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Job Satisfaction And Values Of Counselors In Private Practice And Agency Settings

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JOB SATISFACTION AND VALUES OF COUNSELORS IN PRIVATE PRACTICE AND

AGENCY SETTINGS

by

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ABSTRACT

Counselors can work at a variety of locations (Vacc & Loesch, 2000). Yet very little is known about each setting (King, 2007) and what type of counselors would have an optimum fit. Burnout is a pervasive issue in counseling (Lawson, 2007) and providing good-fit information could lessen turnover and burnout from the counseling field. The primary purpose of this study included investigating the differences between job satisfaction and value priorities of counselors in private practice and agency settings. The overarching theoretical framework included Frank Parsons' (1909) 'goodness of fit' theory, which is a person-organizational fit theory for job satisfaction. Schwartz Value Theory (Schwartz, 1992, 1994) provided the trait of the person under investigation: value priorities. The use of global and facet measures of job satisfaction provided the 'good-fit' measure (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

The final analysis included one hundred and thirty-five counselors, with seventy-two agency counselors and sixty-three private practitioners. Counselors completed two assessments and a survey in a descriptive correlational design. Two methods of group and e-mail administration produced a 98.7 % and 33% response rates, respectively. The data collection instruments included: The Schwartz Value Survey (SVS; Schwartz, 1992), the abridged Job Descriptive Index (aJDI; Stanton et al., 2002), the abridged Job In General Scale (aJIG; Russell et al., 2004), and the Counselor History Questionnaire (Cunningham, 2009). The statistical procedures used to analyze the data included two one-way MANOVAs and four standard multiple regressions. Post- hoc analysis included ANOVA for five subscales on the aJDI measure.

The three research questions included; (a) Are there any differences between job satisfaction between counselors in private practice and agency settings? (b) Are there any

differences between value priorities of self-transcendence and self-enhancement between counselors in private practice and agency settings?, and (c) Are there any relationships among the variables of job satisfaction and value priorities of counselors in private practice and agency setting? The first research question was supported, with private practitioners reporting statistically significant higher levels of job satisfaction on two measures, with 12.9 % of the variance explained by the model. Furthermore, the results of the post-hoc included private practitioners reporting statistically significant higher ratings on the aJDI subscales of Work and Income, and Agency counselors reporting higher scores on the Supervision subscale. The second and third research questions were not supported; as there were no differences in value priorities of counselors in private practice and agency. Furthermore, no predictive relationships existed among the variables of work location, value priorities, and job satisfaction.

The data suggested that private practitioners experienced a higher level of job satisfaction than their counterparts in agency settings. Furthermore, the non-significant results of value priorities suggested that counselors, as a whole, possess similar value priorities which are not altered by different work settings. Implications for counselors and counselor educators were presented, along with areas of future research.

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CHAPTER 1
OVERVIEW

The field of counseling has grown and changed drastically over the past 35 years

(Corey, 2008). From the 1940s until the current licensure status of counselors,

counselors' work settings included the school system and veterans affairs (Fred & Fred,

1997). Now, numerous occupational settings exist for counselors, including hospitals,

educational facilities, residential agencies, outpatient settings, private practice offices,

and even wilderness adventure camp sites (Weikel & Palmo, 1996). In addition,

counselors serve in varied roles, such as individual or family counselors, group

facilitators, consultants, mediators, supervisors, and/or researchers (Kottler & Brown,

2000). New counselors focus the majority of their time on learning the craft of counseling

(i.e., having a sense of presence with a client, learning active listening skills, etc.).

However, many know little about differences in the potential occupational settings where

they may work. Additionally, graduating counselors face obstacles that include: (a) lack

of self-awareness concerning their work values and priorities, (b) a lack of knowledge

about the variety of occupational environments and the values expressed in each, and (c)

a lack of mentorship during the transition from graduate school to the work world.

Career psychology includes theories of how to best help individuals find an

optimal occupation. Trait-factor theories began in the early 1900s and included linking a

trait of the person and the work factor to job satisfaction. Frank Parson's (1909) book,

Choosing a Vocation, broke new ground in trait-factor theory. Parson developed the

'goodness of fit' theory, which proposed people make poor vocational decisions when

they are unaware of themselves (i.e. personality, values, work-style) and unaware of the

factors of the potential occupation (1909). In fact, in a recent study (D'Aprix et al., 2004) with students in school to become social workers, students reported that they chose their degree because of the marketability of the degree and higher salaries obtained versus those of other helping professionals. No participants indicated choosing the degree because of a desire to help individuals or serve disadvantaged populations. The mismatch between what drew the students to enter the profession and the values that embody helping professions suggests a lack of awareness between individuals entering the profession and the factors helpful to succeed in the profession.

Counselors are often unclear about their motivations for entering the profession. Sommers-Flannagan (2004) discussed the need for students to understand their motivations and values for entering the helping professional field. The author cited the two most common motivations as (a) the prestige given those in our culture with advanced degrees, and (b) the sense of achievement and power of the title (2004). Both of these motivations involve work values that may not be in sync with the values necessary to become helpers in counseling-related settings.

Parson's landmark trait-factor theory identified an important variable when matching the individual to the environment: *values*. What people believed was important to them could influence, motivate, and even predict job satisfaction (Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999). Indeed, further research is needed with values as the core focus since they add a solid predictor to the field of career research (Berings, Fruyt, & Bouwen, 2004). Shalom Schwartz and colleagues (1992, 1994) developed a values theory and assessment that have undergone vigorous cross-cultural and international validation. Schwartz's Values Theory (SVT; Schwartz, 1992,1994) presents 10 distinct basic values that capture

different motivating factors for work. These values are: (a) Power, (b) Achievement, (c) Hedonism, (d) Stimulation, (e) Self-direction, (f) Universalism, (g) Benevolence, (h) Tradition, (i) Conformity, and (j) Security. In sum, Schwartz's theoretical premise stated that individuals have a motivation for what they want from work, and SVT provides the opportunity to assess what values are priorities for each individual.

In the counseling profession, as with any helping profession, the focus is on helping others (Knafo & Savig, 2004). In SVT, the focus on helping people translated to the work values of *benevolence* and *universalism*. When the focus of an individual was on the values of *power* and *achievement*, however, their motivation included enhancing one's own status. Individuals with those values often enter fields such as marketing or business. Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss (1999) explained, "the pursuit of achievement values often conflicts with the pursuit of benevolence values; seeking personal success for oneself is likely to obstruct actions aimed at enhancing the welfare of close others who need one's help" (p. 51). Therefore, the two sets of values, achievement and benevolence, were opposed to each other. Counselors' lack of knowledge of their own work motivations and different occupational settings may place them in the crosshairs of these two opposing values sets. A counseling student may desire to obtain graduate education to gain the prestige or power the degree offers but may then be frustrated when those rewards are not present and feel they are mismatched with the occupation overall.

Counselors can choose to work in an agency or private practice setting, and each setting differs greatly in daily tasks. The historical missions of public agencies stem from the field of social work, and that mission is "to help the neediest people irregardless of their ability to pay" (D'Aprix et al., p. 269). These qualities of the agency setting closely

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resemble the SVT values of *benevolence* and *universalism* (Knafo & Sagiv, 2004).

Private practice, on the other hand, offers another choice of work setting to counselors.

Since private practitioners can offer high-quality services at a higher cost (Perry, 1996),

they must play the roles of businessperson, entrepreneur, and helper in order to open and

maintain a successful practice (Grodkzi, 2009). The entrepreneurial qualities of private

practice work more closely resemble the values of *power* and *achievement* (Knafo &

Sagiv).

These occupational differences found in the two settings of agency and private

practice were important facets with which to study values and an individual's job

satisfaction. For example, if counselors place a high priority on values such as *power* and

achievement (i.e., financial success or prestige), they may not be well suited to the agency

environment and may be dissatisfied with their work settings. Similarly, a counselor

whose values include *benevolence* and *universalism* may not like the enterprising aspects

of private practice and may be better suited to an agency-type setting. While these

different settings encompass different daily tasks, many graduates are still unaware of

their own values and how they best match each environment (D'Aprix et al., 2004).

This current research study can assist future graduates and practicing counselors

by decreasing the potential for value conflicts. The collision of values can produce stress,

role strain, and cognitive dissonance, contributing to poorer work performance and

attrition as a result (Brill, 1998). One widely used method to gauge if individuals are a

good fit with their occupation includes job satisfaction (Russell et al., 2004). Job

satisfaction provides a reliable and valid measure allowing researchers to test hypotheses

concerning an employee's good fit at a work setting (Russell et al.). Since counseling

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includes many occupational setting possibilities, matching counselors to particular settings based on value priorities could promote a good fit and reduce burnout, increase wellness, and strengthen the profession. Therefore, the aim of this research involved measuring value priorities and job satisfaction of current counselors in different locations in order to identify factors that contribute to a good fit.

Applying Parsons' goodness of fit model using Schwartz's Values Theory (SVT) assists in discovering what values relate to job satisfaction in agency and private practice work settings. Thus, this research investigated the relationships of values and job satisfaction between counselors in private practice and agency settings. Study findings could potentially benefit counselor educators and graduating counselors in preparation to enter the workforce.

Statement of the Problem

Counselors face many issues finding gainful employment (King, 2007), including (a) lack of self awareness of their work motivation, (b) not having a clear sense of what the occupations really involve, and (c) experience a lack of mentorship during the transition from graduate school to the world of work. The aim of this research included creating a profile of which value priorities appear to display a good fit between counselors in the two different settings. Whereas the values of social workers, psychologists, and school counselors have been researched, a lack of research exists concerning counselors' values in relation to their work environment (D'Aprix et al., 2004; Deters, 2008; Wiggins, 1984). As burnout and job dissatisfaction continue in the counseling profession, investigating the match or mismatch of values and work setting is a worthwhile research endeavor.

New counselors face many issues. Skovholt and Ronnestad (2003) identified the ambiguity of professional work of counseling as a major stressor for the novice. The ambiguity included meeting the needs for licensure, finding a suitable job, and feeling confident in one's ability to help. The authors stated an acute need for positive mentors existed during this transition from graduate school to the workforce. Choosing the right work environment can overwhelm graduates, yet a wide variety of job settings offer the possibility of a suitable match for different individuals. King (2007) contends, "counseling training is a considerable investment in time and money but careers in counseling are neither well publicized nor researched" (p. 394). More research on the careers of counselors is therefore needed to assist future counselors in making well-informed decisions.

During their academic training and pre-licensure work, new counselors receive little information on the work environments that they will be entering (Skovholt & Ronnestad, 2003). Parson's theory suggests that students in that situation, specifically those who are unaware of how their values relate to a particular job setting and how the characteristics of that setting might affect their satisfaction, will choose poorly. An abundance of research previously linked job dissatisfaction to burnout and turnover in counselor work settings (Knudson, Ducharme, Roman, 2006; Lawson, 2007; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1986; Rupert & Morgan, 2005; Watkins, 1983; Witmer & Young, 1996). However, the need remains for additional research to support counselors in this process of finding a good fit (Skovholt & Ronnestad, 2003).

Values and job satisfaction interact in occupations as choosing ones' occupation is a major way main avenue to express one's values (Knafo & Sagiv, 2004). Additionally,

individuals working in an environment that conflict with their personal values are more likely to perform at sub-standard levels or leave the profession entirely (Knafo & Sagiv). Job dissatisfaction and burnout underline a significant, current issue in counseling, with rigorous research available examining organizational factors that have positive and negative influences on job satisfaction. (Deters, 2008; Knudson, Ducharme, Roman, 2006; Maslach, 2003; Lawson, 2007). Yet investigating personal values priorities and individuals' level of job satisfaction remains important as values may be a hidden contributor to the level of burnout and job dissatisfaction.

<div align="center">Purpose of the Study: Rationale and Significance</div>

Researching the job satisfaction of counselors provided a current snapshot of their satisfaction levels in two very different work settings: private practice and agency. This research provided information on counselors' value priorities. Whereas a plethora of research has been conducted on burnout (Deters, 2008; Knudson, Ducharme, Roman, 2006; Lawson, 2007; Maslach, 2003; Young & Lambie, 2007), the relationship of values to job satisfaction has yet to be explored. Furthermore, gathering data on both private practice and agency work settings offers future graduates vital information about satisfied workers and values. Furthermore, this research proves beneficial since values are a good tool for career guidance (Berings, Fruyt, & Bouwen, 2004). Thus, information gathered on the type of individual values best suited to each occupational setting will enhance counselor educators' abilities to help graduates explore their values in relation to work motivation and desired outcomes for their environments. In line with Parson's 'goodness of fit' model (1909), the more knowledge counselors have about themselves in relation to the job market, the better choices they can make.

Another benefit of this study is that researching counselors' values will add to the literature on values and career satisfaction of counselors. Counselors have an interesting professional position as they can work in environments similar to social workers and psychologists even though their training, professional mission, and therapeutic focus are distinct (Kottler & Brown, 2000). This study will help further define the professional identity of counselors.

The Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) (1992, 1994), developed from the Schwartz Value Theory is a widely researched assessment and could offer counselor educators solid information to assist counselors who are struggling to find gainful employment. The Schwartz Values Survey (SVS) provides graduates another assessment tool for their job search. The SVS assesses four higher order values; two values of interest in this study are: (1) *self-transcendence*, which includes the values of *benevolence* and *universalism,* and (2) *self-enhancement,* which includes the values of *power* and *achievement*. These two value sets have been empirically validated to conflict with one another (Schwartz, 1996). Stated another way, a person will rank that they are high on one values set over another. Schwartz (1996) stated that people must make compromises and 'trade-offs' when placed in situations where the two values expressions are possible. It is hypothesized that counselors would rank varying levels on the values priority of *self-transcendence* and *self- enhancement*. In more basic terms, counselors may struggle with wanting to help others (*self-transcendence*) while also wanting to feel personally successful (*self-enhancement*). More information during counselor training and career guidance for practicing counselors could assist in reducing job dissatisfaction, burnout, and turnover. Armed with the results of the SVS, counselors could use the knowledge of

their value priorities to guide their job choices. The research questions and hypotheses were aimed at testing how value priorities and job satisfaction interact in different work settings. This research will also direct further study into indicators of good fit for graduating counselors based on the empirical findings.

<div align="center">Theoretical Framework</div>

Theoretical frameworks provide the epistemological and ontological background for research studies (Piantanida, Tanandi, & Grubs, 2004). Theory is a collection of interrelated concepts that offer explanations for phenomena. They help guide research in a meaningful way through establishing a framework for interpreting results. Psychological theories include a set of positions and propositions about human behavior that researchers can then incorporate to make deductions, test hypotheses, and interpret findings. Also, theoretical frameworks allow for data gathered to be deciphered in meaningful ways. Longstanding, comprehensive theories with empirical evidence to support their predictive qualities are optimal in forming research methodologies and interpreting data. Parsons' goodness of fit model, Schwartz's Values Theory, and Job Satisfaction are the three constructs and theories providing the conceptual framework for this study.

