not* intervals what a composite score means, but the higher composite score an individual has the higher levels of altruistic behavior he or she has.

Psychometrics of the *SRA-scale*

The *SRA-scale* was originally developed by Fekken (1980) as part of his master’s theses, but is unpublished. He sought out to validate the *SRA-scale* by conducting two studies: (a) correlating the *SRA-scale* with peer ratings of altruism, and (b) examining the predictive validity of the *SRA -scale*. Fekken examined correlations of the *SRA-scale* and peer ratings of altruism using a sample of 118 undergraduates. The undergraduates completed the *SRA-scale*. Additionally each participant asked eight people rate them on 20 different altruistic behaviors (i.e., items on the *SRA -scale*) and assess them, on a 7-point scale, on four different dimensions of altruism which created the peer-rated-global altruism): (a) how caring the individual is, (b) how helpful the individual is, (c) how considerate of others’ feelings the individual is, and (d)

how willing to make a sacrifice the individual is. The peer rating forms had a response rate of 45% ($N = 416$), and 88 participants had one or more rater. Peer rater reliability was assessed using split-half reliabilities showing a significant inter rater reliability for the peer rated *SRA-scale*, $r = .51, p < .001$, and the peer-rated-global altruism measure, $r = .39, p < .001$. The correlation, after using Spearman's correction formula, between the *SRA-scale* and the peer-rated *SRA-scale* was $r = .56, p < .001$, and between the *SRA-scale* the peer-rated global altruism measure $r = .33, p < .05$. The *SRA-scale* has a positive relationship with: being an organ donor, $r = .24, p < .05$, the sensitivity assessment, $r = .32, p < .01$ the nurturance scale, $r = .27, p < .01$, and helping in emergencies, $r = .32, p < .01$, which supports the *SRA's* convergent validity. Furthermore, Rushton, Christjohn and Fekken (1981) continued to investigate the psychometrics of the convergent validity with eight existing assessments measuring similar constructs to altruism: (a) *Social Responsibility Scale* (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1964), (b) *Emotional Empathy Scale* (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972), (c) the *Social Interest Scale* (Crandall, 1975), (d) the *Fantasy-Empathy Scale* (Stotland et al., 1978), (e) the *Machiavellianism Scale* (Christie & Geis, 1968), (f) the *Rokeach Value Survey* (Form C, Rokeach, 1973), (g) the *Nurturance Scale of Personality Research Form* (PRF; Jackson, 1974), and (h) *Defining Issues Test* (Rest, 1979). The *SRA-scale* positively correlated with: (a) social responsibility, $r = .15, p < .01$; (b) emotional empathy, $r = .17, p < .01$; (c) fantasy-empathy, $r = .20, p < .01$; (d) nurturance, $r = .28, p < .01$; (e) helpfulness as measured by the *Rokeach*, $r = .14, p < .05$; and (f) moral judgment, $r = .16, p < .01$.

Overall, the psychometric properties of the *SRA-scale* appear sound with diverse samples. The internal consistency examined in five different populations was above .70. The convergent validity of the *SRA-scale* has been associated with other prosocial assessments and it has shown

strong results. The creators of the *SRA-scale* instrument have also assessed for social desirability responses of the *SRA-scale* using a social desirable response measure and it was found that those who responded to this instrument were not doing in a social desirable way. However, the authors of the *SRA-scale* caution researchers *not* to use this instrument to measure altruistic personality, instead it is more advisable to use this instrument to measure the broad-base of altruistic behavior and frequency of such behavior.

Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey

The *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey* (MBI-ES; Maslach, Jackson, Schwab, 1986, 1996) was used to measure participant's level of burnout determined by three subscales: emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and reduced personal accomplishment (PA). The MBI-ES is a self-report instrument with 22 questions, taking approximately 10 minutes to complete. The MBI-ES is an adapted version of the *MBI-Human Services Survey* (MBI-HSS; Maslach & Jackson, 1981, 1996) survey, but was created specifically for use in educational environments (e.g., schools). The development of the instrument has the same history of the MBI-HSS; the only difference between the two is the change of wording in the items from *recipient* to *student*. The *MBI-ES* was originally developed in 1986 and it has not changed since the original form. However, the *Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual* (Maslach et al., 1996) has been updated since the development of the MBI-ES; therefore, there are two years cited.

The *MBI-ES* was developed from findings in qualitative studies focused on the phenomenon of burnout (Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Maslach & Pines, 1977). Maslach and colleagues (1996) define educator burnout as an educator (e.g., school counselor): (a) feeling fatigued and emotionally drained (i.e., emotional exhaustion), (b) viewing students negatively and distancing themselves from students (i.e. depersonalization), and (c) feeling like he or she is

not enhancing the lives of students or their development (i.e. reduced personal accomplishment). Each subscale has items that consist of statements that align with it. Emotional exhaustion is measure by 9 items; such as, 'I feel emotionally drained from work'. Depersonalization is measured by 5 items; such as, 'I feel I treat some students as if they were impersonal objects', and personal accomplishment is measured by 8 items; such as, 'I can easily understand how my students feel about things'. Participants are asked to rate how often they experience, the 22 statements, on a Likert Scale: 0=Never, 1=A few times a year or less, 2= Once a month or less, 3=A few times a month, 4=Once a week, 5=A few times a week, 6=Every day.

Psychometrics of the *MBI-ES*

The complete history of the development of the *MBI-HSS* and the psychometrics are thoroughly explained in the MBI Inventory Manual (Maslach et al., 1996). The following information is selected from this document to support the use of the *MBI-ES* in the current study. The original MBI-HSS consisted of 47 items, but after factor analyses and confirmatory analyses were conducted the instrument was reduced to its current format of 22 items with three factors. Maslach and colleagues state that items 12 and 16 consistently cross-load, and researchers may choose to omit items 12 and 16 when conducting causal modeling.

The reliability coefficients of the *MBI-ES* are strong: (a) emotional exhaustion, $\alpha = .90$; (b) depersonalization, $\alpha = .79$; and (c) personal accomplishment, $\alpha = .71$. Reliability coefficients in current studies conducted with school counselors using the *MBI-ES* showed similar reliability. Butler and Constantine (2005) investigated burnout in sample of 533 school counselors using the *MBI-ES* and found Cronbach's alphas of .82 for emotional exhaustion, .82 for depersonalization, and .86 for personal accomplishment. Wilkerson and Bellini (2006) used the *MBI-ES* with 78 school counselors and the reliability analysis showed: (a) emotional exhaustion, $\alpha = .91$, (b)

depersonalization, $\alpha = .74$, and (c) personal accomplishment, $\alpha = .78$. Additionally, Wilkerson (2009) examined burnout in a different sample of 198 school counselors the Cronbach's alpha coefficients resulted in: (a) emotional exhaustion, $\alpha = .91$; (b) depersonalization, $\alpha = .74$; and (c) personal accomplishment, $\alpha = .73$. The test-retest reliability for a sample of 248 educators (1 year interval) is: (a) emotional exhaustion, $r = .60$; (b) depersonalization, $r = .54$; and (c) personal accomplishment, $r = .57$. Overall, the *MBI* measures burnout as a consistent state (Maslach, et al., 1996).

Maslach and colleagues (1996) examined the validity of the *MBI-HSS* by assessing convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is supported two ways: (a) external validation and (b) examining dimensions of job experiences and their relationship with burnout. External validation was demonstrated by a correlation between self-rating on the *MBI-HSS* and other's behavioral rating of the same individual. Correlations were also found between job experiences (i.e., large number of clients and providing direct services) positively correlated with dimensions of burnout. Additionally, discriminant validity is demonstrated by comparing scores on the *MBI-HSS* and dissatisfaction of a job, as measured by the job satisfaction scale on the *Job Diagnostic Survey* (JDS; Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Job satisfaction has a moderate correlation with emotional exhaustion ($r = -.23, p < .05$), depersonalization ($r = -.22, p < .02$), and personal accomplishment ($r = .17, p < .06$). Furthermore, the *MBI-HSS* is *not* influenced by social desirability as measured by the Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (SD; Crowne & Marlowe, 1960).

Data Analysis

The data analysis used for this study is SEM. SEM is a confirmatory procedure that is a combination of multiple regression, path analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis (Ullman,

2007). SEM was used because it allows an investigator to test proposed theoretical model that is supported by the literature and provides directionality of relationships, as opposed to multiple regression, in a causal framework (Lambie, 2007; Ullman, 2007; Graziano & Raulin, 2004). The results generated from SEM can only be applied to the sample used to test the model; additionally, SEM can be used in experimental and non-experimental designs but is most often used in correlational studies (Ullman, 2007).

The hypothesized model is presented in Figure 2, where circles represent latent variables, and rectangles represent measured variables. Absence of a line connecting variables implies no hypothesized direct effect. The hypothesized model examined counselor altruism as a predictor of the three dimensions of burnout. Counselor altruism is a latent variable measured by six observed variables: (1) *Positive Future Expectation* (2) *Self-Efficacy*, (3) *Personal Growth*, (4) *Early Caretaker Experience*, (5) *Counselor Identity Formation*, (6) *Altruistic Behavior*. There are three latent variables of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment; measure by 22 observed variables. It was hypothesized the higher levels of altruism directly predict lower levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and higher levels of personal accomplishment.

Exploratory research questions one and two were examined using: descriptive statistics, Spearman's rho correlations, multiple regressions, Kruskal-Wallis test and Mann Whitney U test (Pallant, 2010). A Spearman Rho Correlation was calculated to examine if there is a relationship between reported demographic information, of practicing school counselors, and their levels altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981] and their levels of burnout (as measured by the three dimensions [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal

accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]).

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations were considered by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) committee and dissertation committee at Number format, IRB and Committee considerations include, but were not limited to:

1. All data was collected anonymously to protect the identity of participants and to ensure confidentiality.
2. Participation in this study was voluntary and participation was not impact their employment.
3. All participants were informed of their rights and an explanation of research was approved by the IRB at the University of Central Florida. Participants had the opportunity to withdraw from the study at any time without consequence.
4. Permission to use the instruments was obtained by the developers of each instrument; (a) Heintzelman Inventory (Kuch & Robinson, 2008); (b) Self-Report Altruism Scale (*SRA-scale*; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981); (c) *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey* (MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996);
5. The study was conducted with the permission and approval of dissertation co-chairs, committee members, and IRB of the University of Central Florida was obtained.

Potential Limitations of the Study

Correlational research designs face threats to validity, specifically, construct, internal and external validity; validity is reflective of how sound the methodology of a study is (Graziano & Raulin, 2004; Fraenkel, et al., 2012). Threats to internal validity are specific to the instruments

used in this study and valid correlations between the variables within a study (Fraeknel et al., 2012). In general, researchers have more control of preventing internal threats of validity, in correlational designs, due to their ability to choose valid and reliable measurements of the constructs (Graziaon & Raulin, 2005). External validity is the ability to generalize the results to a population (Fraenekel et al., 2012). Correlational research designs are vulnerable to threats of validity; therefore, the researcher will attempt to minimize threats to validity through intentional research procedures. Additional potential limitations are described:

1. Efforts were made to limit threats to construct, internal, and external validity within this descriptive correlational research study, limitations will still exist.
2. Due to the debatable and continuous definition of altruism, it may be difficult to measure.
3. There was limited variance within the data due to the characteristics of the individuals who chose to participate in this study, and previous studies don't support that school counselors are experiencing burnout.
4. The *Heintzelman Inventory* is a fairly new instrument and its psychometric properties are still being investigated; additionally it was not normed on practicing counselors. Furthermore, all data collection instrument have some measurement error even with sound psychometric properties (e.g., reliability and validity).
5. Data collection instruments used in this study are self-report, therefore, there is some bias with participant responses that may influence study results.
6. Finally, if purposive sampling is used, potential researcher bias could occur.

Chapter Summary

This chapter introduced the constructs (altruism and burnout) that were examined for this investigation. The research design (correlational) has been explained, and potential limitations and ethical considerations have been examined. The need to investigate the directionality of the relationship between altruism and burnout is important because it is unclear in the literature, and both are significant factors in the effectiveness of school counselors. Thus, there is a need to conduct a research study to gain further understanding of the theoretical model tested for this study.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Chapter Two presents the theoretical framework that supports the primary constructs for this investigation: (a) altruism and (b) burnout. A thorough review of the literature is presented with supporting empirical research for each construct. In addition, an examination of the potential relationships between the two constructs is presented.

Altruism

There is debate regarding the definition and existence of altruism. A simplistic definition of altruism (i.e., a behavior that benefits others; Ruston, 1981) does *not* provide an in-depth understanding of the construct of altruism. The definition of altruism is better described on a continuum (Krebs & Van Hesteren, 1994; Rushton, 1982; Walters, 1975). One end of the altruism continuum is the idea that a true altruistic act cannot exist because there is always something received as a consequence of the act (Rushton, 1981). On the other end of the altruism continuum is the combination of the behavior and the motivation of the act and that something is received as part of the act but it is not expected (Eisenberg, 1999). Additionally, altruism may be situational, as evidenced by the murder of Kitty Genovese in 1964 in which 38 witnesses did nothing to help. This event led to the phenomenon of the bystander effect, where people abstain from taking responsibility because they believe others will take responsibility (Darley & Latane, 1968). This incident does *not* mean that the bystanders were not altruistic, but in this situation they choose not to do anything. The Kitty Genovese murder motivated social science researchers to investigate why and when people perform altruistic acts.

Altruism is one of the top 10 values discussed most in Nobel Peace Prize acceptance speeches (Kinnier, Kernes, Hayman, Flynn, Simon, & Kilian, 2007). Robinson and Curry (2005) describe altruism as doing caring behaviors for others without expectation of something in return, that it is “the purest form of caring—selfless and non-contingent upon reward” (p. 68). Altruism is defined as “self-sacrificial beneficence carried out without any anticipation of internal or external rewards” (Krebs & Van Hesteren, 1994, p. 104). When an individual’s motivation behind an altruistic act is an expectation of a reward, or if the act is committed accidentally it is not altruistic (Eisenberg, 1999; Krebs & Van Hesteren, 1994). Furthermore, willingness to self-sacrifice is altruistic and inevitable; however, altruistic acts may benefit both self and others (Eisenberg, 1999; Krebs & Van Hesteren, 1994). Wakefield (1993) describes the paradox of altruism: how can pure altruism exist if the assumption is that all people are motivated by self-interest and receive reward? The answer to this paradox is that a genuine concern for another’s well-being is considered altruistic and can exist even if a reward (i.e., compensation, good feelings) is received (Wakefield, 1993). Smith (1759) wrote the following about engagement in caring acts:

How selfish soever man may be supposed, there are evidently some principles in his nature, which interest him in the fortunes of others, and render their happiness necessary to him, though he derives nothing from it, except the pleasure of seeing it. (p. 11)

Motivation and Behavior within Altruism

An altruistic act involves someone who gives (a benefactor) and someone who receives (a recipient; Krebs, 1970). Pivlan and Charing (1990) suggest that there are two components of altruism: motivation and behavior. The actual doing of an altruistic act is the behavior; the reason for doing it is the motivation. To determine the moral value of an act, it is important to examine

the motivation rather than its consequences to define its moral value (Kohlberg, 1964; Piaget, 1932). An altruistic behavior is determined by the motivation rather than the outcome and/or consequences of the behavior (Batson & Shaw, 1991; Wakefield, 1993). Altruistic behavior “(a) must benefit another person, (b) must be performed voluntarily, (c) must be performed intentionally, (d) the benefit must be the goal by itself, and (e) must be performed without expecting any external reward” (Bar-Tal, 1985, p. 5). Synonyms of altruism, such as: (a) prosocial behavior (Bandura & Walters, 1963), (b) helping behavior (Berkowitz & Freidman, 1967), and (c) volunteering (Rosenbaum, 1956) imply concern for others through behavior, but does not identify the motivation behind the behavior. Milenkovic and Sakotic (1997) summarize commonalities of the variation of the definitions of altruism:

1. Focusing on the well-being of others.
2. Not induced by expectation of any external or reciprocal reward.
3. Contains elements of cost (sometimes even self-sacrifice) of the person doing the altruistic act.
4. Deliberation and autonomously intentional nature of the action. (p. 355)

For the purposes of this investigation, *altruism* is defined as “behavior motivated by the concern for others or by internalized values, goals, and self-rewards rather than by the expectation of concrete or social rewards, or the desire to avoid punishment or sanctions” (Eisenberg et. al., 1999, p. 1360). In addition, altruism is a multidimensional construct influenced by an individual’s motivation and behavior (Krebs, 1970; Kreb & Van Hesteren, 1994); therefore, this investigation examined both altruistic motivation and behavior in practicing school counselors.

The Theories of the Development of Altruism

There are four theories that support the development and manifestation of altruism: (a) biological, (b) cognitive, (c) social learning, and (d) religion/spirituality. Robinson and Curry (2007) and Curry and colleagues (2009) collaborated on a qualitative inquiry of the manifestation and development of altruism. Specifically, the researchers sought out to explore if the participants in their study description of the development of altruism aligned with three theoretical hypotheses of the development of altruism: (a) biological (Eisenberg et al., 1999; Eisenberg, Miller, Shell, McNalley & Shea, 1991; Zahn-Waxler, Radke-Yarro, Wagner, & Chapman, 1992), (b) cognitive (McGuire, 2003), and (c) social learning (Simmons & Sands-Dudelczyk, 1983).

Curry and colleagues (2007, 2009) conducted an exploratory, phenomenological investigation by interviewing 34 residents (10 men, 20 women, 4 gender not indicated) at a Quaker retirement community in the northeast United States. During the semi-structured interviews, participants were asked questions focused on their experiences of altruism: (a) Provide your personal definition of altruism, (b) Have you ever known a person whom you would consider to be altruistic?, (b) What is it about that person that makes you believe they are altruistic?, (c) Is there a time in your life when you considered yourself to be more altruistic? Participants' nonverbal behaviors and the researchers reactions were recorded simultaneously during the interview; additionally observations of the environment (i.e., field notes) to ensure triangulation of the data. The researchers followed data analysis procedures outlined by Colaizzi (1978). Significant statements were determined by the researchers and extracted to formulate themes; moreover, participants reviewed the final data analysis to provide feedback (i.e., member checks).

Curry and colleagues (2007, 2009) results identified 13 theme categories: (a) a continuous definition of altruism, (b) nonexistence of pure altruism, (c) role models of altruism, (d) altruism in religion, (e) altruism within a value system and an expectation, (f) self-efficacy of helping, (g) types of altruistic acts (i.e., simple acts vs. extreme), (h) cognitive modesty bias, (i) social justice as altruism, (j), empathy's role in altruism, (k) the role of struggle in altruism, (l) altruism within a career, and (m) witnessing acts of role modeling in childhood. Specifically, the cognitive theory of the development of altruism, in particular, the modesty bias (McGuire, 2003), and social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), were supported in the findings. However, the biological theory was *not* confirmed in participants' descriptions. Another important finding in this study is the role religion plays in the development of altruism. Some participants stated that doing altruistic acts provides them a spiritual or religious connection, while other suggested that religion may make people feel they have to do altruistic acts as evidence of commitment to their faith. Furthermore, a majority of the participants (20 of 29 who reported their occupation) had been employed in the helping profession, which suggests a relationship between career and people's development of altruism and altruistic behavior.

The *Altruism Development Model* (ADM) emerged from Curry and colleague's study (Curry & Robinson, 2007; Curry et al., 2009). The ADM consists of four contributing factors to the development of altruism including: (a) biological, (b) cognitive, (c) social learning, and (d) religious/spiritual. The biological factor states that there is an altruistic gene and that people are either born altruistic or they are not (Dugatkin 1976; Rushton, 1981). The social theory of altruism states that altruistic caring is learned by modeling (Konenci & Ebbensen, 1983). The social theory of altruism states that altruistic caring is learned by modeling (Konenci & Ebbensen, 1983). The last theory is religion and spirituality, which suggests that and individual's

religious and spiritual beliefs impact the development of altruism (Curry et al., 2007, 2009). The four contributing theories of the ADM are discussed next.

Biological Theory of the Development of Altruism

Altruism is viewed both as a trait (i.e., altruistic personality type) and state; this dichotomous view challenges researchers to question if one is altruistic (i.e., a personal trait) versus being altruistic (i.e., behavioral manifestation; Eisenberg et al., 1999). The biological theory states that there is an altruistic gene and that people are either born altruistic or they are not (Dugatkin 1976; Rushton, 1981). The biological theory is exemplified in nature by looking at the relational patterns of bees, and different roles (e.g., worker bees, drones, queen bee) bees play to contribute to their community without receiving something in return (Eisenberg et al.). Specifically, altruistic acts (e.g., kidney donation) are done within a human family system to provide protection or enhancement of family members support the biological theory (Robinson & Curry, 2006). *Kin selection* is the explanation of why people help relatives over others in order to preserve and protect their gene pool (Dugaktin, 2006). Hamilton's rule states that an altruistic gene exists, and performing an altruistic act for someone who shares similar genes (i.e., a blood relative) preserves the evolution of the altruistic gene (Hamilton, 1964). However, biological altruism may expand beyond a family system. For example, *reflexive altruism*, which describes why people help others they don't know in crisis as a natural reflex instead of a conscious choice (e.g., saving a stranger in crisis; Pilivan & Charing, 1990).

Cognitive Theory of the Development of Altruism

Eisenberg (1991) suggest that altruism is cognitively learned as one develops their ability to take on others' perspectives. As a result, the individual develops empathy. Therefore, as individuals develop and mature, they should naturally become more altruistic (Krebs & Van

Hesteren, 1994). As children mature, their cognitive understanding of altruism develops (Robinson & Curry, 2006), and children who have high cognitive empathy incorporate altruistic behavior into their interactions with others (Fry, 1976). As individuals develop and mature, they become more altruistic (Krebs & Van Hesteren, 1994). Bar-Tal and Raviv (1982) describe six stages of the development of helping behavior in children:

1. *Compliance-concrete and defined reinforcement*: Children are asked to help and are rewarded for helping behavior or punished for resistance.
2. *Compliance*: Children help to appease authority, and a concrete reward is not necessary to motivate helping behavior.
3. *Internal initiative-concrete reward*: Children volunteer to help, but anticipate reward.
4. *Normative behavior*: Children become compliant to help due to social demands and norms.
5. *Generalized reciprocity*: Children are motivated to help others because they believe it will be reciprocated.
6. *Altruistic behavior*: Children help simply for the benefit of the other person(s), without expecting something in return.

The cognitive theory also explains the modesty bias that occurs during or after an altruistic act. The *modesty-bias* is when the person who does altruistic acts downplays the impact of his or her actions, or doesn't recognize them at all (McGuire, 2003). Krebs and Van Hesteren's (1994) *Cognitive Structural Development of Altruism* is based on six propositions:

1. People's ways of understanding their social worlds are organized in terms of cognitive structures that develop in an additive-inclusive, stage like manner.

2. Forms of thought and behavior result from a dynamic interaction between cognitive structures, other internal processes, and the demands and opportunities of situations.
3. The stages of cognitive-social development described by theorists are based in parallel processes-they are structurally congruent and isomorphic.
4. Structurally isomorphic stages of ego, social, and moral development predispose people to engage in structurally isomorphic forms of prosocial behavior. Eight ideal types of altruism can be derived from the isomorphic stages of major cognitive-development theorists.
5. Each succeeding form of altruism meets the criteria of ideal or pure altruism more fully, exclusively, precisely, and effectively than its predecessors.
6. The relation between stage-structures and altruistic behavior is mediated by a set of intervening cognitive and affective processes that have been linked by researchers to prosocial behavior. (p. 3)

Religion and Spirituality Theory of the Development of Altruism

The religious and spiritual origins of altruism emerged from Curry and colleagues (2009) investigation. They found in their qualitative study that one component that impacted the development of altruism was one's faith and the expectations that this faith had on them to do good acts. Some religious sectors, such as Christianity and Judaism, state that followers must do good works for others (Skove & Siglow, 1994). Curry and colleagues found that participants described religions as a guide for altruistic acts. However, Swank and colleagues (in press) found the converse reaction that religion may make people feel obligated to altruistic acts; therefore, the participants did not view this act as altruistic. Additionally, Swank and colleagues found that

altruistic acts provided participants a spiritual connection. Therefore, religion and spirituality have been found to play a role in the development of altruism.

Social Learning Theory of the Development of Altruism

Social learning theory suggests that altruistic caring is learned through social interactions and modeling (Bandura, 1977; Konenci & Ebbensen, 1975). Children learn to be altruistic from parents/primary caregivers and other adults who role model altruistic behavior as opposed to those who discuss it but do not implement it (Bryan & Walbek, 1970; Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998). Children's socialization in their school and home environment determines if the child will behave altruistically or not, and what types of helping behaviors they will participate in (Simmons & Sands-Dudelczyk, 1983). The school environment is society's most influential opportunity to contribute to children's development of altruism (Rushton, 1992). Robinson and Curry (2006) suggest four ways to create an altruistic climate within schools: (a) define and increase awareness of altruism as a norm in the school; (b) increase empathy within the school; (c) assist children and other stakeholders in the school environment in developing personal values about caring and helping; and (d) provide opportunities in the classroom to demonstrate and model self-perceived efficacy for helping others. Benefits of promoting altruistic caring within a school include increased self-esteem (Patten, 2000; Taylor, 2002) and fostering pro-social skills (Swick, 2005). Overall, the school environment is where children are learning how to be altruistic from influential leaders (e.g., school counselors) within the school.

Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977; Konenci & Ebbensen, 1975) proposes that the quantity and type of adult altruistic behavior is determined by the amount of modeling of altruistic behavior they received throughout their development (Rushton, 1982). From this perspective, altruism develops in individuals and is *not* a trait that they are born with or obtain

(Krebs & Van Hesteren, 1994). Men and women provide the same amount of help; however, women are more likely to be nondirective and nurturing in their helping behavior, and men are more often task-oriented and directive (Curry, Smith, & Robinson, 2009; Piliavin & Charng, 1990). The type of altruistic behavior men and women perform is influenced by social roles and the gender socialization process (Piliavin & Charng, 1990).

Empathy-Altruism Hypothesis

Empathy is a core condition of an effective counselor (Rogers, 1957) it is important to explore the relationship between empathy and altruism. Byrne (2008) describes altruism as a combination of helping and empathy. Altruistic behavior is actions toward others to improve their situation, and being empathic by sharing emotions of the other (Byrne). The empathy-altruism theory is a hypothesis that those who are more altruistic have greater empathy (Krebs, 1970). The empathy-altruism hypothesis suggests that empathy is a motivating factor of altruistic behavior (Batson & Shaw, 1991). Individuals who are more empathic are more altruistic (Krebs, 1975). Wakefield (1993) explains four facets in regards to the empathy-altruism hypothesis: (a) an individual cognitively takes on the perspective of another, (b) this cognitive process causes an emotional reaction of distress which the individual wants to avoid and an emotional reaction that is congruent with the others' feelings, (c) the congruent feelings which results in an empathic response, (d) the empathic response causes one to feel compassion and other positive feelings toward the other which motivates an altruistic behavior.

Cialdini (1991) challenges the empathy-altruism hypothesis by suggesting that the empathic response causes distress in the individual being empathic; therefore, the altruistic behavior is an egoistic response to relieve the distress of that individual and not the other who is originally in distress. However, Wakefield (1993) suggests that an empathic response is not a

literal translation of feelings instead it is a way that one begins to understand how another is feeling and may not cause an individual distress until after the altruistic act; therefore, empathy is the cause of altruistic behavior not distress.

Empirical Research on Altruism

Due to the breadth of research on altruism, the focus of this review of research focuses on the studies conducted in the helping profession and specifically the counseling profession.

Within the context of the counseling relationship, “altruism consists of a counselor engaging in a helping relationship, motivated by unselfish caring and concern, without the expectation of receiving concrete rewards or reciprocal care and concern from the client” (Swank, Ohrt, & Robinson, in press, p. 3).

In the Helping Professions

Lubove (1965) labels those within the helping profession as “professional altruists” (p. 5). A helping professional is described as “a service-oriented professional who is committed to improving the quality of life of clients in areas in which he or she has qualified expertise and who interacts with clients to facilitate the delivery of the service(s)” (Hodges & Vickery, 1989, p. 1). Kreb (1970) suggested that the study of altruism is important because it provides researchers further understanding of: (a) social behavior, (b) personality, and (c) human nature. Therefore, examining and contributing to research on altruism in the helping profession enhances the understanding of humans personally, professionally and socially.

Byrne (2008) suggests that altruism is a possible motivating factor for choosing the helping profession. She conducted two studies to examine the differences between students’ levels of altruism related to their gender and program of study (speech-language pathology, education, occupational therapy, physiotherapy, and social work). In the initial study,

undergraduate students ($N = 510$) completed five items on the *Self-Report Altruism Scale* (SRA-scale; Rushton, Chrisjohn, & Fekken, 1981). The original *SRA-scale* has 20 statements which asked participants how frequently they have behaved in an altruistic way in the past year. Byrne selected five items based on Brown, Palamenta, and Moore's (2003) study which found these items differentiate between altruists and non-altruists. Byrne modified the statement on the SRA by adjusting the wording and changing the statements to "I would" instead of "I have" to allow participants to express their altruistic intention even if they were not in specific situations. The five items to obtain participants level of altruism Byrne used were: (1) I would look after a neighbors belongings, (2) I would help someone I didn't know, (3) I would help an acquaintance get something they needed, (4) I would share credit for work when I could take all the credit, and (5) I would bend the rules for someone I didn't know well.

Principal component analysis was performed to examine if all five items represent one factor of altruism; one item (i.e., I would bend the rules for someone I didn't know well) was removed because it did not load with the other items. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) identified no difference on the SRA-scale scores between program of study ($F [4, 505] = 1.223$, $p = 0.30$). Comparison of gender was made between all males and females from the total group, due to the limited number of men in each program. There was no difference between males ($M = 4.16$) and females ($M = 4.27$) on the modified *SRA-scale* ($t [489] = 1.89$, $p = 0.059$). Therefore, altruism levels do *not* vary between program of study and gender, which suggests that those entering the helping profession are altruistic regardless of the specific field within the helping profession they are pursuing or their gender.

The follow-up study by Byrne (2008) was a qualitative investigation which employed a *Systems Theory Framework* (Patton & McMahon, 1999) using an unstructured conversational

format to provide participants an opportunity to explore altruistic reasons for pursuing their program of study, and to further examine differences between the types of altruistic behaviors of men and women in helping professions. Ninety-seven participants from the initial study stated they were interested in participating in the follow-up study; however, only 24 participants were selected due to logistical limitations. The 24 participants were selected based on their gender, age, ethnicity, and program of study to create a representative sample, but more importantly to gain a more depth in understanding of student experiences. The data was coded using qualitative software, NVivo, resulting in 16 major codes and 151 subcategories based on constructs within the *Systems Theory Framework* (i.e., individual, society).

The findings suggested that there was variation between males' and females' reasons for pursuing the helping profession (Byrne, 2008). Female participants focused more on helping individuals, while male participants spoke more about contributing to society. Overall, both gender's career choice was based on a basic desire to help people; however, participants who were in the education program of study did *not* identify altruistic reasons for pursuing their profession. This finding is noteworthy as school counselors are considered educators. However, it is important to consider that the limited number of male participants ($n = 78$) compared to number of female participants ($n = 399$), in the initial study, may not provide enough evidence that there is no difference of altruism based on gender, which was a major focus of Byrne's study. Additionally, in the qualitative investigation there may be differences (e.g., levels of altruism) between those who volunteered to participate in the interviews and those who did not. The limited representation of males within the helping profession is evident in the sample for this study.

Duffy and Raque-Bogdan (2010) explored the relationship between an individual's future motivation to serve others and career outcomes in two studies. The purpose of the first study was to develop a valid and reliable instrument to measure service motivation. Service motivation is described as the "desire to serve others through one's future career" (p. 250). Service motivation is a similar construct to altruism because it is focused on the motivation to help others, but it is specific to career choice. The researchers developed a 20-item Likert scale instrument, after being reviewed by experts it was revised to 12 items. Two hundred and twenty-five undergraduates completed the instrument and principal axis factoring (PAF) was conducted which resulted in 2 factors (52% of the variance was attributed to one factor, 9% to a second factor). However, after evaluating the eigenvalues of each factor and the scree plot only one factor was supported; therefore, PAF was conducted again forcing one factor. Six items were eliminated because they did not meet the .60 factor loading criteria. Additionally, validity of the instrument was established through assessing convergent and divergent validity.

In the second study conducted by Duffy and Raque-Bogdan (2010), the researchers used the instrument developed in their first study to further examine the relationships among: (a) service motivation, (b) career-decision self-efficacy, (c) career adaptability, (d) career optimism, and (d) career indecision. Undergraduate psychology students ($n = 265$) completed an online survey which included four instruments: (a) service motivation was assessed using the author-developed 6-item instrument (Duffy & Raque-Bogdan, 2010) instrument; (b) *The Career Decision Self-Efficacy-Short Form* (CDSE-SF; Betz, Klein, & Taylor, 1996); (c) *The Career Futures Inventory* (CFI; Rottinghaus, Day, & Borgen, 2005), which measure career adaptability and optimism; and (d) the *Career Decision Scale* (CDS; Osipow, Carney, & Barak, 1976). Service motivation had a weak to moderate correlation with career decision self-efficacy ($r = .29$,

$p < .01$), career adaptability ($r = .25, p < .01$), career optimism ($r = .40, p < .01$), and career indecision ($r = -.28, p < .01$). Therefore, students with higher levels of service motivation (i.e., altruistic motivation) had higher levels of career self-efficacy, ability to adapt within a career, and are more excited about their future career. Furthermore, students with higher levels of service motivation were less indecisive about their future career choice.

Duffy and Raque-Bogdan (2010) results are important when considering the relationship between altruism and satisfaction within a career, because those who are motivated by serving others (i.e., altruistic) may be more satisfied in their career environment (i.e., lower levels of burnout) as evidenced by the relationship of service motivation and career optimism. However, this inference needs to be made with caution because a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was not conducted on the measurement to evaluate service motivation, which was created by the researchers in the first study. A CFA would be beneficial to validate the construct and ensure the reliability of service motivation with a different sample, considering it is a major construct for the study. Also, the students were *not* immersed in the professional world yet; therefore, their levels of service motivation and optimism may change.

In the Counseling Profession

Milenkovic and Sakotic (1997) conducted structured interviews to explore therapists ($N = 17$) understanding of altruism in order to clarify the various definitions they found within their research. Milenkovic and Sakotic believed there was connection between empathy and altruism within the counseling profession. Milenkovic and Sakotic suggest that psychotherapeutic practice and altruism are not interchangeable, and distinguish the difference between helping others and altruism; they state that helping is not always altruistic.

The majority of the participants worked in Belgrade; therefore, the sample was purposive (Paton, 1990) due to the limited number of practicing therapists in this area. Seven men and ten women participated; their average work experience was 17 years. The participants were asked to evaluate and rank six life goals: (a) learning (i.e., research), (b) practicality, (c) esthetics, (d) helping others, (e) career, and (f) spirituality. Nonparametric statistics were used to analyze the distribution of rank frequencies, and analysis of the interview data was conducted to identify themes; however, the qualitative analysis was *not* clearly described by the researchers. The findings indicated that one out of 17 therapists considered helping as the most important life goal. Learning and spirituality were most ranked the highest followed by practicality and then helping others.

The qualitative findings of Milenkovic and Sakotic (1997) study suggested that therapist's understanding of altruism was represented on a continuum, which is consistent with previous research (Krebs & Van Hesteren, 1994; Rushton, 1982; Walters, 1975) and the operational definition used in the current study (Eisenberg et. al., 1999). On one end of the continuum altruism is viewed as an ideal (i.e., pure altruism) and that altruism is connected to therapy. The other end of the continuum participants described altruism as a pathology (i.e., sacrifice, masochism) and that it is not connected to the counseling relationship. Most participants viewed altruism in the middle of the continuum, and connected their understanding of altruism to empathy. The findings need to be interpreted with caution because the qualitative methodology is not clearly described. Furthermore, the study could be improved by connecting the ranking of life goals to the qualitative investigation. For example, Milenkovic and Sakotic could elaborate on participants who ranked helping others the highest of their life goals and what their understanding of altruism was and then compare and contrast it with those who viewed

altruism negatively. However, the findings support the connection between altruism and empathy which supports the empathy-altruism hypothesis (Krebs, 1970, 1975). Additionally the study supports the operational definition used for the current study. Moreover, there are minimal studies (Flynn & Black; Swank et al., in press; Swank et al., 2011) that investigate altruism within the counseling profession; however, this study contributes to the connection between altruism and counseling.

Swank and colleagues (in press) completed a follow-up qualitative study of the Robinson, Curry 2007 study. Participants (20 of 29) reported being employed in the helping profession. Robinson and Curry (2007) suggest that there is a recognized a theme between one's career choice and people's development of altruism and altruistic behavior. Therefore, Swank and colleagues sought to further investigate students in the helping profession, counseling students', perceptions of altruism. Moreover, the study was conducted to further examine the *Altruism Development Model* (ADM) that emerged from the study done in a retirement community (Robinson & Curry, 2007; Curry, et al., 2009).