Goodness of Fit

Parsons' (1909) foundational work, *Choosing a Vocation,* included the earliest trait-factor theory in career psychology. Parsons posited that: (a) individuals differ in their job interests, needs, and values; (b) jobs differ in the amount and nature of the rewards they offer and in the kinds of demands they make on the employee; and (c) vocational adjustment (operationalized as success and satisfaction) was directly

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proportional to the 'match' or a 'good-fit' between people and their environment (Parsons). Therefore, the concept of a 'good-fit' related to the match between the person and their environment. If the person chose well, or was assisted by the field of career counseling, then the good fit was a reflection of them knowing themselves and the world of work (Arthur, M.B, 1989). Parsons' theory provided the framework for investigating a 'good- fit' for counselors in their current positions. If a worker was satisfied in their current job, then they had made a good career choice. Furthermore, Parsons (1909) stated that bad career decisions are made when people were unaware of themselves and the profession, which was the one of the proposed contributing issues of this current investigation.

Schwartz's Values Theory

Research already exists using Parsons' theory and employing values to predict job satisfaction in careers. Sagiv and Schwartz (2004) defined values as "trans-situational goals that serve as guiding principles in people's lives" and stated "occupations are one main avenue to express values" (p. 256). As a motivational theory, the SVT aimed to describe how values guided vocational choice. Fundamentally, individuals were motivated to exercise and express their values, and one way to do that was through occupational choice. Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz, and Knafo (2002) indicated that values are a stable construct and useful in predicting differences. The Schwartz Value Theory (SVT; Schwartz, 1992) linked his theory to an assessment. The SVS is a 57-item questionnaire that utilizes the 10 values of the SVT to assess work values (or what people want out of work). These values are: (a) Power, (b) Achievement, (c) Hedonism, (d) Stimulation, (e)

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Self-direction, (f) Universalism, (g) Benevolence, (h) Tradition, (i) Conformity, and (j) Security.

Furthermore, these 10 values combine into four *higher-order* categories that oppose each other: (1) *self-transcendence* and (2) *self-enhancement* is one opposing set of values, and (3) *openness to change* and (4) *conservation* is another (Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999). Two values, *benevolence* and *universalism*, are under the higher-order category of *self-transcendence*. A person ranking high on *self-transcendence* will be best suited to a job that has *benevolence* and *universalism* values as central, such as non-profit agency settings (Knafo, & Schwartz, 2004). Two other values, *power* and *achievement*, fall under the category of *self-enhancement* values. In this case, a person with a priority of *self-enhancement* values might be well suited to a job such as sales or entrepreneurial occupations that allow for the expression of *power* and *achievement* values. For instance, private practice includes a marketing proponent with a for-profit business model that may be well matched with a counselor who has a high ranking on *self-enhancement* values. Yet the private practice setting is still centered on providing helping services for others, so the counselor may also rank the *self-transcendence* category high. Therefore, the opposing values of *self-enhancement* and *self-transcendence* were hypothesized to have a relationship to job satisfaction for counselors in the agency setting and private practice settings. Conversely, this research would suggest that a person in an agency who values *self-enhancement* may be less satisfied than their counterpart in a private practice.

Construct of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction remains a highly researched construct in career research (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Ogborne & Graves, 2005; Steers, Porter, & Bigley,

1996). Balzer et al. (2000) defined job satisfaction as the overall feelings a worker has about his or her job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current expectations, or available alternatives. Vocational research used job satisfaction assessments as the most salient way to gauge how workers perceived their work (Russell et al., 2004). To test our hypotheses, a measurement of satisfaction at the job evaluated fit for counselors in agency and private practice settings. The assessment chosen for this study gauged overall and specific job satisfaction. Balzer et al. (1997) developed the original Job Descriptive Index that was later shortened to the abridged Job Description Index (aJDI) and validated by Stanton et al. (2002). The aJDI measures five areas of a job to assess satisfaction: (a) type of work, (b) pay, (c) promotion opportunities, (d) supervision, and (e) co-workers. The second measure is the abridged version of the Job in General Scale (aJIG) (Russell et al. 2004); this measure gauges the overall global feeling of satisfaction with work. This study will use the abridged version of the JDI and the JIG to gauge for fit or match between individuals, their values, and work setting.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The goal of this study included investigating the relationships and influences of values on job satisfaction of counselors in private practice and agency settings. To achieve this goal, this researcher identified three research questions and six null hypotheses that warranted investigation. Analyzing these hypotheses and answering the research questions illuminated any relationships that existed between the job satisfaction and values variables among counselors in private practice and agency settings.

The first research question concerned what differences existed for job satisfaction of counselors in private practice and counselors in agencies settings. The answer to this

question provided data on the current experience of job satisfaction of counselors in Florida. This study examined the null hypothesis that no difference existed in job satisfaction, as measured by the aJDI (Stanton et al. 2001) and the aJIG (Russell et al., 2004), between counselors in private practice and agency settings.

The second research question of interest investigated what differences existed between the values of (a) *self-transcendence* and (b) *self-enhancement* with counselors in private practice and counselors in agencies. Answering this question offered vital information concerning what type of counselor does best in each setting and which counselors are dissatisfied. To answer this question, the study examined the null hypothesis: (a) No differences existed between *self-enhancement* and *self- transcendence* as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992) for counselors in private practice and agency settings.

The third research question examined what relationships existed among value priorities, job satisfaction, and occupational settings. Answers to this question provided information about where counselors stand on these opposing values sets and if they differ for to the two occupations settings. The study will examine these four null hypotheses: (a) No relationships exist among the values priority variables of *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement,* as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), and job satisfaction, as measured by the aJDI (Stanton et al., 2002), for counselors in private practice; (b) No relationships exist among the values priority labels of *self-transcendence* and *self- enhancement,* as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), and job satisfaction, as measured by the aJDI (Stanton et al., 2002), for counselors in agencies; (c) No relationships exist among the values priority variables of *self-transcendence* and *self-*

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enhancement, as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), and job satisfaction, as measured by the aJIG (Russell et al., 2004), for counselors in private practice; and (d) No relationships exist among *self-transcendence* and *self- enhancement,* as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), and job satisfaction, as measured by the aJIG (Russell et al., 2004), for counselors in agencies.

Rationale for the Approach

The use of descriptive correlational survey/assessment design offered an opportunity to gain critical information otherwise difficult to obtain (Creswell, 2009). Since it would prove difficult to force experimental employment or choose value priorities for individuals, studying counselors in their current settings comprised the best methodology to provide empirical information for counselor educators. Whereas social work and psychology have established research concerning values and job satisfaction in the two work settings of private practice and agency, there remains a lack of research for professional counselors in this area (Burke, Oberklaid, Burgess, 2005; D'Aprix et al., 2004; Deters, 2008; Wiggins, 1984). Counselors have an interesting professional position as they can work in similar environments as social workers and psychologists, yet their training, professional mission, and therapeutic focus are distinct (Kottler & Brown, 2000). As Hanna and Bemak (1997) stated, "a consequence of not achieving or discovering a recognizable identity is that graduates from master's-level Counselor Education programs may continue to be considered, as Wittmer (1998) and Lanning (1988) put it, the 'drones' of the helping professions in terms of pay scales and professional status" (p. 197). Furthermore, this research adds to the literature on the professional identity, values, and career satisfaction of counselors.

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This research included a career theory base and used empirically sound assessments. SVT (1992, 1994) is a widely researched vocational theory that could assist counselors who are struggling to find gainful employment. Bolstering career guidance for counselors overall will assist in reducing job dissatisfaction, burnout, and turnover. SVT and accompanying values survey could offer graduates a focus for their job search. The abridged Job Descriptive Index (aJDI) and abridged Job in General (aJIG) scales were distilled from the widely used Job Descriptive Index (aJDI). In addition, a researcher-designed Counselor History Questionnaire (CHQ) was administered to gain further demographic, academic, and work information.

Definition of Terms

Community agency: For the purposes of this study, the community agency setting was defined as a public agency that received state, local, and federal monies and/or relies heavily on insurance reimbursement for its daily operating funds. Furthermore, community agencies receive donations. This definition encompassed residential agencies (e.g. drug rehabilitation, adolescent centers), crisis centers, community clinics, children's homes, and inpatient psychiatric care (e.g., psychiatric floor of a hospital) (Weikel & Palmo, 1996).

Job satisfaction: For the purposes of this study, job satisfaction was defined as the overall feelings a worker had about his or her job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current expectations, or available alternatives (Balzer et al., 1997). This was gauged by the aJDI (Stanton, 2002) and the aJIG (Russell et al., 2004).

Professional counselors: For the purposes of this study, professional counselors were defined as practicing counselors that hold a counselor identity. This included

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Registered Interns of Mental Health Counseling or Marriage and Family Therapy or

Licensed Mental Health Counselors or Licensed Marriage and Family Therapists.

Licensed Professional Counselors and National Certified Counselors were also included.

The term "licensed" refers to those professionals that have completed all the educational

requirements for schooling, successfully passed exams, and completed licensure

requirements established by the state of their residence (Florida Board of Clinical Social

Work, Marriage & Family Therapy & Mental Health Counseling website;

http://www.doh.state.fl.us/mqa/491/index.html).

Private practice: For the purposes of this study, private practice is defined as the

solo or group practice of a counselor(s) that resides in the private sector. Furthermore,

client fees paid directly by the client in the establishment remunerate the private

practitioner. There are three types most often encountered: (1) incorporated groups, (2)

expense sharing groups, and (3) sole proprietors (Weikel & Palmo, 1996).

Self-enhancement: For the purposes of this study, self-enhancement was defined

as a higher-order category containing two of the ten values on the SVS. The values

include *power* and *achievement*. If a person scores high in these two values, they would

be said to value *self-enhancement* (Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999).

Self-transcendence: For the purposes of this study, self-transcendence was defined

as a higher order category containing two of the ten values on the SVS. The values

include *benevolence* and *universalism*. If a person scores high in these two values, they

would be said to value *self-transcendence* (Sagiv, & Schwartz, 2004)

Values: For the purposes of this study, values were defined as "trans-situational goals that serve as guiding principles in people's lives" (Ros, Schwartz& Surkiss, 1999,p.51). Values were assessed by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992).

Assumptions

In the development and implementation of any study, several assumptions are made. The assumptions listed below concern the theories, sample, data collection instruments and strategies, and construct validity under investigation. The assumptions are:

1) There are identifiable factors about an individual that can indicate a good match with specific factors of work setting.

2) Values are a constant trait of an individual that can be used to research and predict behavior.

3) Dissatisfied workers may have values that conflict with the job setting.

4) Satisfied workers may have values that are in alignment with the job setting.

5) Job satisfaction is a reliable way to gauge individuals' sense of well-being at a job and is therefore a reliable way to test if they are a good match to a job setting.

6) SVS (Schwartz, 1992) provides a reliable and valid measure of value priorities, including self-transcendence or self-enhancement values.

7) Self-transcendence and self-enhancement are opposing and conflicting values sets.

8) The aJDI (Stanton, 2002) and the aJIG (Russell et al., 2004) provide a reliable and valid measure of the overall sense of satisfaction of counselors in their current job setting.

9) Subjects surveyed answered honestly, to the best of their ability.

10) Subjects surveyed represent a cross-section of the population of professional counselors in the State of Florida.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 of the study presented an introduction, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, questions to be answered, research hypotheses, significance of the study, and definitions of terms.

Chapter 2 presented a review of relevant literature. It addressed the following topics: Values, Work values, Schwartz Values Theory, Job Satisfaction, Work settings, Private Practice, Agency.

Chapter 3 presented the methodology used in the study, including the research design, population and sampling procedure, and the instruments and their selection or development, together with information on validity and reliability. Each of these sections concluded with a rationale, including strengths and limitations of the design elements. The chapter also described the procedures for data collection and the plan for data analysis.

Chapter 4 presented the results of the study.

Chapter 5 discussed and analyzed the results, culminating in conclusions and recommendations.

Limitations

Several potential limitations existed in this study. The population targeted included counselors in Central Florida and therefore was only representative of that location. With correlational research using survey and assessments, there was a limitation of determining causality. Thompson et al. (2005) stated that one way to bolster correlational research is through testing rival models statistically, testing assumptions, reporting all confidence intervals for reliability coefficients and measured variables, stating effects size for samples, and using multivariate statistics in the presence of multiple outcomes.. Also, an unknown confounding variable could produce the relationships discovered (Thompson et al.). With survey research, the errors include (a) sampling errors, (b) coverage errors, (c) measurement errors, and (d) non-response error (Fowler, 2008). Sampling error can include not surveying all the elements that could impact the significance of the results. Coverage error includes not reaching all the people in the population that could affect the results. In this study, the counselors surveyed were volunteers. This skewed the data since variables that those individuals possess may not be representative of all those in the population. Measurement error includes poor construction and/or question order influencing answers of the participants. Finally, non-response errors, which include a significant difference between those who do and do not respond, were greatly reduced because the assessments and survey were distributed in person.

Summary

This chapter introduced the issue of counselors obtaining gainful employment. Issues facing counselors were described, including counselors' lack of awareness of what

they want to gain from the profession and the widely varying occupations available to counselors (D'Aprix et. al, 2004), burn-out and job dissatisfaction (Maslach, 2003), and a lack of mentorship during the career transition process (Ronnestad & Skovholt, 2003). Graduating counselors desire continued mentorship in choosing employment as they struggle with other pressing issues of gaining confidence in the practice of counseling (King, 2007). Multiple research settings are available for counselors, and Parsons' 'good–fit' model could potentially highlight how the lack of occupational knowledge and mismatch of individual values sets contribute to burnout and turnover. Studying relationships of individual values and satisfied workers in two different types of work settings may produce 'good–fit' indicators. Although there is established research in the fields of social work and psychology concerning job satisfaction in private practice and agency settings, there is a lack of research in the field of mental health counseling regarding work place settings, values, and job satisfaction.

In efforts towards investigating how value priorities interrelate with job satisfaction in two very different settings, this research employed a descriptive correlational design that included the Counselor History Questionnaire (CHQ), developed by this researcher, as well as the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), aJDI (Stanton et al. 2002), and the aJIG (Russell et al., 2004) assessments. The primary purposes of this study included: (a) investigating the relationship of job satisfaction in private practice and agency settings, (b) investigating the relationship of *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement* values in private practice and agency settings, and (c) investigating relationships among the opposing values sets and job satisfaction in the two settings. The study's findings expanded the literature for professional counselors' job satisfaction and values in various

settings, illuminated the benefits of career mentoring for counselor educators, and

promoted the exploration of values and work in training and beyond.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Frank Parsons' (1909) work laid the foundation for understanding how individuals make career decisions. His theory suggested that individuals make poor choices when: (1) they are unaware of their interests, needs, and values concerning work; and (2) they lack knowledge about important factors of work settings. Based on his model, career counseling goals should include helping individuals identify their aptitude, abilities, and values; then, they should guide them in understanding the world of work. Parsons posited greater work satisfaction and success was produced from a good match between individuals and values. His theory remains central to research and practice in career development (Brown & Brooks, 1990). Parsons' 'good-fit' theory provided the structure to this study in hopes of illuminating the obstacles that counselors face in finding satisfactory employment. Counselors reported that one key obstacle included the lack of knowledge surrounding the various occupational settings (King, 2007).

Value priorities, or what a worker is motivated to gain from work, comprise one specific predictor of an individual's goodness of fit with a job. According to Schwartz Value Theory (SVT) (1992, 1994), values act as motivational goals to direct behavior as opposed to merely exemplifying what individuals reported as important. Therefore, choosing one's occupation expressed the core of an individual's value priorities (Knafo & Sagiv, 2004). Investigating the relationships between values and job satisfaction remains vital because when individuals' values collide with work place values, those individuals experience stress, role confusion, or cognitive dissonance; they may even leave the

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profession entirely (Brill, 1998). Furthermore, Bering, Fruyt and Bouwen (2004) found values to be a core predictor of job satisfaction. Considerable research concerning counseling burnout focuses mostly on job factors and organizational structures' contributions (Knudson, Ducharme, & Roman, 2006; Lawson, 2007; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1986; Rupert & Morgan, 2005; Watkins, 1983; Witmer & Young, 1996). However, there is limited research that investigates relationships between counselors' values and job burnout or satisfaction.