Swank and colleagues (in press) used a grounded theory approach to support the theory of the ADM. The participants were 19 master's level counselors-in-training (17 females, 2 males) enrolled in a CACREP accredited program in the southeastern United States. The programs of study represented in this investigation were: school counseling ($n = 9$), mental health counseling ($n = 5$), and marriage and family therapy ($n = 5$). Semi-structured interviews, consisting of 17 open-ended questions and were 15-45 minutes in length, were transcribed, and triangulated with field notes that described participants' non-verbal behaviors. The transcriptions were analyzed using open coding and axial coding (Glesne, 2006) to identify categories and subcategories.

Swank and colleagues (in press) used Eisenberg and colleagues (1999) definition to operationally define altruism. All participants were asked to describe their personal definition of altruism; their definitions included caring for others, but varied in their view of expecting or not expecting something in return. The findings supported all four factors (biological, cognitive, social learning, and religious/spiritual) of the ADM. Additionally, other themes that emerged from the data included: (a) the connection between community and altruism, (b) altruism through the lifespan, and (c) the relationship between altruism and the counseling profession. Participants discussed the influence that altruistic acts (e.g., volunteering, donations) have on the development of a successful community. There were times in participants lives they felt more altruistic (e.g., being a counseling student allows me to engage in helping others) or, in contrast, less altruistic (e.g., being a student makes me very busy and selfish). Eighteen of nineteen participants reported that their experience of altruism influenced their choice to become a counselor. Participants stated that “counselors who are more altruistic tend to enter the field to help others instead of having their own needs met” (Swank et al., in press, p. 21). Additionally, one participant stated that “counselors are people who want to help others” (p. 20). The connection between altruism and the counseling profession is consistent with the findings in Milenkovic and Sakotic (1997) qualitative study. The findings of the study are only representative of the counseling students from one counseling program. However, the findings support the ADM, which provides a theoretical framework for the current study, and supports the connection between altruism and the counseling profession.

Swank and colleagues (2011) conducted a similar study to their prior investigation (Swank et al., in press) of American counseling students’ perceptions of the development of altruism. However, in this current study the participants were eight students from the United

Kingdom (UK; all female). The same research protocol and data analysis was used in the study done in the UK (i.e., semi-structured interviews, field notes, open and axial coding of categories). Additionally, the findings of this study aligned with the previous study. All four factors of the ADM model were supported. Specifically, all eight participants believed that biology influenced the development of altruism in some way (Swank et al., in press). The UK counseling students reported that as they matured they developed a greater understanding of altruism (i.e., cognitive theory), and some participants exemplified the modesty bias. For example, one participant minimized her altruistic behavior by suggesting that she got much more from her experience in the Peace Corp than she gave. Social learning played an integral role in the participants' development of altruism. They stated that they learned how to behave altruistically in their childhood from their family members, and when faced with challenging circumstances. Moreover, participants recognized the influence religion and spirituality have on altruism. The participants specifically described the bible being influential in their development of altruism and feeling spiritual when they participated in altruistic acts such as volunteering. On the contrary, some participants indicated that religion causes people to do altruistic acts out of obligation.

There was not a predominant factor that was identified in the data (Swank et al., in press). However, the same three additional themes (i.e., altruism and community, altruism across the lifespan, and altruism and the helping profession) emerged. The authors noted that their findings emphasize the importance of infusing altruistic caring into counseling training curriculum because it connects with empathy, which is a core condition in the therapeutic relationship (Krebs, 1970; Rogers, 1957), and may promote the development of effective counselors. The findings were limited because only female members of the British Association of Counseling and

Psychotherapy (BACP) were interviewed. Moreover, similarities between the themes in Swank and colleague's current study and the previous study may be due to the interview protocol used which may lead the participants to answer questions in a particular way. However, the findings provide further support for the ADM, and bolster the connection between altruism and the counseling profession in an international context.

Flynn and Black (2011) conducted a grounded theory qualitative study that explored the beliefs between altruism and self-interest in the counseling profession. A snowball sampling procedure was used to recruit 25 participants (i.e., seven professional counselors, 14 counselor educators, three marriage and family therapists, one psychologist). Seven participants participated in a focus group, 19 participants were individually interviewed, and one participant participated in both. Additionally, participants were asked to provide photographs to represent self-interest and altruism. Furthermore, participants completed the *Self-Report Altruism Scale* (SRA-scale; Rushton, Chrisjohn, & Fekken, 1981) to provide triangulation. Flynn and Black used the SRA to help participants focus and reflect on altruism before they participated in interviews or the focus group. In depth quantitative analysis was not conducted; however, descriptive measures of the mean scores of the instruments were provided. The range of the SRA scores was between 29 to 66 ($M = 48.88$, $SD = 11.61$). The range, mean, and standard deviation were similar to the Rushton et al.'s (1981) study ($M = 55.40$, $SD = 10.57$).

Flynn and Black (2011) analyzed the data from six data collection points (i.e., focus group, individual interviews, SRA, pictures, content analysis, member check) and proposed an emergent theory of self-interest (the appropriate form of wellness within the counseling field), and altruism. Historically, altruism and wellness concepts have been viewed as dichotomous; altruism representing social-interest (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005) and wellness

signifying self-interest (Flynn & Black, 2011); however, counselors should create an integrated and personal balance of altruism and wellness to be most effective (Rogers, 1957; Maslow, 1956). The authors disputed the dichotomous relationship between altruism and wellness, stating that the participants identified altruism and wellness as “two parts of the same whole” (p. 468), and that there needs to be a balance between the two. Altruistic acts should contain a balance of social interest and self-interest (Krebs & Van Hesteren, 1994). The findings supported that there is a false dichotomous relationship between altruism and wellness, and further investigation, specifically quantitative support, is needed. Wellness is a preventive factor for burnout (Myers & Sweeney, 2008; Flynn & Black, 2011; Young & Lambie, 2006); however, a direct relationship has not been supported empirically. Therefore, further investigation of burnout and altruism within the counseling field is needed.

Burnout

Freudenberger (1974) and Maslach (1978) are influential contributors to defining and understanding the construct of burnout. Pines and Maslach (1978) describe burnout as physical and emotional exhaustion that creates a negative self-image, poor outlook of one’s job, and negative impact on clients. Researchers in the counseling field view burnout as a cause of impairment, which is one’s inability to be an effective counselor (Lawson & Verant, 2007). Kottler and Hazler (1996) stated that approximately 6,000 counselors in the United States were suffering from some type of mental or emotional impairment. Maslach and Jackson (1986) found three factors that comprise the burnout construct: (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) depersonalization, and (c) reduced personal accomplishment. Of the two constructs in the proposed study, burnout has been examined the most. Contributors to burnout in the counseling profession include (a) student-counselor ratio, (b) years of experience, and (c) role discrepancies

(Butler & Constantine, 2003; Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006). For the purpose this investigation, *burnout* is defined as the “condition of physical and emotional exhaustion, involving the development of negative self-concept, negative job attitude, and a loss of concern and feeling for clients” (Pines & Maslach, 1978, p. 234).

Theories of Burnout

Freudenberger Theory of Burnout

Burnout research was originated in the helping professions (e.g., counseling, nursing; Freudenberger, 1975; Maslach 1976). Freudenberger (1990) suggested that people pursue the helping professions are motivated by: (a) the desire for personal growth, (b) personal achievement, (c) financial rewards, and lastly, (d) a desire to help people. Freudenberger (1989) was the first to introduce the concept of burnout in 1973, from his experience working in free healthcare facilities. He noticed negative changes in volunteers’ moods, attitude, and motivation, and a decrease in their idealistic view during the first year of their service, and he wanted to examine this phenomenon further. Freudenberger (1989) also witnessed burnout in therapists working in alcohol and drug treatment facilities. However, it is important to note that the people he observed were often those who had completed their own treatment and were asked or chose to pursue a therapist position in a treatment facility. Therefore, the motivation for these people to get into the field may have been to continue to enhance their own treatment rather than altruistic reasons.

Freudenberger (1986) described burnout as a consequence of feeling overwhelmed in the work setting which results in decreased energy, decline in commitment to a job, and a diminishing need to prove oneself. Freudenberger (1986, 1990) identified the symptoms of burnout to be negative changes in: (a) attitude, insights and decision-making (Freudenberger,

1981), (b) physical state (e.g., psychosomatic pains); (c) mental and emotional state (e.g., irrational, frustration, depression, loneliness, anger); (d) behavioral state (e.g., impatience), and (e) organization and motivation (e.g., withdrawing). The symptoms of burnout often manifest into impairment. Freudenberger (1990) described that a hazard of working in the helping profession, specifically psychotherapy, is becoming impaired due to burnout. He described personality characteristics of professionals who are impaired, “highly competitive, are rigid, have high expectations of themselves, have excessive concerns for details, may be passive-aggressive individuals, are narcissistic, or dependent people” (pp. 32-33). He also suggests they struggle to say “no”. Helping professionals who are impaired may be more susceptible to “physical and mental disability, alcoholism, substance abuse, debilitation through aging, loss of motor skills, and become sexually involved with patients” (Freudenberger, 1984, p. 175).

Burnout is described as a process or something that develops (Freudenberg, 1989). Freudenberger (1981) first looked at burnout as an individual experience, but he and other researchers (Freudenberg, 1989; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001) expanded this exploration to include the impact society has on individual and organizational burnout. Initially, research in burnout was conducted in the helping profession, but it has expanded to other professions such as, private industry (Freudenberger, 1989; Maslach et al., 2001). Specifically, Freudenberger (1989) suggested that research on burnout should include examination of individual and societal values, ethics, and morals, and why some experience burnout and others don't.

Maslach Multidimensional Theory of Burnout

Maslach (1976), a social psychologist, conducted exploratory qualitative studies to understand the phenomenon of burnout within human services; specifically, she wanted to further understand responses to burnout. Three themes that represented the responses to burnout

include: (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) depersonalization, and (c) reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach, 1982). Maslach (1982, 1998, 2003) developed the multidimensional theory of burnout, from the three themes that emerged in her exploratory research. The three factors of burnout portray themselves in three dimensions: (a) stress dimension (i.e., emotional exhaustion), (b) interpersonal dimension (i.e., depersonalization), and (c) self-evaluation dimension (i.e., reduced personal accomplishment; Maslach et al., 2001). *Emotional exhaustion* is an individual's stress response to burnout due overwhelming exhaustion. *Depersonalization* is when an individual has an increase cynicism and detaches on an interpersonal level to clients, students, or co-workers. *Reduced personal accomplishment* is an individual's decreased level of self-efficacy and self-evaluation, and is related to feeling unproductive and incompetent. Maslach's model is multidimensional because it extends beyond the individual's emotional experience in the work setting to the response an individual has due to this stress which is exemplified by detaching from the job and feelings of self-doubt (Maslach, 2003). The relationship of the dimensions of the model varies. In most cases, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization are correlated, reduced personal accomplishment can occur due to the first two dimensions, or can occur simultaneously (Maslach et al., 2001; Maslach, 2003).

Maslach and colleagues began to focus on the opposite construct of burnout: job engagement (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Maslach et al., 2001; Maslach, 2003). Job engagement can be described as an independent construct that is a "persistent, positive motivational state of fulfillment in employees that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption" (Maslach, 2003, pp.191-192). Or it can be explained as multidimensional model that is opposite to burnout, which includes three dimensions: energy, involvement, and sense of efficacy. The three dimensions are opposite of the dimensions of burnout, and can be assessed using the opposite

scores on the MBI (Maslach et al., 2001). Job engagement is different from similar terms such as organizational commitment (i.e., loyalty to a workplace), job satisfaction (i.e., needs are fulfilled by work), or job involvement (i.e., being immersed in work); job engagement is loyalty to the work itself, a relationship with work, and being effective at work (Maslach et al.).

Empirical Research of Burnout

Intrapersonal Factors Contribution to Burnout in the Helping Professions

Piedmont (1993) conducted a longitudinal analysis of burnout among helping professionals (occupational therapists). Specifically, he assessed individual personal attributes (i.e., intrapersonal factors) and their influence on burnout and accounted for variables within the work environment. His critical view of previous research on burnout, specifically, it being burnout induced situational variables, led him to hypothesize that personal attributes, as opposed to the work environment, did contribute to burnout. Additionally, he investigated if burnout was a stable construct (i.e., trait-like) through time, similar to personality, or whether it was primarily circumstantial.

Piedmont (1993) had two phases to his longitudinal study. In phase one of the investigation, 36 occupational therapists from hospitals in the eastern United States participated. Participant's average age was 32, and they were predominantly white (92%). All participants had regular interactions with clients, and 75% were regular staff members, 19% were supervisors, and 6% did not disclose their position. The response rate of the participants was not reported, and the researcher did not state if participation was voluntary or if an incentive was given. Participants completed the MBI (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) to assess their levels of burnout, and the *NEO-Personality Inventory* (NEO-PI; Costa & McCrae, 1985). The NEO-PI consists of 181

items, and was developed from the five factor model of personality: Neuroticism (N), Extraversion (E), Openness to Experience (O), Agreeableness (A), and Conscientiousness (C).

The results of the first phase of Piedmont's (1993) investigation identified correlations between burnout dimensions (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) and personality factors). Specifically, those with higher levels of neuroticism (i.e., psychological distress, anxiety) had higher levels of emotional exhaustion ($r = .50, p < .01$) and depersonalization ($r = .51, p < .01$). Also, those with higher levels of agreeableness (i.e., helping behavior, service oriented, altruistic) had lower levels of emotional exhaustion ($r = -.35, p < .05$) and depersonalization ($r = -.31, p < .05$), and higher levels of personal accomplishment ($r = .35, p < .05$). Therefore, those who had more altruistic characteristics had lower levels of burnout.

In phase two of his study, seven months later, Piedmont (1993) controlled for variables within the work environment to ensure that the relationship between personality and burnout was not due to situational variables. A longitudinal design was used due to the sample size in phase one. "Multiple observations help compensate for the lower power inherent to a small sample" (Piedmont, 1993, p. 466). Additionally, this design provided avenue to measure the stability of burnout. Twenty-nine of the 36 occupational therapists participated in phase two. Participants completed the MBI again, and the *Work Environment Scale* (WES; Moos, 1981). The WES assesses the social environment within a work setting. The NEO-PI was not completed because personality is a stable construct (Deary, Watson, & Hogston, 2003). The results from phase two of the investigation identified a relationship between the MBI scores in both phases: emotional exhaustion ($r = .47$), depersonalization ($r = .59$), and personal accomplishment ($r = .62$). Therefore, in this study, burnout was a stable construct.

To examine the contribution of the work environment (Piedmont, 1993), a hierarchical stepwise multiple regressions was used. Based on the significant results in phase one, only neuroticism and agreeableness were used to predict emotional exhaustion and depersonalizations, and the conscientious was used to predict personal accomplishment. “Using only conceptually predicted scales help to conserve degrees of freedom and enhance the statistical power of the regression analyses” (Piedmont, 1993, p. 469). There was no relationship between the WES scores and the MBI dimensions. However, when the personality attributes were entered into the analysis there was a predictive relationship. Those with higher levels of neuroticism and lower levels of agreeableness are predicted to have higher levels of emotional exhaustion (adjusted $R = .65$; $F(2, 23) = 10.13, p < .05$) and depersonalization (adjusted $R = .33$; $F(2, 23) = 3.08, p < .05$). Additionally, participants with higher levels of conscientiousness are predicted to have higher levels of personal accomplishment (adjusted $R = .28$; $F(1, 24) = 3.48, p < .05$). Therefore, personal attributes do influence the variance in burnout levels even when work environment is controlled for. Piedmont’s results supported the theoretical model for the current study. There is a relationship between burnout and personal attributes; such as altruistic characteristics. Specifically, those who are more altruistic have lower levels of burnout. Considering school counselors’ work environments vary by level and location, but personal attributes are constant, it is beneficial to recognize personal attributes (i.e., altruism) of school counselors that predict the possibility of them becoming burnt out. However, these results need to be interpreted with caution due to the small sample size use to run the statistical analyses.

Deary, Watson, and Hogston (2003) examined the relationships among stress, burnout, personality and attrition in nursing students in a longitudinal investigation. A cohort of nursing students, in Scotland, volunteered to complete assessments at three times during their program:

time 1 (at the entry into the program; $n = 168$), time 2 (12 months; $n = 124$), and time 3 (24 months; $n = 90$). Participants completed the following assessments at time 1: (a) *Alice Heim 4 test* (AH4 test; Heim 1970) to assess mental ability, (b) the *NEO Five Factor Inventory* (NEO FFI; Costa & McCrae, 1992) to assess five factors of personality (neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness), (c) the *Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations* (CISS; Endler & Parker, 1999), and (d) *General Health Questionnaire-28* (GHQ; Goldberg & Williams, 1988) to measure psychological distress. At time 2 participants completed the NEO FFI, the CISS, the GHQ, the *Stress in Student Nurses questionnaire* (authors), and MBI to measure burnout. The MBI was the only instrument given at time 3. The researchers chose to limit the administration of the AH4 test, the NEO FFI, and the CISS because mental ability, personal attributes and coping strategies are stable constructs. To analyze the data the researchers used Pearson's correlation, t-test, Mann-Whitney test (used when sample data are not equally distributed), and Receiver Operation Characteristics (ROC).

Deary and colleagues (2003) identified that the participants' levels of burnout were consistent from time 2 to time 3; emotional exhaustion ($r = .56$), depersonalization ($r = .45$), and personal achievement ($r = .40$), which is consistent with Piedmont's (1993) study that suggests that burnout is construct that does *not* change in a short period of time. However, personal accomplishment did increase from time 2 ($M = 37.1$, $SD = 6.5$) to time 3 ($M = 39.0$, $SD = 5.1$); $t(71) = 1.66$, $p < .05$, which may be influence by others (e.g., being recognized by others for achievements). Additionally, participants who had lower levels of agreeableness (i.e., less altruistic qualities) had higher levels of depersonalization ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$). Therefore, participants who had lower levels of altruism had higher levels of burnout. Limitations to this

study included the small sample size and sample mortality throughout the study. Nevertheless, Deary and colleagues' results supported the theoretical model for the current study.

Piedmont (1993) and Deary and colleagues (2003) provide empirical support that that helping professionals (e.g., practicing school counselors) with higher levels of altruism will have lower levels of burnout (as measured by the three factors [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*; MBI-ES; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Specifically, Piedmont and Deary and colleagues offer evidence that it is worthy to investigate personal characteristics; such as altruism, impact on burnout within the school counseling field.

Empirical Research on School Counselor Burnout

Of the two constructs for this study, burnout has been examined more. Due to the extensive research examining burnout, this review of literature focuses on studies conducted in school counseling because it is the specific environment for the current study. On average, 90% of school counselors experience stress due to their job (Baggerly & Osborn, 2006). Stress is a major contributor to burnout (Maslach et al., 1996). Lambie (2007) suggests that the consequences of burnout for school counselors include hopelessness, being absent from work, and a negative impact on students. Counselors are at high risk for experiencing burnout because of the nature of their work (Skovholt, 2001). Burnout in the school counseling profession can be impacted by both external factors (i.e., work environment) and internal factors (i.e., personal attributes; Sheffield & Baker, 2005). The following section examines empirical research on external and internal factors of school counselor burnout, but an emphasis of internal factors is conducted due to the internal constructs in the current study (i.e., altruism).

External Factors Contribution to Burnout

Baggerly and Osborn (2006) investigated the relationship between school counselors' career satisfaction and job commitment. Both career satisfaction and job commitment may be convergent constructs of job engagement which is the divergent construct of burnout. Job engagement can be described as "persistent, positive motivational state of fulfillment in employees that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption" (Maslach, 2003, pp.191-192). Specifically, Baggerly and Osborn examined if career satisfaction and job commitment were correlates of the five variables: (1) school level, (2) school counselor duties, (3) self-efficacy of duties, (4) supervision, and (5) perceived stress. Additionally, do these variables predict school counselors' career satisfaction and commitment? A survey was mailed to 2,400 Florida public school counselors, 1,280 returned the survey (53% response rate). The Florida School Counselors Survey 2000 (Baggerly, 2000) consisted of 154 Likert items, which assessed the variables within the study.

The descriptive results regarding job satisfaction showed that 44.7% reported being "somewhat satisfied" with their career, and 39.8% were "very satisfied"; only 4% were "very dissatisfied". The results regarding job commitment were similar. Seventy-six percent reported being committed to their job. There was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and appropriate duties ($r = .14, p < .01$), inappropriate duties ($r = -.185, p < .01$), supervision ($r = .09, p < .01$) and stress ($r = -.30, p < .01$). A multiple regression was used to determine predictors of job satisfaction. Appropriate duties ($\beta = .391, p < .001$), high self-efficacy ($\beta = .0863, p < .05$), and district ($\beta = .040, p < .05$) and peer supervision ($\beta = .027, p < .05$) were positive predictors of career satisfaction, while negative predictors were inappropriate duties ($\beta = -.303, p < .001$) and stress ($\beta = -.285, p < .05$). Job commitment was positively correlated with appropriate duties

($r = .08, p < .05$), supervision by peers ($r = .06, p < .05$), and negatively correlated with stress ($r = -.11, p < .05$). The only positive predictor of career commitment was appropriate counseling duties ($\beta = .180, p < .01$); the only negative predictor was stress ($\beta = -.086, p < .001$). The main limitation of this study is that it is only representative of school counselors in Florida. Additionally, there was limited variance of job commitment, job satisfaction, and self-efficacy amongst the participants. The lack of variance may mean that school counselors who are more satisfied and committed to their job are more likely to complete the survey.

The stress variable relates well to the current study. Specifically, emotional exhaustion is the stress dimension of burnout; it is an individual's stress response to burnout due to overwhelming exhaustion (Maslach et al., 2001). Baggerly and Osborn (2006) found that those who had higher levels of stress were less satisfied and committed to their job. Therefore, those who are experiencing higher levels of emotional exhaustion (stress) do *not* have high levels of job engagement. Baggerly and Osborn suggest that school counselor stress is related to the lack of school counselors being able to do social-oriented duties (e.g., counseling and consultation). Social-oriented duties relate to altruism because it is doing something for someone else. Therefore, it may be inferred that school counselor stress is related to school counselors *not* being able to do altruistic acts within the school environment.

Moyer (2011) examined three predictor variables of a school counselor's role: (a) non-guidance activities (i.e., testing, lunch duty, and administrative duties), (b) school counselor supervision, and (c) counselor-to-student ratios, and their ability to predict burnout. ASCA regional and state representatives were sent an email to distribute to their members. A response rate was not clear because it was not stated how many emails were sent and how many members were in each region and state. A total of 382 school counselors answered a web-based survey

which included: (a) a demographic questionnaire focused on the three predictor variables, and (b) the *Counselor Burnout Inventory* (CBI; Lee, Baker, Cho, Heckathorn, Holland, Newgent, ... Yu, 2007) which is a 20-item self-report measure that includes five subscales of burnout: (a) exhaustion, (b) incompetence, (c) negative work environment, (d) devaluing clients, and (e) deterioration in personal life. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to determine an adequate model fit, $\chi^2(62) = 269.099$, $p < .001$, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .939, Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) = .975, Rooted Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .094, with all estimated factor loadings greater than .40.

A hierarchical regression analysis, using six different models was conducted to examine the individual and combined predictive qualities of the three predictor variables to the five scales of burnout and burnout as a whole. The results excluded student-to-counselor ratio because it did *not* account for a significant amount of variance in any of the six models. Non-guidance activities accounted for a significant amount of variance in predicting exhaustion $R^2 = .047$; negative work environment $R^2 = .064$; incompetence, $R^2 = .04$; deterioration in personal life, $R^2 = .034$; devaluing clients, $R^2 = .013$; and total burnout, $R^2 = .073$. Supervision did *not* account for a significant amount of variance in predicting exhaustion or deterioration in personal life after removing the variance explained by non-guidance activities; however, it did predict negative work environment, $R^2 = .078$; incompetence, $R^2 = .051$; devaluing clients, $R^2 = .025$, and total burnout, $R^2 = .09$. The results need be interpreted with caution as the effect sizes were small or small to medium (Cohen, 1988), and the response rate was not clear. However, acknowledging that student-to-counselor ratios was *not* predictive of burnout is an interesting finding but in this study the average counselor-to-student ratio was 1:348 ($SD = 146.54$), which is below the national average 1:457, according to the National Center for Education Statistics (2011).

Additionally, participants who performed higher amounts of non-guidance activities (e.g., clerical work) had higher levels of burnout. However, it is difficult to determine if participants are being told to do non-guidance activities and that is causing burnout, or are counselors who are experiencing burnout choosing to partake in non-guidance activities. Therefore, it may be important to clarify this discrepancy by identifying a mediating factor; such as an intrapersonal factor.

Intrapersonal Factors Contribution to Burnout

Sheffield and Baker (2005) conducted retrospective semi-structured phenomenological interviews with three school counselors who had experienced burnout. The sample for this study was purposive (Paton, 1990) in order to identify counselors who had actually experienced burnout. The participants were three school counselors: (a) a 53-year old European American female, over 30 years of counseling experience, experienced burnout as a high school counselor; (b) a 40-year old European American female, eight years of school counseling experience, experienced burnout working as a middle school counselor and as an elementary school counselor; and (c) a 32-year old African American female, five years of school counseling experience, experienced burnout as an middle school counselor. Each participant was interviewed twice. The first interview was to develop rapport and to identify the situation(s) the participants experienced burnout. The purpose of the second interview was to gain a deeper understanding of the participants' experiences of burnout.

Sheffield and Baker's (2005) interviews were transcribed; member checks and an auditor examination were completed to provide triangulation of the data. The researchers used grounded theory (Glesne & Strauss, 1967) to identify themes within data. Themes were determined by frequency and distinctiveness. Four themes were identified: (a) important beliefs, (b) burnout

feelings, (c) burnout attitude, and (d) collegial support. Important beliefs referred to the participants expectations within their role (e.g., contact with students) that are not achieved due other role conflicts (e.g., too many unrelated duties and not enough time). Burnout feelings were congruent with the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout (e.g., frustration, boredom, incompetence, hopelessness), and burnout attitude aligned with the depersonalization (e.g., wanting to change jobs) and reduced personal accomplishment (e.g., believing she could not do the job anymore). There was a consistent theme of lack of support from colleagues, and participants stated that support from other counselors would be beneficial in coping with burnout.

The findings need to be interpreted with caution because the researchers seemed to mix phenomenological and grounded theory methodologies, and the sample size is small and is not representative of school counselors (Sheffield & Baker, 2005). However, this study provides a more in-depth understanding of school counselors' real experiences of burnout. Furthermore, participants discussed both external factors, which is consistent with previous research (Maslach, 1993; Butler & Constantine, 2005) and intrapersonal factors (i.e., personal attributes) influencing burnout which aligns with previous research (Deary et al., 2003; Piedmont, 1993) and the current study. Specifically, two participants stated that they were experiencing burnout because they were unable to be helpful and to be nurturing toward student due to their stressful work environment, both characteristics that align with altruism. Sheffield and Baker (2005) recommend future research to focus on intrapersonal factors influence on burnout.

Butler and Constantine (2005) examined the relationship between collective self-esteem (i.e., individuals' perceptions of themselves as member of a group) and burnout. Further exploration was conducted to examine if there were differences in sex, location of school, and

years of experience as a school counselor as they relate to burnout. A thousand members of the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) were randomly selected. A total of 538 school counselors chose to participate (54% response rate), but the final sample size was 533 (415 females, 118 males) due to insufficient data from five participants. The location of school was determined by type of environment (266 urban school, 156 suburban school, 72, rural school, and 39 other). Years of experience varied among participants ($n = 119$, 0 - 9 years; $n = 218$, 10 - 19 years; $n = 177$, 20 - 29 years; and $n = 19$, 30 plus years). The participants completed three instruments, which included in mailed survey packet of 45 total items: (a) demographic questionnaire identifying their sex, age, race or ethnicity, educational background, years of experience and location of school; (b) the *Collective Self-Esteem Scale* (CSES; Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992); and (c) *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey* (MBI-ES; Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

The school counselors have average levels of emotional exhaustion ($M = 18.21$, $SD = 7.47$), average levels of depersonalization ($M = 10.28$, $SD = 3.78$), and high levels of personal accomplishment ($M = 26.04$, $SD = 4.66$). Butler and Constantine (2005) identified that the variance of the MBI-ES subscales accounted for by the four CSES subscales was significant, $F(12, 1584) = 3.48$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .03$. Therefore, univariate analyses were conducted to examine the relationships between the components on the CSES and the MBI-ES. Participants with higher levels of private collective self-esteem (i.e., the value an individual gives to their social group) had higher levels of personal accomplishment, $F(1, 528) = 9.61$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Those with higher levels of public collective self-esteem (i.e., the value an individual believes how others perceive their social group) had lower levels of emotional exhaustion, $F(1, 528) = 6.69$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .01$, and higher levels of personal accomplishment, $F(1, 528) = 6.04$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .01$.

Additionally, those with higher levels of importance to identity collective self-esteem (i.e., the value an individual views their membership in a group as a valuable part of how they perceive themselves) had lower levels of depersonalization, $F(1, 528) = 4.68, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$, and higher levels of personal accomplishment, $F(1, 528) = 6.45, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$. Furthermore, there were no differences in regard to burnout and gender. However, there was a difference in work environment and years of employment.

Participants working in urban school settings had higher emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than those in suburban schools rural schools, and other environments (Butler & Constantine, 2005). Those with 20-29 years of experience had higher levels of depersonalization than those with 0-9 years of experience. Likewise, those with 30 years or more of experience had lower levels of personal accomplishment compared to those with less years of experience. The results need to be interpreted with caution as the effect sizes were small (Cohen, 1988), and the variance in burnout explained by collective self-esteem is limited. Overall, the authors suggest that school counselors are prideful and feel accomplished in their work setting (i.e., low levels of burnout) as evidenced by their high level of personal accomplishment. However, they are experiencing moderate levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Additionally, a higher level of collective self-esteem (i.e., the value an individual views their membership in a group as a valuable part of how they perceive themselves) was related to lower feelings of depersonalization and higher feelings of personal accomplishment. Therefore, school counselors' involved in a social group had lower levels of burnout. An inference may be made that those involved in a social-interest (e.g., opportunities to be altruistic) might experience lower levels of burnout.

Wilkerson and Bellini (2006) investigated combined demographic factors (e.g., age, student/counselor ratio, years of school counseling experience, amount of clinical supervision), and intrapersonal factors (measured by the *Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations*, ISS; Endler & Parker, 1999) and organizational factors (measured by the *Role Questionnaire*, RQ; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970) and the *Counselor Occupational Stress Inventory* (COSI; Gray, 1982) and their impact on burnout measured by the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey* (MBI-ES, MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996). A random sample ($N = 202$) of school counselors in the northeastern United States were mailed a study packet; 78 school counselors completed 123 items plus a demographic form (39% response rate).

School counselors (Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006) reported minimal burnout compared to the population norm in the MBI manual (Maslach et al., 1996). The school counselors have moderate levels of emotional exhaustion ($M = 23.13$, $SD = 10.79$), low levels of depersonalization ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 4.30$), and low levels of personal accomplishment ($M = 41.39$, $SD = 5.02$). The only subscale on the MBI-ES that was slightly elevated was emotional exhaustion ($M = 23.13$, $SD = 10.79$); however, 31 participants scored in the high range (≥ 27). A three-step hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to explore the individual and combined contributions of demographics, intrapersonal factors, and organizational factors on the three dimensions of burnout. Emotional exhaustion was predicted by all factors combined $F(14, 63) = 3.68$, $p \leq .001$ and accounted for 45% of the variance; depersonalization was predicted by all factors combined, $F(14, 63) = 1.91$, $p \leq .05$, adjusted $R^2 = .14$, and accounted for 30% of the variance; personal accomplishment was predicted by all factors combined $F(14, 63) = 3.24$, $p \leq .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .30$, and accounted for 42% of the variance. Emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment were both influenced by intrapersonal variables (i.e., coping skills, $\beta =$

.25, $p < .01$; $\beta = .35$, $p < .01$), and accounted for 25% and 35% of the variance. Specifically, those who scored higher on emotion oriented coping had higher levels of burnout. Therefore, there is a relationship between intrapersonal attributes (i.e., altruism) and burnout, which supports the theoretical framework for the current study.

Lambie (2007) investigated the relationship between school counselors' ego development and their degree of burnout in national sample. Additionally, he sought to explore school counselor's self-reported level of occupational support and their degree of burnout. He was one of the first to focus on intrapersonal characteristics of practicing school counselors and their level of burnout, rather than external factors (e.g., student-counselor ratio). The population for this study was 550 ASCA members; of the 550 contacted to participate 218 completed all of the survey instruments (39.6% response rate). Participants were mailed a packet that included a general demographic questionnaire, which included a Likert scale to assess the level of occupational support, the *Washington University Sentence Completion Test* (WUSCT Form 81; Hy & Loevinger, 1996), and the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Services Survey* (MBI-HSS; Maslach et al., 1996).

Lambie (2007) hypothesized that higher levels of ego development would contribute to lower levels of burnout. This hypothesis was examined using a path analysis and no causal relationship was found. The fit indices for the path diagram revealed that model did *not* fit the data according the conventional standards, $\chi^2 = (7, 218) = 12,279.089$, $p < .001$; goodness-of-fit index (GFI) = .058; comparative fit index (CFI) = .000; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 2.842, and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = -82.315. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test the construct of burnout with the sample. The model did *not* fit; therefore, the three dimensions of burnout were not supported with these data. Furthermore,

additional analyses were done to explore the relationship of ego development and the three dimensions of burnout. Personal accomplishment correlated with ego development ($r = .164, p = .015$); $F(3, 217) = 2.414, p = .048$; $R^2 = .033$, adjusted $R^2 = .019$. Occupational support was correlated with emotional exhaustion ($r = .409, p < .001$), depersonalization ($r = .346, p < .001$), and personal accomplishment ($r = -.269, p < .001$). Therefore, those at higher levels of ego development and occupational support had higher levels of personal accomplishment, and participants who reported high occupational support had lower levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Wilkerson (2009) examined the impact that demographic stressors, organizational stressors, and coping styles have on school counselor's level of burnout. The framework used for his study was the stress-strain-coping theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), which describes how an individual's coping skills impact the levels of stress which may lead to burnout. Participants ($N = 198$), from a random sample of members of ASCA (41% response rate) were mailed assessment packets. To measure work related stressors participants completed the *Role Questionnaire* (RQ; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970) and the *Counselor Occupational Stress Inventory* (COIS; Gray, 1982). The *Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations* (CISS; Endler & Parker, 1999) was used to assess coping styles. An overall Occupational Stress Index was calculated, by summing the subscales from the RQ and the COIS, to evaluate the amount of variance the interaction effects might be contributing to outcomes of burnout, and to examine if coping is a moderating variable to burnout. The *MBI-ES* (Maslach et al., 1996) measured burnout, which was the outcome variable. In total participants were asked to answer 113 items, excluding demographic questions. The results identified that school counselors have moderate levels of emotional exhaustion ($M = 20.84, SD = 10.16$), lower levels of depersonalization ($M =$

4.81, $SD = 4.51$), and high levels of personal accomplishment ($M = 40.86$, $SD = 4.66$). Overall, the sample was *not* experiencing high levels of burnout which is consistent previous studies (e.g., Butler & Constantine, 2005; Lambie, 2007; Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006).

Previous studies have identified both external (e.g., student-counselor ratio) and internal factors (e.g., ego development) that contribute to burnout. External contributors to burnout (e.g., student-counselor ratio, years of experience, and role discrepancies; Butler & Constantine, 2005; Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006; Wilkerson, 2009) and intrapersonal factors contributing to burnout have been minimally examined in the literature (Butler & Constantine, 2005; Lambie, 2007). Butler and Constantine (2005) examined the relationship between collective self-esteem (i.e., individual's perceptions of themselves as member of a group) and burnout. Lambie (2007) was the first to look at counselor characteristics, specifically ego-development, and its contribution to burnout. Further studies are needed to identify counselor characteristics (i.e., internal factors) that contribute to burnout (e.g., Freudenberger, 1986; Lambie, 2007; Maslach et al., 2001; Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006).

Altruism and Burnout

A purist definition of altruism; such as, “behavior by an animal that is not beneficial to or may be harmful to itself but that benefits others of its species” (Adler, 1954), may be linked to higher levels of burnout. Additionally, individuals who perform altruistic acts whose primary intention is to get something in return may have higher levels of burnout due to the disappointment or rejection of not receiving something in return rather than altruistic act itself (Pilivan & Charing, 1990). However, the operational definition of *altruism* used for this study: “behavior motivated by the concern for others or by internalized values, goals, and self-rewards rather than by the expectation of concrete or social rewards, or the desire to avoid punishment or

sanctions” (Eisenberg et. al., 1999, p. 1360), does *not* encompass the self-sacrificing behavior without anything in return. Rather it recognizes that a natural consequence of performing an altruistic act may be to receive something in return, but it is not expected.