A variety of work locations exist for counselors. However, counselors need more information on the different occupational settings and which type of setting might provide a better match to their individual values. Skovholt and Ronnestad (2003) reported that attaining gainful employment is overwhelming for a new counselor. Students of counseling spend the majority of their time in school learning the actual practice of counseling, and subsequently they receive little supervision and guidance about how to choose a career (Skovholt & Ronnestad). Novice counselors are focused on mastering the craft of counseling and struggle with the inherent self-doubts surrounding their new abilities (Skovholt & Ronnestad). Counselor educators could enhance counselors' future job satisfaction through helping them understand the types of jobs available and how each setting offers the ability to express different values.

Graduate students in counseling spend a great deal of time and money to obtain the advanced degree necessary for a career in counseling; however, counselors' jobs are not well publicized or investigated (King, 2007). The lack of mentorship provided to counseling graduate students further complicates the issue of career choice and job satisfaction (King). Counselors make difficult career choices at graduation without the

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knowledge or guidance to choose wisely. Barriers to job satisfaction identified in the research included; compassion fatigue, burnout, and turnover (Lawson, 2007). Since the 1970s, when the current licensure for counselors proliferated, the research on burnout and wellness has remained steady (Lloyd, King, & Chenowith, 2002; Maslach 1982, 1986, 1990; Young & Lambie, 2007). Simply stated, when counselors saw too many clients, especially high trauma or resistant populations (e.g., addiction populations), without respite, they risked burnout or compassion fatigue. Workers who continued to see clients in this way performed at substandard levels (Maslach, 1982). Turnover, or the intent to leave a job, included changing jobs or leaving the field altogether (Knudson, Ducharme, & Roman, 2006). However, the *values* of satisfied and dissatisfied counselors in different work settings have yet to be studied. The unanswered question being;, do the value priorities of an individual contribute to or predict job satisfaction in different work settings?

Deciding whether to work in a private practice or an agency setting comprises a major decision for counselors entering the field of work (Kottler & Brown, 2000). Each setting provides very different experiences, challenges, and day-to-day activities. Discovering which set of value priorities match a satisfied counselor in each setting will help counselors choose the work setting which provides an optimal experience. For example, a philosophy from the closely related helping profession of social work is, "to help the neediest of people, regardless of their ability to pay" (D'Aprix et al., 2004), which shapes the environment in agency settings. This philosophy is reflected in meager salaries and sometimes difficult working conditions (Garner, Knight, and Simpson, 2007). The core value expressed in this example from social work is to value being a

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helper and helping those in need despite the obstacles, lack of resources, and minimal materialistic rewards. While the core of the job is about helping people, the entrepreneurial aspects of private practice allow for a different set of values to be exercised. Private practitioners possessed greater control in their work environment and the type of services offered, and they made a higher salary (Perry, 1996). Therefore, individuals with different value priorities are hypothesized to rate job satisfaction differently at these two locations.

To appropriately cover all the relevant research pertaining to this study, Boote and Biele (2005) suggested that a researcher should focus on these six areas:

(1)   Review previous research in the field and identify research gaps

(2)   Place the topic or problem in the broader scholarly literature

(3)   Place research in the historical context of the field

(4)   Acquire and enhance the subject vocabulary

(5)   Articulate important variables on the topic

(6)   Synthesize and gain a new perspective on the literature (p. 7)

In line with Boote and Biele's guidelines, the following literature review includes an extensive overview of the theoretical and empirical research on values, job satisfaction, and research with private practice and agency settings. For each area, an overview of the literature will be provided, and then the focus will narrow to areas most relevant to the specific research questions of the current study.

Values

Values comprise an active research field in psychology, and value theories emerged over the past century (Seligman, Olson, & Zanna, 1996). Some value theorists

believed values comprised a stable, possibly even intrinsic, trait for people over their lifetime (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). Conversely, other theorists argued that values and value systems differ depending on the situation (Seligman & Katz, 1996; Tetlock, 1984). Out of this theoretical debate, both sides agreed that values cannot be completely rigid, and they cannot change day by day or situation by situation (Schwartz, 1992). Schwartz stated a balanced position promoting values as a stable construct that could be used to predict behavior but could also be flexible when the need arose.

Values Research in Psychology

A portion of the theoretical debate involved the abstract nature of the word *values*, which held many different meanings in research (Rohan, 2000). Rohan described the variety of meanings ascribed to the term values and asserted that researchers assigned their own desired meaning for their research questions. The meaning of *values* was associated with (a) political ideologies, (b) attitudes, (c) worldviews, (d) ethics, (e) motivation for goals or preferred outcomes, and (f) what we think of others. Therefore, defining *values* is an important first step for research to be effective.

 Kurt Lewin, also known as the father of social psychology, attempted to clear up the confusion with this definition:

> Values influence behavior, but do not have the characteristics of a goal. For
> example, the individual does not try to reach the value of fairness, but
> fairness is guiding his behavior. It is probably correct to say that values
> determine which types of activities have a positive and negative valence for
> an individual in a given situation (1952, p. 41).

Lewin's definition provided a way to view values as a set of principles that inform behavior. Milton Rokeach, a social psychologist who developed the first value survey, the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS; 1973), defined a value as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (p. 5). Rokeach's (1952) definition focused on *preferred* behaviors or ways of acting. His empirical work investigated two major groups of values: an individual's goals (or terminal values) and an individual's mode of conduct (or instrumental values). An example of a terminal value question from the RVS queried the individual's feelings about the importance of having a 'comfortable life.' An instrumental value question included the importance of being "broad-minded" (Rohan, 2000). Rokeach's theoretical stance included viewing values as a stable and basic facet of individuals and worthwhile to research.

Braithwaite and Law's (1985) research followed Rokeachs's work, and they added values to Rokeach's survey they thought were not previously represented. The four categories of values included (a) physical fitness and well being, (b) individual rights, (c) thriftiness, and (d) carefreeness (Braithwaite & Law). Later, Schwartz's (1992) research refuted the difference between the terminal and instrumental values, but he built his value theory on Rokeach's premise of a basic universal value system (discussed in a later section). Rokeach's Value Survey has been the most popular method of assessing value priorities (Rohan, 2000). His definitions, research, and theory support most value research to date (Seligman, Olson, & Zanna, 1996).

Seligman and Katz's (1973) research investigated the dynamics of values in different situations. The researchers investigated conflicting statements of value and

based their premise on Rokeach's self-confrontation method (Seligman & Katz). The

self-confrontation method included changing people's values by confronting them with

their own discrepancies (e.g., reducing prejudice after idiosyncrasies were presented).

Seligman and Katz's (1996) theory of multiple value systems suggested that perhaps

different values systems become salient in different situations. Seligman and Katz's

interests also included investigating individuals who answered questions that elicited

strong opposing value sentiments, such as "why do some pro-lifers believe in capital

punishment and pro-choice advocates are against the death penalty?"(p. 54). Findings

from their research supported the thesis that people in certain situations engage a

different set of value priorities separate from their overall value priorities. Furthermore,

their findings suggested that people changed their values if they believed those around

them felt differently. Seligman and Katz's (1996) research with values expanded the idea

that values are not always state-trait static but can be flexible in extreme situations.

Tetlock, Petersen, and Lerner (1996) presented a values-related paper at the

Ontario Symposium on Personality and Social Psychology, held at the University of

Western Ontario in 1993. The topic involved the revised value pluralism model, which

highlighted how individuals (politicians, in particular) handled making decisions that

involved direct value conflicts. Tetlock, Petersen, and Lerner's empirical work over the

past 20 years researched the political and policy statements of political elites in three

countries and focused on the constructs of (a) value trade-off reasoning, (b) decision

making, and (c) political ideologies (Tetlock, 1984). Overall, the research supported that

Moderates , or people with a middle position on most issues, take more time to consider

conflicting viewpoints (or information refuting their stance) than Extremists on the left or

right of the political 'middle' of the Moderates in Britain, France, and the United States. More recent studies (and the revision to the Values Pluralism Model) investigated the impact of accountability on politicians. For example, the researchers investigated politicians' aggressive posturing towards camps of people with opposing values and the behavior of 'passing the buck' on accountability for issues. Overall, the research supported the hypotheses that the social atmosphere of accountability had a significant impact on politicians' behaviors. This research highlighted that certain values were in direct conflict and that politicians have to manage these conflicting values through making public decisions that will undoubtedly appease some and upset others.

Norman Feather, another major contributor to the research on values, worked with a similar definition as Rokeach and Lewin with the addition that, "we relate possible actions and outcomes within particular situations to our value systems, testing them against our general conceptions about what we believe is desirable or undesirable in terms of our own priorities" (Feather, 1996, p. 244). In this last definition, the process of valuing included active decision-making based on past experiences. Feathers' work focused on attitudes concerning high achievers' *deservingness* of their position. The research proposed to answer the question: How do individuals feel about others holding high positions of status and how do they react when those same figures fall? Research findings supported that people with high *global self-esteem* on the Rosenburg self-esteem scale (RSE; Rosenberg, 1965) and high ranking on the values of *power* and *achievement* on the SVS scale (Schwartz, 1994) believed famous people deserved their status. Conversely, individuals with low scores on both *global self-esteem* and the values of *power* and *achievement* prefer when famous people "fall from their thrones."

Furthermore, individuals with low *global self-esteem* and low *power* and *achievement* values were also quicker to feel pity for those back on the rise to high status (Feather, 1991). Comparing oneself to others, and the belief that people were "worth" their success, placed an interesting lens on how individuals reacted to high achievers and how values influenced our feeling about public figures.

Career Psychology and Work Values

Career psychology involves a subfield of psychology that focuses on the individual in relation to work (Brown, 2002). Categories of research with work values included personal work preferences (Pryor, 1979; Super, 1973) and job satisfaction/person-environment fit (Clercq, Fontaine, & Anseel, 2008). The construct of values became a separate and vital construct from other researched career phenomenon such as *interests, attitudes* and *expectancies.* For example, values helped explain why someone had interests in a certain occupation but remained dissatisfied with their career choice. Furthermore, values remained distinguished from *attitudes* since values can operate out of our awareness, unlike attitudes, which are conscious thoughts (Brown). The construct of *attitudes* included what people reported being consciously aware of concerning their beliefs and dispositions about a situation (e.g., work), whereas values encompassed strongly held beliefs that could affect the individual without their awareness (Dose, 1997). *Expectancies,* on the other hand, consisted of the anticipated results of taking an action, whereas *values* guided overall behavior prior to, and after results were obtained. Finally, the term *work values,* as opposed to just *values*, was used most often in literature for vocational psychologists (Hofestede, 1984; Rappaport, 1977; Super, 1973) and applied/organizational psychologists (Dose, 1997; Elizur, 1984;

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Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987), as well as in business and personnel literature (Babin, Darden, & Griffen, 1994; Clercq, Fontaine, & Anseel, 2008; Morrow, 1983). A review of the contributions to the literature on work values in career research follows.

Researchers supported the work values construct as separate from other constructs (e.g., attitudes) in career research, yet a debate existed concerning whether the construct *work values* was really separate from that of *personal values.* First, a basic definition of work values is warranted. Brown (2002) stated that "work values are the values that individuals believe should be satisfied as a result of their participation in the work role and leads them to set of directional goals" (p. 470). However, the question concerned how different work values are from an individual's overall values. Knafo and Sagiv (2004) argued that the main way individuals expressed their values was through choice of occupation, and therefore work values reflected a similar construct to overall or personal values. Ros, Schwartz, and Surkiss (1999) defined work values as an extension of basic individual values with a focus on desirable end states (e.g., high pay) or behavior (e.g., working with people). Furthermore, since work values referred to only goals in the work setting, they varied slightly from the individual's overall basic values yet served as "guiding principles for evaluating work outcomes and settings, and for choosing among different work alternatives" (Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999, p. 54). One negative side effect of separating values and work values was a lack of crossover in the research. Unfortunately, as Elizur and Sagie (1999) noted, "research into (basic) life values has tended to ignore the developments in the field of work values" (p.74), and conversely, work values remained ignored in values research

Donald Super (1973) argued that work values developed from the needs of the individual. His Work Values Inventory (WVI) was one of the most famous instruments for assessing values for careers (Super, 1970). Super's six work values included: (a) Material success, (b) Altruism, (c) Conditions and associates, (d) Heuristic-creative, (e) Achievement-prestige, and (f) Independence-variety. The WVI was updated to a 21-values item scale named the Values Survey (VS; Super & Nevill, 1985), and it was included in the large-scale Work Importance Study (WIS, 1995). The individual taking the VS assessment prioritized which values were the most to least important. The findings of the WIS included clustering countries containing similar higher-ranked values, such as material success values priority in the U.S and Australia, and heuristic-creative expression priority in Japan (Sverko, 1999).

The Work Importance Study (WIS) focused not only on values but role salience in 20 countries, as gauged by the *Salience Inventory* (SI; Super, 1982). The SI assessment has 170 items with a 4-point Likert scale: (0) never or rarely to (4) a great deal. Individuals' responses reflected how often they felt involved in work or other life roles. The five roles developed on the SI included: (a) work (b) study (c) homemaking (d) community involvement, and (e) leisure (Nevill & Calvert, 1996). In addition, the SI gauged the engagement of each life role through; (a) participation in each role, (b) commitment, and (c) value expectations (Sverko, 1999). The SI proved instrumental in charting age, gender, socioeconomic status, and cultural difference as important components in an individual's life span (Nevill & Calvert). Super and colleagues' contribution to work values, salience, and job satisfaction continued to fuel career development research in cross-cultural values and life span research (Sverko, 1999).

Similar to ranking the importance of values, Lofquist and Dawis (1978) focused on work adjustment and developed the *Minnesota Importance Questionnaire* (MIQ; Gay, Weiss, Handel, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1971). They perceived values as commonalities underlying an individual's needs. Like the Work Values Inventory (WVI;1970), the values are prioritized in the MIQ (Lofquist, & Dawis). The values include: (a) Safety, (b) Autonomy, (c) Comfort, (d) Altruism, (e) Achievement, and (f) Aggrandizement. Ranking values was a common method used by researchers to assess the importance of values. The higher the rank, the more important the value was for the individual. Recently, values research included a different way to assess values that included value conflicts in the assessment of values (Schwartz, 1994).

Another researcher took a slightly different perspective on work values. Pryor (1979) researched work *preferences*, as he believed that assessments really gauged what people *liked* about work and not what they *valued* about work overall. The *Work Aspect Preference Scale* (WAPS; Pryor, 1979, 1981) distinguished 12 aspects that individuals prioritized. They included: (a) Security, (b) Self-development, (c) Altruism, (d) Life-style, (e) Physical activity, (f) Detachment, (g) Independence, (h) Prestige (i) Management, (j) Co-workers, (k) Creativity, and (l) Money. Pryor's research supported the idea that work values (or preferences) were a stable construct for research and that they were structured hierarchically (Dose, 1997). Pryor's research also bolstered the notion of researching values in relation to predicting job satisfaction.