The operational definition of *burnout* used for this study: the “condition of physical and emotional exhaustion, involving the development of negative self-concept, negative job attitude, and a loss of concern and feeling for clients” (Pines & Maslach, 1978, p. 234), includes the inability to care for clients (Pines & Maslach, 1981); therefore, if one is still able to care for others than he or she is not experiencing burnout. The inability to care for others is a sign of burnout (Skovholt, 2001). Burnout and its relationship with external factors (Baggerly & Osborn, 2006; Moyer, 2011) and intrapersonal factors (Butler & Constantine, 2005; Lambie, 2007; Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006; Wilkerson, 2009) has been examined in the school counseling literature, but its relationship with altruism has *not* been directly identified. Therefore, describing the relationship between altruism and burnout provides increased insight to intrapersonal factors (e.g., altruism) of school counselors that prevent burnout.

Empirical Research on Altruism and Burnout in Helping Professions

Altun (2002) conducted a descriptive study to determine which values are significant to nurses’ levels of burnout. Participants ($N = 160$) volunteered from two hospitals in Turkey (95% response rate). Nurses were 20 - 30 years old and had 1 - 5 years of experience. They completed a demographic questionnaire which asked them their age, level of education, marital and family status, duration of occupation, and place of work. The professional values examined in this study included: altruism, human dignity, equality, truth, aesthetics, justice, and freedom. Altruism is operationally defined as the concern for the welfare of others. Participants were asked to rank the values they implement into their professional life and influence their actions. To assess burnout,

the participants completed the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (Maslach et al., 1996), which was translated into Turkish. The translated version was assessed to be reliable and valid.

The participants (Altun, 2002) reported a moderate level emotional exhaustion ($M = 17.27$, $SD = 7.66$), low levels of depersonalization ($M = 5.46$, $SD = 4.25$), and minimal reduced personal achievement ($M = 22.76$, $SD = 5.85$). The nurses, in this sample, ranked their professional values in the following order: altruism, human dignity, equality, truth, aesthetics, justice, freedom, and equality. Those who had higher levels of emotional exhaustion ($M = 19.48$, $SD = 9.27$), reported equality, altruism, and aesthetics among their highest priority. There is a relationship between levels of emotional exhaustion and their priority values ($F = 1.142$, $p < .001$).

Participants who had elevated levels of depersonalization, ranked equality, aesthetics, and truth as the highest values, and those who had the lowest levels of depersonalization; this relationship was significant ($F = 10.639$, $p < .001$; Altun, 2002). Those who reported the highest levels of personal accomplishment ranked freedom, altruism, and truth as their highest values and equality and aesthetics were ranked as having low priority ($F = 30.44$, $p < .001$).

Accordingly, those who value altruism may have higher levels of emotional exhaustion, but experience lower levels depersonalization and higher levels of personal accomplishment.

However, the rigor of this study is not strong due to the limited sample size and the self-report of values. A more thorough investigation of the relationship between values and burnout may include reliable and valid measurements to assess values. Nevertheless, this study supported the hypothesized relationship between altruism and burnout for the current study (those with higher levels of altruism will have lower levels of burnout).

Van Emmerik, Jawahar, and Stone (2005) sought to explore the relationship between

altruism, burnout, and organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) refers to employee actions that aren't required or compensated and that contribute to the work environment (e.g., extra-job activities, helping colleagues, following rules; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Altruism was described as “the enduring tendency to think about the welfare and rights of other people, to feel concern and empathy for them, and to act in a way that benefits them” (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; p. 94). The authors hypothesized that altruism would be positively associated with OCB and the dimensions of burnout would be negatively related to the engagement of OCB. To test their hypothesis, 550 web-questionnaires were distributed employees of a bank, a city council, and a university; a total of 178 were returned (32% response rate). The questionnaire included: (a) six items adapted from the Organ and Konovsky (1989) and studies from Van Dyne, Graham, Dienesch (1994) to measure OCB; (b) seven items from *the Survey of Interpersonal Values of Gordon* (1976) to measure altruism; and (c) the Dutch version of the MBI, *The Utrecht Burnout Scale* (Shaufeli & van Dierendonck, 2001).

The researchers (Van Emmerik et al., 2005) conducted a regression analysis to test the hypotheses. Participants with higher levels of altruism had higher levels of OCB ($\beta = .16, p < .05$). After accounting for gender, educational level, and levels of altruism those with lower levels personal accomplishment were less engaged in OCB ($\beta = -.45, p < .05$). Additionally, there was a significant relationship between altruism and emotional exhaustion ($r = -.23, p < .01$). Therefore, those who were more altruistic had lower levels of emotional exhaustion, or were experiencing less burnout. Van Emmerik and colleagues' results supported that those performing altruistic acts are more engaged in their work environment and are experiencing less

burnout. Moreover, the results were similar to Van Emmerik et al. (2005) findings, supporting the theoretical model of the current study

Ngai and Cheung (2009) investigated the relationship between social work undergraduates' levels of emotional exhaustion, one dimension of burnout, and their levels of idealism, altruism, and career orientation. A total of 165 participants from one university in Hong Kong, volunteered to complete a survey during class. The survey consisted of eight items focused on emotional exhaustion that were adapted from the MBI, ten items from the *Csikai and Rozensky's Idealism Scale* (1997), three items from the *Csikai and Rozensky's Altruism Scale* (1997), and three items for the *Csikai and Rozensky's Professional Concerns Scale* (1997). The altruism scale asked participants to rate themselves, on a scale from 0 to 100, on statement; such as, "I have a primary interest in improving the welfare of others" and "I want to work with people less fortunate than myself". The composite score of the three items, to measure altruism, had a reliability alpha coefficient of .820. The operational definition of altruism in this study is based on Penner and Finkelstein's (1998) descriptions, "an enduring tendency to think about the welfare of other people, to feel concern and empathy for them, and to act in a way that benefits them" (p. 108).

Ngai and Cheung (2009) hypothesized that there would be a positive relationship between idealism and emotional exhaustion, and a negative relationship between altruism and emotional exhaustion. Additionally, positive career orientation would negatively correlate with emotional exhaustion. The results of correlations between the variables supported the hypotheses. Specifically, emotional exhaustion had a positive relationship with idealism ($r = .474, p < .001$), and a negative relationship with altruism ($r = -.362, p < .001$) and career orientation ($r = -.408, p < .001$). Further analysis was conducted to examine the hypotheses.

Altruism did have a negative relationship emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.165, p < .05$) when career orientation was excluded. However, when career orientation was included the relationship was *not* significant; therefore, participants levels of altruism was impacted by their levels of positive career orientation. The results are limited in their generalizability due to purposive sampling of social work students in Hong Kong. Additionally, the response rate was *not* reported and it can be inferred that students completed the survey as part of a class. However, the negative relationship between altruism and emotional exhaustion supports the hypothesis of the current study.

There is limited research that investigates the direct relationship between altruism and burnout, specifically in the helping professions. Yet, the existing literature (e.g., Altun, 2005; Ngai & Cheung, 2009; Van Emmerik et al., 2005) does support the theoretical model of the current study that practicing school counselors scoring at higher levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory*; Kuch & Robinson, 2008; and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, SRA-scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981) will have lower levels of burnout (as measured by the three factors [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*; MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996). However, the inference needs to be made with caution due to the difference in population and instruments to measure the construct.

Chapter Summary

Chapter Two provided an overview of the constructs that provide the theoretical framework for the model of the current study (altruism and burnout). Specifically, the continuum of the definition of altruism was discussed, and the four theories of the development of altruism (i.e., biological, cognitive, religious/spiritual, social). Both altruistic motivation and behavior

were explained to assist in the understanding of the operational definition of altruism used in the current study. An emphasis on the relationship between empathy and altruism was included to exemplify the connection between the counseling profession and altruism. Empirical studies related to altruism in the helping professions were examined to provide support for the theoretical model of the study. Additionally, empirical studies of burnout in the helping professions, specifically school counseling, were evaluated. There is limited research that examines the relationship between altruism and burnout, but the review of literature included studies in the helping professions that included both constructs. However, the relationship between altruism and burnout has not been examined in the school counseling literature. Therefore, the investigation offered clarity of the existing definitions of altruism within the school counseling field. The relationship between the constructs of altruism and burnout may be clarified, addressing an identified gap in the counseling literature. Furthermore, assessing school counselors' levels of altruism may help support the psychometric properties of the two altruism measures used in the current study.

CHAPTER THREE: METHOD

Chapter Three presents the research design, method, and procedures for the investigation. The purpose of this research study was to investigate the directional relationship between practicing school counselors' level of altruism to their degree of burnout. This investigation tested the theoretical model that practicing school counselors' levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981] contribute to their levels of burnout (as measured by the three dimensions [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]). Specifically, this investigation tested the hypothesized directional relationship that practicing school counselors scoring at higher levels of altruism would have lower levels of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment). In addition, the investigation examined the relationship between the practicing school counselors' levels altruism and burnout and their reported demographic information (e.g., age, school counseling level, self-reported levels of wellness).

A descriptive, correlational research design (Frankel et al., 2012) was employed to investigate the research hypothesis and exploratory questions. A correlational research design was selected because the purpose of the study was to determine if there was a directional relationship between practicing school counselors' levels of altruism and burnout in their natural state (i.e., without manipulation; Frankel et al., 2012). The potential threats to internal and external validity that align with correlational research are reviewed. Additionally, the research procedures (e.g., IRB-approval, data collection methods, instrumentation, data analysis) used to execute the study are presented. Furthermore, potential limitations and ethical obligations are

discussed. Specifically, the following components of the research methods are reviewed in this chapter: (a) population and sampling procedures, (b) data collection methods, (c) instrumentation, (d) research design, (e) research hypothesis and questions, (f) methods of data analysis, (g) ethical considerations, and (h) limitations to the study.

Population and Sampling Procedures

The target population for the study was practicing school counselors. School counselors were selected because there is limited research on altruism and burnout in school counselors (Curry et al., 2009; Young & Lambie, 2006) and more studies were needed to identify school counselor personal attributes that prevent burnout (Lambie, 2007). A special emphasis was made to recruit participants holding membership in ASCA. As noted in ASCA (2010) school counselors need to be altruistic (i.e., care for students) and are responsible for their well-being in order to prevent burnout and impairment which will have a negative impact on students (Corey et al., 2007; Lambie, 2007).

There are 281,400 practicing school counselors in the United States (U.S Department of Labor, 2010). To ensure a 95% confidence level of generalizability for a population for 281,000, a minimum sample size of 382 participants was needed (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). The sample for this study was comprised of both ASCA members and non-ASCA members (10.3% of practicing school counselors hold membership in ASCA). There are 29,000 members of ASCA (ASCA, 2012). The ASCA email directory list included 24,000 email addresses; however, only 12,161 are practicing school counselors (as signified by their member category, i.e., elementary, secondary on the ASCA website) were selected. Using *Research Randomizer* (Urbaniak & Plous, 2012), the researcher randomly selected 2,521 ASCA members from the ASCA directory (which

is available to all active members) to ensure a 95% confidence level of generalizability for a population of 12,161 school counselors (Krejcic & Morgan, 1970).

To support the external validity of the investigation, a purposive sample of 492 practicing school counselors was contacted to participate in this study through personal and professional contacts of the primary researcher to ensure that non-ASCA members were included in the sample. There were three groups that were used as part of the purposive sample: (a) 410 practicing school counselors in South Dakota; (b) 50 practicing school counselors in Florida, Wisconsin, and Minnesota; and (c) 32 practicing school counselors in Texas. Additionally, to test the theoretical model that school counselors with higher levels of altruism would have lower levels of burnout, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was employed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). SEM is a large sample technique; therefore, a minimum sample size of 200 is recommended (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996; Ullman, 2007).

An average response rate for research investigating school counselors' burnout was 40-50% using mailed data collection procedures (i.e., paper surveys; e.g., Butler & Constatine, 2003; Lambie, 2007; Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006; Wilkerson, 2009). Paper survey, if administered using the tailored design can yield up to 70% response rate (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). However, a lower response rate was anticipated due to the data collection procedure (i.e., electronic survey data collection; Dillman et al.). Cook, Heath, and Thompson (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of 49 Educational Psychology studies that used electronic surveys as their primary data collection source and identified that the average response rates for electronic survey data collection was 35%. Therefore, the anticipated response rate was approximately 35% for this study. A random sample size of 382 was the minimum required; therefore, approximately 1,100 participants would need to be invited to participate in the

investigation to get the expected response rate ($1,100 \times .35 = 385$). A sample size of 382 practicing school counselors would be appropriate for SEM (MacCallum et al., 1996). However, 3,013 (2,521 random sample, 492 purposive sample) practicing school counselor participants were contacted to account for surveys that were incomplete and to ensure that a minimum sample of 382 participants was achieved.

Data Collection Procedures

This study was approved by the University of Central Florida's IRB Board. The researcher completed the IRB application and ensured all ethical research practices were followed. Additionally, permission was granted from the authors of the data collection instruments used in the study: (a) *Heintzelman Inventory* (August 1, 2012, personal communication date); and (b) *Self-Report Altruism Scale* (SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981; personal communication December 2, 2011). Permission to use the *Maslach-Burnout Inventory Educator Survey* (MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996) was *not* needed from the authors because the instrument and training and scoring manual are available for purchase online at Mind Garden. A license to reproduce the *MBI-ES* was purchased by the researcher. All instruments were combined to create an online survey on SurveyGizmo. SurveyGizmo is an online data collection company which provides researchers tools to develop secure online surveys. In addition, SurveyGizmo provides organizational services to researchers, which includes: (a) documentation of when participants receive the email, (b) ensure that emails are *not* sent to spam, and (c) organizes data collection and storage.

Electronic distribution is common in counseling research (Heppner, 2005). The researcher is a current member of ASCA, and a member email list is accessible, to members, on the ASCA website. The list includes 24,000 e-mail addresses; however, only those who are

practicing school counselors, as signified by their member category (i.e., elementary, secondary) on the ASCA website, were selected. Therefore, the sample population of practicing school counselors for this study was 12,161. A random sample of 2,245 counselors was selected from the ASCA list using the Research Randomizer calculator (Urbaniak & Plous, 2012). SurveyGizmo, was used to distribute the surveys electronically. Participants were informed that they can withdraw from the study at any time, and their results were available to them.

To decrease measurement error, the survey link, which included all instruments and the demographic form, was reviewed by the dissertation committee to ensure that the directions for completing the surveys were clear and the instruments were legible (Dillman et al., 2008). The researcher asked 10 of her colleagues to complete the electronic to estimate the amount of time it would take participants to complete it and to solicit feedback about the clarity of the information. Feedback from the dissertation committee and colleagues was integrated to refine the directions and demographic questionnaire to make it user-friendly for the participants in the study.

Data collection started on October 15, 2012 and concluded on December 15, 2012. The data collection period was selected because the beginning of the school year is busy for practicing school counselors, but after the first month of school it is less hectic. Furthermore, a two month interval was selected to account for differences in school academic calendars and holidays. A survey, which included all the data collection instruments and the demographic form, was distributed electronically through SurveyGizmo to all participants with the exception of those in the Texas purposive sample. The participants in the Texas sample completed the survey using paper-pencil. To support sound data collection methods and response rates, Dillman's (2000) *Tailored Design Method* was implemented with the ASCA national random sample and the South Dakota purposive sample. The *Tailored Design Method* could *not* be used with the

other participants in the random sample due to confidentiality (i.e., emails were sent individually to participants; therefore, there was no way to tell if they had completed the survey, only an aggregate number who completed was available to the researcher).

All participants, except those in the Texas purposive sample, were sent an invitation email that included: (a) the informed consent, (b) a secure link to the data collection instruments, and (c) explanation of the incentive to participate in the study. Participants in the random sample and the South Dakota purposive sample received an email one week after the initial email was sent as a reminder for those who had not completed the survey. Two weeks later (three weeks after the initial email) a final reminder was sent to these participants. A thank you email was sent immediately after the participants completed the survey, and their email was removed from the list to ensure they would *not* receive the reminder emails. Participants could unsubscribe from the list of participants, and contact the researcher directly to be removed from the list. The incentive for this study was that for each survey returned, a \$1.00 donation was made to cancer research. Cancer research is a personal cause to the researcher and also aligns with the altruistic construct of this study.

Instrumentation

The following constructs and instruments were investigated and used in this study: (a) altruistic motivation (*Heintzelman Inventory*; Kuch & Robinson, 2008), (b) altruistic behavior (*Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale]; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981), and (c) burnout (*Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES]; Maslach et al., 1996). Additionally, a *General Demographic Survey* was used, which included six questions to examine the participants' self-reported wellness and its relationship with altruism and burnout. The researcher administered all of the instruments into one electronic document. The instruments

were administered once to each participant either through mail, electronically, or in person. The following section provides information regarding the data collection instruments.

General Demographic Survey

The *General Demographic Survey* is a questionnaire created by the researcher, which is a self-report of participants' demographic information (e.g., gender, age, ethnicity, level of education, years of experience as a school counselor, and geographic location). These demographics were chosen because they are the most common demographics examined in research similar to the current study. Additionally, Likert scaled questions were developed to ask participants to rank from 1 to 5 (1 = not well, 5 = well) components of their personal wellness. The General Demographic Questionnaire was reviewed by a panel of experts (committee members, counselor education faculty, experts in wellness within counseling) and was administered colleagues for review of readability and clarity.

Heintzelman Inventory

The *Heintzelman Inventory* (Kuch & Robinson, 2008) was used to identify altruistic motivation. The *Heintzelman Inventory* is a self-reporting questionnaire that has two sections. The first section contains 40 items that are divided into five areas. The items in this section contain a 5-point Likert-scale format that ranges from (a) "not at all an influence" to "a very strong influence", (b) "not at all satisfying" to "very satisfying", or (c) "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Additionally, each section contains a "not applicable or irrelevant" category. The second section focuses on obtaining demographical information. There are six items in this section that include: (a) gender, (b) age, (c) birth order, (d) area of study, (e) program accreditation, and (f) degree level. However, for this study the demographic section was *not* used. The *Heintzelman Inventory* takes approximately 10 minutes to complete.

The *Heintzelman Inventory* began as an initiative by Robinson in 2004. Robinson is the Heintzelman Eminent Scholar Chair, an endowment established to study the presence of greed and the promotion of altruism. The chair's vision focused on creating an inventory to measure altruistic motivation within the counseling profession. The *Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory* (RHI; Robinson, 2006), the original instrument designed to measure altruism among counseling students, was a self-reporting instrument that contained four root statements with a total of 28 items. Each item included a choice of three possible responses, with responses classified as: (a) altruistic, (b) greedy, or (c) in the middle. Participants were asked to select the response that best described them, with their total score indicating their level of altruism. Following the initial development of the RHI, a group of researchers examined the instrument to assess the reliability and validity. The findings indicated that the instrument did not exhibit strong psychometric properties (validity and reliability). Therefore, using the RHI as a foundation, a revision of the inventory was created in order to develop a psychometrically sound instrument for measuring altruistic motivation of counselors. Initially, it was named the Kuch-Robinson (2008); however, its name was changed during further development of the instrument. Four hypotheses: (a) empathy-altruism, (b) negative state relief model, (c) empathic-joy, and (d) self-efficacy were used in the initial development of the KRI (2008) and guided the further development of the *Heintzelman Inventory*.

The *empathy-altruism hypothesis* focuses on empathic individuals feeling happiness by helping others (Smith, Keating, & Stotland, 1989). In contrast, the *negative state relief model* focuses on the empathic person engaging in caring acts to relieve feelings of sadness (Smith et al., 1989). The third hypothesis, *empathic-joy hypothesis*, combines the two previous hypotheses. Within this hypothesis, Smith and colleagues report that the empathic person engages in the

caring act to relieve the feelings of sadness; however, the person also feels joy by engaging in the caring act. The final hypothesis, *self-efficacy*, focuses on the premise that a person who feels competent will be more willing to engage in a caring act because the person knows what to do, and is therefore less fearful of making a mistake (Midlarsky, 1968). Thus, the four hypotheses presented a framework for the development of a scale focused on measuring altruism.

Kuch (2008) changed the format of the RHI to encompass a Likert scale with five possible choices, in addition to a *not applicable* category. The original KRI included 124 items, within five root statements. The KRI was given to 347 students at varying time in their training. After conducting exploratory factor analyses (EFA) with the KRI, the number of KRI items was reduced to 40 items contained within the five root statements and six factors were found: Factor 1: *Self-Efficacy/Professional Skills*, Factor 2: *Self-Understanding/Self-Growth*, Factor 3: *Seeking Support*, Factor 4: *Early Caretaker Experiences*, Factor 5: *Professional Practice*, and Factor 6: *Counselor Identity Formation*. The *Heintzelman Inventory* was developed using the 40 KRI items that were supported by the EFA in Kuch's study.

Psychometric properties of the Heintzelman Inventory. A training sample of 46 participants was selected to conduct EFA to study the preliminary validity and reliability for the *Heintzelman Inventory* (Kuch & Robinson, 2008). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistics of .681 (> .5) for the test on measure of sample adequacy (MSA) verified the appropriate for using the current sample to conduct a factor analysis. An exploratory analysis on a training sample of 46 participants was conducted using MAP (Velicer, Eaton, & Eava, 2000), which was validated and recommended widely by statisticians (O'Connor, 2000). Using SAS procedures, the EFA identified a five-factor structure for a 24-item scale, measuring counselor-in-training altruistic motivation with the five subscales: (1) five items measured on *Positive Future Expectation*

factor, with loading from .89 to .97, accounted for 22.8% of the variance; (2) eight items measured *Self-Efficacy* factor, with loading from .55 to .76, accounted for 16.77% of the variance; (3) five items measured on *Personal Growth* factor, with loading from .74 to .87, accounted for 16.22% of the variance; (4) four items measured on *Early Caretaker Experience* factor with loading from .82 to .92, accounted for 13.64% of the variance; and (5) two items measured on *Counselor Identity Formation* factor with loading from .86 to .92, accounted for 7.18 % of the variance. The five factors accounted for 76.61% of the total variance. This EFA of the *Heintzelman Inventory* supported preliminary construct validity evidence for the five factors of a 24-item scale.

To cross-validate the psychometric properties of the *Heintzelman Inventory*, an independent validation sample of 227 was used to assess the adequacy of measurement model fit, item discrimination power, and the internal consistency reliability of the scale. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) supported the construct validity of the *Heintzelman Inventory* with five-factor performed a good fit to the model. The commonly used statistics to compare model-fit indices were examined as chi-square, comparative fit index, normed fit index, incremental fit index, goodness-of-fit index, parsimony comparative fit index, and root mean square error of approximation (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The five-factor model produced a chi-square of 393.49 ($df = 206, \chi^2$ ratio = 1.91, $p < .05$), root mean square error of approximation of .06. All other CFA fit indices indicated a good model fit with AGFI = .84, NFI = .81, IFI = .90, and CFI = .90.

Cronbach's α assessing the internal consistency of the 24-item Heintzelman Inventory was .81, indicating a good internal consistency of the scale measuring five factors of altruistic motivation of counselors. The internal consistencies of the five subscales are: (1) .97 for *Positive Future Expectations*, (2) .85 for *Self-Efficacy*, (3) .88 for *Personal Growth*, (4) .88 for *Early*

Caretaker Experience, and (5) .83 for *Counselor Identity Formation*. A strong positive correlation (investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient) was found between all five factors on the test-retest mean interval of two weeks: (1) *Positive Future Expectations*, $r = .72$; (2) *Self-Efficacy*, $r = .77$; (3) *Personal Growth*, $r = .70$; (4) *Early Caretaker Experience*, $r = .85$; and (5) *Counselor Identity Formation*, $r = .82$. Item-total correlation measured by Pearson correlation between each item and the total scale range from .05 to .4. The positive item-total correlation indicated that all items measure consistently with the total scale, suggesting a positive item discrimination power. Further investigation of the *Heintzleman Inventory* is being conducted.

Self-Report Altruism Scale

The *Self-Report Altruism Scale (SRA-scale)*; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981) is a self-report instrument that has 20 items on it, focusing on altruistic behavior of a participant by assessing the frequency in which they participate in an altruistic act. Altruistic behavior is defined as a voluntary, “intentional behavior to benefit another that is not motivated by the expectation of external rewards or avoiding externally produced punishments or aversive stimuli and it is considered to be morally an advanced form of prosocial behavior” (Chou, 1996, p. 297). Participants are asked to rate the frequency of which they engage in specific altruistic behaviors using five categories: (1) never, (2) once, (3) more than once, (4) often, and (5) very often. Examples of specific altruistic behaviors include ‘I have helped carry a stranger’s belongings (e.g. books, parcels, etc.)’, ‘I have helped an acquaintance to move’, and ‘I have volunteered for a charity’. The *SRA-scale* takes approximately eight minutes to complete. The researcher received permission from the original author of this instruments to use in the current study and to adjust the wording (personal communication, 2011). Additionally, the researcher inquired to

Rushton about scoring the *SRA-scale*. He provided the researcher with the means, standard deviations, and demographics of five different samples (Rushton et al., 1981). Furthermore, he stated “Give each item a score of zero to four depending on what the respondent answers and then sum over the 20 items” (personal communication, December 5, 2011). Therefore, the author suggests that score of the *SRA-scale* is determined by a total score; however, a factor analysis of the instrument has *not* been conducted.

Table 1 *Measures of Central Tendency of the Self Report Altruism Scale*

Table 2. Means, standard deviations and reliabilities for five samples of SRA-scale respondents

	Sample 1	Sample 2	Sample 3	Sample 4	Sample 5
Sample size	99	56	118	146	192
Combined mean	52.01	55.34	57.09	57.11	55.47
Standard deviation	10.12	10.46	8.89	11.70	11.70
Coefficient alpha	0.84	0.83	0.78	0.87	0.86
No. of males	36	27	39	64	—
Mean for males	52.30	55.15	55	56.29	—
Standard deviation	10.80	9.80	7.40	12.50	—
No. of females	63	29	79	82	—
Mean for females	51.8	54.76	57.22	57.75	—
Standard deviation	9.8	12.50	10.00	11.00	—

Note. Table 1 is from Rushton et. al., 1981 & personal communication with author

Psychometrics of the SRA-scale. The *SRA-scale* was originally developed by Fekken (1980) as part of his master’s theses, but is unpublished. He sought out to validate the *SRA-scale* by conducting two studies: (a) correlating the *SRA-scale* with peer ratings of altruism, and (b) examining the predictive validity of the *SRA-scale*. Fekken examined correlations of the *SRA-scale* and peer ratings of altruism using a sample of 118 undergraduates. The undergraduates completed the *SRA-scale*. Additionally, each participant asked eight people rate them on 20 different altruistic behaviors (i.e., items on the *SRA-scale*) and assess them, on a 7-point scale,

on four different dimensions of altruism which created the peer-rated-global altruism): (a) how caring the individual is, (b) how helpful the individual is, (c) how considerate of others' feelings the individual is, and (d) how willing to make a sacrifice the individual is. The peer rating forms had a response rate of 45% ($N = 416$), and 88 participants had one or more rater. Peer rater reliability was assessed using split-half reliabilities showing a significant inter-rater reliability for the peer rated *SRA -scale*, $r = .51$, $p < .001$, and the peer-rated-global altruism measure, $r = .39$, $p < .001$. The correlation, after using Spearman's correction formula, between the *SRA-scale* and the peer-rated *SRA-scale* was $r = .56$, $p < .001$, and between the *SRA-scale* the peer-rated global altruism measure $r = .33$, $p < .05$.

Fekken (1980) sought out to explore the relationship between the *SRA-scale* and other altruistic criteria ($N = 146$ undergraduates); such as: (a) volunteering to read to a blind person, (b) volunteering to participate in an experiment, (c) participation in first aid course, (d) being an organ donor, (e) scores on a sensitivity assessment, (f) the nurturance scale of the *Personality Research Form* (PRF; Jackson, 1974), (g) assessment of helping in emergencies, and (h) levels of helping interests as measured by the *Jackson Vocational Interest Survey* (VIS; Jackson, 1977). The *SRA-scale* had a positive relationship with: being an organ donor, $r = .24$, $p < .05$; the sensitivity assessment, $r = .32$, $p < .01$; the nurturance scale, $r = .27$, $p < .01$; and helping in emergencies, $r = .32$, $p < .01$.

Rushton, Christjohn, and Fekken (1981) continued to investigate the psychometrics of the *SRA-scale*, specifically convergent validity with eight existing assessments measuring similar constructs to altruism: (a) *Social Responsibility Scale* (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1964), (b) *Emotional Empathy Scale* (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972), (c) *the Social Interest Scale* (Crandall, 1975), (d) *the Fantasy-Empathy Scale* (Stotland et al., 1978), (e) *the Machiavellianism Scale*

(Christie & Geis, 1968), (f) *the Rokeach Value Survey* (Form C, Rokeach, 1973), (g) *the Nurturance scale of Personality Research Form* (PRF; Jackson, 1974), and (h) *Defining Issues Test* (Rest, 1979). The *SRA-scale* positively correlated with: (a) social responsibility, $r = .15, p < .01$; (b) emotional empathy, $r = .17, p < .01$; (c) fantasy-empathy, $r = .20, p < .01$; (d) nurturance, $r = .28, p < .01$; (e) helpfulness as measured by the Rokeach, $r = .14, p < .05$; and (f) moral judgment, $r = .16, p < .01$. Therefore, the convergent validity of the *SRA-scale* is supported.

Overall, the psychometric properties (validity and reliability) of the *SRA-scale* have been supported. The internal consistency examined in five different populations was above .70. The convergent validity of the *SRA-scale* has been associated with other prosocial assessments and is supported. The *SRA-scale* social desirability response has been assessed using a social desirable response measure and it was found that those who responded to this instrument were not doing in a social desirable way. However, Rushton and colleagues (1981) caution researchers *not* to use the *SRA-scale* to measure altruistic personality, instead it is more advisable to use the *SRA-scale* to measure to assess the broad-base of altruistic behavior and frequency of such behavior.

Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey

The *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey* (MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1986, 1996) was used to measure participants' level of burnout determined by three subscales: *emotional exhaustion* (EE), *depersonalization* (DP), and *reduced personal accomplishment* (PA). The *MBI-ES* is a self-report instrument with 22 questions, taking approximately 10 minutes to complete. The *MBI-ES* is an adapted version of the Human Services Survey (HSS; Maslach & Jackson, 1981, 1996) survey, but was created specifically for use in educational environments (e.g., schools). The development of the *MBI-ES* has the same history of the *MBI-HSS*; the only difference between the two is the change of wording in the items from *recipient* to *student*. The

MBI-ES was originally developed in 1986 and it has *not* changed since the original form.

However, the *Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual* (Maslach, et al., 1996) has been updated since the development of the *MBI-ES*; therefore, there are two years cited.

The *MBI-ES* was developed from findings in qualitative studies focused on the phenomenon of burnout (Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Maslach & Pines, 1977). Maslach and colleagues (1996) define educator burnout as an educator (e.g., school counselor): (a) feeling fatigued and emotionally drained (emotional exhaustion), (b) viewing students negatively and distancing themselves from students (depersonalization), and (c) feeling like he or she is not enhancing the lives of students or their development (reduced personal accomplishment). Each subscale has items that consist of statements that align with it. *Emotional exhaustion* is measure by nine items; such as, 'I feel emotionally drained from work'. *Depersonalization* is measured by five items; such as, 'I feel I treat some students as if they were impersonal objects'. In addition, *personal accomplishment* is measured by eight items; such as, 'I can easily understand how my students feel about things'. Participants are asked to rate how often they experience, the 22 statements, on a Likert scale: 0 = Never, 1 = A few times a year or less, 2 = Once a month or less, 3 = A few times a month, 4 = Once a week, 5 = A few times a week, 6 = Every day.

Burnout is *not* a dichotomous variable; conversely it is a continuous variable that ranges from low to moderate to high (Maslach et al., 1996). According to Maslach and colleagues (1996):

- A. A *high degree of burnout* is reflected in high scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization subscales and in low scores on the Personal Accomplishment subscale.
- B. An *average degree of burnout* is reflected in average scores on the three subscales.

C. A *low degree of burnout* is reflected in low scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization subscales and in high scores on the Personal Accomplishment subscale. (p. 5)

Maslach and colleagues (1996) suggest that the instruments should be presented to participants as a measure of “job-related attitudes” (p. 7), rather than a measure of burnout to prevent bias. Scoring the *MBI-ES* may be completed by the administrator or can be calculated online if the instrument is completed electronically. The scores are calculated independently based on each subscale and the items under that subscale; a total score should not be calculated. Numerical cut-off points have been developed by Maslach et al. and are based on a sample of 4,163 educators (see Table 2). Additionally, Maslach and colleagues (1996, p. 8) provide means and standard deviations for the *MBI* subscales with an overall sample of 11,067 people (see Table 3).

Table 2 *Categorization of MBI Scores*

Educator (K-12)	Range of Experienced Burnout		
	Low	Average	High
Emotional Exhaustion	≤ 16	17-26	≥ 27
Depersonalization	≤ 8	9-13	≥ 14
Personal Accomplishment	≥ 37	36-31	≤ 30

Table 3 Means and Standard Deviations for MBI Subscales

	Emotional Exhaustion	Depersonalization	Personal Accomplishment
Overall Sample (<i>N</i> = 11,067)			
<i>M</i>	20.99	8.73	34.58
<i>SD</i>	10.75	5.89	7.11
Educators (<i>N</i> = 4,163)			
<i>M</i>	21.25	11.00	33.54
<i>SD</i>	11.01	6.19	6.89

Psychometrics of the MBI-ES. The complete history of the development of the MBI-HSS and the psychometrics are explained in the *MBI Inventory Manual* (Maslach et al., 1996). The following information is selected from the *MBI Inventory Manual* to support the use of the MBI-ES in the current study. The original *MBI-HSS* consisted of 47 items, but after factor analyses and confirmatory analyses were conducted the instrument was reduced to its current format of 22 items with three factors. Maslach and colleagues state that items 12 and 16 consistently cross-load, and researchers may choose to omit items 12 and 16 when conducting causal modeling.

The reliability coefficients of the MBI are strong: (a) emotional exhaustion, $\alpha = .90$; (b) depersonalization, $\alpha = .79$; and (c) personal accomplishment, $\alpha = .71$. Reliability coefficients in current studies conducted with school counselors using the *MBI-ES* showed similar reliability. Butler and Constantine (2005) investigated burnout in sample of 533 school counselors using the *MBI-ES* and found Cronbach's alphas of .82 for emotional exhaustion, .82 for depersonalization, and .86 for personal accomplishment. Wilkerson and Bellini (2006) used the *MBI-ES* with 78

school counselors and the reliability analysis showed: (a) emotional exhaustion, $\alpha = .91$; (b) depersonalization, $\alpha = .74$; and (c) personal accomplishment, $\alpha = .78$. Additionally, Wilkerson (2009) examined burnout in a different sample of 198 school counselors the Cronbach's alpha coefficients resulted in: (a) emotional exhaustion, $\alpha = .91$; (b) depersonalization, $\alpha = .74$; and (c) personal accomplishment, $\alpha = .73$. The test-retest reliability for a sample of 248 educators (1 year interval) is: (a) emotional exhaustion, $r = .60$; (b) depersonalization, $r = .54$; and (c) personal accomplishment, $r = .57$. Overall, the *MBI* measures burnout as a consistent state (Maslach et al., 1996).

Maslach and colleagues (1996) examined the validity of the *MBI-HSS* by assessing convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is supported two ways: (a) external validation, and (b) examining dimensions of job experiences and their relationship with burnout. External validation was demonstrated by a correlation between self-rating on the *MBI-HSS* and other's behavioral rating of the same individual. Correlations were also found between job experiences (i.e., large number of clients and providing direct services) positively correlated with dimensions of burnout. Additionally, discriminant validity is demonstrated by comparing scores on the *MBI-HSS* and dissatisfaction of a job, as measured by the job satisfaction scale on the *Job Diagnostic Survey* (JDS; Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Job satisfaction has a moderate correlation with emotional exhaustion ($r = -.23, p < .05$), depersonalization ($r = -.22, p < .02$), and personal accomplishment ($r = .17, p < .06$). Furthermore, the *MBI-HSS* is *not* influenced by social desirability as measured by the *Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale* (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960).