MacNab and Fitzsimmons (1987) investigated the WVI (Super, 1970), MIQ (Gay, Weiss, Handel, Dawis & Lofquist, 1971), VS (Nevill & Super, 1981), and the WAPS (Pryor, 1979, 1981) using a multi-trait/multi-method approach to indentify overlapping

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and distinct constructs on these assessments. Confirmatory factor analysis produced eight constructs: (a) Authority, (b) Coworkers, (c) Creativity, (d) Independence, (e) Security, (f) Altruism, (g) Work conditions, and (h) Prestige (MacNab & Fitzsimmons). A follow-up discriminate analysis and convergent analysis supported that these eight values were capturing the same constructs. Brief and Weiss (2002) noted a lack of follow up research in relation to their findings. However, research combining work values and personal values, as developed by Schwartz (1992), proliferated. More research could highlight how Schwartz Values interact with MacNab and Fitzsimmons' findings.

Work values research was broad and wide in the literature. This brief review highlighted how values and work values developed differently. The assessments discussed displayed the kinds of categories formed in work values research. However, a number of instruments existed that captured the broad construct of work values. For example, the *Personal Values Questionnaire* (PVQ; England, 1967), *Comparative Emphasis Scale* (CES; Cornelius, Ullman, Meglino, Czajka, & McNelly, 1985), and the *Protestant Ethic Scale* (PES; Mirels, & Garret, 1971) all held varying perspectives on the meaning of work values. Dose (1997) posited a theoretical framework for the variety of work values assessments and categorized the different foci. The framework conceptualized work values with these four quadrants: (a) moral, (b) preference, (c) personal, and (d) social consensus. *Moral* work values research focused on values that carry a "right" or "wrong" judgment facet. *Preference* work values included what an individual liked without an attached moral element. *Personal* work values research focused on values of the individual. Finally, *social consensus* work values included values that individuals believed a society should or "ought" to possess (Dose). Most

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vocational behavior research falls in the personal preference quadrant, as does this proposed study (Clercq, Fontaine, & Anseel, 2008; Lofquist, & Dawis, 1978; Pryor, 1979; Super, 1973).

The personal preference quadrant suggested by Dose (1997) offered a conceptual vehicle for combining the research focus of work values using personal values. More recent research applied SVT (1992, 1994) and the accompanying SVS assessment (Schwartz, 1992) to the world of work (Clercq, Fontaine, & Anseel, 2008; Knafo, & Sagiv, 2004; Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999; Sagiv, 2002). The SVT served as one of the theoretical foundations for this study. The next section provides a more in-depth overview of his theory.

Schwartz Value Theory

Highlighting Schwartz Value Theory (SVT) in this review was important because a data collection instrument in this study included Schwartz Value Survey (SVS, Schwartz, 1992, 1994). Schwartz's research progressed from the use of the SVS from the beginning research in Israel to the current international trends. Shalom Schwartz developed the SVT (1992, 1994) and created the SVS. He offered a definition explaining why we have values and included the aspect of roles/identities individuals hold (Schwartz, 1994). Schwartz stated that the reason for creating values included the individual's responses to three universal requirements: (1) biological needs, (2) requisites for coordinated interaction, and (3) demands for group survival and functioning (1996). He stated, "I define values as conceptions of the desirable that guide the way social actors (e.g. organizational leaders, policy makers, individual persons) select actions, evaluate people and events, and explain their actions and evaluations" (1999, p. 24). In effect,

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individuals not only behave according to their values, but also create meaning for past actions.

Schwartz's research included three main areas: (1) voting behaviors, (2) a willingness to have contact with persons in the out-group, and (3) interpersonal cooperation. The research on voting behavior included assessing individual values and matching them with the stated values of Israelis' political parties. The value priorities clearly predicted the voting behaviors of individuals. The Individuals who ranked *conservation* (security, conformity, and tradition) values high, aligned with the party that promoted national security and conformity to religious customs. On the other hand, the individuals who ranked *openness to change* (stimulation, self-direction, and hedonism) high, aligned with the political group with the most liberalist ideologies (Schwartz, 1996).

The next direction for Schwartz's research on values involved the willingness of Jews (majority group) in Israel to have contact with Arabs (minority group). As these two religious/ethnic groups have historically had difficulty living peacefully with one another in Israel, Schwartz wanted to investigate the values that would increase contact, hopefully decreasing the ongoing struggles for land. Individuals ranking *conservatism* values as a priority did not express a willingness to have contact, whereas individuals ranking *openness to change* correlated positively with readiness for contact. Individuals who held the values of *universalism* as a priority correlated positively with readiness for contact, whereas a high rating in *benevolence* didn't necessarily correlate with readiness for contact. Schwartz hypothesized that the values of *universalism* pointed towards desiring well-being for all people, whereas *benevolence* promoted caring for those in your own

group. Schwartz's next study investigated 'interpersonal cooperation' through the studyof university students playing a game. Those who rated high in the *power* value were the least likely to show cooperative behavior, with those ranking the *achievement* value as important a distant next. The strongest predictor of cooperative behavior was high ranks in the *benevolence* value, and *universalism* value as a close second. Schwartz's contribution to values research included providing an overall framework for predicting behavior (Schwartz, 1994). The SVT has been widely researched using at least 200 samples in 60 different countries (Sagiv, 2002). Schwartz's theory recently appeared in career psychology research (Clerq, Fontaine & Anseel, 2008; Elizur & Sagie, 1999; Knafo & Sagiv, 2004; Sagiv, 2002). The most recent research was highlighted in the subsequent sections.

A pivotal dimension of SVT included the explanation offered for the etiology of values. According to SVT (1992, 1994), values held a relative order and priority for the individual (Schwartz, 1994). Schwartz argued that although people differ in terms of values priorities, the structure of the human value system was universal (Schwartz). In other words, individuals don't have or have a value; rather, people have relationships with all values and each value was activated in different scenarios, held priority over other values, and involved 'tradeoffs' among competing values (Schwartz, 1996).

As shown in Chapter 1, SVT included ten basic values. In this section, these values will be defined and explained in detail. The 10 values, and their definitions, are listed below (Schwartz, 1992):

1) Power: Social status and prestige or control or dominance over people and resources.

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2) Achievement: Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards.

3) Hedonism: Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself.

4) Stimulation: Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life.

5) Self-direction: Independent thought and action-choosing, creating, or exploring.

6) Universalism: Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature.

7) Benevolence: Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with who one is in frequent personal contact.

8) Tradition: Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that tradition, culture, or religion provide the self.

9) Conformity: Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms.

10) Security: Safety, harmony and stability of society, of relationships, and of self.

According to Schwartz (1996), these values were grouped into four higher order categories. Furthermore, some categories were in direct opposition or in competition with one another. The ten values are grouped into these four categories; (a) *self-enhancement*, (b) *self-transcendence*, (c) *openness to change*, and (d) *conservatism* (see Figure 1.)
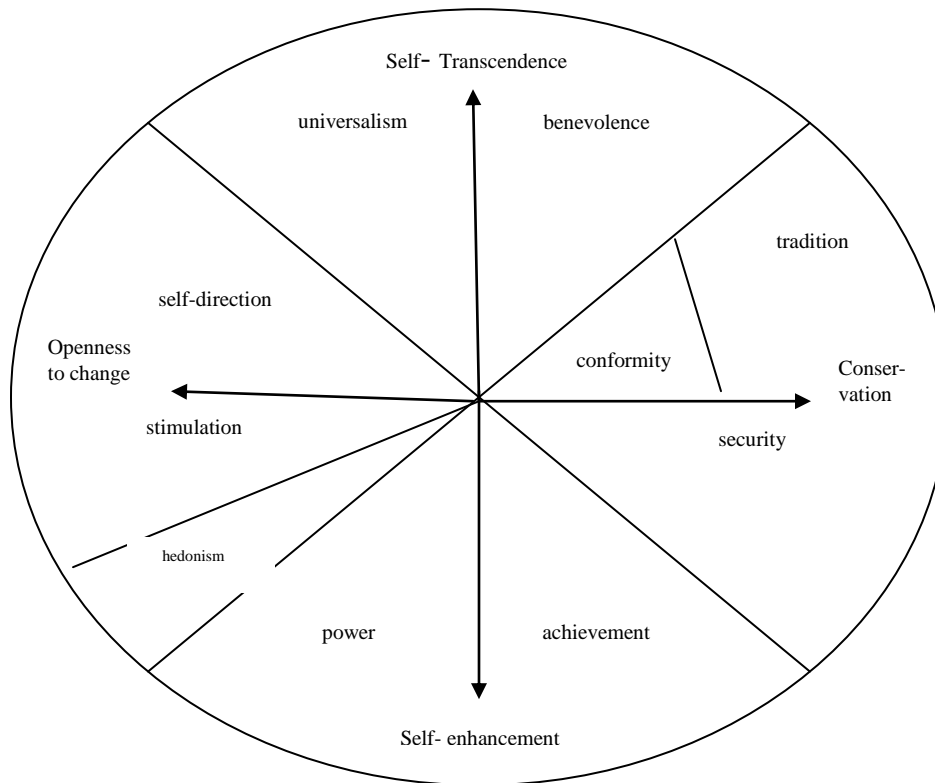
FIgure 1: Values of the Schwartz Value Survey

Higher order values positioned adjacent to one another in the circle possess complementary relationships. For example, an individual could rank *conservatism* as a priority as well as *self-transcendence*, and could value tradition and conformity (*conservatism*) and helping others (*self-transcendence*) simultaneously. However, the values positioned opposite in the circle, such as *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement*, comprise polar opposites and conflict with one another. Any action towards helping others (*self-transcendence*) was usually in direct conflict with obtaining personal power or achievement (*self-enhancement*) (Bilsky & Schwartz, 1990). In sum, the value on opposite sides of the circle represented priorities that held conflicting values. Therefore, individuals must make 'trade-offs' to fulfill their desire to express certain values over

others (Schwartz, 1992). Figure 1 also displayed that the value of hedonism was shared between *self-enhancement* and *openness to change*. Schwartz and Sagiv's (1995) research suggested different cultures produced different correlations with the hedonism value and *self- enhancement*. Two thirds of the time the hedonism value correlated mostly with *openness to change*, and it was suggested that this research exclude hedonism for the self-enhancement variable (S. Schwartz, personal communication, May 11, 2010).

The values of tradition and conformity lie adjacent to benevolence, indicating their complementary relationship and correlational strength in association to the conservatism values (i.e., conformity has the stronger relation). Furthermore, Bilsky and Schwartz (1990) described how these 10 values informed motivational goals for individuals. For example, individuals preferred certain emotions (i.e., high or low arousal) and were motivated to reach goals that matched their preferences. Therefore, a value such as *self-direction* might include excitement, and the value of *security* may involve a calm, relaxed state. Hence, individuals were motivated to be in a situation that matched their energy preference. Therefore, the individual's values or preferred ways of being drove their goals.

As mentioned earlier, Schwartz's research with SVT included three research areas: (a) voting behavior, (b) interpersonal cooperation, and (c) willingness to have contact with an out-group. In the past 10 to 15 years, Schwartz's comprehensive value theory joined research concerning career psychology and work values. Ros, Schwartz, and Surkiss's (1999) research correlated SVT values and the four most common categories of work values. The authors noted that previous research on work values fell

into three categories: (a) intrinsic or self actualization, (b) extrinsic or security or material values, and (c) social and relational values (Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss). The research supported that SVT values matched the established values well with one exception: the value priority of *self-enhancement*. Intrinsic values matched with the value priority of *openness to change*, extrinsic with *conservatism*, and social with *self-transcendence* ; however, *self-enhancement* did not possess a match. The authors proposed that adding "Prestige" as a work value to match up with SVT of *self-enhancement* work value research could act as a benefit. Correlational research involving the factor analysis of 999 Israeli workers' responses to the Basic Values Survey (a shortened form of the SVS; Schwartz, 1992) and Work Value Survey (using common work values distilled by the researchers) supported their proposed framework. The authors suggested further research with SVT theory of personal values for work research (Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss).

Sagiv (2002) investigated SVT values with Holland's vocational interest typologies. Holland's typologies include (a) Realistic, (b) Investigative, (c) Artistic, (d) Social, (e) Enterprising, and (f) Conventional (see Holland, 1985, 1987 for detailed description). In the first study, the researcher assessed 97 clients in career counseling with the SVS and Holland's Self- Directed Search (SDS). The second study replicated this methodology with 545 counselees from a career counseling center (Sagiv). Twenty-two of the twenty-six predicted correlations received support, fifteen produced significant results, and three results were unexpected. Overall, five of the Holland typologies produced significant clustering with the 10 values on the Schwartz Value Survey. One surprise included the Realistic interest not possessing any significant relationship with the SVT values. The values of *security*, *conformity,* and *tradition* correlated positively with

coefficients between .12-.29, to the conventional interest. These same *conservatism* values (security, conformity, and tradition) correlated negatively with artistic and investigative interest typologies with coefficients between -.04 to -.39. *Universalism* and *self-direction* correlated positively with artistic and investigative typologies with coefficients ranging from .13 to .40. *Achievement*, *power, universalism* and *stimulation* correlated positively with enterprising interests with coefficients between .10-.39. *Power* correlated negatively with social for females (.11). *Benevolence* correlated positively with social (.31) and negatively with enterprising (-.10) interests. Finally, *hedonism* did not show significant relations but was positively associated with enterprising (.28) and negatively associated with social (-.22) interests (Sagiv). SVT appeared to have good overlap with Holland's interest typologies, yet also remained distinct.

In Knafo and Sagiv's (2004) article, the authors matched SVT values with the Holland environment types: (a) Realistic, (b) Investigative, (c) Artistic, (d) Social, (e) Enterprising, and (f) Conventional (see Holland, 1985, 1987 for detailed descriptions). The sample included 652 Israeli workers, and the minimum age limit was 35. The authors made the age range 35 and older because they believed that workers at that stage inhabited advanced career stages and that optimum occupational matches had already occurred. The findings supported the research question that SVT matched up with Holland's work environments. Artistic environments correlated positively with *achievement* (.35) and negatively with *conformity* values (-.31). Social environments correlated positively to the values of *benevolence* (.55) and *universalism* (.36) and negatively with *achievement* (-.35). The Enterprising environment correlated positively with *power* (.36) and *achievement* (.33) and negatively with *universalism* (.35).

Investigative environments correlated positively with *self-direction* (.35) and negatively

with *tradition* (-.32). Realistic environments were not hypothesized about, but,

surprisingly, they had positive correlations with values of *hedonism* (.34) and *tradition*

(.42) and correlated negatively with *self-direction* (-.33). The most significant negative

correlation occurred between the Realistic environment typology and the value of

benevolence (-.71). Overall, the findings supported the use of values in career and

vocational psychology (Knafo & Sagiv, 2004). This study proposed to continue research

using SVT in a Person-Organization framework through investigation of values and job

satisfaction in two specific work environments.

In Clercq, Fontaine, and Anseel's (2008) research, the authors examined the

Schwartz Value Theory (SVT) overall and the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS; Schwartz,

1992) as a new tool for Person-Organization fit research (P-O fit). The authors invited

experts on SVT to judge the major Person-Organization models and assessments in an

attempt to answer the two research questions: (1) Can SVT gauge work values and

organization values, and (2) Can SVT provide an overarching framework for P-O fit?