Research Design

A descriptive, correlational research design was employed to examine the research hypothesis and questions. Correlational research examines the relationship between variables without researcher manipulation (Heppner, Wampold, & Kivlighan, 2008). Additionally, correlational research determines the strength and direction of the relationship between variables, but does not provide a researcher the ability to determine causal relationships (Graziano & Raulin, 2004). However, descriptive correlational studies allow a researcher to investigate the potential cause and effect relationship between specific constructs and predictive outcomes (Fraenkel et al., 2012; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Correlational research designs are frequently used in the counseling field and contribute to the literature; however, it is important to use more sophisticated analyses (e.g., Structural Equation Modeling [SEM]) to gain better estimates of the relationship between variables within a causal framework (Heppner et al., 2008; Lambie, 2007; Raulin & Graziano, 1995; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Correlational research designs face threats to validity, specifically: (a) construct validity, (b) internal validity, and (c) external validity. Validity is reflective of how sound the methodology of a study is (Graziano & Raulin, 2004). Construct validity is the “degree to which the theories behind the research study provide the best explanation for the results observed” (Graziano & Raulin, 2005, p. 181). To support the construct validity of this investigation, the researcher provided clear operational definitions of the constructs (Graziano & Raulin, 2005), and included theoretical and empirical support of the research hypothesis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Additionally, the data analysis conducted in the current research investigation will include a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of each instrument which will support the construct validity with this sample of practicing school counselors.

Threats to internal validity are specific to the instruments used in an investigation and valid correlations between the variables within a study (Frankel et al., 2012). In general, researchers may take steps to reduce threats to internal validity in correlational designs, due to their ability to choose valid and reliable measurements of the constructs (Graziaon & Raulin, 2005). The first specific threat to internal validity for this study was *characteristic correlations* (Frankel et al., 2012), which is the possibility that a correlation between variables is *not* explained by the specific constructs being studied, but because of other characteristics of a participant. Characteristic correlations are difficult to control for; however, demographics of participants were collected and used in analysis to account for differences and similarities of characteristics of participants (covariates). The second threat to internal validity is *testing* (Graziano & Raulin, 2005), which means that the way a participant answers on one instrument may influence how he or she answers on the following instruments. The third threat to internal validity is *instrumentation* (Graziano & Raulin, 2005), which describes the danger that the psychometrics of the instruments are *not* sound and measuring the construct being investigated. Threats to instrumentation were minimized by increasing construct validity and attempting to use instruments that were used in previous studies with similar populations. Additionally, measurement error of the instruments (e.g., difference between measured value and true value; Graziano & Raulin, 2004) was accounted for in the data analysis. The fourth threat to internal validity is the environment's impact on how the participant answers the survey (Fraenkel et al., 2012). The last threat to internal validity is that the self-report format of the instruments (Frankel et al., 2012); therefore, there is *not* control or manipulation from the researcher. The impact environment has on participants and the instruments being self-report were *not* controlled for in this study.

External validity is the ability to generalize the results to a population (Frankel et al., 2012). *Mortality*, specific to correlational design, is the individuals who choose *not* participate in the study may have characteristics that may be different and significant from those who do participate, which means that it cannot be generalizable (Frankel et al., 2012). Mortality is a significant threat to validity for the current study because of the specific constructs being studied. Specifically, practicing school counselors experiencing high levels of burnout may choose *not* to participate and those who are more altruistic may be more likely to participate; therefore, there is potential for there to be limited variance within the collected data. Another threat to external validity is once participants know they are in a study that may influence how they answer the assessments, specifically in studies measuring personal attributes (Heppner et al., 2008), impacting the generalizability of the findings. Correlational research designs are vulnerable to threats of validity; therefore, the researcher attempted to minimize threats to validity through intentional research procedures. The following section presents the research hypothesis, developed from review of the literature, to answer the primary research question and two exploratory questions.

Research Hypothesis and Exploratory Questions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the directional relationship between practicing school counselors' altruism to their levels of burnout. The following section describes the research hypothesis and exploratory research questions.

Primary Research Question

Do practicing school counselors' levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981]) contribute to their levels of burnout (as measured by the three

dimensions [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996])?

Research Hypothesis

The research hypothesis tested in this investigation was: Practicing school counselors' levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981] will contribute to their levels of burnout (as measured by the three dimensions [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]). Specifically, this investigation tested the hypothesized directional relationship that practicing school counselors scoring at higher levels of altruism would have lower levels of burnout (see Figure 3).

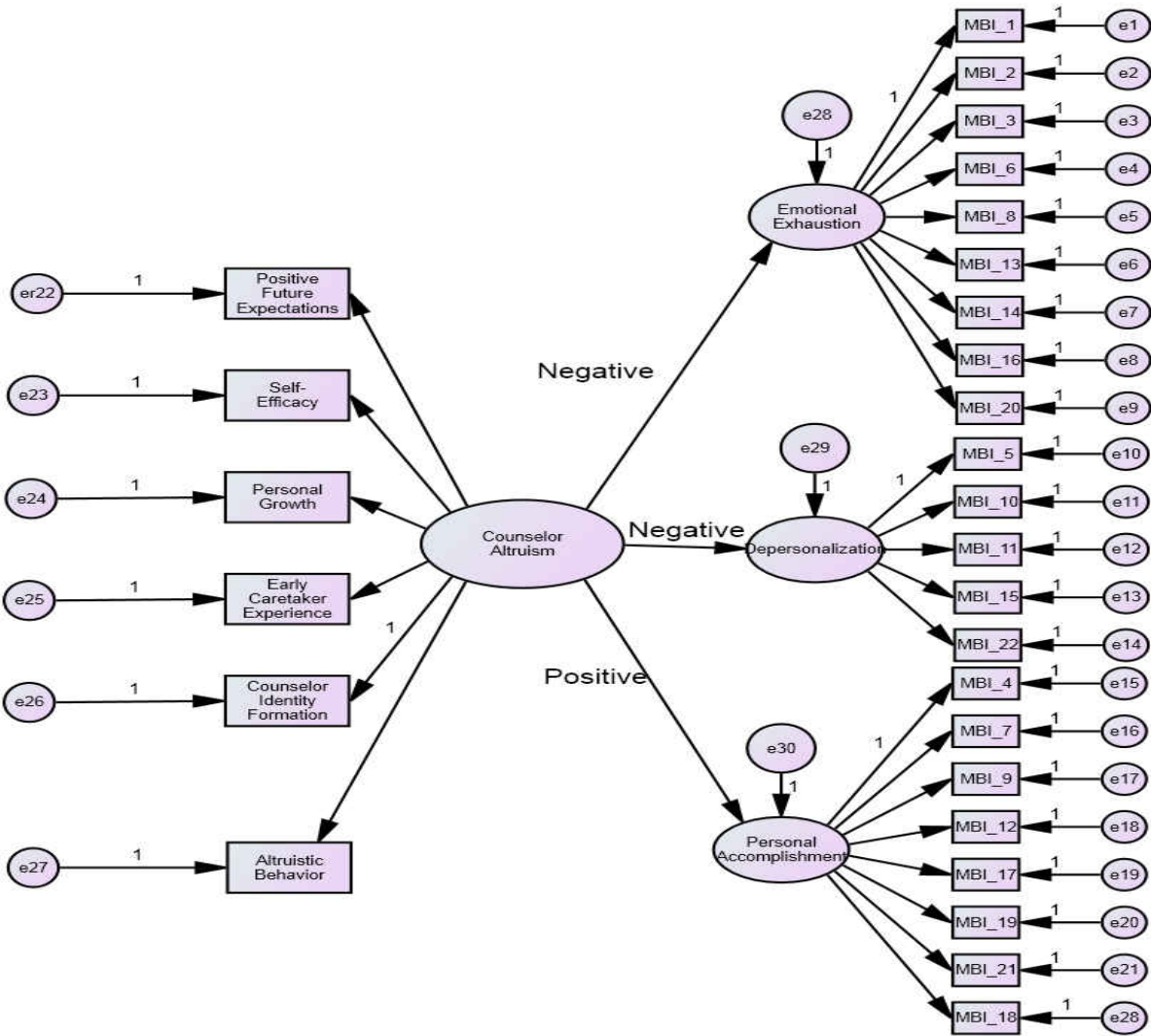


Figure 3: Hypothesis

Exploratory Research Questions

Exploratory Research Question 1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between practicing school counselors' level of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory*; [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981]) and their reported demographic variables (e.g., age, school level,

years of school counseling experience, preparation program accreditation, and self-reported wellness)?

Exploratory Research Question 2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between practicing school counselors' level of burnout (as measured by the three subscale scores [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]) and their reported demographic variables (e.g., age, school level, years of school counseling experience, preparation program accreditation, and self-reported wellness)?

Data Analysis

The data analysis was conducted based on the information collected from the electronic survey which included the *General Demographic Questionnaire* and the three instruments: (a) *Heintzelman Inventory* (Kuch & Robinson, 2008), (b) the *Self-Report Altruism Scale* (Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981), and (c) the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey* (Maslach et al., 1996). The data was downloaded from SurveyGizmo to *Statistical Program Systems Software 20th edition* (SPSS, 2011). The data was analyzed with SPSS and the *Analysis of Moment Structure 20th edition* (AMOS, 2011). AMOS is a SEM statistical software that allows researchers a venue to create and translate path diagrams and analyze theoretical models (Byrne, 2010). Additionally, AMOS can address missing data, outliers, and variable transformations within a data set (Crockett, 2012). To ensure that the data collected for the study was appropriate for the data analysis (i.e., SEM) statistical assumptions (e.g., normality, homogeneity, multicollinearity) were tested and met. The following sections provide a detailed description of the data analysis that was used to test the research hypothesis and the exploratory research questions.

Research Hypothesis

The data analysis used to test the theoretical model for this study (research hypothesis) was SEM. SEM is a confirmatory procedure that is a combination of multiple regression, path analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Ullman, 2007). SEM was used because it allows an investigator to test proposed theoretical model that is supported by the literature and provides directionality of relationships, as opposed to multiple regression, in a causal framework (Lambie, 2007; Ullman, 2007; Graziano & Raulin, 2004). The results generated from SEM can only be applied to the sample used to test the model; additionally, SEM can be used in experimental and non-experimental but is most often used in correlational studies (Ullman, 2007). SEM is becoming more common in counseling research due to its ability to evaluate complex theoretical counseling models (Crockett, 2012).

A proposed theoretical model being tested contained latent and measured variables. The latent variables were (a) altruism and (b) burnout, which are represented by circles (see Figure 1 and 2). Directionality of relationships between variables is signified with the use of one way arrows, and two way arrows exemplify a correlation. The measured variables are the factors of each of these constructs and are represented with squares (see Figure 1). There are two types of models within SEM: (a) the measurement model which connects the measured variables to the latent variables, and (b) the structural model which identifies the hypothesized relationships amongst the constructs within a study. Relationships in SEM do *not* have measurement error because the error is estimated and removed, and reliability of measurement can be accounted for within the analysis by estimating and removing the measurement error (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Ullman, 2007).

The hypothesized theoretical model is presented in Figure 1 and 2, where circles represent latent variables, and rectangles represent measured variables. Absence of a line connecting variables implies no hypothesized direct effect. The hypothesized model examined altruism as a predictor for burnout. A three factor model of Altruism and Burnout was hypothesized. Altruism was a latent variable with one direct measured indicator (altruistic behavior) and one latent indicator (altruistic motivation). Altruistic motivation was indicated by five measured variables: (1) *Positive Future Expectation* (2) *Self-Efficacy*, (3) *Personal Growth*, (4) *Early Caretaker Experience*, and (5) *Counselor Identity Formation*. Burnout had three indicators (measured variables): emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. It was hypothesized the higher levels of altruism would predict lower levels of burnout. Additionally, it was hypothesized that higher levels of altruistic motivation and altruistic behavior would predict lower levels of burnout.

To execute SEM the following assumptions were met: (a) multivariate normality should exist and the researcher should screen the measured variables for outliers (both univariate and multivariate), an estimation method can be used to address nonnormality; (b) linearity among variables should exist, to assess linear relationships among pairs of measure variables the researcher should examine the scatterplot; (c) multicollinearity and singularity; and (d) residuals should be close to 0, the frequency distribution of the residual covariances should be symmetrical (Ullman, 2007). In addition, data should be screened (e.g., address outliers and missing data to ensure a usable data set; Crockett, 2012).

There are five steps of SEM (Crockett, 2012; Ullman, 2007; Weston & Gore, 2006): (a) model specification, (b) model identification, (c), model estimation, (d), model evaluation, and

(e) model modification. Crockett (2012) clarifies the steps for conducting SEM in counseling research:

1. *Model specification*, completed before data collection, is the creation of the theoretical model based on empirical and theoretical support (Byrne, 2010). A visual path diagram of the model is developed using SEM software (e.g., AMOS).
2. *Model identification* allows the researcher to know if the model can yield usable results within SEM analysis. Two types of models need to be identified: (a) a measurement model (i.e., the relationship between the latent variables and their observed measures), and (b) a structural model (i.e., the relationship between the latent variables; Byrne, 2010). Crockett (2012) suggests using O'Brien's (1994) criteria to examine the measurement model and Bollen's (1998) recursive rule and the t rule.
3. Model estimation involves "determining the value of the unknown parameters and the error associated with the estimated value" (Weston & Gore, 2006, p. 737).
4. *Model testing* allows the researcher to know if the data fit the estimated model based on guidelines for determining model fit (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008; Iacobucci, 2010).
5. *Model modification* is adjusting the model to fit to the data by estimating (i.e., freeing) or estimating (setting) parameters (Weston & Gore, 2006).

The following checklist to conduct SEM is presented by Ullman (2007, p. 234) and was conducted:

Checklist for SEM

1. Issues
 - a. Sample size and missing data

- b. Normality of sampling distributions
 - c. Outliers
 - d. Linearity
 - e. Adequacy of covariances
 - f. Identification
 - g. Path diagram-hypothesized model
 - h. Estimation method
2. Major analyses
- a. Assessment of fit
 - (1) Residuals
 - (2) Model chi square
 - (3) Fit indices
 - b. Significance of specific parameters
 - c. Variance in a variable accounted for by a factor
3. Additional analyses
- a. Lagrange Multiplier test
 - (1) Tests of specific parameters
 - (2) Addition of parameters to improve fit
 - b. Wald test for dropping parameters
 - c. Correlation between hypothesized and final model or cross-validate model
 - d. Diagram-final model.

Exploratory Research Question One and Two

The exploratory research questions were examined using: (a) descriptive statistics, (b) Spearman's rho correlations, (c) multiple regressions, (d) Kruskal-Wallis test and (e) Mann Whitney U test (Pallant, 2010). The purpose of the exploratory questions was to examine if there was a relationship between reported demographic information of practicing school counselors, and their levels altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981]). Additionally, to examine if there was a relationship between reported demographic information of practicing school counselors and their level of burnout (as measured by the three subscale scores [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]).

Dependent and Independent Variables

Dependent / Endogenous Variable

Burnout is a latent dependent variable that is represented by three measured dependent variables: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. Burnout was chosen as the dependent variable as it represents the criterion that theoretically may be most affected by the independent variables (altruistic motivation and altruistic behavior) as they are manipulated (Frankel et al., 2012).

Independent / Exogenous Variables

The independent variable designated in this study was based on a review of the literature that indicated its effect burnout. The independent variable is:

1. Altruism: Two specific types of altruism were investigated. They were classified as an altruistic motivation (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory*; Kuch & Robinson, 2008) and altruistic behavior (as measured by the *SRA-scale*; Rushton et al, 1981). Altruism was chosen as an independent variable since it theoretically may influence one's level of burnout, as noted in Chapter 2. Additionally, altruism is an exogenous variable since there were two data collection instruments used to measure it.
2. Demographic variables were entered as independent variables. The reported demographic variables included: (a) age, (b) ethnic classification, (c) gender, (d) level of education, (e) graduate of CACREP program, (f) length of experience as a school counselor, (g) geographic location, (h) wellness (emotional, social, spiritual, physical, intellectual, and occupational) were measured with a Likert scale. The demographic variables were chosen to represent a wide variety of differences that may influence practicing school counselors on the job.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations that were considered by the IRB and the researcher's dissertation committee was:

1. All data was collected anonymously to protect the identity of participants and to ensure confidentiality.
2. Participation in this study was voluntary and participation was not impact their employment.
3. All participants were informed of their rights and an explanation of research was approved by the IRB at the University of Central Florida. Participants had the opportunity to withdraw from the study at any time without consequence.

4. Permission to use the instruments was obtained by the developers of each instrument; (a) *Heintzelman Inventory* (Kuch & Robinson, 2008); (b) *SRA-scale* (Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981); and (c) *MBI-ES* (Maslach et al., 1996);
5. The study was conducted with the permission and approval of dissertation co-chairs, committee members, and IRB of the University of Central Florida was obtained.

Potential Limitations of the Study

1. Efforts were made to limit threats to construct, internal, and external validity within this descriptive correlational research study, limitations exist.
2. Due to the debatable and continuous definition of altruism, it may be difficult to measure.
3. There may be limited variance within the data due to the characteristics of the individuals who choose to participate in this study, and previous studies don't support that school counselors are experiencing burnout.
4. The *Heintzelman Inventory* is a fairly new instrument and its psychometric properties are still being investigated; additionally it was not normed on practicing counselors.

Furthermore, all data collection instrument have some measurement error even with sound psychometric properties (e.g., reliability and validity).
5. Data collection instruments used in this study will be self-report; therefore, there might be some bias with participant responses that may influence study results.
6. Finally, if purposive sampling is used, potential researcher bias could occur.

Chapter Summary

Chapter Three presented the research methods used for the study examining theoretical model that practicing school counselors scoring at higher levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory*; Kuch & Robinson, 2008; and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, SRA-scale;

Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981) would have lower levels of burnout (as measured by the three factors [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*; MBI-ES; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). The methodology outlined in chapter three included: (a) population and sample, (b) data collection, (c) instrumentation, (d) research design, (e) research hypothesis and exploratory questions, and (f) data analysis. Additionally, the dependent and independent variable were presented, and the ethical considerations and the limitations for the study were reviewed.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA RESULTS

Chapter four presents the results of investigated hypothesis and exploratory questions. The purpose of this research study was to investigate the directional relationship between practicing school counselors' level of altruism their degree of burnout. This investigation tested the theoretical model that practicing school counselors' levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981] will contribute to their levels of burnout (as measured by the three dimensions [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]). Specifically, this investigation tested the hypothesized directional relationship that practicing school counselors scoring at higher levels of altruism would have lower levels of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment). In addition, the investigation examined the relationship between the practicing school counselors' levels altruism and burnout and their reported demographic information (e.g., age, school counseling level, self-reported levels of wellness).

The research hypothesis was analyzed structural equation modeling (SEM). More specifically, multiple regression, path analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis (Ullman, 2007) were conducted. The exploratory research questions were examined using: descriptive statistics, Spearman's rho correlations, multiple regressions, Kruskal-Wallis test and Mann Whitney U test (Pallant, 2010). The results are presented in this chapter in the following order: (a) sampling and data collection procedures, (b) descriptive statistics, and (c) data analyses per the primary research question and exploratory research questions.

Sampling Procedures and Data Collection Procedures

The target population for the study was practicing school counselors. School counselors were selected because there is limited research examining altruism and burnout in school counselors (Curry et al., 2009; Young & Lambie, 2006) and further investigation is warranted to identify school counselor personal attributes that prevent and/or mitigate burnout (Lambie, 2007). As noted in ASCA (2010), ethical school counselors are altruistic (i.e., care for students) and are responsible for their personal well-being in order to prevent burnout and impairment which has a negative impact on students (Corey, Corey, & Callahan, 2007; Lambie, 2007). Therefore, school counselors holding membership in ASCA were recruited to participate in the investigation. Additionally, to mitigate threats to external validity for the investigation in only including a sample of ASCA members, a purposive sample of practicing school counselors *not* holding membership in ASCA was also invited to participate in the study (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

There are 281,400 practicing school counselors in the United States (U.S Department of Labor, 2010). To ensure a 95% confidence level of generalizability for a population for 281,000, a minimum sample size of 382 participants was needed (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). The sample for this study was comprised of both ASCA members and non-ASCA members. There are 29,000 members of ASCA (ASCA, 2012). The ASCA email directory list included 24,000 email addresses; however, only 12,161 are practicing school counselors (as signified by their member category, i.e., elementary, secondary on the ASCA website) were selected. Using *Research Randomizer* (Urbaniak & Plous, 2012), the researcher randomly selected 2,521 ASCA members from the ASCA directory (which is available to all active members) to ensure a 95% confidence level of generalizability for a population of 12,161 school counselors (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). As noted, to support the external validity of the investigation a purposive sample of practicing

school counselors was contacted to participate in this study through personal and professional contacts of the primary researcher. There were three groups that were used as part of the purposive sample: (a) 410 practicing school counselors in South Dakota; (b) 50 practicing school counselors in Florida, Wisconsin, and Minnesota; and (c) 32 practicing school counselors in Texas. Therefore, the total participants invited to participate as part of the purposive sample was 492.

A survey, which included all the data collection instruments and the demographic form, was distributed electronically through SurveyGizmo to all participants with the exception of those in the Texas purposive sample. The participants in the Texas sample completed the survey using paper-pencil. To support sound data collection methods and response rates, Dillman's (2000) *Tailored Design Method* was implemented with the ASCA national random sample and the South Dakota purposive sample. The *Tailored Design Method* could *not* be used with the other participants in the random sample due to confidentiality (i.e., emails were sent individually to participants; therefore, there was no way to tell if they had completed the survey, only an aggregate number who completed was available to the researcher). Additionally, to decrease measurement error, the survey link was reviewed by the dissertation committee and 10 of the researcher's colleagues to ensure that the directions for completing the surveys were clear and the instruments were legible (Dillman et al., 2000). Feedback from the dissertation committee and colleagues was integrated to refine the directions and demographic questionnaire to make it more user-friendly for the participants in the study.

All participants, except those in the Texas purposive sample, were sent an invitation email that included: (a) the informed consent, (b) a secure link to the data collection instruments, and (c) explanation of the incentive to participate in the study. Participants in the random sample

and the South Dakota purposive sample received an email one week after the initial email was sent as a reminder for those who had not completed the survey. Two weeks later (three weeks after the initial email) a final reminder was sent to these participants. A thank you email was sent immediately after the participants completed the survey, and their email was removed from the list to ensure they would *not* receive the reminder emails. Participants could unsubscribe from the list of participants, and contact the researcher directly to be removed from the list. The incentive for this study was that for each survey returned, a \$1.00 donation was made to cancer research. Cancer research is a personal cause to the researcher and also aligns with the altruistic construct of this study.

Descriptive Data Results

Response Rate

Of the 2,521 emails sent to ASCA members, 276 bounced back (inactive/incorrect emails); therefore, 2,245 ASCA members were invited to participate. Initially, 320 ASCA members responded yielding a response rate of 14.25%. However, the total number of ASCA members, from the random sampling procedure, that completed all of the survey was 302 participants, yielding a 13.45% usable response rate. Of the 492 practicing school counselors contacted in the purposive sample, 151 participants responded yielding a response rate of 30.69%. However, the total number of participants from the purposive sample that completed all of the survey was 135 participants, yielding a 27.03% useable response rate: 68 South Dakota participants (16% useable response rate), 35 Florida/Wisconsin/Minnesota participants (70% useable response rate), and 32 Texas participants (100% response rate). Within the purposive sample, 42 (30%) were ASCA members and 93 (70%) identified as non-ASCA members. Therefore, the overall sample for this study is 437 practicing school counselors (ASCA

members, $n = 344$; non-ASCA members, $n = 93$). Furthermore, the overall usable response rate of all 3,013 participants contacted was 14.50%. An average response rate for research investigating school counselors' burnout was 40-50% using mailed data collection procedures (i.e., paper surveys; e.g., Butler & Constatine, 2003; Lambie, 2007; Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006; Wilkerson, 2009). However, a lower response rate was expected due to the electronic data collection procedure (Dillman et al., 2008).

Practicing School Counselors' Demographics

Descriptive data and measures of central tendency are presented for all participants in the study ($N = 437$): 302 (69.2%) in the ASCA national random sample, 68 (15.6%) in the South Dakota purposive sample, 35 (8.0%) in the Florida/Wisconsin/Minnesota purposive sample, and 32 (7.3%) in the Texas purposive sample. The following descriptive analyses are reported on the total sample ($N = 437$; see Table 4 & Table 5). The majority of the participants were female ($n = 380$, 87%), compared to those who identified as male ($n = 57$, 13%). The mean age of the participants that reported their age ($N = 435$) was 44.77 years ($SD = 10.82$, range = 24 to 74, $Mdn = 44$). Ethnicity and race of participants, of those who reported ($N = 436$) was 386 (88.3%) Caucasian, 24 (5.5%) Black/African American, 14 (3.2%) Hispanic, 8 (1.8%) Other/Multi-Racial, 3 (0.7%) Native American, and 1 (0.2%) as Asian/Pacific Islander. The reported current relationship status for the participants that reported ($N = 436$) was 341 (78.0%) married/partnered, 43 (9.8%) single, 28 (6.4%) divorced, 13 (3.0%) cohabitating, 7 (1.6%) widowed, and 4 (0.9%) other.

In regards to practicing school counselors' professional experience and preparation, 87.0% ($n = 380$) of the school counselors indicated that the highest degree earned was a Master's, 8.2% ($n = 36$) earned an Education Specialist Degree (Ed.S), 4.1% ($n = 18$) earned a

Doctoral Degree, and 0.7% ($n = 3$) reported having only a Bachelor's Degree. The majority of the practicing school counselors held membership in ASCA ($n = 344$, 78.7%) as compared to the counselors *not* holding membership ($n = 93$, 21.3%). The mean years of experience as a school counselor was 11.46 years ($SD = 7.84$, range = 1.0 to 43.0, $Mdn = 10.0$). The identified level the school counselors worked at was: (a) 35.9% ($n = 157$) high school counselors, (b) 33.2% ($n = 145$) elementary school counselors, (c) 23.6% ($n = 103$) middle school counselors, and (d) 7.3 % ($n = 32$) other school configuration (e.g., K – 8 schools). The environmental setting of the participants' school was 41.4% ($n = 181$) suburban, 37.8% ($n = 165$) rural, 18.3% ($n = 80$) urban, and 2.5% ($n = 11$) other. The classification of the schools reported ($N = 435$) was 95.7% ($n = 418$) public, 3.0% ($n = 13$) private, and 0.9% ($n = 4$) other. The mean number of students that school counselors reported being responsible for in their case load was 428.11 students ($SD = 201.72$, range = 72 1,741, $Mdn = 400$). Caseload analyses were conducted with the removal of one outlier due to extreme number (e.g., 40,069).

Table 4 *Continuous Demographic Variables*

Demographic	<i>M</i>	Range	<i>SD</i>
Age	44.77	24 to 74	10.82
Years of Experience	11.46	1 to 43	7.83
Caseload	428.11	72 to 1,741	201.72

Table 5 *Categorical Demographic Variables*

Demographic	Total (n)	Percentage
Sample Group		
ASCA Random	302	69.2%
South Dakota Purposive	68	15.6%
Other Purposive	35	8.0%
Texas Purposive	32	7.3%
ASCA Membership		
ASCA Member	344	78.7%
Non-ASCA Member	93	21.3%
Gender		
Female	380	87%
Male	57	13%
Ethnicity		
Caucasian	386	88.3%
Black/African American	24	5.5%
Hispanic	14	3.2%
Other/Multi-Racial	8	1.8%
Native American	3	0.7%
Asian/Pacific Islander	1	0.2%
Relationship Status		
Married/Partnered	341	78.0%
Single	43	9.8%
Divorced	28	3.0%
Cohabiting	13	3.0%
Widowed	7	1.6%
Other	4	0.9%
Degree Level		
Master's Degree	380	87%
Education Specialist	36	8.2%
Doctoral Degree	18	4.1%
Bachelor's Degree	3	0.7%
School Level		
High School	157	35.9%
Elementary School	145	33.2%
Middle School	103	23.6%
Other	32	7.3%
Environment of School		
Suburban	181	41.4%
Rural	165	37.8%
Urban	80	18.3%
Other	11	2.5%
Classification of School		
Public	418	95.7%

Demographic	Total (<i>n</i>)	Percentage
Private	13	3.0%
Other	4	0.9%

Self-Reported Wellness

In order to assess practicing school counselors' perceptions of their wellness, which may influence their levels of burnout and/or altruism; seven five-point Likert scaled statements were incorporated on the demographic questionnaire (Limberg, 2013). An operational definition of wellness was provided to the participants: "a way of life oriented toward optimal health and well-being, in which body, mind, and spirit are integrated by the individual to live life more fully within the human and natural community" (Myers, Sweeney, & Witmer, 2000, p. 252). The seven Likert scale statements examined participants': (a) emotional wellness, (b) social wellness, (c) physical wellness, (d) spiritual wellness, (e) occupational wellness, (f) overall wellness, and (g) current level of stress on the job. Statements were reported on a Likert Scale ranging from a one to five: 1 = very satisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = neutral, 4 = satisfied, and 5 = very satisfied. The following section presents the Likert scale questions and the descriptive statistics of the participants' responses per item.

Emotional Wellness. The Likert scale statement that participants were asked to respond to regarding emotional wellness was, "*How would you rate your emotional wellness?*" from a scale ranging one (very dissatisfied) to a five (very satisfied). A review of the data revealed ($M = 4.14$, $SD = .723$; range = 1.0 – 5.0), the frequency results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6 *Self-Reported Emotional Wellness*

Scale	Total (<i>n</i>)	Percentage
Very Dissatisfied	2	0.5%
Dissatisfied	14	3.2%
Neutral	33	7.6%
Satisfied	258	59.0%
Very Satisfied	130	29.7%

Social Wellness. The Likert scale statement that participants were asked to respond to regarding social wellness was, “*How would you rate your social wellness?*” from a scale ranging one (very dissatisfied) to a five (very satisfied). A review of the data revealed ($M = 4.16$, $SD = .69$; range = 1.0 – 5.0), the frequency results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7 *Self-Reported Social Wellness*

Scale	Total (<i>n</i>)	Percentage
Very Dissatisfied	0	0%
Dissatisfied	14	3.2%
Neutral	32	7.3%
Satisfied	261	59.7%
Very Satisfied	130	29.7%

Physical Wellness. The Likert scale statement that participants were asked to respond to regarding physical wellness was, “*How would you rate your physical wellness?*” from a scale

ranging one (very dissatisfied) to a five (very satisfied). A review of the data revealed ($M = 3.58$, $SD = .93$; range = 1.0 – 5.0), the frequency results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8 *Self-Reported Physical Wellness*

Scale	Total (<i>n</i>)	Percentage
Very Dissatisfied	4	0.9%
Dissatisfied	70	16.0%
Neutral	83	19.0%
Satisfied	228	52.2%
Very Satisfied	52	11.9%

Spiritual Wellness. The Likert scale statement that participants were asked to respond to regarding spiritual wellness was, “*How would you rate your spiritual wellness?*” from a scale ranging one (very dissatisfied) to a five (very satisfied). A review of the data revealed ($M = 4.0$, $SD = .77$; range = 1.0 – 5.0), the frequency results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9 *Self-Reported Spiritual Wellness*

Scale	Total (<i>n</i>)	Percentage
Very Dissatisfied	0	0%
Dissatisfied	21	4.8%
Neutral	67	15.3%
Satisfied	239	54.7%
Very Satisfied	110	25.2%

Occupational Wellness. The Likert scale statement that participants were asked to respond to regarding occupational wellness was, “*How would you rate your overall wellness?*” from a scale ranging one (very dissatisfied) to a five (very satisfied). A review of the data revealed ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .89$; range = 1.0 – 5.0), the frequency results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10 *Self-Reported Occupational Wellness*

Scale	Total (<i>n</i>)	Percentage
Very Dissatisfied	6	1.4%
Dissatisfied	33	7.6%
Neutral	63	14.4%
Satisfied	233	53.3%
Very Satisfied	102	23.3%

Overall Wellness. The Likert scale statement that participants were asked to respond to regarding overall wellness was, “*How would you rate your overall wellness?*” from a scale ranging one (very dissatisfied) to a five (very satisfied). A review of the data revealed ($M = 4.0$, $SD = .67$; range 1.0 – 5.0), the frequency results are presented in Table 11. In addition, Cronbach’s α assessing the internal consistency of seven wellness Likert scale items was acceptable at .84.

Table 11 *Self-Reported Overall Wellness*

Scale	Total (<i>n</i>)	Percentage
Very Dissatisfied	0	0%
Dissatisfied	18	4.1%
Neutral	44	10.1%
Satisfied	297	68.0%
Very Satisfied	78	17.8%

Stress on the Job. The Likert scale statement that participants were asked to respond to regarding their current level of stress on the job was, “*How would you rate your current level of stress on the job?*” from a scale ranging one (very stressed) to a five (no stress). A review of the data revealed ($M = 2.58$, $SD = .99$; range = 1.0 – 5.0), the frequency results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12 *Self-Reported Current Level of Stress on the Job*

Scale	Total (<i>n</i>)	Percentage
Very Stressed	44	10.1%
Stressed	207	47.4%
Neutral	79	18.1%
Limited Stress	103	23.6%
No Stress	4	0.9%

Altruism

Counselor Altruism

Altruistic Motivation. The *Heintzelman Inventory* (Kuch & Robinson, 2008) was used to identify counselor altruistic motivation. The *Heintzelman Inventory* is a self-reporting questionnaire that has two sections. The first section contains 40 items that are divided into five subscales. The items in first section of the instrument contain a 5-point Likert-scale format that ranges from (a) “not at all an influence” to “a very strong influence”, (b) “not at all satisfying” to “very satisfying”, or (c) “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Additionally, each section of the *Heintzelman Inventory* contains a “not applicable or irrelevant” category. The second section focuses on obtaining demographical information; however, for this study the demographic section was *not* used. The current version of the *Heintzelman Inventory* includes 24 items and five subscales: (1) *Positive Future Expectations* (five items), (2) *Self-Efficacy* (eight items), (3) *Personal Growth/Self-Interest* (five items), (4) *Early Caretaker Experience* (4 items), and (5) *Counselor Identity Formation* (2 items). Cronbach’s α assessing the internal consistency of the *Heintzelman Inventory* was .752, indicating an acceptable internal consistency of the scale measuring five factors of altruistic motivation of counselors (Pallant, 2010). The measures of central tendency for the practicing school counselors per the *Heintzelman Inventory* subscales are presented in Table 13.

Table 13 *Heintzelman Inventory Measures of Central Tendencies*

Instrument	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range
<i>Positive Future Expectation</i>	23.71	2.20	8 - 25
<i>Self-Efficacy</i>	31.35	6.25	0 - 40
<i>Personal Growth</i>	20.35	4.78	0 - 25
<i>Early Caretaker</i>	4.60	2.23	0 - 20
<i>Counselor Identity Formation</i>	4.60	2.20	0 - 10

Altruistic Behavior. The *Self-Report Altruism Scale* (SRA-scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981) is a self-report instrument that has 20 items, focusing on altruistic behavior of participants by assessing the frequency in which they participate in an altruistic act. Rushton (2012) states that the *Self-Report Altruism Scale* is a total score instrument. Participants are asked to rate the frequency of which they engage in specific altruistic behaviors using five categories: (1) never = 0, (2) once = 1, (3) more than once = 2, (4) often = 3, and (5) very often = 4. Examples of specific altruistic behaviors include “I have helped carry a stranger’s belongings (e.g. books, parcels, etc.),” “I have helped an acquaintance to move,” and “I have volunteered for a charity.” Cronbach’s α assessing the internal consistency of the *SRA-scale* was .846, indicating a good internal consistency of the scale measuring altruistic behavior (Pallant, 2010). The measures of central tendency for the practicing school counselors for the *SRA-scale* are presented in Table 14.

Table 14 *Self-Report Altruism Scale Measures of Central Tendencies*

Instrument	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range
<i>SRA Total Score</i>	32.56	10.22	9 - 74

Burnout

The *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey* (MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1986, 1996) was used to measure participants' level of burnout determined by three subscales: *emotional exhaustion* (EE), *depersonalization* (DP), and *personal accomplishment* (PA). The MBI-ES is a self-report instrument with 22 questions. However, due to researcher error, participants only completed 21 items; item 18 was *not* included in the survey (this was researcher error and not done intentionally). Therefore, the measures of central tendency should be interpreted with caution for the *personal accomplishment scale*. Mean imputation was used to compute a score for the missing item. Participants are asked to rate how often they experience, the 21 statements, on a Likert scale: 0 = Never, 1 = A few times a year or less, 2 = Once a month or less, 3 = A few times a month, 4 = Once a week, 5 = A few times a week, and 6 = Every day. Cronbach's α assessing the internal consistency of the total *MBI-ES* was .816 with computed item 18 and .812 without item 18, both indicating a good internal consistency of the scale measuring burnout (Pallant, 2010). Additionally, the Cronbach's α for each of the three *MBI-ES* subscales was calculated: *emotional exhaustion* (.915), *depersonalization* (.744), and *personal accomplishment* (.723); all indicating an acceptable internal consistency (Pallant). The measures of central tendency for practicing school counselors' dimensions of burnout as measured by the *MBI-ES* are presented in Table 15.