They incorporated 42 value instruments and five experts of SVT to gauge the similarity

between values to previous work values. The experts listed each item as either (1)

assigned to a SVT category, (2) not categorizable (cannot make a match), or (3) not

assigned (experts did not agree). A large portion, 92.5%, of all the constructs received the

rating of *assigned* to 1 of 10 SVT values. Seven point five percent (7.5%) of the construct

items did not receive the assigned rating since the judges disagreed. The authors

concluded that SVT may provide a "more fine-grained framework for studying values in

future P-O research" (p.297).

In sum, values research remains a broad and active field for psychology and career psychology. This section offered an extensive review of the definitions and theoretical debates in the history of values research. Schwartz and Bilsky(1990) highlighted six features of the definition of values in the literature: (1) beliefs, (2) desirable end states, (3) trans-situational guides, (4) selection and evaluation of behavior and events, (5) relative ordering of beliefs, and (6) desirable end states or behavior guides. For this proposed study, Schwartz's theory and definition of values is most relevant; values are "desirable transitional goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person" (Schwartz, 1994, p. 21).

Furthermore, a review of the major contributors to values research in Psychology included Rokeach (1973); Feather (1991, 1996); Tetlock, Petersen, and Lerner (1984, 1996); Seligman and Katz (1996); and Schwartz (1992, 1994). Then, the next section discussed research concerning work values in career psychology. The definitions and theories surrounding work value research, including the work of Super (1973), Pryor (1985) and Schwartz (1999), was reviewed. In addition, an abbreviated history of formation and categories of work value assessments provided a conceptual overview (Dose, 1997). Finally, reviewing the research related to SVT (1992, 1994) and work values provided background for this study. Using SVT to investigate values and job satisfaction through the framework of P-O fit research received support in the literature (Clercq, Fontaine, & Anseel, 2008). The next section discusses the research on job satisfaction. Even though some crossover in the research exists between the terms of values and work values and job satisfaction, it remained important to detail the history of each construct.

Job Satisfaction

The construct of job satisfaction comprises the most salient way to gauge if a worker is happy (Russell et al., 2004). Interest in job satisfaction grew stronger in the 1930s with the classic studies at the Hawthorne's Works factory (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939) and Hoppock's (1935) use of surveys and interviews in his book, *Job Satisfaction.* Today, job satisfaction undergoes research by personnel and career psychologists (Dose, 1997; Stanton et al., 2001), and researchers in management, labor markets, and organizational psychology (Adkins, Russell, & Werbel, 1994; Daehlen, 2008; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). The next section covered (a) definitions of job satisfaction, (b) the major theories of job satisfaction, and (c) job satisfaction assessments. Reviewing these theories underscore the main ways that job satisfaction influence research and the empirical findings that emerged.

Concepts in Job Satisfaction Research

Locke (1968) defined job satisfaction as "the pleasurable *emotional* states resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (p. 1304). Another, more recent definition identified job satisfaction as the overall *feeling* a worker has about their job (Russell et al., 2004). In both of these examples, the researchers considered job satisfaction as a feeling or an affect. Organ and Near's (1985) theoretical article questioned the assessments of job satisfaction and their ability to actually capture affect. The authors proposed that the most commonly used assessments captured a cognitive appraisal and not a feeling. The core of the debate surrounded whether or not researchers conceptualized job satisfaction as an affect or as a

cognition, and questioned what the job satisfaction assessments were actually reporting (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

Motowidlo (1996) highlighted the cognitive aspects of this construct and defined job satisfaction as the *judgment* about the favorability of the work environment. In other words, an individual makes a cognitive evaluation that leads to a judgment about job satisfaction. Weiss's (2002) definition, "a positive or negative *evaluative judgment* one makes about one's job or job situation" (p. 6), also underscored the cognitive appraisal an individual undergoes leading to a decision about being satisfied or not. Brief (1998) asserted a definition of job satisfaction that was incorporated for this study: "an internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree or favor or disfavor" (p. 86). This last definition struck a balance between affect and cognition, thus widening the construct to include both aspects (Brief & Weiss, 2002). In addition, Miller and Tessar's (1986) work provided support for career psychology's use of cognitive and affective assessments for measuring different aspects of the overall perceptions of work. Millar and Tessar's research found that when different affective versus cognitive questions were asked during various activities, the reports were "differentially caused and differentially linked to behavior" (Fisher, 2000, p. 3). Therefore, researchers selecting assessments should be aware of the job satisfaction construct's dual affect/cognitive nature.

Major Theories

Although early researchers correlated job satisfaction with other variables, no theoretical framework existed to provide an explanation of their findings (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). However, the field blossomed to include these major theories: (a) Two-

Factor (motivator-hygiene) Theory (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1957), (b) Job

Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldman, 1976), (c) Goal Setting Theory (Locke,

Latham, & Smith, 1990), (d) Dispositional Theory (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger,

1998), and (e) Value Congruence Theory (Edward & Cable, 2009). Herzberg's theory

(1957) focused on what intrinsic and extrinsic rewards motivated the individual to be

satisfied, whereas the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham) focused on

aspects of work that affected the perception of job satisfaction. The Goal Setting Theory

(Locke, Latham, & Smith) examined the interest and complexity of the work itself. The

next theory, the Dispositional Theory (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger) targeted the

individual's personality traits as the predictors of job satisfaction. Finally, Value

Congruence Theory (Edwards & Cable, 2009) posited the match of values to the

organization as leading to job satisfaction.

One of the earliest job satisfaction theories included Herzberg's (1957) Two-

Factor duality theory. Many researchers employ Herzberg's theory to investigate causal

relationships between one factor about the individual and one factor concerning the work

setting (Smerek & Peterson, 2007). Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory is a structural

one, where the factors of the individual and worker are seen in a one-to-one direct

relationship. *Motivation* factors for workers, categorized as intrinsic variables, included:

(a) Achievement, (b) Recognition, (c) Work itself, (d) Responsibility, (e) Advancement,

and (f) Growth. *Hygiene* factors for workers include these extrinsic variables: (a)

Company policy and administration, (b) Supervision, (c) Relationship with supervisors,

(d) Work conditions, (e) Salary, (f) Relationships with peers, (g) Personal life, (h)

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Relationship with subordinates, (i) Status, and (j) Security (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 2008).

Herzberg's duality theory suggested that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction did not comprise a single spectrum. He noted that ''the opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction but, rather, no job satisfaction; and similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no job dissatisfaction'' (Herzberg, 1987, p. 4). In other words, the *fulfillment* of motivation goals of the individual enhanced job satisfaction, and the *absence* of the hygiene variables equated to job dissatisfaction. Conversely, the fulfillment of the hygiene variable *does not equate job satisfaction*, and the absence of motivator variables *does not equate job dissatisfaction.* Therefore, job satisfaction rose in relation to the fulfillment of motivator factors (such as enjoying the work itself). Furthermore, job dissatisfaction stemmed from the absence of a different set of factors, the hygiene factors (i.e., having a bad supervisor). So, the employer must maintain and/or enhance both sets of factors to increase job satisfaction and avoid job dissatisfaction.

Herzberg's theory guided a large amount of research and underwent criticism (Smerek & Peterson, 2007). A major criticism of Herzberg's theory included not accounting for variation in job satisfaction of individuals in the same job and not considering the outside influences of the individual's overall life (Russell, 1975). For example, Super's theory and assessments integrated what significance the work role played in the individual's life, which included outside forces (Super, 1973). Even though Herzberg's theory underwent scrutiny, the empirical evidence supported the theory that increased motivation variables at work correlated to enhanced job satisfaction (Kalleberg,

1977). Herzberg's theory generated useful findings and still provides the framework for research today (Coomber & Barriball, 2007; Kalleberg, Krsek, & Altier, 2006; Shields, 2007; Smerek & Peterson, 2007). Herzberg's theory focused on the increase of satisfaction and validated the importance of measuring job satisfaction parsimoniously (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 2008). As for this proposed study, Herzberg's parsimony and subsequent strong empirical support informed the use of a simple yet complete assessment of job satisfaction to produce clear and meaningful results.

The next major theory involving job satisfaction was the Job Characteristics Model (JCM), developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1976, & 1980). The JCM asserted that individuals found complex jobs more satisfying. The authors posited five core dimensions in a job:

(1) Skill variety: What variety of skills is necessary to complete the tasks assigned?

(2) Task identity: How much is the worker a part of seeing the entire project completed?

(3) Task significance: How important is the work and does it have substantial impact on the lives of others?

(4) Autonomy: What degree of freedom does the worker have in setting their own schedule and deciding what procedures they use to execute a task?

(5) Feedback from job: Does the worker receive clear and direct feedback about the effectiveness of the work performed? (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

The core dimension scores were fed into an equation to produce the Motivating Potential Score (MPS). The equation included scores on three factors: (1) skill variety,

(2) task identity, and (3) task significance, divided by three. Then, that number was multiplied times the scores for the other two factors: (4) autonomy and (5) feedback from job, which determined the final MPS score. The MPS then calculated the probable effect the job had on motivating an individual. According to JCM, the aforementioned five core job characteristics influence three psychological states:

(1) Experienced meaningfulness: Does the worker experience the job as meaningful?

(2) Experienced responsibility for the outcomes of work: Does the worker feel personally responsible for the outcome of the work?

(3) Knowledge of the actual work activities: How much does the worker know about their result on a continual basis? (Hackman & Oldham).

In addition, the following psychological states affect work outcomes:

(1) Internal work motivation: Does the worker feel personal gratification from performing a job effectively?

(2) Growth satisfaction: Is there opportunity for personal growth and development on the job?

(3) Overall job satisfaction: What is the general sense of satisfaction of the worker?

(4) Work effectiveness: Rating given by supervisors as to how effective the employee is at work.

(5) Absenteeism: Rating given by supervisor of how often the employee is absent (Fried & Ferris, 1987).

Furthermore, the JCM theory proposed two moderators for the relationships between the *job characteristics* and *psychological states* and *work outcomes,* which included the Growth Need Strength (GNS) and Context Satisfaction (CS). The GNS included the desire the individual expressed for work to fulfill growth needs, and CS encompassed the aspects of work such as pay, supervision, job security, and coworkers (Tieg, Tetrick, & Fried, 1992).

Hackman and Oldman (1974) developed the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) to test the five core job characteristics and ascertain the presence of each in the work setting. In Fried and Ferris's (1987) meta-analysis of research using the Job Characteristics Model, the authors reported the empirical support. Of note, psychological outcomes (such as job satisfaction) could be enhanced by focusing on (a) skill variety, (b) task significance, (c) autonomy, and (d) job feedback. As well, the authors' findings suggested that job characteristics, psychological states, and work outcomes are related (Tiegs, Tetrick, & Fried, 1992). The JCM included a comprehensive theory that has been criticized for its redundancy and the use of weak subgroup analytic techniques in research, yet it remains useful in generating empirical findings (Tiegs, Tetrick, & Fried). Job satisfaction is a nebulous construct, and whereas this models' strength included providing many avenues to capture it, the weak results may be due to the same complexity (Seashore & Taber, 1975). This proposed study investigated individual facets or characteristics of the individual's current job, most similar to the JCM's Context Satisfaction, under the framework of Person-Organization fit theory.

The next major theory included Locke's Goal Setting Theory (GST), which comprised the most widely researched *job performance-job satisfaction* theory (Locke,

1968; Locke, Latham, & Smith, 1990). Locke's work began in the 1960s and evolved over 30 years through collecting and analyzing large data sets (Locke, Latham, & Smith). His team conducted over 400 experimental studies with 40,000 subjects and 88 different tasks that included research design time spans of one minute to three years (Locke, Latham, & Smith). GST focused on goal attainment and rewards in relation to satisfaction. Simply stated, if individuals received the rewards they expected, they reported satisfaction. The types of rewards are divided into the categories of (a) self-administered rewards, such as fulfillment of values, and (b) other-administered rewards, such as salary or recognition. The GST theory asserted:

> Consequences that correspond to what the individual wants or values produce satisfaction with the job; those that do not correspond to what is wanted or that negate or thwart what is wanted produce dissatisfaction. The degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction will be a joint function of the degree of fulfillment of the value and the importance of the value to the individual (p. 243).

The GST theory posited that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are intrinsically related to work outcomes. One major finding suggested that those who appraised their task completion as successful reported more satisfaction. Also, goal setting increased job performance and was beneficial for individuals, along with supportive feedback and external rewards (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981). Furthermore, the act of managers/supervisors setting concrete, challenging goals increased performance significantly over the vague approach of 'do your best' and remains one of the "most robust findings in the behavioral sciences" (Vigoda-Gadot & Angert, 2007, p.126). As

the previous models (Herzberg's Two-Factor theory, Job Characteristics Model) looked at antecedents to job satisfaction, the GST exemplified job satisfaction research that examined consequences and responses of job satisfaction (Kinicki, McKree-Ryan, Schreisheim, & Carlson, 2000).

The individual variables of interest in job satisfaction research spanned from less stable constructs (i.e., current mood) to more stable constructs (i.e., demographics and personality traits) (Seashore & Taber, 1975). One popular example of person-variable research in job satisfaction included the Dispositional Theory (Judge & Bretz, 1992), which posited that job satisfaction was affected by the personality of the individual. Mainly, individuals who ranked high for negative affect (NA) and high in Neuroticism, as gauged on the Big-Five personality test (NEO-PI; Costa & McCrea, 1992, 2008), experienced more job dissatisfaction. Dispositional theory hypothesized that the connection between negative affect and job dissatisfaction involved how those individuals interpreted and perceived stimuli in the work environment. For example, workers with high NA would be more sensitive to negative feedback. Conversely, their research suggested that individuals who have a high positive affect (PA) and rank high in Extroversion reported the most job satisfaction. The empirical findings suggested that having high PA allowed the individuals to receive positive feedback, be more outgoing, and engender friends at work. The authors found general support for the stability of temperaments, informed by the Five-Factor theory, and general support for job satisfaction being related to temperaments (.41 correlation over all studies). Three of the five personality traits were significant predictors of job satisfaction. Listed in order by the

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strength of their correlations, they are Neuroticism, Extroversion, and Conscientiousness (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002).

One complaint about dispositional theory included the lack of explanation for the relationship (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kulger, 1998). To address this issue, Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997) offered four core evaluations that served as moderating variables between personality and job satisfaction: (a) self-esteem, (b) generalized self-efficacy, (c) locus of control, and (d) non-neuroticism. The research supported low-to-moderate correlations, with correlations coefficients between .15 and .49, concerning how individuals perceived themselves in relation to the world and job satisfaction. This evidence confirmed the theory that core evaluations of self-influenced job satisfaction separately from personality traits. Unlike the other theories covered in this review, the focus of job satisfaction emanated from the individual's worldview and personality traits.

Job satisfaction theories included a wide range of foci as displayed in the next theory. Value Congruence Theory (Edwards & Cable, 2009) involved a correlational approach to job satisfaction. Basically, the authors wanted to know which variables were presenting a predictable fashion for satisfied workers. So, instead of looking at factors that led up to (antecedent) or resulted from (consequences) job satisfaction, this type of theory investigated what other factors were present/absent when job satisfaction was present/absent (Kinicki, McKree-Ryan, Schreisheim, & Carlson, 2000). Value Congruence Theory (Edwards & Cable), asserted that work values of the individual matching with the values of the organization promoted higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, thereby reducing turnover intention (Edwards & Cable). Values congruence included the similarity between values held by individuals and

organizations (Chatman, 1989; Kristof, 1996). Edwards and Cable argued that divergent research surrounding Value Congruence rendered the empirical findings less powerful. The core confusion surrounded the lack of explanation for *why* an individual having congruent values to an organization was beneficial, which Edwards and Cable set out to answer.