Table 15 *Heintzelman Inventory Measures of Central Tendency*

Instrument	<i>M</i>	<i>Md</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range
<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>	18.94	17.00	10.80	0 - 52
<i>Depersonalization</i>	3.82	2.00	4.12	0 - 26
<i>Personal Accomplishment</i>	36.65	38.00	4.44	19 – 42.00

Data Analyses for the Research Hypothesis and Exploratory Research Questions

The following section reviews the results of the analyses for the primary research question and hypothesis, and the two exploratory research questions. All of the data was analyzed using the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS, Version 20) and the *Analysis of Moment Structures* (AMOS, Version 20) for SEM. To confirm that 95% of the variance of the relationship between the variables was due to the actual relationship and *not* sampling error, an alpha level of .05 was set (Frankel & Wallen, 2009)

Statistical Assumptions and Data Screening

Preliminary analyses of the data were conducted to ensure the sample was appropriate for SEM. Byrne (2010) suggest that the following assumptions are met: (a) appropriate sample size, (b) address missing data, (c) limited multicollinearity and singularity, (d) account for outliers, (e) multivariate normality, and (f) linearity between the variables. The suggested minimal sample size for SEM is 200 (Byrne, 2010). The dataset did *not* have any data that was missing not at random (MNAR) or missing at random (MAR); however, due to researcher error, there was data that was missing completely at random (MCAR). *MBI-ES* item 18, was *not* included in the survey completed by participants, but this was unintentional. Therefore, the reason that the data

was classified as MCAR is that there is no relationship between other variables within the survey that impact the reason it was not completed.

Multiple regression using the five factors of the *Heintzelman Inventory* and the *SRA* total score (independent variables) and the three factors of burnout (dependent variables) as used to assess assumptions for multivariate variable (Pallant, 2010). Multicollinearity exists when the relationship between the independent variables have a high correlation, $r = .9$ and above: (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007); however, multicollinearity is *not* beneficial to SEM. The correlation matrix and the Tolerance and VIF (variance inflation factor) values were evaluated to examine multicollinearity and singularity. Correlations between the independent variable should be below .7 to retain all variables, and if the tolerance value is below .10 and if the VIF is above 10 it suggest that there is multicollinearity (Pallant, 2010). All correlations between the independent variable were below .7 and none of the tolerance values or VIF values suggested non-multicollinearity. Therefore, the data met the assumption of multicollinearity. Outliers, normality, and linearity were evaluated by reviewing the Normal Probability Plot (P-P) of the Regression Standardized Residual and the scatterplot. Casewise diagnostics and Cooks Distance were evaluated and identified no need to address unusual cases.

Normality was assessed by reviewing the Normal Probability Plot (P-P) of the Regression Standardized Residual, the scatterplot, and the skewness and kurtosis levels of each variable. The dependent variables (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) were found to be non-normal based on their skewness and kurtosis. Additionally, the distributions on each of the *Heintzelman Inventory* subscales were non-normal. Furthermore, non-normality was verified by AMOS, when the SEM analyses were conducted, by reviewing Marida's normalized estimate of multivariate kurtosis. The researcher transformed the data and

the data was still not normally distributed. The researcher analyzed the non-normal data because it was understood why the data was *not* normal, and the researcher noted the potential impact of the non-normally distributed data had on the statistical results.

Research Hypothesis and Exploratory Questions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the directional relationship between practicing school counselors' altruistic caring to their levels of burnout. The following section describes the results for the research hypothesis and exploratory research questions. The research hypothesis was analyzed using SEM and Spearman Rho correlations. There are five steps of SEM (Crockett, 2012; Ullman, 2007; Weston & Gore, 2006): (a) model specification, (b) model identification, (c), model estimation, (d), model evaluation, and (e) model modification. All five steps were used and repeated to analyze the primary hypothesis. To determine overall goodness of fit the following fit indices and their value recommendations were used (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008; Hu & Bentler, 1998; Schreiber, et al., 2006): (a) Chi Square, (χ^2) is the extent to which the overall model predict the observed covariance, the ratio of χ^2 to *df* should be ≤ 2 or 3; (b) Tucker–Lewis index (TLI), describes the extent which the specified model performs better than a baseline model, TLI should be $\geq .95$ (.90 can be considered acceptable); (c) Comparative fit index (CFI), is similar to the TLI but accounts for sample size, CFI should be $\geq .95$ for acceptance; (d) Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), compares the fit of an independent model (a model which asserts no relationships between variables) to the fit of the estimated model, RMSEA $< .06$; (e) Goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the proportion of variance that is determined by the estimated population covariance, GFI $\geq .95$; and (f) Hoelter's Critical N, addresses the adequacy of the sample size to provide a good model fit for chi square, Hoelter should be > 200 .

Additionally, Spearman's rho analysis was used to further support the results of the SEM for the hypothesis. Correlational research does *not* provide a researcher the ability to determine causal relationships; however, the correlation coefficient determines the strength, direction, and significance of the relationship. A correlation coefficient is between -1.00 and +1.00. The closer the coefficient is to -1.00 or +1.00 the stronger the relationship; the – or + determine the direction of the relationship. Correlations ranging from .10 to .29 indicate a small relationship, correlations ranging from .30 to .49 are considered to be moderate or medium, and correlations ranging from .50 to 1.0 signify a strong correlation (Cohen, 1988).

Primary Research Question

Do practicing school counselors' levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981] contribute to their levels of burnout (as measured by the three factors [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996])?

Research Hypothesis

The research hypothesis tested in this investigation was: Practicing school counselors' levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981] will contribute to their levels of burnout (as measured by the three dimensions [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]). Specifically, this investigation tested the hypothesized directional relationship that practicing school counselors scoring at higher levels of altruism would have lower levels of burnout (see Figure 3 and 4)

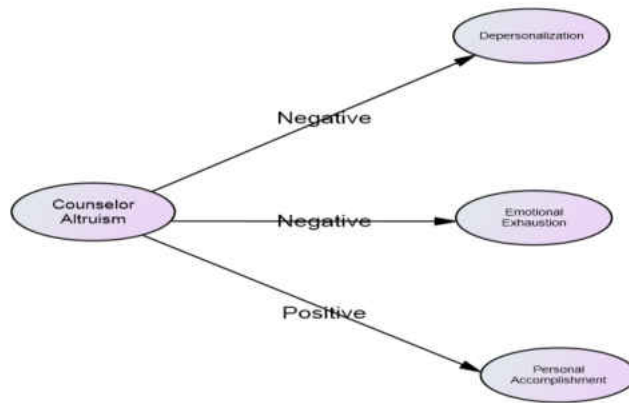


Figure 4: Hypothesized Path Model

Model Specification and Identification

Before testing the hypothesized model, the measurement model was specified and identified. Byrne (2010) suggests that measurement models are psychometrically sound for the dataset and that the validity of the measurement should be evaluated before assessing the structural model. To assess the validity of the measurement model, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess the fit of the indicators measuring the latent variable. A CFA was conducted on each instrument used in the study to ensure that the items were loading independently on the factors suggested by previous research (Limberg, Bai, & Robinson, in process; Rushton et al., 1981; Maslach et al., 1996). The CFA of each instrument provided rationale for specification of the measurement model.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Altruistic Motivation

Altruistic motivation was measured using the *Heintzelman Inventory*. The CFA of the *Heintzelman Inventory* was conducted based on the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and CFA conducted by Limberg, Bai, and Robinson (2013). Therefore, the *Heintzelman Inventory* items were constrained to load on the suggested factors. The factor loadings were examined using .70 as a cutoff (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004); therefore, the model was respecified (see figure 5) by deleting items (18, 15, 14, 11, 27, 22, 19, and 39) that did *not* meet the suggested cutoff. In addition, errors 14 and 16 were freed based on the modification indices. The respecification provided a good fit for the *Heintzelman Inventory* model (see table 16).

Table 16 *Model Fit Indices of the Heintzelman Inventory*

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	CMIN/ <i>df</i>	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	Hoelter
Figure 5	792.071	242	.000	3.273	.867	.864	.844	.072	< 200
Δ Figure 5	171.641	93	.000	1.846	.952	.972	.964	.044	> 200

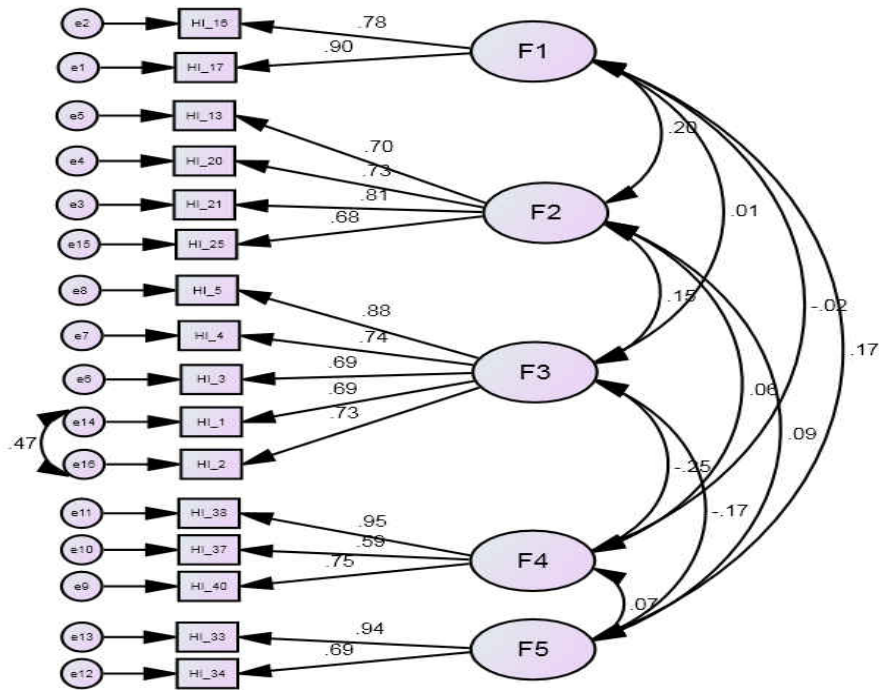


Figure 5: Measurement Model of the Heintzelman Inventory

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Altruistic Behavior

Altruistic behavior was measured using the *Self Report Altruism Scale*. Rushton (2012) states that the *SRA* is total score instrument; therefore, all of the items should load into one factor. However, the CFA of the *SRA* was conducted constraining all items to load onto one factor; all factor loadings were below .70, indicating that there may be more than one factor within the *SRA* for these data. However, the reliability and validity of *SRA* is supported (Rushton

et al., 1981) and *SRA* is widely used; therefore, an EFA was *not* conducted for the purposes of this study; however, it may be beneficial to conduct an EFA with these data in the future. The factor loadings were examined using .45 as a cutoff. The recommended cutoff is .70 (Schomaker & Lomax, 2004); however, .70 is a suggested factor loading cutoff, *not* a requirement. Kline (2010) states that indicators fail to have substantial standardized loadings when they are < .20. None of the *SRA* items met the recommended cutoff of .70; therefore, the researcher determined a threshold based on the range of the factor loading .23 - .61, supporting a good model fit; therefore, the model was respecified (figure 6) by deleting items that did *not* meet this suggested cutoff (2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 12, 15, and 16). In addition, errors in items 10 and 11 were freed, and errors in items 1 and 3 based on the modification indices. The respecification provided a good model fit for the *SRA* for these data (see Table 17).

Table 17 *Model Fit Indices of the SRA-scale*

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	CMIN/ <i>df</i>	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	Hoelter
Figure 6	1315.823	170	< .001	7.740	.787	.547	.493	.124	< 200
Δ Figure 6	82.773	42	< .001	1.971	.967	.958	.945	.047	> 200

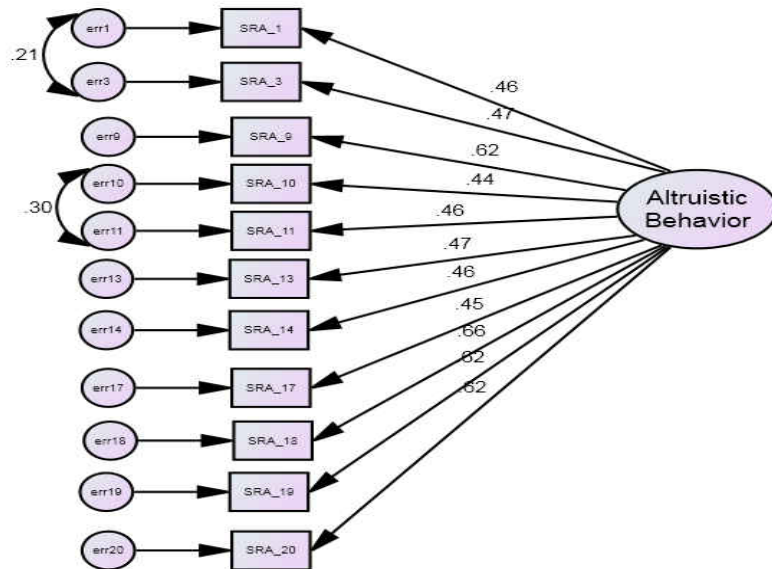


Figure 6: Measurement Model of Altruistic Behavior

Counselor Altruism Measurement Model

Counselor Altruism was measured by altruistic motivation (*Heintzelman Inventory*) and altruistic behavior (*SRA-scale*). The hypothesized measurement model for *Counselor Altruism* was specified using six indicators: the five factors of the *Heintzelman Inventory* (HI) and the total score of the *SRA scale*. The indicator values were calculated using the results of the respecified models of each instrument: (a) HI Factor 1: *Positive Future Expectations*, is a total

score of items 16, and 17 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .816$); (b) HI Factor 2: *Self-Efficacy*, is a total score of items 13, 20, 21, 22, and 25 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .810$); (c) HI Factor 3: *Personal Growth*, is a total score of items 5, 4, 2, 3, and 1 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .868$); (d) HI Factor 4: *Early Caretaker Experience*, is a total score of items 38, 37, and 40 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .796$); and (e) HI Factor 5: *Counselor Identity Formation*, is a total score of items 33 and 34 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .783$). The total of the items (1, 3, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 17, 18, 19, 20) that were included in the final SRA model (see figure 6) were used as an indicator to measure altruistic behavior (Cronbach's $\alpha = .807$). The measurement model was estimated using Maximum Likelihood estimation. The measurement model was estimated and it did *not* fit for the data with this sample. Therefore, the researcher decided to modify the model by consulting modification indices and regression weights. Modifications were made based on theoretical support. When a model is modified, the procedure then becomes exploratory in nature, and is part of post hoc analyses (Byrne, 2010). The errors for the HI Factor 4: *Early Caretaker Experience* and HI Factor 3: *Personal Growth* were freed, the errors for HI Factor 3: *Personal Growth* and HI Factor 2: *Self-Efficacy* were freed, and HI Factor 2: *Self-Efficacy* and HI Factor 1: *Positive Future Expectations*, all resulting a good model fit for *Counselor Altruism* for these data (see Figure 7 & Table 18).

Table 18 *Model Fit Indices of the Counselor Altruism Measurement Model*

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	CMIN/ <i>df</i>	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	Hoelter
Figure 7	39.562	9	< .001	4.386	.970	.627	.378	.088	< 200
Δ Figure 7	8.513	6	.203	1.419	.994	.969	.923	.031	> 200

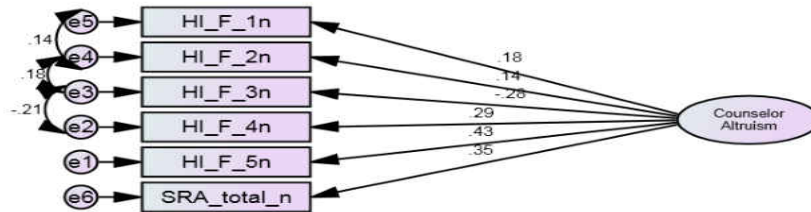


Figure 7: Measurement Model of Counselor Altruism

Burnout Measurement Model

The hypothesized measurement model for the three dimensions of burnout consisted of parcels as indicators for the latent variables (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment (see Figure 8). The parcels were determined by grouping similar items that measure the same latent variable (Kline, 2011; Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). Parceling in SEM is controversial (Kline, Little et al.); however, the researcher choose to do so to preserve parsimony and because the psychometric properties of the MBI-ES have been

supported by data from numerous populations, and has been used in SEM with parcels (Byrne, 2010). The parcels consisted of: (a) EE1, items 1, 2, 3 (b) EE2, items 6, 8, 13 (c) EE3, items 14, 16, 20 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .903$); (d) DP1, items 10, 11 (e) DP2, items 5, 15, 22 (f) PA1, items 4, 7, 9 (g) PA2, item 12; and (h) PA3, items 17, 19, 21 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .714$). The hypothesized measurement model (Figure 8) was tested and did *not* fit for these data. Therefore, the researcher decided to modify the model by consulting modification indices (covariances) and regression weights. Modifications were made based on theoretical support. Item 12 was cross-loaded onto emotional exhaustion due to the possibility that the content (i.e. "I feel energetic"), suggesting it could be measuring both emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment. Byrne (1994) found the same item to cross-load in a study conducted with elementary and secondary teachers. The cross-loading resulted in a good model fit for the *MBI-ES* for these data as presented in Figure 9 and Table 19.

Table 19 *Model Fit Indices of the MBI-ES Measurement Model*

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	CMIN/ <i>df</i>	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	Hoelter
Figure 8	141.059	17	< .001	8.298	.925	.925	.876	.129	< 200
Δ Figure 8 (Figure 9)	43.345	16	< .001	2.716	.975	.983	.971	.063	> 200

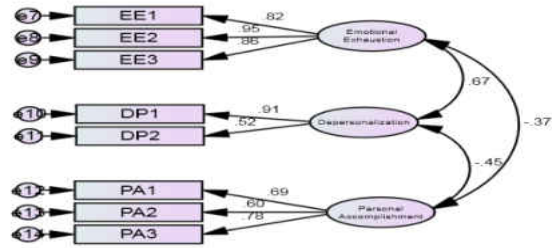


Figure 8: Hypothesized Measurement Model of the MBI-ES

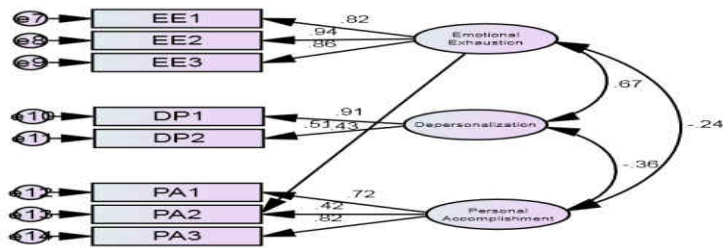


Figure 9: Final Measurement Model of MBI-ES

Complete Measurement Model

The complete measurement model, which included all measurement models of each construct, supported a good fit for these data (see Table 20). Modification indices were reviewed; however, no modifications made theoretical sense; therefore, the complete measurement model was *not* respecified (see Figure 10).

Table 20 *Model Fit Indices of the Complete Measurement Model*

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	CMIN/ <i>df</i>	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	Hoelter
Figure 10	160.314	67	< .001	2.393	.946	.950	.933	.057	> 200

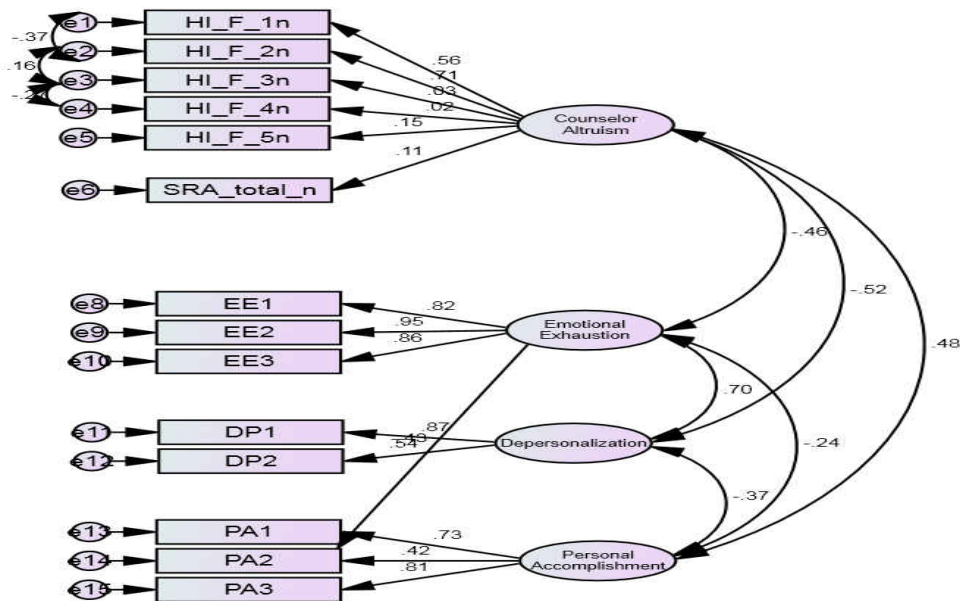


Figure 10: Complete Measurement Model

Structural Model

Next, the hypothesized structural model was specified based on the measurement model (see Figure 11). *Counselor Altruism* was defined as an exogenous latent variable, measured by the five factor subscale scores on the *Heintzelman Inventory* and the new total score (i.e., the items retained from the measurement model) of the *SRA*. The three dimensions of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) were defined as endogenous latent variables (dependent variables) measured from the parceled items of the *MBI-ES*. Maximum Likelihood was used to estimate the hypothesized model. Examination of the fit indices indicated a poor model fit for these data; therefore, model respecification was conducted by reviewing the modification indices. Based on examination of the modification indices, the errors 1 and 5 and errors 2 and 6 were freed, which made theoretical sense and led to a stronger model fit for these data. (see Table 21 & Figure 12).

Table 21 *Model Fit Indices of the Structural Model*

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	CMIN/ <i>df</i>	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	Hoelter
Figure 11	188.202	70	< .001	2.689	.936	.937	.918	.062	>200
Δ Figure 11 (Figure 12)	174.112	68	< .001	2.560	.941	.944	.925	.06	> 200

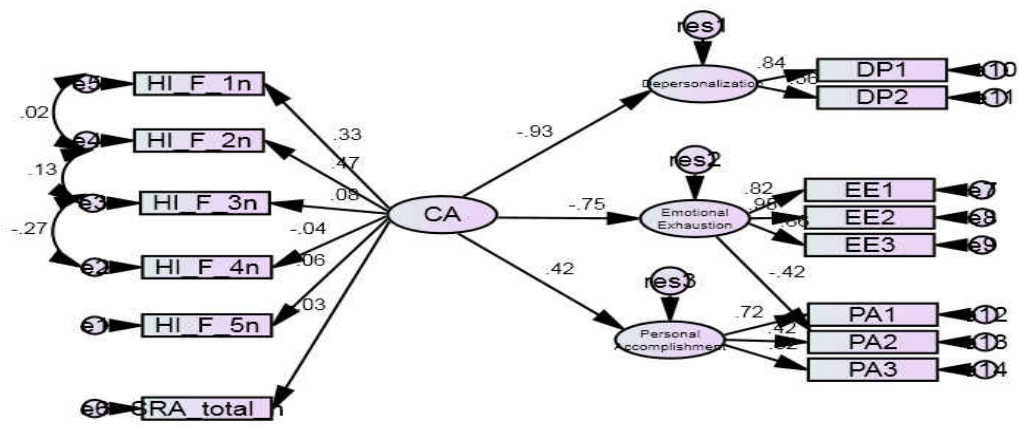


Figure 11: Hypothesized Structural Model

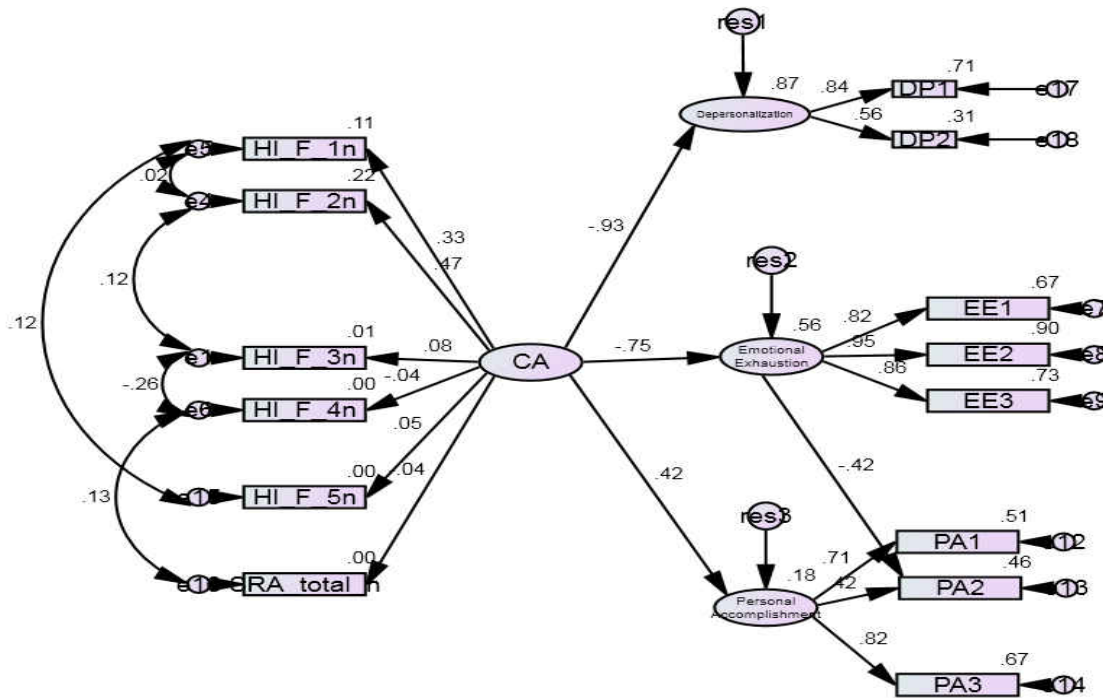


Figure 12: Respecified Structural Model

According to the respecified tested model (see figure 12), counselor altruism accounts for 86.50% of the variance for depersonalization, 56.25% of the variance for emotional exhaustion, and 17.64% of the variance for personal accomplishment for these data. However, these results should be interpreted with caution due to the low factor loading ($< .20$) of the indicators of counselor altruism, suggesting that the indicators are *not* providing sufficient explanation of the data, and that counselor altruism is more likely a multidimensional construct (Kline, 2011).

Additionally, the sample used for this study did *not* exhibit any levels of depersonalization ($M = 3.86$); therefore, the relationship between counselor altruism and depersonalization ($r = -.93$) *cannot* be interpreted without bias. Therefore, HI Factor 4: *Early Caretaker Experience* and HI Factor 5: *Counselor Identity Formation* were removed because of their low factor loadings (.04, .06); however, the researcher chose to retain SRA factor (total score) to ensure that that altruistic behavior would be represented in the model. Additionally, depersonalization was removed to avoid bias interpretation. Therefore, the respecified tested model (see Figure 13) indicates that counselor altruism (as measured by positive future expectation, self-efficacy, personal growth, and altruistic behavior) contributed to 23.04% of the variance in school counselors' emotional exhaustion (standardized coefficient = $-.48$) and 25.00% of the variance in their personal accomplishment (standardized coefficient = $.50$) scores. The relationship between counselor altruism and emotional exhaustion was negative, suggesting that those who had higher levels of altruism exhibited lower levels of emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, the relationship between counselor altruism and personal accomplishment was positive (suggesting that school counselors with higher levels of altruism had higher levels of personal accomplishment). The researcher chose to conduct one more modification to account for the low factor loadings altruistic behavior (.11) and personal growth (.05) onto counselor altruism. Therefore, HI Factor 3: *Personal Growth*, and SRA factor (total score) were removed from the model. The model (see Figure 14) for these data had a good fit (see Table 22). The respecified model indicates that counselor altruism (as measured by positive future expectation, self-efficacy) contributed to 31.36% of the variance in school counselors' emotional exhaustion (standardized coefficient = $-.56$) and 29.16% of the variance in their personal accomplishment (standardized coefficient = $.54$) scores.

Table 22 Model Fit Indices of Respecified Structural Model

	χ^2	df	p	CMIN/ df	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	Hoelter
Figure 13	62.390	30	< .001	2.080	.972	.978	.967	.050	>200
Δ Figure 13 (Figure 14)	43.928	17	< .001	2.584	.976	.981	.969	.060	>200

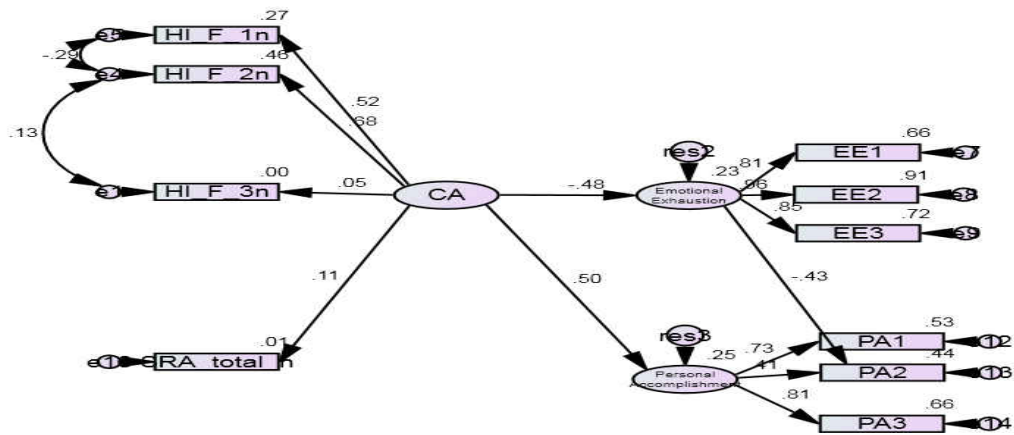


Figure 13: Respecified Structural Model Excluding HI Factor 4, HI Factor 5, and Depersonalization

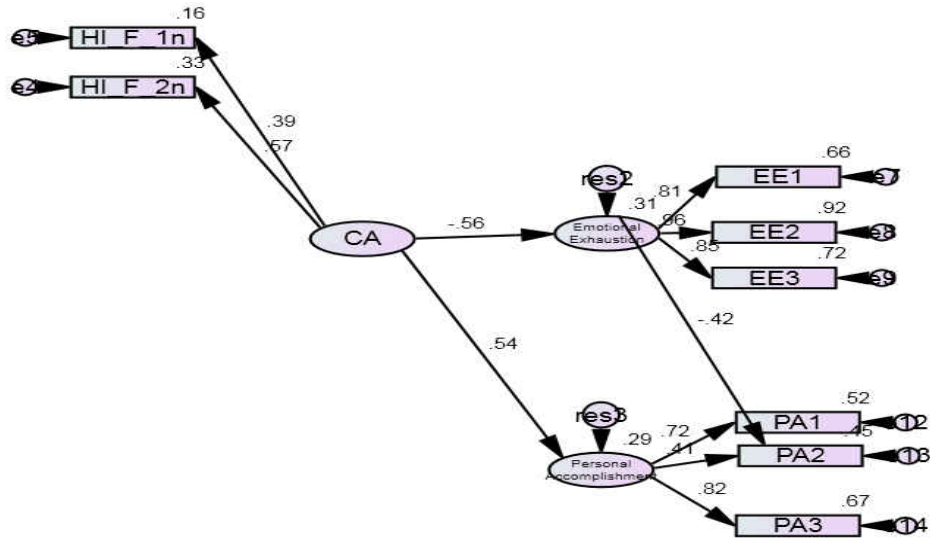


Figure 14: Respecified Structural Model Excluding HI Factor 3, HI Factor 4, HI Factor 5, Depersonalization, and SRA total score

Follow-up Analyses

Further analyses were conducted to investigate the tested models and support the model fit. Kline (2011) stated that it is good practice for researchers using SEM to consider the existence of equivalent models (i.e., other models) that fit the same data; however, this practice

is *not* common. Additionally, Kline describes three ultimate goals of SEM and identifying the final retained model:

1. Has a clear theoretical rationale (i.e., makes sense).
2. Differentiates between what is known and what is unknown—that is, what is the model’s range of convenience or limits to its generality?
3. Sets conditions for posing new questions. (p. 95)

Considering these three goals, the recommendation to investigate equivalent models, and to address the low factor loadings of the indicators to that were measuring counselor altruism a new model was specified as a post-hoc analyses. The low factor loadings may indicate that the indicators are multidimensional (Kline, 2011). Therefore, a new specified structural model, which included the items on the *Heintzelman Inventory*, was used to further investigate the dimensions of counselor altruism and their relationship with the three dimensions of burnout (see Figure 15). The measurement model consisted of the items on the *Heintzelman Inventory* that were used as indicators in the original counselor altruism measurement model, and items on the *SRA* were parceled (Kline, 2011) based on the topic within the question. There appeared to be two themes: (1) helping a stranger/acquaintance and (2) volunteering or donation. Therefore, items were parceled according to these themes: (1) SRA1: helping a stranger/acquaintance is a total score of items 1, 3, 9, 10, 11, 18, 19, 20 and (2) SRA2: volunteering or donation is a total score of items 13, 14, and 17. The items on the *MBI-ES* remained parceled the same as they were in the original measurement and structural model and error 11 and 16 and 10 and 15 were freed, which made theoretical sense, and provided a good model fit (see Table 23). The amount of variance that each counselor altruism factor accounted for in the dimensions of burnout is presented in Table 24.

Table 23 Model Fit Indices of Structural Model with Dimensions of Altruism Represented

	χ^2	df	p	CMIN/ df	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	Hoelter
Figure X	556.845	279	<.001	1.996	.907	.940	.930	.048	>200

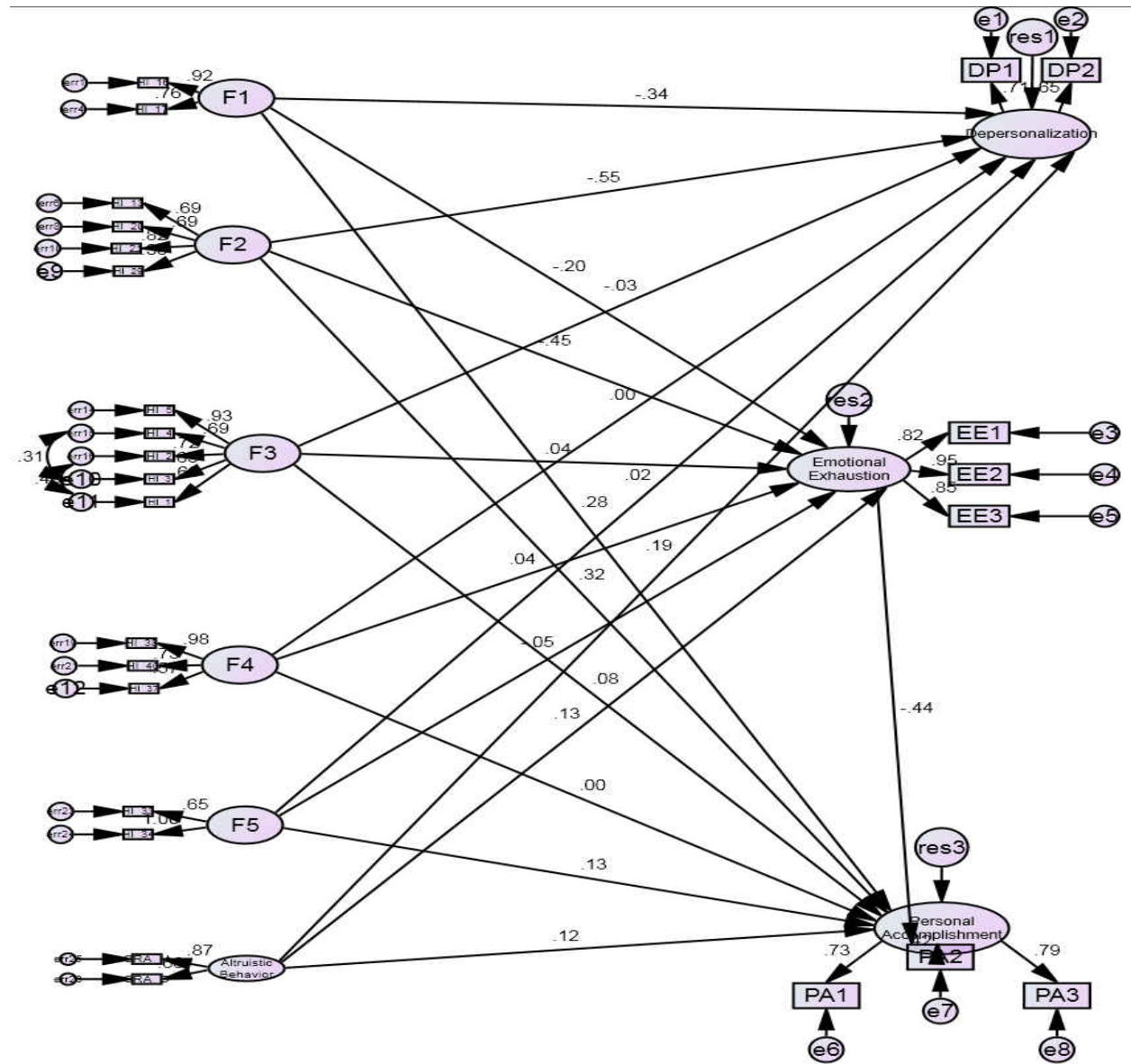


Figure 15: Structural Model with Dimensions of Altruism Represented

Table 24 *Percentage of Variance that each Counselor Altruism Factor Accounted for in the Dimensions of Burnout*

	<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>	<i>Depersonalization</i>	<i>Personal Accomplishment</i>
<i>Positive Future Expectations</i>	4.00.%	11.56%	7.84%
<i>Self-Efficacy</i>	20.25%	30.25%	10.24%
<i>Personal Growth</i>	.16%	.09%	.64%
<i>Early Caretaker</i>	.16%	0%	.00%
<i>Counselor Identity</i>	.25%%	.04%	1.69%
<i>Altruistic Behavior</i>	1.69%%	3.61%	1.44%

The model was respecified model again, which did *not* include depersonalization, HI item 34 was removed because it is a Haywood case (Kline, 2011) The new model resulted in a good fit (see Figure 16 & Table 25). The amount of variance that each counselor altruism factor accounted for in emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment scores is presented in Table 26.

Table 25 *Model Fit Indices of Structural Model with Dimensions of Altruism Represented Excluding Depersonalization and Item 34*

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	CMIN/ <i>df</i>	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	Hoelter
Figure X	403.611	216	< .001	1.869	.921	.956	.948	.045	< 200

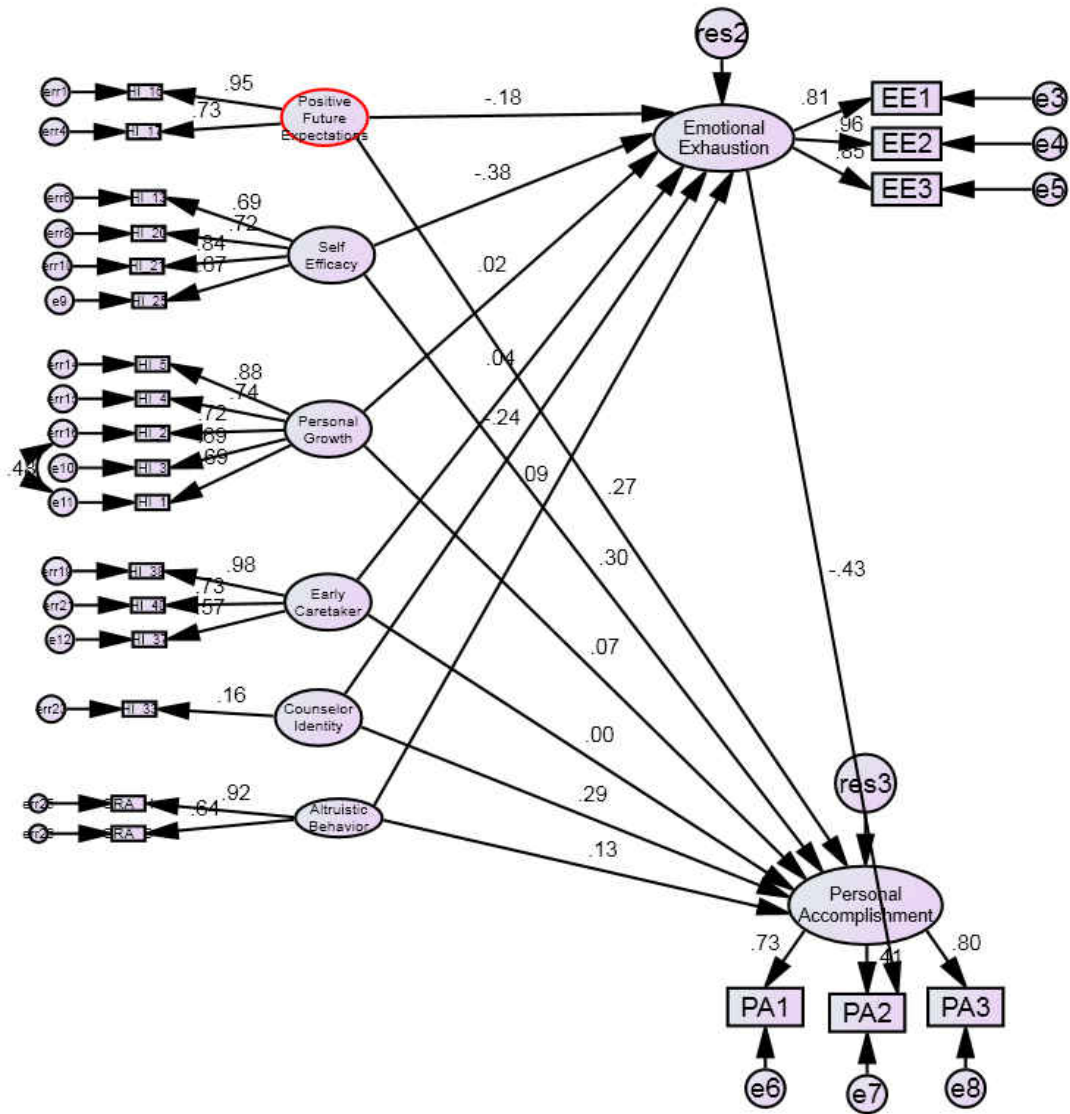


Figure 16: Structural Model with Dimensions of Altruism Represented Excluding Depersonalization and Item 34

Table 26 *Percentage of Variance that each Counselor Altruism Factor Accounted for in Emotional Exhaustion and Personal Accomplishment*

	<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>	<i>Personal Accomplishment</i>
<i>Positive Future Expectations</i>	3.24%	7.30%
<i>Self-Efficacy</i>	14.44%	9.00%
<i>Personal Growth</i>	.04%	.49%
<i>Early Caretaker</i>	.16%	.00%
<i>Counselor Identity</i>	5.70%	8.41%
<i>Altruistic Behavior</i>	.81%	1.69%

A simultaneous multiple regression was conducted to examine if factors on the *Heintzelman Inventory* and the *SRA* total score predicted practicing school counselors dimensions of burnout (as measured by the *MBI-ES*). Prior to analysis, violations of assumptions were explored. Outliers, normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity were addressed by the observation of normal p-p plots and residual scatterplots (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007); the assumption of normality was violated. Overall, the linear composite of the predictor variables (*Heintzelman Inventory* Factors and *SRA* total score) predicted approximately 14.06 % ($r = .375$) of the variance in the school counselors' levels of emotional exhaustion, $F(6, 430) = 11.706, p < .001$; 19.90 % ($r = .446$) of the variance in school counselors' level of depersonalization, $F(6, 430) = 17.812, p < .001$; and 16% ($r = .400$) of the variance in school counselors' level of personal accomplishment. However, among the predictor variables, only *positive future expectations* and *self-efficacy* had statistically significant beta coefficients for all three dimensions of burnout, and *altruistic behavior* had statistically significant beta coefficients

for depersonalization and personal accomplishment. *Self-efficacy* had the highest beta value (beta = -.305, $p < .001$) for emotional exhaustion, depersonalization (beta = -.347, $p < .001$) and personal accomplishment (beta = .254, $p < .001$).

The Spearman rho correlation was used to verify significant relationship between altruism (as measured by the five factors on the *Heintzelman Inventory* and the *SRA* total score) and emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (as measured by the *MBI-ES*). Table 27 presents the correlation coefficients of for the five factors of the *Heintzelman Inventory* and the *MBI-ES* scores.

Table 27 *Correlation Coefficients of for the Five Factors of the Heintzelman Inventory and the MBI-ES scores*

	<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>	<i>Depersonalization</i>	<i>Personal Accomplishment</i>
<i>Positive Future Expectations</i>	$r_s = -.183$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.210$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .216$ $p < .001$
<i>Self-Efficacy</i>	$r_s = -.326$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.371$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .311$ $p < .001$
<i>Personal Growth</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
<i>Early Caretaker</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
<i>Counselor Identity Formation</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	$r_s = .109$ $p < .05$
<i>Altruistic Behavior</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	$r_s = .132$ $p < .05$

Exploratory Research Questions

Exploratory Research Question 1

Is there a statistically significant relationship between practicing school counselors' level of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory*; [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-*

Report Altruism Scale, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981]) and their reported demographic variables (e.g., age, school level, years of school counseling experience, etc., and self-reported wellness)?

The relationship between practicing school counselors' level of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory*; [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981]) and their demographic variables was investigated using a Spearman Rank Order correlation (ρ). "A Spearman ρ is particularly useful when your data does not meet the criteria for Pearson correlations" (Pallant, 2010, p. 128). Preliminary analyses (i.e., review of the scatterplot and evaluating skew and kurtosis) were performed to examine if the data met the assumptions (i.e., normality, linearity and homoscedasticity) for Pearson product-moment correlation. The data violated the assumption of normality and did *not* meet the criteria for Pearson correlation; therefore, a Spearman ρ correlation was conducted, and the relationships were evaluated based on Cohen's (1988) suggested interpretations of relationships. The analyses were done with all of the items in the instruments (i.e., all items in the *Heintzelman Inventory* and *SRA*); therefore, the items that were removed for the SEM were put back into the total scores to ensure that all of the items were being accounted for.

The analyses supported the results of a small statistically significant relationship between *Positive Future Expectations* and participants reported age ($r_s = -.119, p < .05$); ASCA membership ($r_s = .152, p < .001$); sample group ($r_s = -.096, p < .05$); the number of years working as a practicing school counselor ($r_s = .164, p < .001$); amount of students on a caseload ($r_s = .128, p < .05$); and gender ($r_s = .110, p < .05$). However, no relationships were identified with ethnicity, relationship status, degree level, environment of school, and classification of school. Additionally, the analyses supported the results of a small statistically significant

relationship between *Self-Efficacy* and participants reported age ($r_s = .170, p < .001$); degree level ($r_s = .156, p < .001$); and the number of years working as a practicing school counselor ($r_s = .253, p < .001$). However, no relationships were identified between *Self-Efficacy* and membership in ASCA, sample group, gender, caseload, ethnicity, relationship status, school level, environment of school, and classification of school. Furthermore, a small significant relationship was found between *Personal Growth* and degree level ($r_s = .102, p < .05$); and number of years working as a practicing school counselor ($r_s = .116, p < .05$). However, no relationships were identified between *Personal Growth* and membership in ASCA, sample group, gender, age, caseload, ethnicity, relationship status, school level, environment of school, and classification of school. There were no relationships found between *Early Caretaker Experience* and *Counselor Identity Formation* and any of the demographic variables. However, there was a small significant relationship between *Altruistic Behavior* and age ($r_s = .225, p < .001$); and years working as a school counselor ($r_s = .198, p < .001$). Table 28 provides a representation of the correlation results.

Table 28 *Correlations between Altruism and Demographic Variables*

	<i>Positive Future Expectations</i>	<i>Self-Efficacy</i>	<i>Personal Growth</i>	<i>Early Caretaker Experience</i>	<i>Counselor Identity Formation</i>	<i>Altruistic Behavior</i>
Membership in ASCA	$r_s = .152$ $p < .001$	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Sample Group	$r_s = -.096$ $p < .05$	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Gender	$r_s = .110$ $p < .05$	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Age	$r_s = -.119$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .170$ $p < .001$	NS	NS	NS	$r_s = .225$ $p < .001$
Caseload	$r_s = .128$ $p < .05$	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Years of Experience	$r_s = .164$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .253$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .116$ $p < .05$	NS	NS	NS
Ethnicity	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Relationship Status	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Degree Level	NS	$r_s = .156$, $p < .001$	$r_s = .102$ $p < .05$	NS	NS	NS
School Level	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Environment of School	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Classification of School	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS

Altruism and Self-Reported Wellness

To explore the relationship between school counselors' altruism and their self-reported wellness, a Spearman rho correlation was conducted. There was a small between *Positive Future Expectations* and emotional wellness ($r_s = .150, p < .05$); social wellness ($r_s = .139, p < .05$); spiritual wellness ($r_s = .121, p < .05$); occupational wellness ($r_s = .238, p < .001$); and overall wellness ($r_s = .158, p < .001$). However, no relationships were found between *Positive Future Expectations* and physical wellness and level of stress at work. Additionally, the analyses supported the results of a small statistically significant relationship between *Self-Efficacy* and all

types of self-reported wellness: emotional wellness ($r_s = .251, p < .001$); social wellness ($r_s = .274, p < .001$); physical wellness ($r_s = .123, p < .05$); spiritual wellness ($r_s = .237, p < .001$); occupational wellness ($r_s = .233, p < .001$); overall wellness ($r_s = .249, p < .001$); and level of stress at work ($r_s = .212, p < .001$). Furthermore, a small significant relationship was found between *Personal Growth* and spiritual wellness ($r_s = .105, p < .05$); and overall wellness ($r_s = .096, p < .05$). However, no relationships were found between *Personal Growth* and emotional, social, physical, occupational, or levels of stress at work for these data. There was a small negative relationship found between *Early Caretaker Experience* and levels of stress at work ($r_s = -.105, p < .05$); however there was no relationship found between *Early Caretaker Experience* and the other types of self-reported wellness. *Counselor Identity Formation* related positively with spiritual wellness ($r_s = .100, p < .05$); occupational wellness ($r_s = .149, p < .05$); and overall wellness ($r_s = .104, p < .05$); however, it did *not* relate identified between *Counselor Identity Formation* and the other types of wellness. Altruistic behavior related to all of the self-reported types of wellness except physical and level of stress at work: emotional wellness ($r_s = .124, p < .05$); social wellness ($r_s = .097, p < .05$); spiritual wellness ($r_s = .163, p < .001$); occupational wellness ($r_s = .096, p < .05$); and overall wellness ($r_s = .104, p < .05$). Table 29 provides a representation of the correlation results.

Table 29 *Correlations between Altruism and Self-Reported Wellness*

	<i>Positive Future Expectations</i>	<i>Self- Efficacy</i>	<i>Personal Growth</i>	<i>Early Caretaker Experience</i>	<i>Counselor Identity Formation</i>	<i>Altruistic Behavior</i>
<i>Emotional Wellness</i>	$r_s = .150$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .251$ $p < .001$	NS	NS	NS	$r_s = .124$ $p < .05$
<i>Social Wellness</i>	$r_s = .139$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .274$ $p < .001$	NS	NS	NS	$r_s = .097$ $p < .05$
<i>Physical Wellness</i>	NS	$r_s = .123$ $p < .05$	NS	NS	NS	NS
<i>Spiritual Wellness</i>	$r_s = .121$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .237$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .105$ $p < .05$	NS	$r_s = .100$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .163$ $p < .001$
<i>Occupational Wellness</i>	$r_s = .238$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .233$ $p < .001$	NS	NS	$r_s = .149$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .096$ $p < .05$
<i>Overall Wellness</i>	$r_s = .158$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .249$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .096$ $p < .05$	NS	$r_s = .104$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .105$ $p < .05$
<i>Level of Stress at Work</i>	NS	$r_s = .212$ $p < .001$	NS	$r_s = -.105$ $p < .05$	NS	NS

Exploratory Research Question 2

Is there a statistically significant relationship between practicing school counselors' level of burnout (as measured by the three subscale scores [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]) and their reported demographic variables (e.g., age, school level, years of school counseling experience, etc., and self-reported wellness)?

The relationship between practicing school counselors' level of burnout as measured by the three subscale scores [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]) and their demographic variables was investigated using a Spearman Rank Order correlation (rho). Preliminary analyses (i.e., review of the scatterplot and evaluating skew and kurtosis) were performed to examine if the data met the assumptions (i.e., normality, linearity and

homoscedasticity) for Pearson product-moment correlation. The data violated the assumption of normality and did *not* meet the criteria for Pearson correlation; therefore, a Spearman rho correlation was conducted, and the relationship were evaluated based on Cohen's (1988) suggested interpretations of relationships.

The analyses supported the results of a small relationship between *emotional exhaustion* and participants reported caseload ($r_s = .104, p < .05$); and classification of school ($r_s = -.124, p < .05$). Additionally, *depersonalization* related to participants reported membership status in ASCA ($r_s = -.122, p < .05$); sample group ($r_s = .122, p < .05$); degree level ($r_s = -.095, p < .05$); and school level ($r_s = .103, p < .05$). Furthermore, *personal accomplishment* correlated positively with age ($r_s = .198, p < .001$); and years of experience ($r_s = .123, p < .05$). However, no further relationships were identified between the three dimensions of burnout and the other demographic variables. Table 30 provides a representation of the correlation results.

In order to analyze mean differences between ASCA members and non-ASCA members, Mann-Whitney U test was conducted because of the non-normality of the data. Results identified *no* mean differences in emotional exhaustion or personal accomplishment scores of ASCA members and non-ASCA members. However, there were mean differences identified between the ASCA members ($M = 3.54, Mdn = 3.00, n = 93$) and non-ASCA members ($M = 4.88, Mdn = 2.00, n = 344$) for depersonalization scores, $U = 13279, z = -2.537, p < .01, r = .12$; indicating a small effect size (Cohen, 1988). A Kruskal-Wallis test (non-parametric alternative to one-way between-groups ANOVA) was conducted to explore the differences sample groups and levels of burnout. The Kruskal-Wallis Test identified mean differences in depersonalization across the sample groups $\chi^2(4, n = 437) = 10.55, p < .05$. The participants who were in the Texas group, had higher mean depersonalization scores ($n = 32, M = 6.375, Mdn = 5.00$) than the other sample

groups: (a) random sample 1 ($n = 158$, $M = 3.31$, $Mdn = 2.00$); (b) random sample 2 ($n = 144$, $M = 3.80$, $Mdn = 2.00$); (c) South Dakota Sample ($n = 68$, $M = 4.059$, $Mdn = 3.00$); and (d) other purposive sample ($n = 35$, $M = 3.824$, $Mdn = 2.00$). However, there were no mean differences identified between sample groups for scores on emotional exhaustion or personal accomplishment for these data. Additionally, a Kruskal-Wallis Test identified mean differences in depersonalization across the school level participants worked in $\chi^2(3, n = 437) = 10.74$, $p < .05$. The participants who worked in high schools had higher levels of depersonalization ($n = 157$, $M = 4.49$, $Mdn = 3.00$) than the practicing school counselors at the other levels: (a) middle school ($n = 103$, $M = 3.89$, $Mdn = 2.0$); (b) other school configuration ($n = 32$, $M = 3.82$, $Mdn = 2.00$); and (c) elementary ($n = 145$, $M = 3.17$, $Mdn = 2.00$).

Table 30 *Correlations between Burnout and Demographic Variables*

	<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>	<i>Depersonalization</i>	<i>Personal Accomplishment</i>
Membership in ASCA	<i>NS</i>	$r_s = -.122$ $p < .05$	<i>NS</i>
Sample Group	<i>NS</i>	$r_s = .122$ $p < .05$	<i>NS</i>
Gender	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>
Age	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>	$r_s = .198$ $p < .001$
Caseload	$r_s = .104$ $p < .05$	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>
Years of Experience	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>	$r_s = .123$ $p < .05$
Ethnicity	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>
Relationship Status	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>
Degree Level	<i>NS</i>	$r_s = -.095$ $p < .05$	<i>NS</i>
School Level	<i>NS</i>	$r_s = .103$ $p < .05$	<i>NS</i>
Environment of School	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>
Classification of School	$r_s = -.124$ $p < .05$	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>

Burnout and Self-Reported Wellness

To explore the relationship between school counselors' altruism and their self-reported wellness, a Spearman rho correlation was conducted. The analyses supported a relationship between all of the dimensions of burnout and all of the types of self-reported wellness. Table 31 provides all of the correlations.

Table 31 *Correlations between Burnout and Self-Reported Wellness*

	<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>	<i>Depersonalization</i>	<i>Personal Accomplishment</i>
<i>Emotional Wellness</i>	$r_s = -.361$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.251$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .300$ $p < .001$
<i>Social Wellness</i>	$r_s = -.350$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.232$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .265$ $p < .001$
<i>Physical Wellness</i>	$r_s = -.290$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.202$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .182$ $p < .001$
<i>Spiritual Wellness</i>	$r_s = -.328$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.250$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .275$ $p < .001$
<i>Occupational Wellness</i>	$r_s = -.497$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.283$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .392$ $p < .001$
<i>Overall Wellness</i>	$r_s = -.459$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.270$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .294$ $p < .001$
<i>Level of Stress at Work</i>	$r_s = -.581$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.261$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .143$ $p < .05$

To further explore Research Question Two, a simultaneous multiple regression was used to predict the influences of the different types of wellness and dimensions of burnout. Each analysis was observed for violations of assumptions (outliers, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity), normality was violated which may hinder the results of the regression analyses. In assessing the prediction of the independent variables (self-reported wellness) to the dependent variables (dimensions of burnout), all independent variable were entered simultaneously. Overall, the linear composite of the variables entered in the regression procedure explained approximately 49% ($R^2 = .49$) of the variation in emotional exhaustion scores, $F(7, 429) = 58.12, p < .001$; 18% ($R^2 = .18$) of the variation in depersonalization scores, $F(7, 429) = 13.234, p < .001$; and 20% ($R^2 = .20$) of the variation in personal accomplishment scores $F(7, 429) = 15.047, p < .001$. Further inspection of the beta weights indicated that occupational wellness, spiritual wellness, and current level of stress on the job had statistically significant beta coefficients for emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Additionally, emotional wellness,

occupational wellness and spiritual wellness had significant beta coefficients for personal accomplishment. Current level of stress on the job had the highest beta value (beta = $-.408$, $p < .001$) for emotional exhaustion, occupational wellness had the highest beta value for depersonalization (beta = $-.238$, $p < .001$), and personal accomplishment (beta = $.332$, $p < .001$).

Chapter Summary

Chapter Four presented the results of the data analyses procedures which included: (a) descriptive analysis, (b) structural equation modeling, (c) Simultaneous Multiple Regression, (d) Spearman rho correlations (two-tailed), (e) Mann Whitney U test, (f) Kruskal Wallis test. Chapter Five continues with a discussion of the results, offering implications for school counselors, counselor educators, and areas for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The purpose of Chapter Five is to provide an overview of the study, the research methodology, and a discussion of the results. Chapter Five expands upon the results presented in Chapter Four, and compares findings to those presented in Chapter Two. Specifically, the results of the primary research hypothesis and the exploratory questions are discussed and explained. Furthermore, this chapter (a) reviews the limitations of the study (e.g., research design, sampling, and instrumentation), (b) provides recommendations for future research, and (c) presents implications for school counseling and counselor education.

Summary of Study

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the directional relationship between practicing school counselors' level of altruism to their degrees of burnout. This investigation tested the theoretical model that practicing school counselors' levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981] will contribute to their levels of burnout (as measured by the three dimensions [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]). Specifically, this investigation tested the hypothesized directional relationship that practicing school counselors scoring at higher levels of altruism would have lower levels of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment). In addition, the investigation examined the relationship between the practicing school counselors' levels altruism and burnout and their reported demographic information (e.g., age, school counseling level, self-reported levels of wellness).

There is limited research that investigates the direct relationship between altruism and burnout, specifically in the helping professions. Yet, the existing literature (e.g., Altun, 2005; Ngai & Cheung, 2009; Van Emmerik et al., 2005) does support the theoretical model examined that practicing school counselors scoring at higher levels of altruism would have lower levels of burnout. Burnout and its relationship with external factors (e.g., Baggerly & Osborn, 2006; Moyer, 2011) and intrapersonal factors (e.g., Butler & Constantine, 2005; Lambie, 2007; Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006; Wilkerson, 2009) has been examined in the school counseling literature; however, the relationship between burnout and altruism has *not* been identified. Therefore, investigating the relationship between altruism and burnout provides increased insight to intrapersonal factors (e.g., altruism) of school counselors that may prevent burnout. Altruism is a core school counselor attribute (Roger, 1957; Corey, Corey, & Callahan, 1996); however, it is one that is often deemphasized due to systemic bureaucracy (i.e., high caseload, limited resources, high-stakes testing) within educational settings. Identification of the potential inverse relationship between altruism and burnout may assist in the understanding of intrapersonal characteristics of school counselors that may prevent burnout and increase their effectiveness in supporting students' holistic development. Therefore, identifying and fostering altruistic caring of school counselors and clarifying the relationship between altruism and burnout offers meaningful insight to the counseling field.

The study was approved by the University of Central Florida's IRB. Data collection was conducted October 15, 2013 through December 15, 2013. The sample for the study included, 437 practicing school counselors (ASCA members, $n = 344$; non-ASCA members, $n = 93$; random sample, $n = 302$ participants; purposive sample, $n = 135$ participants). To increase the response rate and reduce sampling error, Dillmans (2007) *Tailored Design Method* was implemented. The

overall usable response rate of all 3,013 participants contacted was 13.45%. The participants completed the data collection instruments through Survey Monkey (with the exception of the Texas purposive sample who completed a paper-pencil version of the survey), which consisted of four instruments: (a) *General Demographic Survey* (Limberg, 2013); (b) the *Heintzleman Inventory* (Kuch & Robinson, 2008); (c) *Self-Report Altruism Scale* (SRA-scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981; and (d) *Maslach-Burnout Inventory Educator Survey* (MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996). The statistical procedures used to analyze the data included structural equation modeling (SEM). Specifically, multiple regression, path analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis (Ullman, 2007) were conducted. The exploratory research questions were examined using: descriptive statistics, Spearman's rho correlations, multiple regressions, Kruskal-Wallis test and Mann Whitney U test (Pallant, 2010). An alpha level of .05 was used in the data analyses.

Discussion

The following section examines and expands upon the results presented in Chapter Four. Specifically, a review of the descriptive data analyses conducted on the demographic data and instrumentation scores is presented. Additionally, the results of statistical analyses conducted to investigate the primary research hypothesis and the exploratory questions are discussed. The results are compared to previous research that was presented in Chapter Two, focused on altruism within the helping professions, school counselor burnout, and the relationship between altruism and burnout.

Descriptive Data Analysis

Participants

All participants in the study were practicing school counselors. Descriptive data and measures of central tendency for all participants ($N = 437$) are: 302 (69.2%) in the ASCA national random sample, 68 (15.6%) in the South Dakota purposive sample, 35 (8.0%) in the Florida/Wisconsin/Minnesota purposive sample, and 32 (7.3%) in the Texas purposive sample. There were 344 ASCA members and 93 non-ASCA members in the sample, and 302 participants were part of the random sample and 135 were part of the purposive sample. The majority of the participants were female ($n = 380$, 87%), compared to those who identified as male ($n = 57$, 13%). The mean age of the participants that reported their age ($N = 435$) was 44.77 years ($SD = 10.82$, range = 24 to 74, $Mdn = 44$). Ethnicity and race of participants, of those who reported ($N = 436$) was 386 (88.3%) Caucasian, 24 (5.5%) Black/African American, 14 (3.2%) Hispanic, 8 (1.8%) Other/Multi-Racial, 3 (0.7%) Native American, and 1 (0.2%) as Asian/Pacific Islander. The reported current relationship status for the participants that reported ($N = 436$) was 341 (78.0%) married/partnered, 43 (9.8%) single, 28 (6.4%) divorced, 13 (3.0%) cohabitating, 7 (1.6%) widowed, and 4 (0.9%) other.

The participants were asked about their professional experience and preparation, 87.0% ($n = 380$) of the school counselors indicated that the highest degree earned was a Master's, 8.2% ($n = 36$) earned an Education Specialist Degree (Ed.S), 4.1% ($n = 18$) earned a Doctoral Degree, and 0.7% ($n = 3$) reported having only a Bachelor's Degree. The majority of the practicing school counselors held membership in ASCA ($n = 344$, 78.7%) as compared to the counselors *not* holding membership ($n = 93$, 21.3%). The mean years of experience as a school counselor was 11.46 years ($SD = 7.84$, range = 1.0 to 43.0, $Mdn = 10.0$). The identified level the school

counselors worked at was: (a) 35.9% ($n = 157$) high school counselors, (b) 33.2% ($n = 145$) elementary school counselors, (c) 23.6% ($n = 103$) middle school counselors, and (d) 7.3% ($n = 32$) other school configuration (e.g., K – 8 schools). The environmental setting of the participants' school was 41.4% ($n = 181$) suburban, 37.8% ($n = 165$) rural, 18.3% ($n = 80$) urban, and 2.5% ($n = 11$) other. The classification of the schools reported ($N = 435$) was 95.7% ($n = 418$) public, 3.0% ($n = 13$) private, and 0.9% ($n = 4$) other. The mean number of students that school counselors reported being responsible for in their case load was 428.11 students ($SD = 201.72$, range = 72–1,741, $Mdn = 400$). Caseload analyses were conducted with the removal of one outlier due to extreme number (e.g., 40,069).

Previous research with practicing school counselors' demographic data was consistent with the current investigation's demographic data. Specifically, the underrepresentation of males within the school counseling is evident. Butler and Constantine (2005) surveyed 533 school counselors, 415 females and 118 males responded. Moyer (2011) surveyed 52 (13.6%) male school counselors and 325 (85.1%) female school counselors. Additionally, the majority of practicing school counselors self-report being Caucasian; therefore, the school counseling field does *not* represent a diverse race demographic. Baggerly and Osborn's (2006) study focused on school counselor's job satisfaction 84% of the participants were white; 9% African American; 6% Hispanic; and 1% Asian, Native American or other. Moyer (2011) sample was also predominantly participants predominantly Caucasian ($n = 343$, 89.8%); the remaining sample was comprised of African American ($n = 20$, 5.2%), Asian ($n = 2$, 0.5%), Hispanic ($n = 8$, 2.1%), and nine participants (2.4%) who did not identify their ethnicity. In Wilkerson and Bellini (2007) of school counselors: 89.7% participants identified themselves as White, 3.8% as Black or African American, 2.6% as American Indian or Alaska Native, 2.6% as Hispanic or Latino/a,

and 1.3%) as Asian/Asian American or Pacific Islander. Therefore, the demographic data for the practicing school counselors participating in the current study was congruent with previous research with practicing school counselors.

The average years of experience as a school counselor ($M = 11.46$, $SD = 7.84$) was similar to other research findings with practicing school counselors (e.g., Wilkerson & Bellini, 2007; $M = 11.04$, $SD = 8.2$). Furthermore, the school level the counselors reported working at was consistent with previous studies; however, the amount of response from each level seemed to vary between published investigations. Baggerly and Osborn (2006) respondents (school counselors in Florida) included elementary school counselors (63%), middle school counselors (20%), and high school counselors (16%). In Moyer's study (2011), 111 (29.1%) of the practicing school counselors worked in elementary school settings, 85 (22.3%) in middle school, 128 (33.5%) in high school settings, and 58 (15.2%) did *not* indicate a work setting. The school counselors in Wilkerson and Bellini's study reported employment 43 (55.1%) at the high school level, 16 (20.5%) at the middle school level, and 7 (9.0%) at the elementary school level, while 12 (15.4%) others reported working in an alternatively configured environment. The counselor-to-student ratio (1:428) was slightly below the national average of 1:457 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011); however, higher than the in some investigations (e.g., Moyer, 2011; 1:348). Overall, the descriptive data for the practicing school counselors in the current study was congruent with previous research with similar samples of practicing school counselors.

Self-Reported Wellness

In order to assess practicing school counselors' perceptions of their wellness, which may influence their levels of burnout and/or altruism; seven five-point Likert scaled statements were incorporated on the demographic questionnaire (Limberg, 2013). The seven Likert scale

statements examined participants': (a) emotional wellness, (b) social wellness, (c) physical wellness, (d) spiritual wellness, (e) occupational wellness, (f) overall wellness, and (g) current level of stress on the job. Statements were reported on a Likert Scale ranging from a one to five: 1 = very satisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = neutral, 4 = satisfied and 5 = very satisfied.

Overall, participants ($N = 437$) were satisfied with every component of their wellness and their overall wellness: (a) emotional wellness ($M = 4.14$, $SD = .723$; range = 1.0 – 5.0), (b) social wellness ($M = 4.16$, $SD = .69$; range = 1.0 – 5.0), (c) physical wellness ($M = 3.58$, $SD = .93$; range = 1.0 – 5.0), (d) spiritual wellness revealed ($M = 4.0$, $SD = .77$; range = 1.0 – 5.0), (e) occupational wellness ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .89$; range = 1.0 – 5.0), and (f) overall wellness ($M = 4.0$, $SD = .67$; range 1.0 – 5.0). The highest level of wellness reported was their social wellness (59.7%), and the aspect of wellness that they are most dissatisfied with is their physical wellness, 16% reporting to be dissatisfied. Although the participants overall were satisfied with all aspects of their wellness (including their occupational wellness) nearly half (47%) reported to be stressed in their job ($M = 2.58$, $SD = .99$; range = 1.0 – 5.0); however, 53.3% reported to be satisfied and 23.3% reported to be very satisfied with their occupational wellness. Only 7.6% reported to be dissatisfied with their occupational wellness and 1.4% reported to be very dissatisfied.

There is limited published research examining practicing school counselors' wellness. However, previous research has assessed school counselors' job stress and job satisfaction. Ieva (2010) surveyed practicing school counselors regarding their level of stress on the job and found that they were moderately stressed on the job ($M = 3.52$; $SD = .897$), and more than half of the participants ($n = 160$; 58%) self-reported that their job was "very stressful". However, only 1.7% ($n = 5$) of the school counselors perceived their stress levels to be "limited stress" on the job. Baggerly and Osborn (2006) examined job satisfaction and found 44.7% of practicing school

counselors reported being “somewhat satisfied” with their career, and 39.8% were “very satisfied”; only 4% were “very dissatisfied”. Seventy-six percent reported being committed to their job. Baggerly and Osborn (2006) found that counselors reporting higher levels of stress were less satisfied ($r = -.30, p < .01$) and less committed to their job ($r = -.11, p < .05$). Baggerly and Osborn suggest that school counselor stress is related to the lack of school counselors being able to do social-oriented duties (e.g., counseling and consultation). Social-oriented duties relate to altruism because it is doing something for someone else. In the current study, there is a small but significant relationship between altruism and occupational wellness. Specifically, those who report higher levels of occupational wellness have higher levels of altruism (as measured by three factors on the *Heintzelman Inventory* [positive future expectations ($r_s = .238, p < .001$), self-efficacy ($r_s = .233, p < .001$), counselor identity formation ($r_s = .149, p < .05$)] and behave more altruistically ($r_s = .096, p < .05$). Therefore, it may be inferred that school counselor stress is related to school counselors *not* being able to do altruistic acts within the school environment.

Instrumentation & Measurement Models

There were three instruments used to measure the constructs investigated in this study. *Counselor altruism* was comprised of both altruistic motivation (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory*; Kuch & Robinson, 2008) and altruistic behavior (as measured by *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, SRA-scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981). The three dimensions of school counselor burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment) were measured by the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey* (MBI-ES; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). To assess the validity of each instrument and to develop the measurement model, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted on each instrument used in the study to ensure that the items were loading independently on the factors suggested by previous research

(Limberg, Bai, & Robinson, in process; Rushton et al., 1981; Maslach et al., 1996). The CFA of each instrument provided rationale for specification of the measurement model for these data.

Altruistic Motivation

The *Heintzelman Inventory* (Kuch & Robinson, 2008) was used to identify counselor altruistic motivation. The current version of the *Heintzelman Inventory* includes 24 items and five subscales: (1) *Positive Future Expectations* (five items), (2) *Self-Efficacy* (eight items), (3) *Personal Growth/Self-Interest* (five items), (4) *Early Caretaker Experience* (4 items), and (5) *Counselor Identity Formation* (2 items). A 5-point Likert-scale format that ranges from (a) “not at all an influence” to “a very strong influence”, (b) “not at all satisfying” to “very satisfying”, or (c) “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” is used to assess each item. Cronbach’s α assessing the internal consistency of the *Heintzelman Inventory* was .752, indicating an acceptable internal consistency of the scale measuring five factors of altruistic motivation of counselors (Pallant, 2010), but is lower than previous research which found the Cronbach α to be .81. Higher scores on each subscale of the *Heintzelman Inventory* indicate higher levels of altruistic motivation. A review of the results of the measures of central tendency show that the practicing school counselors in this study have high levels of altruistic motivation: (1) *Positive Future Expectations* (five items; $M = 23.7$, $SD = 2.20$; range = 8.0 – 25.0), (2) *Self-Efficacy* (eight items; $M = 31.35$, $SD = 6.25$; range = 0 – 40.0), (3) *Personal Growth/Self-Interest* (five items; $M = 220.35$, $SD = 20.35$; range = 0 – 25.0), (4) *Early Caretaker Experience* (4 items; $M = 4.60$ $SD = 2.23$; range = 0 – 20.0), and (5) *Counselor Identity Formation* (2 items; $M = 4.60$, $SD = .2.20$; range = 0 – 10.0). However, *Early Caretaker Experience* needs to be interpreted with caution because of the content of questions is *not* relevant to every participant due to their life situations (e.g. “I adopted a ‘caretaker’ role for other siblings in my family”). The CFA of the *Heintzelman*

Inventory was conducted based on the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and CFA conducted by Limberg et al. (2013) and supported the same five factor structure. The factor loadings were examined using .70 as a cutoff (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004); the model was respecified by deleting items (18, 15, 14, 11, 27, 22, 19, and 39) that did *not* meet the suggested cutoff, resulting in a 16 item measurement. Additionally, errors 14 and 16 were covaried. The five-factor model produced a chi-square of 171.641 ($df = 93$, χ^2 ratio = 1.846, $p < .001$), root mean square error of approximation of .044. All other CFA fit indices indicated a good model fit with GFI = .952, CFI = .972, and TLI = .964.