Edwards and Cable (2009) offered four moderating variables to help explain the positive outcomes of value congruence: (a) communication, (b) predictability, (c) attraction, and (d) trust. Communication involved an open exchange of information through formal and informal interactions (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989). Individuals possessing shared standards facilitated *communication*, which stemmed from value congruence. This allowed for workers to communicate more easily because they classified and interpreted events in a similar fashion (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). The second moderating variable, *predictability*, involved the confidence people held in their belief about how others would act and how events would unfold (Miller, 1981). Reducing feelings of uncertainty facilitated *predictability* and increased job satisfaction, which also stemmed from value congruence (Smith et al., 1994).

The authors posited that Value Congruence also contributed to *Attraction*. Edwards and Cable (2009) theorized interpersonal exchanges between coworkers became eased and facilitated when they were communicating and able to predict one another's behavior. This interchange attracted and bonded similar workers together. Furthermore, individuals rated more satisfaction at work if they perceived these friend bonds (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Finally, *Trust* turned out to be the most significant moderating variables of increased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and the intent to stay.

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In fact, the "trust effects were two to three times larger than those transmitted through[the] communication and attraction" moderators (Edwards & Cable, p. 672). The Values Congruence Theory, which posited that individuals having congruent values to an organization increased the level of job satisfaction, is a current theory focused on the relationships of shared values of individuals at work.

Overall, the job satisfaction theories reviewed displayed the different manners in which job satisfaction is researched. Herzberg's theory (1955) posited that the rewards individuals received from work impact job satisfaction. The JCM asserted that the treatment, conditions, and meaning in which the worker performed the tasks affected job satisfaction. The Goal Setting Theory, which looked at increasing job performance, stated the challenging nature of the work, and the feedback received concerning the work contained the greatest influence on job satisfaction. The Dispositional Theory stated that the personality of individuals at work and their worldview had the most influence on job satisfaction. Finally, the Values Congruence Theory asserted that the ease of interpersonal relationships, communication, and trust between workers who shared values with the organization increased job satisfaction. This study was categorized as a relational study with a Person-Organization/Person-Environment framework investigating the causal interaction of the value expressions in the individual (person), the work setting (environment/organization), and the individual perception of job satisfaction (fit). In the next section, the different categories of assessments used to gauge job satisfaction are reviewed.

Assessments

Another debate in the field of job satisfaction concerned the construction of assessments. Kalleberg (1977) described the distinction between job satisfaction assessments that gauged a single overall feeling and assessments that gauged aspects or roles of the job. In fact, assessments of job satisfaction generally fall along those two lines: global assessments and facet assessments. Scarpello and Campbell (1983) posed the question, Are global assessments the same as the total score of a facet assessment? While it is common practice to sum a facet scale, the answer is *no*; it is not the same as a global measure. However, both types of assessments were useful for organizations and researchers, but the authors argued that the sum of the facet assessments does not empirically relate to the sum of the global assessments. Therefore, it is recommended to use one of each to obtain an overall picture of job satisfaction (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983).

Global assessments of job satisfaction included tests such as Bayfield and Rothe's (1951) *Index of Job Satisfaction*, the *FACES* scale (Kunin, 1955), and the *Job in General Scale* (JIG; Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989). Popular facet assessments included the *Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire* (MSQ; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967), the *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS; Spector, 1985) and the *Job Descriptive Index* (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). The next section described each assessment and use in in job satisfaction research.

Global Assessments

Global measures comprise an effective overall gauge of satisfaction levels of employees. The *Index of Job Satisfaction* (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) had 18 items and

used a Likert-scale structure. There were five possible responses, ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The assessment items gauged (a) interest level of work, (b) motivation to work, and (c) enjoyment of work. An example item included, 'My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored' (Brayfield & Rothe). The sum scores ranged from 18-90, with a neutral response being around 54.

The *FACES* Scale (Kunin, 1955) was a global job satisfaction scale that used 11 male faces with expressions ranging from a broad smile to a deep scowl. This scale captured affect instead of cognition(Brief & Weiss, 2002). The respondent circled the faces that most exemplified how they felt about their job. Kunin (1955) claimed that this projective assessment accurately captured how respondents felt about work because they did not have to put words to their feelings. Another positive attribute of this assessment included the fact that high-verbal ability was not necessary to take the assessment (Dunham & Herman, 1975).

The Job in General Scale (JIG; Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989) included a design to assess overall satisfaction rather than facets. It was developed by the same researchers that created the JDI, and, therefore, its format is very similar. It contains 18 items that have the respondent answer (1) agree (yes), (2) disagree (no), or (3) aren't sure (?), to an adjective or short phrase. The total score was a combined sum of 18 questions, with the negatively worded items being reverse-scored. The abridged version of the JIG (aJIG; Russell, Spitzmuller, Lin, Stanton, Smith, & Ironson, 2004) retained eight items about the person's job. The respondents answer "yes," "no," or "?" to the question, "Think of your Job in General. All in all, what is it like most of the time?". The adjectives they rate (yes, no, or, ?) include: (a) good, (b) desirable, (c) better than most,

(d) disagreeable, (e) contentment, (f) excellent, (g) enjoyable, and (h) poor. Global satisfaction is slightly different than facet satisfaction because the global measure asks the person to make an overall decision about the job, even though they may not like some aspects (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

Facet Measures of Job Satisfaction

Russell et al. (2004) described that facet measures are commonly used for diagnostic purposes, allowing employers to discover areas in need of improvement. The facet job satisfactions scales covered in this section highlighted the work variables that are mostly categorized into intrinsic (e.g., meaningful work, sense of achievement) and extrinsic variables (e.g., pay, promotions, fringe benefits).

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ; Weiss, Dawis, Lofquist, & England, 1967) measured job satisfaction and contained more detail than the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS: Spector,1985) and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI;Spector, 1997). The MSQ contained 100 items with five questions for each of the 20 subscales: (a) Activity, (b) Independence, (c) Variety, (d) Social status , (e) Supervision (human relations), (f) Supervision (technical), (g) Moral values, (h) Security, (i) Social service, (j) Authority, (k) Ability utilization, (l) Company policies and practices, (m) Compensation, (n) Advancement, (o) Responsibility, (p) Creativity, (q) Working conditions, (r) Coworkers, (s) Recognition, and (t) Achievement.

The MSQ assessment included 100 items. While its specificity was appreciated by many, some critics noted the presence of repetition in the question items and overlap in the subscales (Cook et al., 1981). A shorter form was developed with 20 items, and the authors kept one question per category instead of the five per category on the long form.

Respondents indicated their level of satisfaction on a five-point Likert scale, from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied).

The next popular assessment included the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1985). The JSS assessed nine subscales of job satisfaction: (a) Pay, (b) Promotion, (c) Supervision, (d) Fringe benefits, (e) Contingent rewards, (f) Operating conditions, (g) Coworkers, (h) Nature of work, and (h) Communication. An example item stated , "I feel like I am being paid a fair amount for what I do." Respondents were instructed to circle one of six numbers that corresponded to their agreement or disagreement about each of the 36 items. A total of 10 scores were calculated, including the total summation score plus nine facet scores (Spector, 1997).

The *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Services Survey* (MBI-HSS; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) approached job satisfaction specifically for the helping professionals. In fact, the bulk of the research in the counseling professions has used this assessment to gauge feelings of job satisfaction and burnout (Farber, 1985; Gaal, 2009; Hellman, Morrison, & Abramowitz, 1987; Maslach, 2003; Raquepaw & Miller, 1989; Rupert & Morgan, 2005; Vredenberg, Carlozzi, & Stein, 1999). The MBI-HSS included three categories of theorized burnout areas: Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Depersonalization (DP), and Personal Accomplishment (PA). EE was the feeling of being overextended or exhausted by the emotional nature of one's work. DP was the lack of feeling and impersonal response to those that are in one's care. PA was the feeling that one is competent and feels a successful achievement in one's work with people (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). If the respondents rated high on the first two scales of EE and DP, they possessed higher levels of burnout. If the respondent rated the last scale of PA high, they

possessed a higher sense of personal accomplishment. The MBI-HSS consisted of 22

items with Likert-type response sets correlating with the frequency with which the

respondent experienced each statement. Responses ranged from 0 (never) to 6 (every

day).

Even though the MBI-HSS was the most popular assessment used for the helping

professions, the focus of this current study is on global and facet job satisfaction and not

burnout. Instead, the abridged versions of the next assessments covered were chosen for

this study as they are shorter yet empirically sound global and facet satisfaction scales.

The JDI (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969; Balzer et al., 1990) included the most popular

facet scale in job satisfaction (Spector, 1997), and the abridged version was used in this

study. The JDI has five subscales: (1) work, (2) pay, (3) promotion, (4) supervision, and

(5) coworkers. The respondent chooses "yes," "no," or "uncertain" to 72 evaluative

adjectives or short phrases that are descriptive of the job. A sample question asked,

"Think of the pay that you get now. How well does each of the following words or

phrases describe your present pay?". Over 100 studies used the JDI, which enhanced its

normative data (Balzer et al., 1997). The abridged version of the JDI (aJDI; Stanton,

Sinar, Balzer, & Smith, 2002) has 25 questions. The scores on the aJDI ranged from 0 to

75, with higher sums equating more satisfaction. The reliability and validity were

demonstrated in the abridged version of this popular test. The reason for the shorter

version, according to the authors, included lessening the strain for "over-assessed"

workers (Russell et al., 2004). For this study, the accompanying global assessment,

created by the same group of authors, the abridged Job In General Scale (aJIG), the facet

assessment, and the aJDI will be employed to capture the global effect and to gauge facets of satisfaction for individuals.

Work Settings: Private Practice and Agency

The counseling field includes "an emerging, evolving, and dynamic profession" (Vacc & Loesch, 2000,p. 334). Many different types of work settings exist for counselors, from colleges to religious congregations and even legal settings (Vacc & Loesch). Two of the more common settings for counselors included public agencies and private practice. In fact, working in the public or private sector is a major decision each counselor makes in his or her career path (Kottler & Brown, 2004). The focus of this study was to investigate how value priorities are interacting with job satisfaction in these two different occupational settings. The definitions, characteristics, and empirical research involving these work settings are reviewed here.

Private Practice

The definition of a private practice work setting matched many aspects of a self-employed business person's work environment (Vacc & Loesch, 2000). The counselor acts as a sole proprietor and, as such, all the finances of the practice are directly related to the business he or she conducts. A counselor establishes a small business, usually in a rented or owned office space, conducts therapy sessions, and receives payment directly from the client or through reimbursements from the client's insurance. Private practitioners can work alone in a building or share it with other helping professionals. In fact, a new model has emerged where counselors join other professionals (e.g., obstetrician and gynecologist and a physical therapist) in incorporated groups or expense-sharing groups (Weikel & Palmo, 1996).

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The characteristics of the job of a private practitioner include being self-employed and networking and marketing to gain and maintain referral sources. A sizeable portion of private practitioners' time is spent going to organizational meetings and connecting with the community in a variety of ways to market their services. Research by Rupert and Morgan (2006) found another difference for private practitioners included offering services to less severely disturbed patients with fewer troublesome behaviors than the clients of agency workers. Private practitioners often engage in consulting work, thereby collaborating with professionals in the community. Furthermore, private practitioners partner with other professionals, such as attorneys and accountants, to maintain their business. Individuals choosing private practice need to gain business savvy outside of their program of education, maintain personal wellness and health professional boundaries, and must possess the patience to build a successful practice (Weikel & Palmo, 1996).

The majority of research concerning the work setting of private practice included surveys with pPsychologists. Overall, Psychologists faired better emotionally, financially, and in feelings of accomplishment in private practice settings over their agency counterparts (Farber, 1985; Hellman, Morrison, & Abramowitz, 1987; Raquepaw & Miller, 1989; Rupert & Morgan, 2005; Vredenburgh, Carlozzi, & Stein, 1999). Research with Marriage and Family therapists (Rosenberg & Pace, 2006) and Professional Counselors (Gaal, 2009) echoes these findings.

Rupert and Morgan (2005) surveyed 571 doctoral psychologists and found that private practitioners reported a significantly higher sense of personal accomplishment as measured on the *Maslach Burnout Inventory -Human Services Survey* (MBI-HSS;

Maslach & Jackson, 1981) than agency psychologists. In one study, a gender difference appeared in the results of the MBI-HSS: men felt more emotional exhaustion in solo practice than women, whereas women experienced more emotional exhaustion in the agency setting than men (Rupert & Morgan, 2005). Overall, the factors that led to higher ratings of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization included lack of control over work activities, seeing more managed care clients, seeing clients with more negative behaviors (listed as suicidal/homicidal gestures), and spending more time in administrative behaviors (Rupert & Morgan). All of these factors presented more in the agency setting. One factor that increased private practitioners' feelings of emotional exhaustion was *overinvolvement*, which included thinking about clients after work.

Raquepaw and Miller (1989) randomly surveyed 68 psychotherapists in Texas and found those in private practice reported less overall burnout on the MBI-HSS (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) than psychotherapists in the agency setting. Farber's (1985) qualitative research involved interviews with 60 therapists and identified that those in the agency setting with a bureaucratic style of management were significantly more likely to be candidates for burnout than solo practitioners (Farber). In addition, Rosenburg and Pace (2006) surveyed 116 members of the American Association for Marriage and Family Therapy, including practitioners in private practice settings. They reported private practitioners rated significantly higher scores in feeling personal accomplishment and significantly lower scores in emotional exhaustion than agency workers (Rosenburg & Pace, 2006).

Gaal's (2009) recent research investigated mental health counselors in private practice and agency settings and also found support for private practitioners reporting less

burnout. Gaal (2009) surveyed 98 volunteer counselors in the Colorado Springs area

using the MBI-HSS (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Gaal's research findings supported the

previous findings with psychologists and marriage and family therapists. The evidence

suggested that counseling in a private practice work setting caused less emotional

exhaustion and depersonalization of clients and a higher sense of accomplishment than

counselors in an agency setting. However, private practitioners did face some issues,

which included feeling lonely and isolated (Rosenberg & Pace, 2006) and facing the

financial strain of the business (Hellman & Morrison, & Abramowitz, 1987). However,

private practitioners rate less burnout overall. Fortener's (2000) research with 208

licensed professional counselors and psychologists found that the "therapist's work

setting was the biggest contributor to burnout" (p. iii). Although these studies examined

burnout, no study appeared to consider the role values play in job-related dissatisfaction,

burnout, and states of satisfaction.

<center>Agency Settings</center>

Since the 1980s, an increasing number of professional counselors have started

working in public mental health agencies. These settings include the following: (a)

Community mental health centers, (b) Abused or victimized person facilities, (c)

Geriatric centers, (d) Substance abuse programs (both residential and outpatient

facilities), (e) Crisis and hotline centers, (f) Half-way houses, (g) Runaway shelters, (h)

Vocational rehabilitation centers, (i) Nursing homes, (j) Residential facilities for the

elderly, and (k) Shelters for the homeless (Vacc & Loesch, 2000). The similar

characteristics of these varying agencies were described and the relevant research in these

settings was reviewed here.

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Defining the agency setting presented a challenge (Vacc & Loesch, 2000).