Altruistic Behavior

The *Self-Report Altruism Scale* (SRA-scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981) is a self-report instrument that has 20 items, focusing on altruistic behavior of participants by assessing the frequency in which they participate in an altruistic act. Participants are asked to rate the frequency of which they engage in specific altruistic behaviors using five categories: (1) never = 0, (2) once = 1, (3) more than once = 2, (4) often = 3, and (5) very often = 4. Cronbach's α assessing the internal consistency of the *SRA-scale* was .846, indicating a good internal consistency of the scale measuring altruistic behavior (Pallant, 2010). The internal consistency is higher than previous (Rushton, 1981). Rushton (2012) states that the *Self-Report Altruism Scale* is a total score instrument, and that higher scores indicate higher levels of altruistic behavior; however, there are *not* categories of different levels of altruistic behavior. The average *SRA-scale* score was 32.56 ($SD = 10.22$, range 9 – 74), which was inconsistent Rushton et al.'s (1981) findings ($M = 55.40$, $SD = 10.57$) and Flynn and Black's (2011) study of counselors whose range of the *SRA* was between 29 and 66 ($M = 48.88$, $SD = 11.61$). Considering that the *SRA-scale* is described as total score instrument, all of the items should load into one factor. However, a CFA

of the *SRA* was conducted constraining all items to load onto one factor; all factor loadings were below .70, indicating that there may be more than one factor within the *SRA* for these data. However, the reliability and validity of *SRA* was supported with different samples (Rushton et al., 1981); therefore, an EFA was *not* conducted for the purposes of this study; however, it may be beneficial to conduct an EFA with these data in the future. The factor loadings were examined using .45 as a cutoff. The recommended cutoff is .70 (Schomaker & Lomax, 2004); however, .70 is a suggested factor loading cutoff, *not* a requirement. Kline (2010) states that indicators fail to have substantial standardized loadings when they are $< .20$. None of the *SRA* items met the recommended cutoff of .70; therefore, the researcher determined a threshold based on the range of the factor loading .23 - .61. The following items were deleted: 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 12, 15, and 16. Therefore, the total score of the *SRA-scale* was calculated using the remaining 11 items, in addition, errors in items 10 and 11 were freed, and errors in items 1 and 3 based on the modification indices. The revised model produced a chi-square of 82.773 ($df = 42$, χ^2 ratio = 1.971, $p < .001$), root mean square error of approximation of .047. All other CFA fit indices indicated a good model fit with GFI = .967, CFI = .958, and TLI = .945.

Measurement Model of Counselor Altruism

Altruism is a multidimensional construct influenced by an individual's motivation and behavior (Krebs, 1970; Kreb & Van Hesteren, 1994); therefore, this study examined *Counselor Altruism* by measuring both altruistic motivation and altruistic behavior in practicing school counselors. *Counselor Altruism* was measure by altruistic motivation (*Heintzelman Inventory*) and altruistic behavior (*SRA-scale*). The hypothesized measurement model for *Counselor Altruism* was based on the CFAs conducted on the *Heintzelman Inventory* and the *SRA-scale*. The measurement model consisted of six indicators: the five factors of the *Heintzelman*

Inventory (HI) and the total score of the *SRA scale*. The indicator values were calculated using the results of the respecified models of each instrument: (a) HI Factor 1: *Positive Future Expectations*, is a total score of items 16, and 17 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .816$); (b) HI Factor 2: *Self-Efficacy*, is a total score of items 13, 20, 21, 22, and 25 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .810$); (c) HI Factor 3: *Personal Growth*, is a total score of items 5, 4, 2, 3, and 1 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .868$); (d) HI Factor 4: *Early Caretaker Experience*, is a total score of items 38, 37, and 40 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .796$); and (e) HI Factor 5: *Counselor Identity Formation*, is a total score of items 33 and 34 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .783$). The total of the items (1, 3, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 17, 18, 19, 20) that were included in the final *SRA* model were used as an indicator to measure altruistic behavior (Cronbach's $\alpha = .807$). The model produced a chi-square of 8.513 ($df = 6$, χ^2 ratio = 1.419, $p = .203$), root mean square error of approximation of .031. All other CFA fit indices indicated a good model fit with GFI = .994, CFI = .969, and TLI = .923.

Similar to the current study, the *SRA-scale* has been used to measure altruism, and modified. Flynn and Black (2011) utilized all 20 items of the *SRA-scale*. Byrne (2008) selected five items, based on Brown, Palamenta, and Moore's (2003) study which found these items differentiate between altruists and non-altruists, to use in her study focused on students' gender and program of study within the helping professions. Byrne modified the statement on the *SRA-scale* by adjusting the wording and changing the statements to "I would" instead of "I have" to allow participants to express their altruistic intention even if they were not in specific situations. The five items to obtain participants level of altruism Byrne used were that were most similar to the *SRA* items were: (1) I would look after a neighbors belongings, *SRA* item 17 (2) I would help someone I didn't know, *SRA* item 10 (3) I would help an acquaintance get something they needed, *SRA* item 20 (4) I would share credit for work when I could take all the credit, *SRA* item

13 and (5) I would bend the rules for someone I didn't know well, *SRA* item 11. Principal component analysis was performed to examine if all five items represent one factor of altruism; one item (i.e., I would bend the rules for someone I didn't know well) was removed because it did *not* load with the other items. All the items used in Byrne's study remained in the measurement model of the *SRA* for the current study.

Burnout Measurement Model

The *MBI-ES* (Maslach et al., 1986, 1996) was used to measure participants' level of burnout determined by three subscales: *emotional exhaustion* (EE), *depersonalization* (DP), and *personal accomplishment* (PA). The *MBI-ES* is a self-report instrument with 22 questions. However, due to researcher error, participants only completed 21 items; item 18 was *not* included in the survey (this was researcher error and not done intentionally). Therefore, the measures of central tendency should be interpreted with caution for the *personal accomplishment scale*. Participants are asked to rate how often they experience, the 21 statements, on a Likert scale: 0 = Never, 1 = A few times a year or less, 2 = Once a month or less, 3 = A few times a month, 4 = Once a week, 5 = A few times a week, and 6 = Every day. Cronbach's α assessing the internal consistency of the total *MBI-ES* was .812 (without item 18), indicating a good internal consistency of the scale measuring burnout (Pallant, 2010). Additionally, the Cronbach's α for each of the three *MBI-ES* subscales was calculated: *emotional exhaustion* (.915), *depersonalization* (.744), and *personal accomplishment* (.723); all indicating an acceptable internal consistency (Pallant). The internal consistencies were consistent with previous research with similar samples of practicing school counselors. The original research (Maslach et al., 1986, 1996) of the *MBI-ES* found the following internal consistencies of each dimension (a) emotional exhaustion, $\alpha = .90$; (b) depersonalization, $\alpha = .79$; and (c) personal accomplishment, $\alpha = .71$.

Butler and Constantine (2005) investigated burnout in sample of 533 school counselors using the *MBI-ES* and found Cronbach's alphas of .82 for emotional exhaustion, .82 for depersonalization, and .86 for personal accomplishment. Wilkerson and Bellini (2006) used the *MBI-ES* with 78 school counselors and the reliability analysis showed: (a) emotional exhaustion, $\alpha = .91$; (b) depersonalization, $\alpha = .74$; and (c) personal accomplishment, $\alpha = .78$. Additionally, Wilkerson (2009) examined burnout in a different sample of 198 school counselors the Cronbach's alpha coefficients resulted in: (a) emotional exhaustion, $\alpha = .91$; (b) depersonalization, $\alpha = .74$; and (c) personal accomplishment, $\alpha = .73$.

A review of the results of the measures of central tendency of the *MBI-ES* indicated that on average the practicing school counselors were *not* experiencing high levels of burnout on any of the three dimensions. The participants had average levels of *emotional exhaustion* ($M = 18.94$, $SD = 10.80$; range = 0 – 52), and average to high levels *personal accomplishment* ($M = 36.65$ $SD = 4.44$; range = 19 - 42), and they were experiencing low levels of *depersonalization* ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 4.12$; range = 0 – 26). Compared to previous research, the school counselors in Butler and Constantine (2006) study had average levels of emotional exhaustion ($M = 18.21$, $SD = 7.47$), average levels of depersonalization ($M = 10.28$, $SD = 3.78$), and high levels of personal accomplishment ($M = 26.04$, $SD = 4.66$). Wilkerson and Bellini (2006) found that school counselors have average levels of emotional exhaustion ($M = 23.13$, $SD = 10.79$), low levels of depersonalization ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 4.30$), and high levels of personal accomplishment ($M = 41.39$, $SD = 5.02$). Lambie (2007) identified that school counselors' level of emotional exhaustion was 17.38 ($SD = 9.22$; range = 0 – 40); depersonalization was 3.74 ($SD = 3.75$; range = 0 – 18) and personal accomplishment was 41.93 ($SD = 4.67$; range = 26 – 48). The *MBI-ES* results for the current study were consistent with previous research with practicing school

counselors. School counselors that participate in research, on average, were *not* experiencing high levels of burnout. The dimension of burnout that the counselors experienced the most was emotional exhaustion, and they tended to *not* experience depersonalization and had average to high levels of personal accomplishment.

The hypothesized measurement model for the three dimensions of burnout consisted of parcels as indicators for the latent variables (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment). The parcels were determined by grouping similar items that measure the same latent variable (Kline, 2011; Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). Parceling in SEM is controversial (Kline, Little et al.); however, the researcher chose to do so to preserve parsimony, but to preserve representation of the items on the MBI-ES. Additionally, the MBI-ES has been used in SEM with parcels (Byrne, 2010). The parcels, determined by the researcher, consisted of: (a) EE1, items 1, 2, 3; (b) EE2, items 6, 8, 13; (c) EE3, items 14, 16, 20; (d) DP1, items 10, 11; (e) DP2, items 5, 15, 22; (f) PA1, items 4, 7, 9; (g) PA2, item 12; and (h) PA3, items 17, 19, 21. Item 12 was cross-loaded onto emotional exhaustion due to the possibility that the content (i.e. “I feel energetic), suggesting it could be measuring both emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment. Byrne (1994) found the same item to cross-load in a study conducted with elementary and secondary teachers. The cross-loading resulted in a good model fit for the *MBI-ES* for these data as presented. The model produced a chi-square of 43.345 ($df = 16$, χ^2 ratio = 2.716, $p < .001$), root mean square error of approximation of .063. All other CFA fit indices indicated a good model fit with GFI = .975, CFI = .983, and TLI = .971.

Complete Measurement Model

The complete measurement model, which included all measurement models of each construct, supported a good fit for these data. The model produced a chi-square of 160.314 ($df =$

67, χ^2 ratio = 2.393, $p < .001$), root mean square error of approximation of .057. All other CFA fit indices indicated a good model fit with GFI = .946, CFI = .950, and TLI = .933 (see Figure 17).

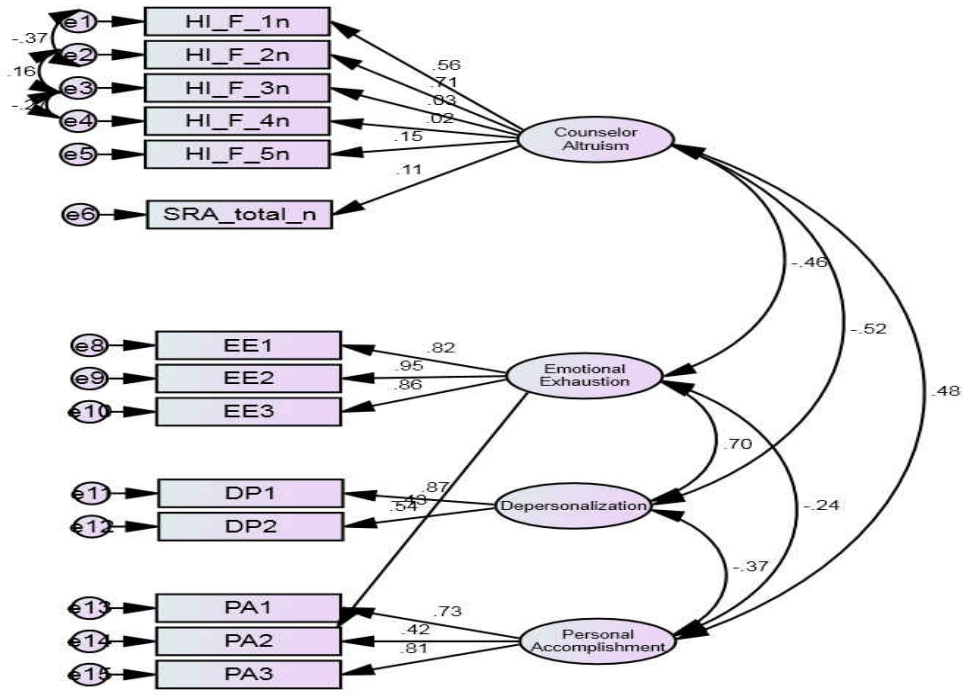


Figure 17: Complete Measurement Model

Primary Research Question Results

Primary Research Question

Do practicing school counselors' levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981] contribute to their levels of burnout (as measured by the three

factors [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996])?

Research Hypothesis

The research hypothesis tested in this investigation was: Practicing school counselors' levels of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981] will contribute to their levels of burnout (as measured by the three dimensions [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]). Specifically, this investigation tested the hypothesized directional relationship that practicing school counselors scoring at higher levels of altruism would have lower levels of burnout (see Figure 3 and 18).

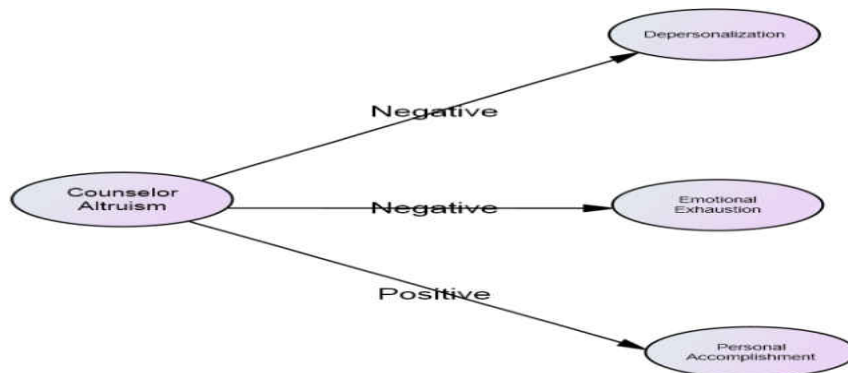


Figure 18: Hypothesized Path Model

To investigate the hypothesis a structural model was developed (based on the measurement model) and tested. According to the tested model (see Figure 19), counselor altruism accounts for 86.50% of the variance for depersonalization, 56.25% of the variance for emotional exhaustion, and 17.64% of the variance for personal accomplishment for these data, and is a good model fit. The model produced a chi-square of 171.112 ($df = 68$, χ^2 ratio = 2.560, $p < .001$), root mean square error of approximation of .06. All other CFA fit indices indicated a good model fit with GFI = .941, CFI = .944, and TLI = .925. The relationship between counselor altruism and emotional exhaustion (standardized coefficient = -.75) and depersonalization (standardized coefficient = -.93) was negative, suggesting that those who had higher levels of altruism exhibited lower levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Furthermore, the relationship between counselor altruism and personal accomplishment (standardized coefficient = .42) was positive (suggesting that school counselors with higher levels of altruism had higher levels of personal accomplishment). Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted.

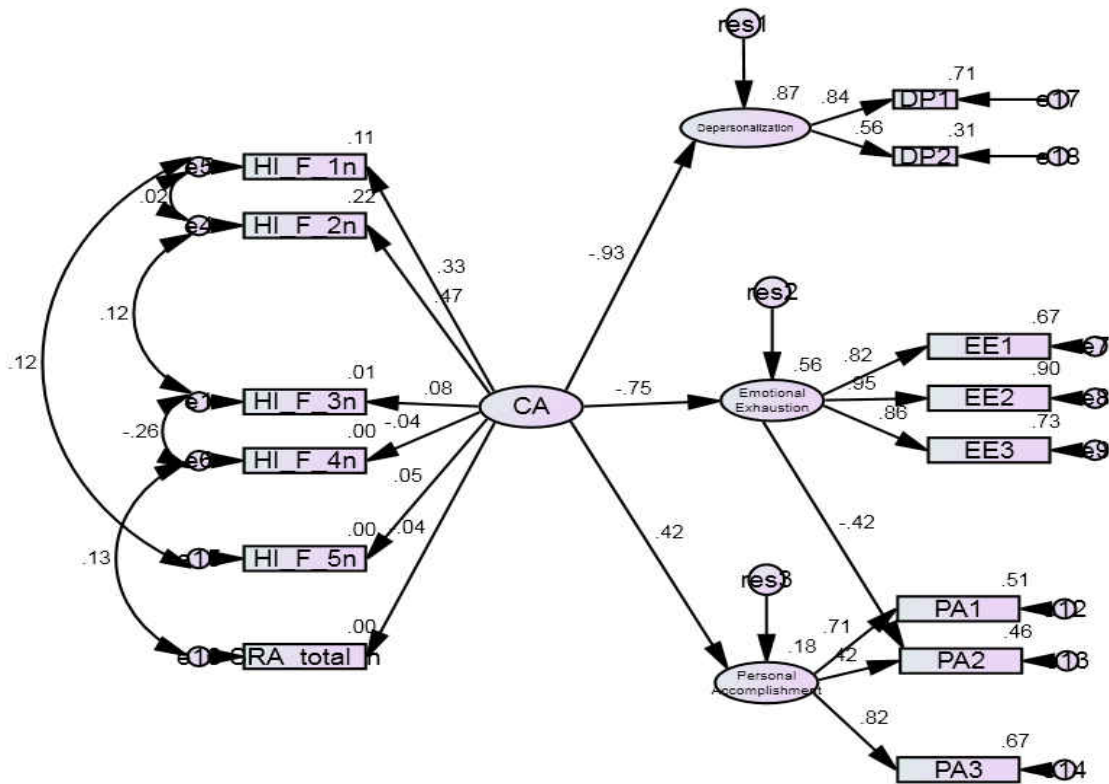


Figure 19: Respecified Structural Model

The results of this study were consistent with previous studies focused on personal attributes (e.g., altruism) and burnout in the helping professions. Piedmont (1993) found those with higher levels of agreeableness (i.e., helping behavior, service oriented, altruistic) had lower levels of emotional exhaustion ($r = -.35, p < .05$) and depersonalization ($r = -.31, p < .05$), and

higher levels of personal accomplishment ($r = .35, p < .05$). Therefore, those who had more altruistic characteristics had lower levels of burnout. When work environment was accounted for, those who have lower levels of agreeableness was predictive of having higher levels of emotional exhaustion (adjusted $R = .65; F(2, 23) = 10.13, p < .05$) and depersonalization (adjusted $R = .33; F(2, 23) = 3.08, p < .05$). Additionally, participants with higher levels of conscientiousness (i.e., considerate of others) was predictive of higher levels of personal accomplishment (adjusted $R = .28; F(1, 24) = 3.48, p < .05$). In addition, Deary, Watson, and Hogston (2003) investigation with helping professionals (nurses) who had lower levels of agreeableness (i.e., less altruistic qualities) had higher levels of depersonalization ($r = -.19, p < .05$), aligning with the current study's findings. Therefore, participants who had lower levels of altruism had higher levels of depersonalization. Additionally, Wilkerson and Bellini (2006) found that emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment were both influenced by intrapersonal variables (i.e., coping skills, $\beta = .25, p < .01; \beta = .35, p < .01$), and accounted for 25% and 35% of the variance. Therefore, personal attributes do influence the variance in burnout levels even when work environment is controlled for.

Studies focused specifically on the constructs of altruism and burnout supported similar results to the current study. Altun (2002) identified 26.9 % of nurses ($n = 160$) ranked altruism as their first professional priority. In addition, the nurses experienced higher levels of emotional exhaustion ($M = 17.15, SD = 6.48$), reported equality, altruism, and aesthetics among their highest priority; this relationship was significant ($F = 1.14, p < .001$). However, these participants are on the lowest range (17 - 26) of average emotional exhaustion; therefore, they are *not* experiencing high levels of emotional exhaustion. Those who value altruism have lower depersonalization ($M = 4.06, SD = 4.28; F = 10.64, p < .001$), and low levels of personal

accomplishment ($M = 24.62$, $SD = 5.29$; $F = 30.44$, $p < .001$). The levels of burnout were similar to the findings of the current study. Practicing school counselors who participated in the current study were experiencing average levels of *emotional exhaustion* ($M = 18.94$, $SD = 10.80$; range = 0 – 52), and average to high levels *personal accomplishment* ($M = 36.65$ $SD = 4.44$; range = 19-42), and are experiencing low levels of *depersonalization* ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 4.12$; range = 0 – 26). The lack of personal accomplishment may explained by the modesty bias. The modesty-bias is when the person who does the altruistic acts downplays the impact of his or her actions, or doesn't recognize them at all (McGuire, 2003; Swank et al., 2011).

Van Emmerik, Jawahar, and Stone (2005) surveyed 178 employees of a bank, the city council, and a university and found a significant relationship between altruism and emotional exhaustion ($r = -.23$, $p < .01$). Therefore, those who were more altruistic had lower levels of emotional exhaustion, or were experiencing less burnout. Van Emmerik and colleagues' results supported that those performing altruistic acts are more engaged in their work environment and are experiencing less burnout. Ngai and Cheung (2009) investigated burnout and altruism within social work students. They found that emotional exhaustion had a negative relationship with altruism ($r = -.362$, $p < .001$); furthermore, the relationship between and emotional exhaustion remained negative when career orientation was controlled for ($\beta = -.165$, $p < .05$). Although no previous research was identified that investigated the relationship between school counselors' levels of altruism and burnout directly, previous studies with similar samples examining altruism and burnout supported the hypothesis and results of the current study.

However, the results of the current should be interpreted with caution due to the low factor loading ($< .20$) of the indicators of counselor altruism, suggesting that the indicators are *not* providing sufficient explanation of the data, and that counselor altruism is more likely a

multidimensional construct (Kline, 2011). Additionally, the sample used for this study did *not* exhibit any levels of depersonalization ($M = 3.86$); the relationship between counselor altruism and depersonalization (standardized coefficient = $-.93$) *cannot* be interpreted without bias.

Therefore, a follow-up investigation was conducted.

Post-Hoc Analyses

To further the understanding of the hypothesized model and to account for bias, *Heintzelman Inventory* Factor 4: *Early Caretaker Experience* and *Heintzelman Inventory* Factor 5: *Counselor Identity Formation* were removed because of their low factor loadings (.04, .06); however, the researcher chose to retain *SRA-scale* indicator (total score) to ensure that that altruistic behavior would be represented in the model. Additionally, depersonalization was removed to avoid bias interpretation. Therefore, the respecified tested model (see Figure 20) indicates that counselor altruism (as measured by positive future expectation, self-efficacy, personal growth, and altruistic behavior) contributed to 23.04% of the variance in school counselors' emotional exhaustion (standardized coefficient = $-.48$) and 25.00% of the variance in their personal accomplishment (standardized coefficient = $.50$) scores. The hypothesis still supported this model and it is a good model fit. The model produced a chi-square of 62.390 ($df = 30$, χ^2 ratio = 2.080, $p < .001$), root mean square error of approximation of .05. All other CFA fit indices indicated a good model fit with GFI = .972, CFI = .978, and TLI = .967.

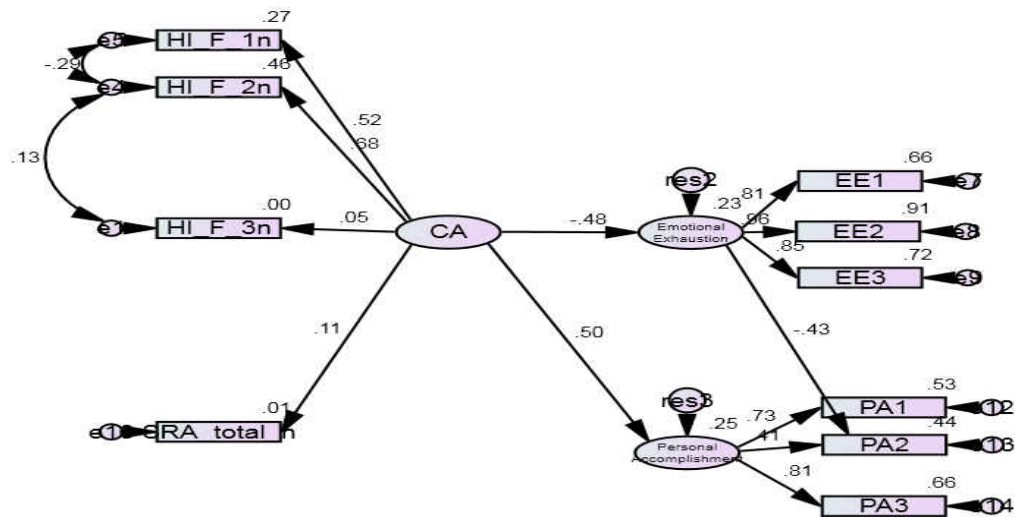


Figure 20: Respecified Structural Model Excluding HI Factor 4, HI Factor 5, and Depersonalization

The researcher chose to conduct one more modification to account for the low factor loadings altruistic behavior (.11) and personal growth (.05) onto counselor altruism. The respecified model is a good fit (see Figure 21). The model produced a chi-square of 43.928 ($df = 17$, χ^2 ratio = 2.584, $p < .001$), root mean square error of approximation of .06. All other CFA fit indices indicated a good model fit with GFI = .976, CFI = .981, and TLI = .969. The model

indicates that counselor altruism (as indicated by positive future expectation, self-efficacy) contributed to 31.36% of the variance in school counselors' emotional exhaustion (standardized coefficient = $-.56$) and 29.16% of the variance in their personal accomplishment (standardized coefficient = $.54$) scores. The relationship between counselor altruism and emotional exhaustion remained negative, suggesting that those who had higher levels of altruism exhibited lower levels of emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, the relationship between counselor altruism and personal accomplishment remained positive (suggesting that school counselors with higher levels of altruism had higher levels of personal accomplishment).

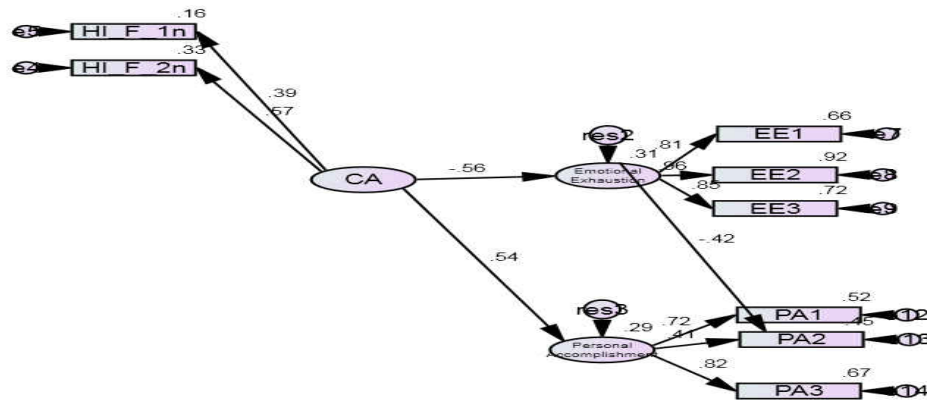


Figure 21: Respecified Structural Model Excluding HI Factor 3, HI Factor 4, HI Factor 5, Depersonalization, and SRA total score

Follow-Up Analyses

To address the low factor loadings of the indicators of the original hypothesized model and to account for the dimensions of altruism individually, a new model was specified as a post-hoc analysis. The low factor loadings may indicate that the indicators are multidimensional (Kline, 2011). Therefore, a new specified structural model, which included the items on the *Heintzelman Inventory*, was used to further investigate the dimensions of counselor altruism and their relationship with the three dimensions of burnout. The model was a good fit. The model produced a chi-square of 556.845 ($df = 279$, χ^2 ratio = 1.996, $p < .001$), root mean square error of approximation of .048. All other CFA fit indices indicated a good model fit with GFI = .907, CFI = .940, and TLI = .930. The amount of variance that each counselor altruism factor accounted for in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment scores is presented in Table 32.

Table 32 *Percentage of Variance that each Counselor Altruism Factor Accounted for in the Dimensions of Burnout*

	<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>	<i>Depersonalization</i>	<i>Personal Accomplishment</i>
<i>Positive Future Expectations</i>	4.00%	11.56%	7.84%
<i>Self-Efficacy</i>	20.25%	30.25%	10.24%
<i>Personal Growth</i>	.16%	.09%	.64%
<i>Early Caretaker</i>	.16%	.00%	.00%
<i>Counselor Identity</i>	.25%	.04%	1.69%
<i>Altruistic Behavior</i>	1.69%	3.61%	1.44%

The model, which included all of the dimensions of altruism, was respecified model again, it did *not* include depersonalization, and *Heintzleman Inventory* item 34 was removed because it is a Haywood case (Kline, 2011). The model resulted in a model with good fit with these data. The model produced a chi-square of 403.611 ($df = 216$, χ^2 ratio = 1.869, $p < .001$), root mean square error of approximation of .045. All other CFA fit indices indicated a good model fit with GFI = .921, CFI = .956, and TLI = .948. The amount of variance that each counselor altruism factor accounted for in emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment scores is presented in Table 33.

Table 33 *Percentage of Variance that each Counselor Altruism Factor Accounted for in Emotional Exhaustion and Personal Accomplishment*

	<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>	<i>Personal Accomplishment</i>
<i>Positive Future Expectations</i>	3.24%	7.30%
<i>Self-Efficacy</i>	14.44%	9.00%
<i>Personal Growth</i>	.04%	.49%
<i>Early Caretaker</i>	.16%	.00%
<i>Counselor Identity</i>	5.70%	8.41%
<i>Altruistic Behavior</i>	.81%	1.69%

A simultaneous multiple regression was conducted to further support these findings. Overall, the linear composite of the predictor variables (Heintzleman Inventory Factors and SRA total score) predicted approximately 14.06 % ($r = .375$) of the variance in the school counselors' levels of emotional exhaustion, $F(6, 430) = 11.706$, $p < .001$; 19.90 % ($r = .446$) of the variance in school counselors' level of depersonalization, $F(6, 430) = 17.812$, $p < .001$; and 16% ($r =$

.400) of the variance in school counselors' level of personal accomplishment. However, among the predictor variables, only *positive future expectations* and *self-efficacy* had statistically significant beta coefficients for all three dimensions of burnout, and *altruistic behavior* had statistically significant beta coefficients for depersonalization and personal accomplishment. *Self-efficacy* had the highest beta value (beta = -.305, $p < .001$) for emotional exhaustion, depersonalization (beta = -.347, $p < .001$) and personal accomplishment (beta = .254, $p < .001$).

The Spearman rho correlation was used to verify significant relationship between altruism (as measured by the five factors on the *Heintzelman Inventory* and the *SRA* total score) and emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (as measured by the *MBI-ES*). The significant relationship between *positive future expectations* and *self-efficacy* and all of the dimensions of burnout further support the findings (see Table 34).

Table 34 *Correlation Coefficients of for the Five Factors of the Heintzelman Inventory and the MBI-ES scores*

	<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>	<i>Depersonalization</i>	<i>Personal Accomplishment</i>
<i>Positive Future Expectations</i>	$r_s = -.183$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.210$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .216$ $p < .001$
<i>Self-Efficacy</i>	$r_s = -.326$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.371$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .311$ $p < .001$
<i>Personal Growth</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
<i>Early Caretaker</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
<i>Counselor Identity Formation</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	$r_s = .109$ $p < .05$
<i>Altruistic Behavior</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	$r_s = .132$ $p < .05$

Self-Efficacy

The self-efficacy dimension of altruism and its relationship with burnout is a relevant finding and consistent with previous research. Kuch (2008) used self-efficacy as a theoretical factor when developing the *Heintzelman Inventory*. Duffy and Raque-Bogdan (2010) found that an individual's service motivation (as measured by author-developed 6-item instrument) had a moderate correlation with career decision self-efficacy ($r = .29, p < .01$). Students with higher levels of service motivation (i.e., altruistic motivation) had higher levels of career self-efficacy; suggesting those motivated by serving others (i.e., altruistic) have higher levels of self-efficacy. Baggerly and Osborn (2006) found that high self-efficacy predicted high levels of job satisfaction ($\beta = .0863, p < .05$) as measured by the *Florida School Counselors Survey 2000* (Baggerly, 2000). Butler and Constantine (2005) identified that school counselors with higher levels of importance to identity collective self-esteem (a related construct to self-efficacy) had lower levels of depersonalization, $F(1, 528) = 4.68, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$, and higher levels of personal accomplishment, $F(1, 528) = 6.45, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$. In addition, counselors with higher levels of collective self-esteem were related to lower feelings of depersonalization and higher feelings of personal accomplishment. Therefore, the relationship between self-efficacy (as it relates to altruistic motivation) and burnout is noteworthy.

Summary of Results of the Hypothesis

Overall, the results support that school counselors with higher levels of altruism have lower levels of burnout. However, the model respecification process allows a thorough examination of what dimensions of altruism are specifically contributing to participants' levels of burnout. The findings of this study identified two dimensions of altruistic motivation: (1) *positive future expectations* and (2) *self-efficacy* contribute significantly to all dimensions of

burnout. It is important to highlight that altruistic behavior was removed from the respecified models and when analyzed individually it accounted for only .81% of the variance of emotional exhaustion and 1.69% of personal accomplishment. Therefore, this finding suggests that altruistic motivation contributes more than altruistic behavior to school counselor's level of burnout.

Exploratory Questions' Results

Exploratory Research Question 1

Is there a statistically significant relationship between practicing school counselors' level of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory*; [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981]) and their reported demographic variables (e.g., age, school level, years of school counseling experience, etc., and self-reported wellness)?

The relationship between practicing school counselors' level of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory*; [Kuch & Robinson, 2008] and the *Self-Report Altruism Scale*, [SRA-Scale; Rushton, Christjohn, & Fekken, 1981]) and their demographic variables was investigated using a Spearman Rank Order correlation (ρ). The analyses were done with all of the items in the instruments (i.e., all items in the *Heintzelman Inventory* and *SRA*); therefore, the items that were removed for the SEM were put back into the total scores to ensure that all of the items were being accounted for. The analyses supported the results are presented in Table 35.

Table 35 *Correlations between Altruism and Demographic Variables*

	<i>Professional Skill Development</i>	<i>Self-Efficacy</i>	<i>Personal Growth</i>	<i>Early Caretaker Experience</i>	<i>Counselor Identity Formation</i>	<i>Altruistic Behavior</i>
Membership in ASCA	$r_s = .152$ $p < .001$	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Sample Group	$r_s = -.096$ $p < .05$	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Gender	$r_s = .110$ $p < .05$	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Age	$r_s = -.119$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .170$ $p < .001$	NS	NS	NS	$r_s = .225$ $p < .001$
Caseload	$r_s = .128$ $p < .05$	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Years of Experience	$r_s = .164$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .253$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .116$ $p < .05$	NS	NS	NS
Ethnicity	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Relationship Status	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Degree Level	NS	$r_s = .156$, $p < .001$	$r_s = .102$ $p < .05$	NS	NS	NS
School Level	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Environment of School	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Classification of School	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS

No published studies were identified that examined school counselors' levels of altruism and how they relate to their demographic characteristics. Byrne (2008) found no difference between males students ($M = 4.16$) and female students ($M = 4.27$) levels of altruism as measured by a modified *SRA-scale* ($t [489] = 1.89, p = 0.059$), and no differences of altruism between program of study ($F [4, 505] = 1.223, p = 0.30$). Although there are significant relationships between the dimensions of altruism (as measured by the *Heintzelman Inventory* and the *SRA-scale*), the strength of the relationships are small signifying limited practical

significance. However, it is interesting to note that practicing school counselors who had more years of experience had higher levels of self-efficacy and those who were older behaved more altruistic. The identified relationship between practicing school counselors years of experience and age these two dimensions of altruism support that those practicing school counselors who are altruistic in when starting in the counseling profession maintain their altruistic attributes and they may increase.

Altruism and Self-Reported Wellness

To explore the relationship between school counselors' altruism and their self-reported wellness, a Spearman rho correlation was conducted. The results are presented in Table 36.

Table 36 *Correlations between Altruism and Self-Reported Wellness*

	<i>Professional Skill Development</i>	<i>Self-Efficacy</i>	<i>Personal Growth</i>	<i>Early Caretaker Experience</i>	<i>Counselor Identity Formation</i>	<i>Altruistic Behavior</i>
<i>Emotional Wellness</i>	$r_s = .150$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .251$ $p < .001$	NS	NS	NS	$r_s = .124$ $p < .05$
<i>Social Wellness</i>	$r_s = .139$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .274$ $p < .001$	NS	NS	NS	$r_s = .097$ $p < .05$
<i>Physical Wellness</i>	NS	$r_s = .123$ $p < .05$	NS	NS	NS	NS
<i>Spiritual Wellness</i>	$r_s = .121$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .237$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .105$ $p < .05$	NS	$r_s = .100$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .163$ $p < .001$
<i>Occupational Wellness</i>	$r_s = .238$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .233$ $p < .001$	NS	NS	$r_s = .149$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .096$ $p < .05$
<i>Overall Wellness</i>	$r_s = .158$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .249$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .096$ $p < .05$	NS	$r_s = .104$ $p < .05$	$r_s = .105$ $p < .05$
<i>Level of Stress at Work</i>	NS	$r_s = .212$ $p < .001$	NS	$r_s = -.105$ $p < .05$	NS	NS

Table 36 exemplifies a positive relationship between altruism and wellness is supported in the correlations between dimensions of altruism and wellness, which is similar to previous research. Flynn and Black (2011) analyzed the data from six data collection points (i.e., focus

group, individual interviews, SRA, pictures, content analysis, member check) and proposed an emergent theory of self-interest (the appropriate form of wellness within the counseling field), and altruism. Historically, altruism and wellness concepts have been viewed as dichotomous; altruism representing social-interest (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005) and wellness signifying self-interest (Flynn & Black, 2011); however, integration balance between altruism and wellness would be most effective (Rogers, 1957; Maslow, 1956). Flynn and Black disputed the dichotomous relationship between altruism and wellness. Altruistic acts should contain a balance of social interest and self-interest (Krebs & Van Hesteren, 1994). The findings supported that there is a false dichotomous relationship between altruism and wellness, and further investigation, specifically quantitative support, is needed. Table 36 supports that significant relationship between altruism and wellness. Although strength of the relationships was small; the relationships support further investigation between altruism and wellness. It is also important to recognize that self-efficacy had a relationship with all of the components of wellness.

Exploratory Research Question 2

Is there a statistically significant relationship between practicing school counselors' level of burnout (as measured by the three subscale scores [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]) and their reported demographic variables (e.g., age, school level, years of school counseling experience, etc., and self-reported wellness)?

The relationship between practicing school counselors' level of burnout as measured by the three subscale scores [emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment] of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey*, [MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996]) and their

demographic variables was investigated using a Spearman Rank Order correlation (ρ). The results are presented in Table 37.

Table 37 *Correlations between Burnout and Demographic Variables*

	<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>	<i>Depersonalization</i>	<i>Personal Accomplishment</i>
Membership in ASCA	<i>NS</i>	$r_s = -.122$ $p < .05$	<i>NS</i>
Sample Group	<i>NS</i>	$r_s = .122$ $p < .05$	<i>NS</i>
Gender	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>
Age	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>	$r_s = .198$ $p < .001$
Caseload	$r_s = .104$ $p < .05$	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>
Years of Experience	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>	$r_s = .123$ $p < .05$
Ethnicity	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>
Relationship Status	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>
Degree Level	<i>NS</i>	$r_s = -.095$ $p < .05$	<i>NS</i>
School Level	<i>NS</i>	$r_s = .103$ $p < .05$	<i>NS</i>
Environment of School	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>
Classification of School	$r_s = -.124$ $p < .05$	<i>NS</i>	<i>NS</i>

In order to analyze mean differences between ASCA members and non-ASCA members' levels of burnout, a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted because of the non-normality of the data. Results identified *no* mean differences in emotional exhaustion or personal accomplishment scores of ASCA members and non-ASCA members. However, there were mean differences identified between the ASCA members ($M = 3.54$, $Mdn = 3.00$, $n = 93$) and non-ASCA members ($M = 4.88$, $Mdn = 2.00$, $n = 344$) for *depersonalization* scores, $U = 13279$, $z = -2.537$, $p < .01$, $r =$

.12; indicating a small effect size (Cohen, 1988). A Kruskal-Wallis test (non-parametric alternative to one-way between-groups ANOVA) was conducted to explore the differences sample groups and levels of burnout. The Kruskal-Wallis Test identified mean differences in depersonalization across the sample groups $\chi^2(4, n = 437) = 10.55, p < .05$. The participants who were in the Texas group, had higher mean depersonalization scores ($n = 32, M = 6.38, Mdn = 5.00$) than the other sample groups: (a) random sample 1 ($n = 158, M = 3.31, Mdn = 2.00$); (b) random sample 2 ($n = 144, M = 3.80, Mdn = 2.00$); (c) South Dakota Sample ($n = 68, M = 4.06, Mdn = 3.00$); and (d) other purposive sample ($n = 35, M = 3.82, Mdn = 2.00$). However, there were *no* mean differences identified between sample groups for scores on emotional exhaustion or personal accomplishment for these data. Additionally, a Kruskal-Wallis Test identified mean differences in depersonalization across the school level participants worked in $\chi^2(3, n = 437) = 10.74, p < .05$. The participants who worked in high schools had higher levels of depersonalization ($n = 157, M = 4.49, Mdn = 3.00$) than the practicing school counselors at the other levels: (a) middle school ($n = 103, M = 3.89, Mdn = 2.0$); (b) other school configuration ($n = 32, M = 3.82, Mdn = 2.00$); and (c) elementary ($n = 145, M = 3.17, Mdn = 2.00$). Although there was a difference in scores of depersonalization, none of participants were experiencing burnout due to depersonalization. Therefore, the depersonalization dimension of burnout should be interpreted with caution because of the lack of variance.

Previous research has focused on demographics of school counselors and their levels of burnout. Piedmont (1993) found that there was no relationship between the work environment and the *MBI* dimensions, which is the same as the current study. However, Butler and Constantine (2005) found that participants working in urban school had higher emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than those in suburban schools rural schools, and other

environments (Butler & Constantine). Moyer (2011) found that student-to-counselor ratio did *not* account for a significant amount of variance in school counselor's level of burnout. There was a small relationship $r_s = .104$ $p < .05$ between student-to-counselor ratio in the current study; however, there is only 1.08% of shared variance. The findings in the current study, in regards to gender and years of employment, are similar to Butler and Constantine who did *not* find differences in regard to burnout and gender. However, there was a difference in work environment and years of employment.

Wilkerson and Bellini (2006) conducted a three-step hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to explore the individual and combined contributions of demographics, intrapersonal factors, and organizational factors on the three dimensions of burnout. Emotional exhaustion was predicted by all factors combined, $F(14, 63) = 3.68$, $p \leq .001$, $R^2 = .45$ and accounted for 45% of the variance; depersonalization was predicted by all factors combined, $F(14, 63) = 1.91$, $p \leq .05$, adjusted $R^2 = .14$, and accounted for 14% of the variance; personal accomplishment was predicted by all factors combined $F(14, 63) = 3.24$, $p \leq .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .30$, and accounted for 30% of the variance. Therefore, in previous studies there is a relationship between school counselors' levels of burnout and their demographics, but the practical significance seems to be minimal, unless it is combined with intrapersonal factors and organizational factors. Therefore, further inquiry is necessary to examine intrapersonal attributes of counselors and their relationship to burnout.

Burnout and Self-Reported Wellness

To explore the relationship between school counselors' burnout and their self-reported wellness, a Spearman rho correlation was conducted. The analyses supported a relationship

between all of the dimensions of burnout and all of the types of self-reported wellness. . Table 38 provides all of the correlations.

Table 38 *Correlations between Burnout and Self-Reported Wellness*

	<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>	<i>Depersonalization</i>	<i>Personal Accomplishment</i>
<i>Emotional Wellness</i>	$r_s = -.361$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.251$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .300$ $p < .001$
<i>Social Wellness</i>	$r_s = -.350$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.232$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .265$ $p < .001$
<i>Physical Wellness</i>	$r_s = -.290$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.202$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .182$ $p < .001$
<i>Spiritual Wellness</i>	$r_s = -.328$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.250$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .275$ $p < .001$
<i>Occupational Wellness</i>	$r_s = -.497$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.283$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .392$ $p < .001$
<i>Overall Wellness</i>	$r_s = -.459$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.270$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .294$ $p < .001$
<i>Level of Stress at Work</i>	$r_s = -.581$ $p < .001$	$r_s = -.261$ $p < .001$	$r_s = .143$ $p < .05$

To further explore Research Question Two, a simultaneous multiple regression was used to predict the influences of the different types of wellness and dimensions of burnout. Each analysis was observed for violations of assumptions (outliers, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity), normality was violated which may hinder the results of the regression analyses. In assessing the prediction of the independent variables (self-reported wellness) to the dependent variables (dimensions of burnout), all independent variable were entered simultaneously. Overall, the linear composite of the variables entered in the regression procedure explained approximately 49% ($R^2 = .487$) of the variation in emotional exhaustion scores, $F(7, 429) = 58.12, p < .001$; 18% ($R^2 = .178$) of the variation in depersonalization scores, $F(7, 429) = 3.234, p < .001$; and 20% ($R^2 = .197$) of the variation in personal accomplishment scores $F(7, 429) =$

15.047, $p < .001$. Further inspection of the beta weights indicated that occupational wellness, spiritual wellness, and current level of stress on the job had statistically significant beta coefficients for emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Additionally, emotional wellness, occupational wellness and spiritual wellness had significant beta coefficients for personal accomplishment. Current level of stress on the job had the highest beta value (beta = $-.408$, $p < .001$) for emotional exhaustion, occupational wellness had the highest beta value for depersonalization (beta = $-.238$, $p < .001$), and personal accomplishment (beta = $.332$, $p < .001$).

Previous research researchers suggest that wellness is a preventive factor for burnout (e.g., Myers & Sweeney, 2008; Flynn & Black, 2011; Young & Lambie, 2006); however, this direct relationship was *not* supported with these data. Therefore, the statistically significant relationships in the current study support further investigation of these two constructs.

Limitations of the Study

Research Design Limitations

Efforts were made to limit threats to construct, internal, and external validity within this descriptive correlational research study; however, not all threats could be mitigated. A threat to internal validity for this study was *characteristic correlations* (Frankel et al., 2012), which suggests that a correlation between variables is *not* explained by the specific constructs being studied, but because of other characteristics of a participant. Additionally, mortality, specific to correlational design, is the individuals who choose not participate in the study may have characteristics that may be different and significant from those who do participate, which means that it cannot be generalizable. Mortality is a significant threat to validity for the current study because of the specific constructs being studied. Specifically, practicing school counselors experiencing high levels of burnout may have elected *not* to participate and those who are more

altruistic may be more likely to participate; therefore, there is potential for there to be limited variance within the collected data. The research design did *not* establish a way to increase participants who were experiencing high levels of burnout or low levels of altruism.

Sampling Limitations

A primary limitation for the present investigation was the low overall response rate (14.50%), compared to previous studies (Baggerly & Osborn, 2006; Lambie, 2007; Moyer, 2011; Wilkerson & Bellini). An effort was made to follow Dillman's (2000) *Tailored Design* method and an incentive was provided to participants to increase the response rate. Additionally, considering the majority of the participants were held ASCA membership ($n = 344$) the results may *not* be generalized with practicing school counselors not holding membership in ASCA. Nevertheless, no strong significant differences were identified between the ASCA members and non-ASCA members on the measures of altruism and burnout. Furthermore, the researchers using purposive sampling introduced the propensity for researcher bias.

Another limitation of this study is that there is limited variance of altruism and burnout amongst the participants. The lack of variance may mean that school counselors who are more altruistic and committed to their job are more likely to complete the survey, resulting in the data failing to meet the assumption of normality. Normal data distribution in social science research is *not* common (e.g., Gao, Mokhtarian & Johnsoton, 2008; Kline, 2011). However when using SEM, specifically Maximum Likelihood Estimation non-normal data presents limitations when interpreting the data. Non-normal data impacts the chi-square statistic, either by increasing this number suggesting a bad model fit or decreasing it so the model appears to fit better than it actually does (Kline, 2011). Therefore, the results need to be interpreted with caution, specifically the chi square in the SEM results.

Instrumentation Limitations

The primary limitation regarding instrumentation is that the psychometrics of the *Heintzelman Inventory*. The *Heintzelman Inventory* is a fairly new instrument and its psychometric properties are still being investigated; additionally it was not normed on practicing counselors. Due to the debatable and continuous definition of altruism, it may be difficult to measure. Threats to instrumentation were minimized by increasing construct validity and attempting to use instruments that were used in previous studies with similar populations. Additionally, measurement error of the instruments (e.g., difference between measured value and true value; Graziano & Raulin, 2004) was accounted for in the data. Additionally, participants' answers on one instrument may have influenced how they answer on the other instruments in the study. Moreover, data collection instruments used in this study will be self-report; therefore, there might be some bias with participant responses that may influence study results. Nevertheless, despite these identified limitations, the present investigation contributes to the current counseling literature.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research should consider the limitations that were presented in the current study. Efforts should be made to increase response rate to increase generalizability of the results (strengthening external validity). It may be beneficial to conduct data collection in person using a paper-pencil to increase response rate (Ieva, 2010), or conducting a mail-out data collection using Dillman's (2000) *Tailored Design Method*. Additionally, a strategy should be developed to recruit participants who are experiencing burnout and who are *not* altruistic to provide more variance and increase normality of the data. It may be beneficial to analyze the data using another SEM program; such as EQS, which allows interpretation of non-normal data and

produces a corrected chi-square (i.e., Satorra-Bentler). A comparison of results should be made to clarify the impact of non-normal data. Byrne (2011) conducted a SEM analyses, focused on burnout, using EQS and Amos did *not* significant differences between non-normal data and normal data.

Future research should include revised versions of the *Heintzelman Inventory* and the *SRA-scale* to ensure sound psychometrics of measurements. It may be valuable to revise the structural model to account for current dimensions of altruism (i.e., self-efficacy) and past dimensions (i.e., early caretaker experience). Additionally, an EFA should be conducted on the *SRA-scale* to further investigate the validity. Researchers may consider conducting a qualitative inquiry to gain further understanding of school counselor burnout, altruism, and wellness through a different paradigm. Additionally, it may be beneficial to explore school counselor's motivation for pursuing the counseling profession, and their understanding of altruism. Future research may want to investigate what school counselors are currently doing in their schools (i.e., work tasks) and how they relate to their levels of burnout or what they would prefer to do and compare it to the ASCA model. Future research may want to further examine the relationship between altruism, wellness, and burnout in the counseling field and specifically in school counseling.

Implications

The contribution of the findings of the current study to the counseling literature' provide: (a) increased awareness of altruism within the field of counseling, (b) further understanding of the relationship between altruism and burnout, and (c) greater knowledge about school counselor qualities (e.g., self-reported level of wellness) and their relationship to counselors' levels of altruism and burnout. The relationship between the constructs of altruism and burnout are clarified, addressing an identified gap in the counseling literature. Furthermore, assessing school

counselors' levels of altruism supports the psychometric properties of the two altruism measures used in this study. The implications for professional school counseling and counselor education are discussed further.

Professional School Counseling Implications

The impact that burnout has on the school counseling profession is negative. School counselor burnout has negative consequences on their delivery, impacting students' learning, academic achievement, and social development, as well as the overall school environment. Therefore, identifying school counselor attributes that have a causal relationship with burnout may be a preventative measure to the negative consequences. Previous research has examined the relationship between external variables; such as, student-to-counselor ratio, school environment, and school level (Baggerly & Osborn, 2006; Moyer, 2011; Wilkerson and Bellini; 2006). Too often these variables are *not* determined by individual school counselors. Therefore, it may be more important to identify personal attributes of school counselors that impact burnout. Previous research on interpersonal attributes of school counselors and burnout (Butler & Constantine, 2005; Lambie, 2007; Wilkerson, 2009; Wilkerson & Bellini, 2006) support the positive influence of school interpersonal characteristics on burnout. The current research further supports the influence, and identifies an attribute (altruism) that can be developed, fostered, and assessed for appropriateness for the school counseling profession.

Altruism is one of the primary reasons counselors pursue the profession (Swank et al., 2011). Altruism can be developed and fostered (Bandura, 1977; Konenci & Ebbensen, 1975; Bandura, 1977); therefore, school counselors may need to be reminded why they initially pursued the profession. Those who are less altruistic may experience higher levels of burnout because they may not be in the profession for altruistic reasons. The participants in the current

study are not experiencing high levels of burnout and are overall altruistic. Although this relationship needs to be interpreted with caution, it is an important implication for the field of school counseling to recognize this relationship. Furthermore, the exploratory findings provide a rationale for further investigation of school counselor wellness.

Counselor Education Implications

Considering that altruism is a primary reason counselors pursue the profession and that it has an inverse relationship with burnout, it is beneficial to counselor educators to foster altruism within counseling programs. The findings of the current study further the development of the *Heintzelman Inventory*, which is an instrument, created to measure altruistic motivation of counselors. This instrument can be used as a piece of the gatekeeping process and the application process. Additionally, the finding that self-efficacy and positive future expectations contribute to school counselor burnout is important for counselor educators to identify ways to enhance counselor education student's skill development and self-efficacy.

Researcher Professional Implications

The current study has provided the primary researcher a strong foundation for a future research line. Additionally, the statistical analysis used (SEM) has provided the researcher an experiential learning opportunity to apply previous research knowledge and conduct advanced statistics. Furthermore, the researcher has developed and completed a research study from start to finish, and has had the opportunity to enhance research self-efficacy, research competency, and research knowledge.

Chapter Summary

Chapter Five reviewed and compared study results from the current investigation with existing research in the field. The results of the study support the hypothesized theoretical model; however, they need to be interpreted with caution due to the limitations of the study it appears (e.g., research design, sampling, instrumentation). Additionally, the exploratory results provide a foundation for future research focused on school counselor wellness. This study contributes to the existing literature on school counseling and counselor education.

APPENDIX A: UNIVERSITY OF CENTRAL FLORIDA IRB APPROVAL



University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: **UCF Institutional Review Board #1**
FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To: **Dorothy H. Limberg**

Date: **September 28, 2012**

Dear Researcher:

On 9/28/2012, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review: Exempt Determination
Project Title: The Contribution of Practicing School Counselors' Level of Altruism to their Job-Related Feelings
Investigator: Dorothy H. Limberg
IRB Number: SBE-12-08682
Funding Agency:
Grant Title:
Research ID: N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Patria Davis on 09/28/2012 04:12:55 PM EDT

IRB Coordinator

APPENDIX B: EXPLANATION OF RESEARCH



EXPLANATION OF RESEARCH

Title of Study: **The Contribution of Practicing School Counselors' Level of Altruism to Their Job Related Feelings**

Principal Investigator: Dodie Limberg, MA, Doctoral Candidate

Faculty Supervisors: Dr. E.H. Mike Robinson & Dr. Glenn W. Lambie

Dear School Counselor,

My name is Dodie Limberg and I am a Doctoral Candidate in the Counselor Education Program at the University of Central Florida (UCF). I am working on my dissertation, a research study investigating school counselors' altruism and feelings related to their career. You are being invited to participate in this study. Approval to conduct this study was obtained from the UCF Institutional Review Board (IRB).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose this study is to investigate school counselors' altruism and feelings related to their career.

Procedures

You will be given a URL that will connect you to a secure link that will include the consent to participate in this research study and an electronic survey that will include four data collection instruments: (1) general demographics survey, (2) Heintzelman Inventory, (3) Self-Report Altruism Scale, and (4) MBI-Educator Survey. Your identity and responses will be anonymous (no identifiers or identification numbers). It will take approximately 30 minutes to complete the questionnaires. This research project was designed solely for research purposes and no one except the research team will have access to any of your responses. Again, your identity and responses will be anonymous.

Risks

There are no anticipated risks for participating in this study. There are several items on the instruments that may be considered sensitive. Therefore, no names or identifying information

will be gathered and if any questions make you feel uncomfortable you are free to skip it or discontinue participation at any time.

Benefits

There may not be direct benefits to you for participating in this study; however, it is hoped that your participation will lead to knowledge that may help other counseling and educational professionals.

Cost/Compensation

For each data collection packet completed, a \$1.00 donation will be made to cancer research. However, you will not receive any money or other compensation for participating in the study.

Confidentiality

Your participation in this study is anonymous. Your name or other identifying information will not be collected. All information will be stored in locked cabinets in the primary investigator's office. The data collected will be used for statistical analyses and no individuals will be identifiable from the pooled data.

The information obtained from this research may be used in future research and published. However, your right to privacy will be retained. All data will be presented in group format (aggregated) and no individuals will be identifiable from the data.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this research project is entirely voluntary. You do not have to participate. You do not have to answer any questions(s) that you do not wish to answer. Please be advised that you may choose not to participate in this research study, and may withdraw from the study at any time without consequence.

Study Contact Information

If you have any questions or comments about this research, please contact me (Dodie Limberg, dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu) or my faculty advisors Dr. E.H. Mike Robinson (edward.robinson@ucf.edu) or Dr. Glenn W. Lambie (glenn.lambie@ucf.edu).

IRB contact about your rights in the study or to report a complaint

Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (UCF IRB). This research has been reviewed and approved by the IRB. For information about the rights of people who take part in research, please contact: Institutional Review Board, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 or by telephone at (407) 823-2901.

Sincerely,

Dodie Limberg, MA
Doctoral Candidate, Counselor Education
University of Central Florida

I understand my rights as a research participant, and I understand what the study is about and how and why it is being done. By completing the data collection instruments, I consent to participate in this research.

APPENDIX C: GENERAL DEMOGRAPHIC FORM

General Demographics Survey

The Contribution of Practicing School Counselors' Level of Altruism to Their Job-Related Feelings

Directions: Please complete the following general demographics survey (all responses are anonymous).

Gender: ___ Male ___ Female ___ Other

Age: ___

Ethnicity: ___ African-American ___ Asian-American ___ Caucasian/White (Non-Hispanic)
 ___ Hispanic ___ Native-American ___ Pacific/Islander ___ Other

Current Marital Status: ___ Single ___
Divorced ___ Married/Partnered ___ Cohabitate ___ Widowed ___ Other

EDUCATION:

Highest Degree Completed: ___ Bachelor ___ Masters ___ Specialist ___ Doctoral

What university/college did you complete your school counseling certification requirements at?

College/University: _____ Year: _____

EXPERIENCE:

Were you a Certified Educator (e.g. teacher, administrator) prior to working as a school counselor?
___ Yes ___ No

If yes, how many years did you work as a certified educator prior to working as a Licensed/Certified School Counselor? (Years/Position title(s)) _____

How many years have you been working as a Licensed/Certified School Counselor? _____

What is your current title/position (e.g., school counselor)? _____

What is your current level (e.g., elementary, middle school, high school) _____

What is your current student caseload? _____

How would you best describe the area your school is located (e.g., urban, rural)? _____

Are you currently a member of any national counseling association(s) (e.g., ACA, ASCA)? Yes or No

If so which one(s)? _____

Have you attended a state or national conference in the past three years? Yes or No

In your current position, what percent of your time do you spend on direct services? ___ indirect services ___?

How would you prefer to spend your time as a school counselor (e.g., providing counseling services, scheduling, classroom guidance, test organization)? _____

Please describe why did you became a school counselor? _____

How do you define altruism? _____

Wellness Influences: For the purpose of this study, wellness is defined as: “a way of life oriented toward optimal health and well-being, in which body, mind, and spirit are integrated by the individual to live life more fully within the human and natural community” (Myers, Sweeney, & Witmer’s, 2000, p. 252).

How would you rate your emotional wellness?

1	2	3	4	5
Not Well				Very Well

How would you rate your social wellness?

1	2	3	4	5
Not Well				Very Well

How would you rate your physical wellness?

1	2	3	4	5
Not Well				Very Well

How would you rate your spiritual wellness?

1	2	3	4	5
Not Well				Very Well

How would you rate your occupational wellness?

1	2	3	4	5
Not Well				Very Well

How would you rate your overall wellness?

1	2	3	4	5
Not Well				Very Well

APPENDIX D: RECRUITMENT EMAIL FOR RANDOM SAMPLE

From: dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu [dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu]

Sent: Date

To: recipient

Subject: Initial Request for Participation in a Research Survey

Dear School Counselor:

You are respected member of the American School Counseling Association (ASCA), and your input regarding your experience as a school counselor is highly valued. You have been selected out of a group of respected ASCA members randomly. I am conducting a study as an effort to understand school counselors' level of altruism and their feelings related to their job.

This study is important because it will provide further understanding of school counselors' experiences within their schools, and what improvements need to be made to sustain or increase job engagement.

This survey will take less approximately 20 minutes or less, and your participation is voluntary. However, your input will help current school counselors, counselor educators and students. Please click on the link below to go to the survey website (or copy and paste the survey link into your internet browser).

Individual Survey Link

Please be assured of the confidentiality of your answers; you will not be identified in any of the reports developed from this research. For each survey completed a donation of \$1.00 will be made to cancer research.

If you have any concerns or comments about this study, please feel free to contact me at 407 823 3354 or dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu anytime. Thank you so much for your participation in this study. Your feedback is very much appreciated.

Many thanks,

Dodie Limberg
School Counselor
Doctoral Candidate
University of Central Florida

APPENDIX E: RECRUITMENT EMAIL FOR PURPOSIVE SAMPLE

From: dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu [dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu]

Sent: Date

To: recipient

Subject: Initial Request for Participation in a Research Survey

Dear School Counselor:

I am conducting a study as an effort to understand school counselors' level of altruism and their feelings related to their job.

This study is important because it will provide further understanding of school counselors' experiences within their schools, and what improvements need to be made to sustain or increase job engagement.

This survey will take less approximately 20 minutes or less, and your participation is voluntary. However, your input will help current school counselors, counselor educators and students. Please click on the link below to go to the survey website (or copy and paste the survey link into your internet browser).

Survey Link

Please be assured of the confidentiality of your answers; you will not be identified in any of the reports developed from this research. The access code is used to remove you from the list once you have completed the survey. For each survey completed a donation of \$1.00 will be made to cancer research.

If you have any concerns or comments about this study, please feel free to contact me at 407 823 3354 or dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu anytime. Thank you so much for your participation in this study. Your feedback is very much appreciated.

Many thanks,

Dodie Limberg
School Counselor
Doctoral Candidate
University of Central Florida

APPENDIX F: REMINDER EMAIL

From: Dodie Limberg [dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu]
Sent: date
To: recipient

Subject: Altruism and Job-Related Feelings Survey

Date

Last week, a survey was sent to you seeking your experiences as a school counselor. I know that you are busy, but your response will determine the success of my study and will be valuable input in order to understand practicing school counselors' feelings related to their job.

This survey should only take you 20 minutes to complete. If you have already completed the survey, I appreciate your participation. If you have not yet responded to the survey, I encourage you to take some time to complete the survey. For every survey completed, a \$1.00 donation will be made to cancer research.

Please click the link below to go to the survey website (or copy and paste the survey link into your internet browser). Please be assured of the confidentiality of your answers; you will not be identified in any of the reports developed from this research.

Individual Survey Link

Your response is important. Getting direct feedback from practicing school counselors is crucial in sustaining or increasing their job engagement. Thank you for your help by completing the survey.

Thank you so much for your participation in this study. Your feedback is very much appreciated.

Sincerely,

Dodie Limberg
School Counselor
Doctoral Candidate
University of Central Florida

APPENDIX G: FINAL REMINDER

From: Dodie Limberg [dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu]
Sent: date
To: recipient

Subject: Final Request for Participation in Research Survey

Date

Fall is a busy time for school counselors, and I understand how valuable your spare time is during the workday. I am hoping you maybe be able to give about 20 minutes of your time to help me collect important information for my research study being conducted at the University of Central Florida. This study will provide further understanding of school counselors' altruism and feelings related to their job.

If you have already completed the survey, I really appreciate your participation. If you have not yet responded, I would like to urge you to complete the survey. I plan to end this study next week, so I wanted to email everyone who has not responded to make sure you had a chance to participate.

Please click the link below to go to the survey website (or copy and paste the survey link into your internet browser). Please be assured of the confidentiality of your answers; you will not be identified in any of the reports developed from this research

Individual Survey Link

Again, I appreciate your time and willingness to consider my last request to fill out the survey. Your responses are important!

Sincerely,

Dodie Limberg
School Counselor
Doctoral Candidate
University of Central Florida

APPENDIX H: THANK YOU EMAIL

From: Dodie Limberg [dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu]

Sent: date

To: recipient

Subject: Thank You for Your Time

Date

Thank you so much for your time and contribution to my study. Your feedback is very much appreciated. A donation of \$1.00 will be made to cancer research, because you took the time to complete my survey.

If you have any questions or comments about this research, please contact me (Dodie Limberg, dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu) or my faculty advisors Dr. E.H. Mike Robinson (edward.robinson@ucf.edu) or Dr. Glenn W. Lambie (glenn.lambie@ucf.edu).

Thank you,

Dodie Limberg
School Counselor
Doctoral Candidate
University of Central Florida

APPENDIX I: HEINTZELMAN INVENTORY

Heintzelman Inventory

Directions: Please rate your response to the following question or statement according to the rubric provided.

A. How significant were the following factors in your decision to become a counselor?

- 1: Not at all an influence**
- 2: A weak influence**
- 3: A moderately strong influence**
- 4: A strong influence**
- 5: A Very strong influence**
- N/A: Not applicable/irrelevant**

1.	Having an opportunity to work on my own healing.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
2.	Gaining a greater understanding of my family.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
3.	To become a happier individual.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
4.	The opportunity to transform into a new person.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
5.	The opportunity to get to know myself better.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A

B. I anticipate that some of the most satisfying things about the counseling career will include:

- 1: Not at all satisfying**
- 2: A little satisfying**
- 3: Somewhat satisfying**
- 4: Satisfying**
- 5: Very satisfying**
- N/A: Not applicable/Irrelevant**

6.	Helping myself with certain issues.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
7.	Helping both myself and others.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
8.	Learning more about life through the counseling process.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
9.	The chance to better understand myself.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
10.	The chance to learn about things important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A

If there are any other items which are not listed here, please describe them below with your own assigned rating (1-5). You may be as brief or detailed as you would like.

Directions: Please rate your response to the following statements according to the rubric provided.

- 1: Strongly Disagree**
- 2: Disagree**
- 3: Neither Agree nor Disagree**
- 4: Agree**
- 5: Strongly Agree**
- N/A: Not applicable/Irrelevant**

C. In considering my role as a counselor:

11.	I am concerned that I may do harm to my clients.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
12.	I am concerned that I may be embarrassed in front of my peers.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
13.	I am concerned that I won't have the necessary skills to do what I want to do.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
14.	I look forward to hearing about my clients' lives.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
15.	I look forward to helping my clients meet their goals.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
16.	I look forward to continuing to build skills as a counselor.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
17.	I look forward to continuing to putting techniques that I have learned into practice.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
18.	I look forward to seeing my clients improve their coping skills.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
19.	I am concerned about my level of anxiety in working with clients.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
20.	I am concerned that I won't know what to say.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
21.	I am concerned that I won't be able to help my clients.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
22.	I am concerned that my own issues may hinder my practice as a counselor.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
23.	I am concerned that some clients' issues may make me uncomfortable.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
24.	I am concerned that certain things from my past may prevent me from being an effective counselor.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A

If there are any other items which are not listed here, please describe them below with your own assigned rating (1-5). You may be as brief or detailed as you would like.

Directions: Please rate your response to the following statements according to the rubric provided.

- 1: Strongly Disagree**
- 2: Disagree**
- 3: Neither Agree nor Disagree**
- 4: Agree**
- 5: Strongly Agree**
- N/A: Not applicable/Irrelevant**

C. In considering my role as a counselor (cont’):

25.	I am concerned that I won't know how to ensure my clients' comfort.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
26.	I am concerned that I won't be able to stop thinking about my clients' issues when I'm not at work.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
27.	I have experienced self-doubt about my abilities as a counselor.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
28.	I am concerned that I will have difficulty asking for feedback from peers.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
29.	I am concerned that I will have difficulty asking for feedback from a supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
30.	I am concerned that I will have difficulty asking for support from peers.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
31.	I am concerned that I will have difficulty asking for support from a supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A

If there are any other items which are not listed here, please describe them below with your own assigned rating (1-5). You may be as brief or detailed as you would like.

Directions: Please rate your response to the following statement according to the rubric provided.

- 1: Strongly Disagree**
- 2: Somewhat Disagree**
- 3: Neither Agree nor Disagree**
- 4: Agree**
- 5: Strongly Agree**
- N/A: Not applicable/irrelevant**

D. Considering my choice to enter this field:

32.	Some experiences in my past may hinder my ability to offer guidance.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
33.	I have always known that I would pursue counseling as a career.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
34.	By my high school graduation I knew that I wanted to become a counselor.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
35.	By my undergraduate graduation, I knew that I wanted to become a counselor.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
36.	I didn't consider becoming a counselor until working after undergraduate graduation.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A

E. Considering my upbringing:

37.	I adopted a 'caretaker' role for authority figures in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
38.	I adopted a 'caretaker' role for other siblings in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
39.	As a child, I felt that certain adults turned to me for emotional support.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
40.	As a child, I felt that siblings turned to me for emotional support.	1	2	3	4	5	N/A

If there are any other items which are not listed here, please describe them below with your own assigned rating (1-5). You may be as brief or detailed as you would like.

APPENDIX J: EXAMPLE OF SELF-REPORT ALTRUISM SCALE

Example Questions of the Self-Report Altruism Scale
(Ruston, Chrisjohn, & Fekken, 1981)

Directions: Check the category on the right that states the frequency with which you have carried out the following acts **within the last year**.

	Never	Once	More than Once	Often	Very Often
1. I have helped push a stranger's car.					
2. I have given directions to a stranger.					
3. I have made change for a stranger.					
4. I have given money to a charity.					
5. I have given money to a stranger who needed it (or asked me for it).					
6. I have donated goods or clothes to a charity.					
7. I have done volunteer work for a charity.					
8. I have donated blood.					
9. I have helped carry a strangers' belongings (e.g., books, parcels, etc.)					
10. I have delayed an elevator and held the door open for a stranger.					

APPENDIX K: SELF-REPORT ALTRUISM EMAIL APPROVAL

Re: SRA-scale

12/02/11

J P Rushton

To Dodie Limberg

From: **J P Rushton** (rushton@uwo.ca)

Sent: Fri 12/02/11 11:29 PM

To: Dodie Limberg (dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu)

Dear Dodie,

You have my permission to use the altruism scale. Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Phil Rushton

On 12/02/11, **Dodie Limberg** <dlimberg@knights.ucf.edu> wrote:

Hello Dr. Rushton,

My name is Dodie Limberg and I am doctoral student at the University of Central Florida. I am currently working with a research team to develop an instrument to measure altruistic caring and motivational factors of counseling students. I recently read your article *The Altruistic Personality and the Self-Report Altruism Scale*. I am very interested in the development of the SRA-scale and would be very interested in using it as part of my research project.

I wanted to get your permission to use it before I gave it to my participants.

Thank you for your consideration,

Dodie

Dodie Limberg, MA
Heintzelman Eminent Scholar Chair Graduate Assistant
Counselor Education Doctoral Student
University of Central Florida

--

Professor J. Philippe Rushton, Ph.D., D.Sc.
Department of Psychology,
University of Western Ontario,
London, Ontario, N6A 5C2, Canada
http://www.ssc.uwo.ca/psychology/faculty/rushton_bio.htm
Tel: 519-661-3685

APPENDIX L: EXAMPLE OF MBI-ES

MBI-Educators Survey

Christina Maslach, Susan E. Jackson & Richard L. Schwab

The purpose of this survey is to discover how educators view their job and the people with whom they work closely.

How often:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day

Instructions: On the following pages are 22 statements of job-related feelings. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about *your* job. If you have *never* had this feeling, write the number “0” (zero) in the space before the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate *how often* you feel it by writing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way. An example is shown below.

Example:

How Often	Statement:
<u>0-6</u>	

1. _

I feel depressed at work.

If you never feel depressed at work, you would write the number “0” (zero) under the heading “How Often.” If you rarely feel depressed at work (a few times a year or less), you would write the number “1.” If your feelings of depression are fairly frequent (a few times a week but not daily), you would write the number “5.”

APPENDIX M: PERMISSION TO USE THE MBI-ES

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Maslach Burnout Inventory

Instruments and Scoring Guides

Forms: General, Human Services, & Educators

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