Counselors have worked in crisis centers, hospice palliative care facilities, residential

adolescent facilities, drug detoxification centers, foster homes, and many other settings. It

is important to find a definition that highlighted the similarities of agencies (Rohan,

2000). One similarity included that most, if not all, agencies are non-profit, so the

definition of a non-profit was used to tie all the various kinds of agencies into one

category. Salamon and Anheimer (1992) asserted that classifying non-profits presented a

challenge for research and was "absolutely essential for serious analysis, and even casual

description" (p. 2). Their definition of a non-profit stated that the company had to include

a non-profit distribution of surplus monies and be voluntary in some major way. In health

care, social services, and rehabilitative services, the non-profit agencies provided services

for consumers who suffered from financial, personal, societal, or community

disadvantages,\ in an effort to increase social capital and the overall functioning of a

democratic society (Morris, 2000).

 Non-profit agencies include a central administration and a referred clientele. The

types of clients and services provided may differ greatly, but, most often, there is day-to-

day contact with coworkers, supervisors, and other professional counselors in the

building (Vacc & Loesch, 2000). Also, instead of spending time marketing for clients, the

agency counselor spends their time in "crisis-emergency care, consultation, after-care,

inter-agency collaboration, training, supervision, and staff conferences" (Weikel &

Palmo, 1996, p. 185).

In a similar fashion to private practice, a majority of the research concerning the

agency work setting involved job satisfaction, burnout, and intention to leave (Ackerly,

Burnell, Holder, & Kurdek, 1998; Bakker & Van Der Zee, 2006; Burke, Oberklaid, & Burgess, 2003; Garner, Knight, & Simpson, 2007; Knudsen, Ducharme, & Roman, 2006; Munn, Barber & Fritz, 1996; Rupert & Morgan, 2005). Psychologists, drug counselors, rehabilitation counselors, public child welfare workers, and social workers in agency settings participated in research investigating job satisfaction variables such as Herzberg's extrinsic factors, work/life balance values, organizational commitment of the worker, and job characteristics (such as remunerations, caseloads, peer support, and supervision).

Knudsen, Ducharme, and Roman (2006) investigated counselor exhaustion and turnover in 253 therapeutic communities (TCs). These authors investigated the effect of the agency's decision-making and procedural justice on job satisfaction. Highly centralized decision-making involved the people at the head of the company making most decisions and allowing little space for workers to make decisions about their day-to-day activities or make an impact on company policy (Childs, 1973). Procedural and distributive justice involved the employees' perceptions of how pay raises, salaries, promotions, and issues and conflicts are handled (Greenberg, 1990). Significant findings indicated that the TCs with highly centralized decision-making correlated with counselors reporting greater levels of emotional exhaustion. Conversely, the counselors at TCs with high ratings in distributive and procedural justice rated less turnover intention (Knudsen, Ducharme, & Roman).

In another study concerning agency settings, Garner, Knight, and Simpson (2007) investigated predictors of burnout and intention to leave in relation to five factors in the Organizational Climate Scale (OCS; Lehman, Greener, & Simpson, 2002). One hundred

fifty-one drug treatment workers in the Southwest rated their agency settings on the OCS, which included six areas of organizational climate: (1) clarity of mission, (2) staff cohesiveness, (3) staff autonomy, (4) openness of communication, (5) stress, and (6) openness to change. Workers rating the most burnout were young in age, possessed lower adaptability, rated that the agency held a poor clarity of mission, and reported higher stress (Garner, Knight, & Simpson).

In the areas of organizational climate research, a positive finding by Burke, Oberklaid, and Burgess (2003) included organizations with high perceived support of a work-life balance for psychologists in Australia. The psychologists reported greater family satisfaction, fewer psychosomatic symptoms, and more positive emotional well-being than for organizations without this perception. Furthermore, the organizations possessing this family-friendly climate did not lose work time from employees in comparison to other agencies. Perception of the organizations' prestige produced a positive effect on job satisfaction. In one study, 649 social workers in Israeli non-profit organizations reported less intent to leave and less incidents of feelings of burnout if they perceived that their organization was held in high prestige by others (Carmelli, & Freund, 2009).

Andrew, Faubion, and Palmer's (2002) research collected data from 315 state rehabilitation agency counselors in 16 states to investigate job satisfaction using Herzberg's extrinsic job factors. Their findings supported that the workers rated satisfied on six extrinsic factors: (a) location, (b) safety, (c) health environment, (d) facility space, (e) comfort, and (f) professional nature. However, a surprise finding included women ranking certain factors more important than men, including (a) healthy environment, (b)

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safety during travel, and (c) cleanliness of the facility. A second study by these same researchers suggested that counselors were more satisfied in rural settings on all six factors than urban counselors (Faubion, Palmer & Andrew, 2001).

Common factors in agency settings that contributed overall to burnout included low pay, lack of social support, and high stress (Duraisingham, Pidd, & Roche, 2009). Furthermore, poor supervision, low peer cohesion, and role confusion also increased burnout (Munn, Barber, & Fritz, 1996). For the psychologists researched in relation to agency settings, low income, lack of control, and over-commitment led to job dissatisfaction (Ackerly, Burnell, Holder, & Kurdek, 1998). In addition, high work hours, administrative tasks, and providing services to managed care clients were indicators of higher stress and turnover intention (Rupert & Morgan, 2005).

As for research on personality factors of therapists, one hospice setting was investigated using the Dispositional Theory (Judge & Bretz, 1992) of job satisfaction. The authors predicted that counselors high in Neuroticism on the Big-Five personality factors (A.A.J. Hendricks, 1997) would experience more emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Bakker & Van der Zee, 2006). The research findings confirmed this theory. From the field of social work, researchers have noted that some therapist qualities leading to burnout in agencies included (a) over-involvement with clients, (b) high idealism, and (c) internalizing success or failure, or "taking it personally"(Walsh,1987), if they cannot change the system or do not see therapeutic change (Farber, 1985). All in all, studies have included physical settings, organizational climate job characteristics, and personalities of workers in agency settings. In the next section, the literature review was summarized and the gaps in research are highlighted.

Summary

The review of the literature included examining the definitions and major theories under the umbrella of values research in psychology. The definition of values chosen for this proposed study included conceptualizing values as (a) beliefs, (b) desirable end states, (c) trans-situational guides, (d) selection and evaluation of behavior and events, and (e) the relative ordering of beliefs, desirable end states, or behavior guides (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990). The major theories and contributions of Rokeach (1973); Tetlock, Petersen, and Lerner (1984, 1996); Feather (1991, 1996); Seligman and Katz (1996); and Schwartz (1992, 1994) were reviewed.

Values and work values have previously included two separate streams of research. Therefore, a section on work values was covered along with personal values. A discussion questioning the difference of work values from overall values followed. For this proposed study, the conclusion offered by Ros, Schwartz, and Surkiss was highlighted; it stated that values or work values serve as "guiding principles for evaluating work outcomes and settings and for choosing among different work alternatives" (Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999, p.54).

Next, a theoretical framework for categorizing values and work values was offered (Dose, 1997). Out of the four quadrants listed for work values and values research—(1) moral (2) preference, (3) personal, and (4) social consensus—the personal values quadrant was where most of the reviewed literature was located. Thus, Dose's framework offered a bridge between values and work values research for this proposed study.

Job satisfaction theories and assessments were discussed. A few debates in the literature have surrounded whether job satisfaction is an affect or cognition. Weiss's (2002) definition, "an internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree or favor or disfavor" (p. 86), was chosen for this proposed study as it includes both affect and cognition. Then, the job satisfaction theories of Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivator-Hygiene theory (1955); Hackman and Oldman's Job Characteristics Model (1980); Locke, Latham, and Smith's Goal Setting Theory (1990); Judge's Dispositional Theory (1992); and Edwards & Cable's Value Congruence Theory (2009) were discussed. Then, the most popular global and facet job satisfaction questionnaires were reviewed. One of each (global and facet measure) was chosen for this proposed study to capture the construct in more depth.

The next section of the literature review defined and covered the empirical research involving the work settings of agency and private practice. There is a dearth of research concerning the values of professional or mental health counselors in private practice and only a handful of studies concerning counselors in agency settings. Therefore, research on work settings and job satisfaction with psychologists, social workers, and rehabilitation counselors was included along with research on professional or mental health counselors. Overall helping professionals rank higher job satisfaction in private practice settings then counselors in the agency setting.

Agency settings were defined and the research concerning the work setting's impact on helping professionals was reviewed. The research included studies involving drug counselors, social workers, and rehabilitation counselors. Overall, the research suggested that burnout is impacting the profession as a whole (Knudsen, Ducharme, &

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Roman, 2006). A multitude of factors have been identified that increase burnout in agency research: (a) lack of control, (b) heavy administrative work, (c) managed care clientele, (d) low pay, (e) lack of support, (f) high stress, (g) lack of clarity in mission, (h) bad supervision, and (i) low social support (Duraisingham, Pidd, & Roche, 2009; Garner, Knight, & Simpson, 2007; Munn, Barber, & Fritz, 1996). Positive findings included organizations valuing work-life balance, therapeutic communities holding high ratings in prestige, and distributive and procedural justice in agency administrations. All led to higher scores in job satisfaction. The personality predictors of burnout in agency setting included high levels of Neuroticism on the Five-Factor personality test, high ideals, internalizing systemic or client failure, and becoming overly involved with clients (Farber, 1985; Walsh, 1987).

Finally, a major gap identified in this literature was examining how values interact with job satisfaction for counselors. The work settings of counselors are so varied, and there are substantial issues with job satisfaction in the counseling profession; yet, there is very little empirical career research that could assist graduating counselors. The agency and private practice settings differed greatly in day-to-day activities and job characteristics. This research could provide counselor educators with indicators of a good-fit for these two settings. Investigating the relationship between those who are satisfied in each setting and their value priorities offers counselor educators a picture of which individuals might be best suited in what location. The methodology of this study will be covered in the next section.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Counselors need to obtain an advanced degree to prepare them for work as

helping professionals in the community. However, upon graduation, they receive little

career guidance surrounding the differences among work locations and how to choose

wisely (King, 2007). New counselors generally express uncertainty about their

counseling skills and lack of experience and experience self-doubt in their abilities to

deliver effective services as they enter the field (Skovholtz & Ronnestad, 2003). In

addition to counselors feeling uncertain, the lack of awareness and knowledge of the best

work setting compounds the issue of potential burnout and also adds to the sense of

uncertainty (King, 2007). The counseling field presents many obstacles to successful

employment, such as compassion fatigue, burnout, and turnover (Lawson, 2007). The

literature on burnout and turnover in counseling is extensive, and the factors that

exacerbate the issues are well-documented (Knudsen, Ducharme, & Roman, 2006; Lloyd,

King, & Chenowith, 2002; Maslach, 1982, 1986, 1990; Young & Lambie, 2007). Large

caseloads, poor supervision, lack of social support, low remuneration, heavy paperwork,

having little control over services, and the negative influences of managed care all

correlate with burnout and turnover (Ackerly, Burnell, Holder, & Kurdek, 1998; Gaal,

2009). Whereas burnout factors are known, limited research exists on counselors' value

priorities and satisfaction in various work settings. Studying counselors and investigating

the relationship between their levels of satisfaction and value priorities offers guideposts

for counselor educators to mentor future graduates during the transition from school to work.

In his or her career, each counselor must make a decision regarding work in the public or private sector (Kottler & Brown, 2004). Each setting presents different day-to-day activities, even though both types of settings focus on helping individuals (Gerig, 2007). Using Parson's (1909) theoretical framework, or the 'goodness of fit' model, this proposed study investigated the relationships and differences between counselors in private practice and agency settings. The counselors' value priorities and level of job satisfaction were assessed through the Schwartz Values Survey (SVS; Schwartz, 1992), the abridged versions of the Job Descriptive Index (aJDI; Stanton et al., 2002), and the Job in General Scale (aJIG; Russell et al., 2004). Relationships between the satisfaction levels of counselors and work settings were analyzed to answer the research questions. Potential contributions of this study included counselor educators having empirical data on 'goodness of fit' indicators to assist in steering students in a productive direction upon graduating. This chapter reviewed the research questions and design, the sample and sampling procedures, the data collection and analysis, and the ethical considerations.

Research Questions

This study aimed to investigate values and job satisfaction of professional counselors in private practice and agency settings. To achieve this goal, this researcher identified three research questions and six null hypotheses that warranted investigation. Analyzing the hypotheses and answering the following research questions may illuminate any relationships or differences that might exist between job satisfaction and values for counselors in two disparate work settings.

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The first research question investigated the differences in job satisfaction of counselors in two occupational settings: private practice and agency. The answer to this question provided the current experience of job satisfaction in the two different settings in Florida. This study examined the null hypothesis that (1) No difference existed in job satisfaction, as measured by the aJDI (Stanton et al. 2001) and the aJIG (Russell et al., 2004), between counselors in private practice and agency settings.

The second research question asked if differences existed in the values of (a) *self-transcendence* and (b) *self-enhancement* between counselors in private practice and counselors in agencies. Answering this question offered vital information concerning what type of counselor does best in each setting and which counselors are dissatisfied. To answer this question, the study examined the null hypothesis: (1) No differences existed between *self-enhancement* and *self-transcendence*, as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), for counselors in private practice and in agency settings.

The third research question examined if different relationships existed among the value priorities, job satisfaction, and occupational settings. Answers to this question provided information about where counselors rate on these opposing values sets and if they differ for to the two occupational settings. The four hypotheses investigated to answer this research question were: (a) No relationships existed among the values priority variables of *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement,* as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), and job satisfaction, as measured by the aJDI (Stanton et al., 2002), for counselors in private practice; (b) No relationships existed among the values priority labels of *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement,* as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), and job satisfaction, as measured by the aJDI (Stanton et al., 2002), for counselors

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in agencies; (c) No relationships existed among the values priority variables of *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement,* as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), and job satisfaction, as measured by the aJIG (Russell et al., 2004), for counselors in private practice; and (d) No relationships existed among *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement,* as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), and job satisfaction, as measured by the aJIG (Russell et al., 2004), for counselors in agencies.

Research Design

This study consisted of correlational research, in which the investigator examined phenomena in a natural setting and described relationships therein (Groves et al., 2009). Furthermore, this study was categorized as quantitative, employing a descriptive correlational survey and assessment research design. Therefore, the sample population completed two assessments and one questionnaire, and the data was analyzed using univariate and multivariate procedures with interval and categorical data. The researcher employed a purposive sampling procedure to assess a sample that represents professional counselors in Central Florida. The present study utilized Bryman's (2001) 11-step process to executing quantitative research: (a) theory; (b) hypothesis development; (c) establishing research design; (d) devise measures of concepts; (e) select research sites; (f) select research subjects and respondents; (g) administer instruments, surveys/collect data; (h) process data; (i) analyze data; (j) findings conclusions; and (k) write up findings and conclusions (p.63).

The research design most appropriate to answer the research questions included descriptive correlational because it would be difficult to design a true experimental design where one could control variables such as value priorities, job satisfaction, or

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work setting. This study investigated and described the phenomena in its natural setting. Furthermore, empirically valid assessments include the best method to gauge true differences and relationships of well-defined constructs, such as job satisfaction and value priorities. Questionnaires, whereas not empirically tested, are a commonly used way to ask specific and unique questions pertaining to the research questions. One hundred and thirty six professional counselors in Florida completed a questionnaire and two assessments, and then the data was analyzed. The sample selection was discussed in the next section.

Population and Sample

The target population included professional counselors in Florida employed in public agencies or in a private practice setting. Professional counselors who identified their primary employment as agency or private practice and committed a minimum of 30 hours per workweek in efforts towards the agency or private practice were sampled. The counselors that volunteered to participate lived around Central Florida. This area represented a wide variety of agencies and private practice settings in Central Florida.

The appropriate sample size was determined using Cohen's (1989, 1992) power of sample size theory and equations. Cohen (1992) argues that researchers should look at the power of a sample size to make sure they have enough in their sample to calculate truly an effect versus error. Confidence intervals, sampling error, variability, and total sample size can be used to calculate a sample size (Cohen, 1988). An a priori analysis using Gpower.exe (http://www.psycho.uni-duesseldorf.de/aap/projects/gpower/) estimated that 176 subjects would produce a large effects size at a .9, with a sampling error (alpha/beta) set at $\pm.05$, a confidence level of 95% that the answer is not error, and

the significance level set at $p = .5$. Using a post hoc power analysis, under the presupposition that this study received 100 responses in each of the independent variables with a 95% confidence interval and a two- tailed t-test, the power would reach (.9), also a large effects size. Eighty-eight participants would be required to fill each category of the independent variable: private practitioner and agency worker. The final sample included 135, with 72 agency workers and 63 private practitioners. The sample contained fewer participants than the predicted ideal amount, yet contained a large enough sample to run multivariate procedures and find a moderate to high effects size. The sample demographics and instrumentation used to answer the research questions are discussed in the next sections.

<center>Sample Demographics</center>

The mean age reported for the 136 participants was ($M = 45.19$, $SD = 12.70$), with the range from 24 to 74 years of age. One hundred and six (79.9%) were female, and the remaining 28 (20.6%) were male. Two (1.5%) had missing data for gender. One hundred and thirteen participants identified themselves as Caucasian (83.1%), 11 as Hispanic (8.1%), 6 as African-American (4.4%), 4 as Asian (2.9%), and 2 (1.5%) had missing data for ethnicity. Table 1 presented the participant demographic information delineated by the two work locations, private practice and agency.

Table 1: Personal Demographics of Participants

	Private Practice	Agency	All participants
Gender	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Female	52 (38.2)	54 (39.7)	106 (79.9)
Male	10 (7.4)	18 (13.2)	28 (20.6)
Missing Data			2 (1.5)
Ethnicity	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Caucasian	56 (41.2)	57 (41.9)	113 (83.1)
Hispanic	4 (2.9)	7 (5.1)	11(8.1)
African American	1 (.1)	5 (3.7)	6 (4.4)
Asian	1 (.1)	3 (2.2)	4 (2.9)
Missing Data			2 (1.5)

Registered Mental Health Interns' (RMHCI) clinical experience included the lowest mean of 21.5 months (under two years of experience), with a standard deviation of 27.2 months. RMHCIs' experience ranged from 1 to 120 months. Furthermore, nine reported working in private practice (6.6%) and 26 in agency (19.1%). Registered

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Marriage and Family Therapist Interns' (RMFTI) experiences included a mean of 50.0 months (over 4 years) with a standard deviation of 66 months. RMFTIs' clinical experience ranged from 2 to 144 months. Three (2.2%) reported working in private practice and one (.7%) in an agency. Licensed Mental Health Counselors' (LMHC) experience included a mean of 116.48 months (over 9 years) with a standard deviation of 85.27 months. The range of the years of experience for the LMHCs spanned from 5 to 468 months. Forty-four (32.4%) reported working in private practice and 41 (30.1%) in agency. Licensed Marriage and Family Therapists' (LMFT) experience included the highest mean of 134.8 months of experience (over 11 years), a standard deviation of 119.65 months, and a range of 6 to 324 months of experience. Six (4.4%) reported working in private practice and four (2.9%)in agency. There was only one case in each of the categories for Nationally Certified Counselor (NCC), with 24 months experience in an agency, and the Licensed Professional Counselor (LPC), with 168 months of experience in private practice. The years of experience, work location, and the licenses held by each participant are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Professional Demographics for Participants

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	Licenses					
	RMHI	RMFT	LMHC	LMFT	NCC	LPC
M	21.5	50	116.5	134.8	48	168
SD	27.2	66	85.3	119.7	- -	--
Range	1 – 120	2 – 144	5- 468	6 – 324	- -	--
Work Location N(%)						
Private Practice 9 (6.6)	3 (2.2)	44 (32.4)	6 (4.4)	0 (0)	1 (.7)	
Agency	26 (19.1)	1 (.7)	41(30.1)	4 (2.9)	1 (.7)	0 (0)
Total *N*	35 (25.7)	4 (2.9)	85 (62.5)	10 (7.4)	1 (.7)	1 (.7)

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Instrumentation

Counselor History Questionnaire (CHQ)

This study used the Counselor History Questionnaire (CHQ), developed by this
researcher, to obtain respondents' demographic information. The CHQ gathered
information on the (a) participants' demographics (e.g., age, marital status, and ethnicity),
(b) academic degrees and counseling jobs held until present, and (c) questions about
career mentoring upon graduation. The demographics' placement at the end of the survey
was to increase response rate, as research has shown people are more willing to answer

personal information after filling out less personal questions (Dillman, 2006). Three

counselor educators that are professionals in the field placement and survey research

experts helped streamline the questions. Furthermore, ten doctoral students reviewed the

questionnaire to enhance reliability through addressing any major issues present in the

layout, wording, or relevance.

Schwartz Values Survey (SVS)

The SVS (Schwartz, 1992) contained 57 items categorized into ten values: (a)

power, (b) achievement, (c) hedonism, (d) stimulation, (e) self- direction, (f)

universalism, (g) benevolence, (h) tradition, (i) conformity, and (j) security. Respondents

rated the importance of each value item "as a guiding principle in my life" on a 9-point

Likert-type scale (SVS; Schwartz, 1992, p.1). Specifically, the answers were labeled 7 (of

supreme importance), 6 (very important), 5 (unlabeled), 4 (unlabeled), 3 (important), 2

(unlabeled), 1 (unlabeled), 0 (not important), and -1 (opposed to my values) (Schwartz,

2006). Sample items included "Equality (equal opportunity for all)" as one of the

universalism items and "Pleasure (gratification of desires)" as one of the *hedonism* items

(Schwartz, 2006). Schwartz Value Theory stated that if someone rated certain values higher

than other values, then it was the respondent's value priority. Furthermore, value priorities

conflicted with one another. Two orthogonal sets of conflicting "higher order" values

exist in the assessment: *self-enhancement*, which included the values of *power* and

achievement, versus *self-transcendence*, which included the values of *benevolence* and

universalism. According to Schwartz's Value Theory (1994), these two value priorities

excluded one another. Actions towards helping others (i.e., *benevolence* and

universalism) naturally precluded helping oneself (i.e. *power* and *achievement*). The next

set of conflicting value sets included *openness to change*, which is composed of *stimulation, self-direction,* and *hedonism* values; and *conservatism*, which included the values of *tradition, conformity,* and *security*. If people value conservatism, they, in turn, do not desire openness to change (Schwartz, 1992). This study analyzed only the conflicting value sets of *self-enhancement* and *self-transcendence* were analyzed.
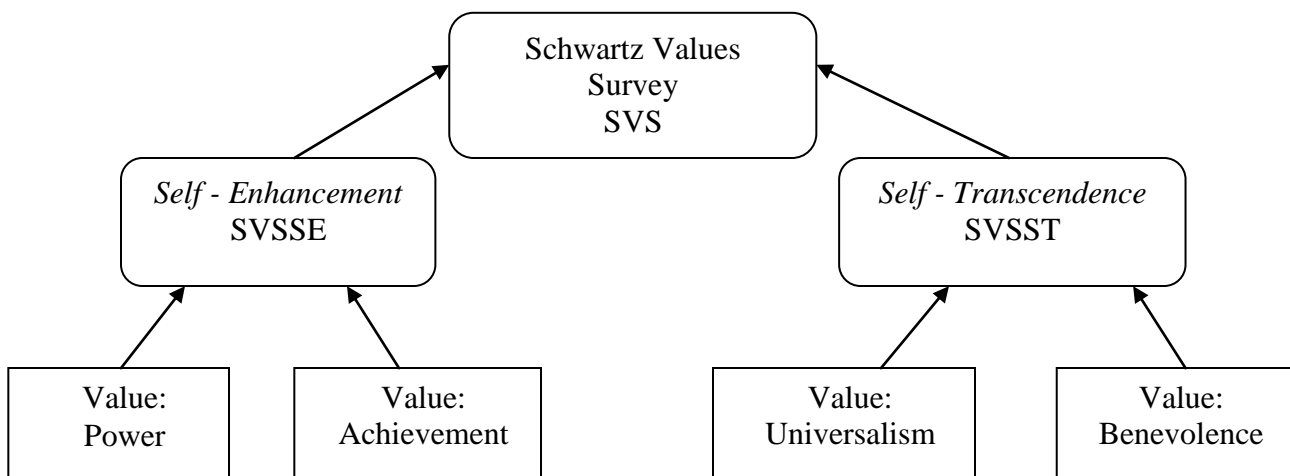
Figure 2: Values included in Self-Transcendence and Self-Enhancement (Schwartz, 1992, 1994)

The SVS had been translated into 47 languages (Burgess, Schwartz & Blackwell, 1994; Schwartz & Sagie, 2000; Spini, 2003; Stern, Dietz & Guagnano, 1998; Struch, Schwartz, & Van der Klot, 2002). Schwartz (2006) reported that the SVS data were gathered between 1988 and 2002 from 233 samples in 68 countries located on every inhabited continent (total N= 64,271). The samples included highly diverse geographic, cultural, linguistic, religious, age, gender, and occupational groups. The number of

samples included those that represented a nation or a region in it (16), grade K-12 school teachers (74), undergraduate students from a variety of fields (111), adolescents (10), and adult convenience samples (22).

Furthermore, studies that have used the SVS (Schwartz, 1992) provided significant findings in the realm of career research. Ros, Schwartz, and Surkiss (1999) found the SVS correlated to work values already represented in the research. Their research suggested an overall good match between work values and Schwartz's values, and the exceptions were placed in a new category called *Prestige*. *Prestige* could capture the *self-enhancement* type values previously unrepresented in work values assessments. Prior to the new category of *prestige*, the exceptions (or unmatched categories) fell under the basic concept of extrinsic values. Furthermore, two studies were conducted matching SVS to Holland's typology. Sagiv (2002) and Knafo and Sagiv (2004) found a good match between the SVS and the interests and environments of Holland's theory. There was one exception: the *Realistic* interest did not seem to have a direct comparison in the Schwartz Value Theory (SVT) (Sagiv).

Schwartz reported that across 212 different nationally representative samples of teachers and students at universities, the alpha reliabilities of the 10 values averaged .68, ranging from .61 for tradition to .75 for universalism (Schwartz, 2006). The lower coefficient related to the value of *tradition*, and Schwartz stated was due to the low numbers of questions (three) that make up that domain. Cross-cultural validation of this instrument is strong. In this study sample, the Schwartz Value Survey reliability coefficients included .58 for benevolence, .81 for universalism, 65 for power, and .69 for

achievement with an average of (*M*=. 68). These results are similar to Schwartz (2006), at a .68 average of all ten values.

More studies have employed the SVS for career research. Ralston, Holt, Terpstra, and Kai-Cheng (2008) recently studied the values of managers in different countries (USA, Russia, Japan, and China) to link national culture and economic ideologies to work value priorities. Lastly, Clercq, Fontaine, and Anseel's (2008) study attempted to answer two questions: (1) Can the SVT be used to gauge work values and organizational values? and (2) Can SVT be used as an overarching framework for Person-Organization (P-O) fit? Overall, the authors felt the answer was *yes* and that SVT could offer a "more fine-grained framework for studying values in future P-O research" (Clercq, Fontaine, and Anseel, 2008, p. 297).

All two variables of self-enhancement and self- transcendence that were used in the final analysis were transformed as suggested by the assessments' authors. The overall Schwartz Value Survey was a 57-item scale. Schwartz suggested using the MRAT (mean rating) score derived from adding all the values together for each participant and then dividing that score by 57. This procedure accounted for rater bias through producing a 'centered' score. At this point, the researcher added all the 'centered' scores into the ten constructs suggested by the author. The constructs used in this study included power, achievement, universalism and benevolence. The constructs were totaled to get each value of *self-enhancement* (power and achievement) and *self-transcendence* (universalism and benevolence). Figure 4 contains a visual showing how the variables were formed from the survey responses.
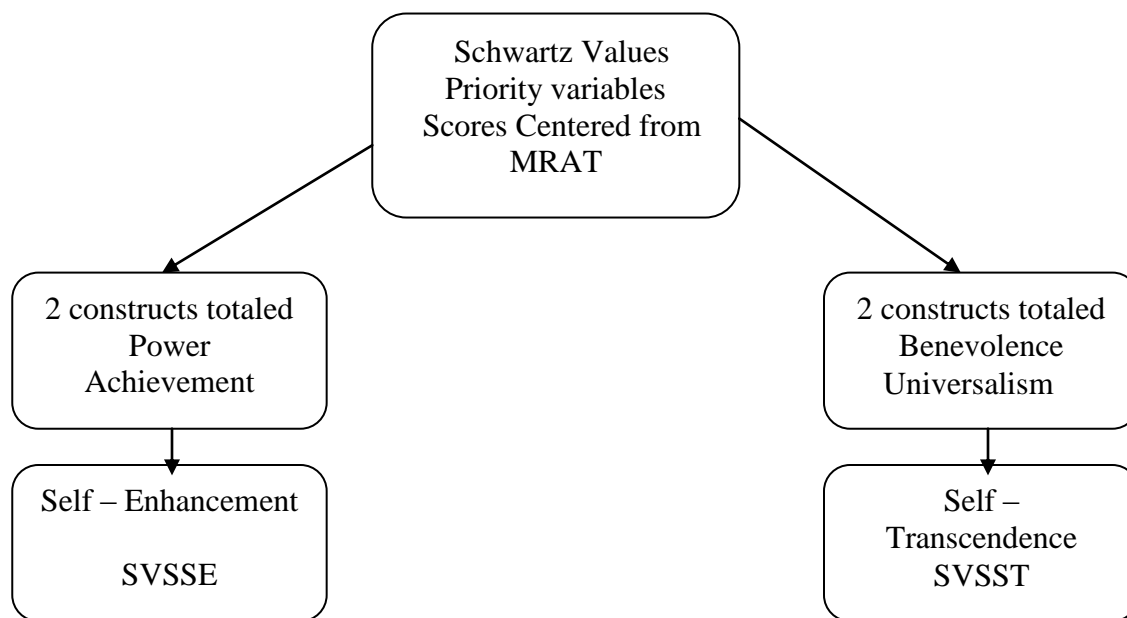
Figure 3- Schwartz Value Survey- Value Priority Formation

The Abridged Job Descriptive Index and Job in General Scales

Developed in 1997, the original version of the JDI (Balzer et al., 1997) was the

most-often used assessment in job satisfaction research (Armstrong, Hawley, Lewis,

Blankenship, & Pugsley, 2008). The two subscales included: the JDI that assessed facets

of job satisfaction, and the JIG, that assessed overall job satisfaction. Participants

responded either "yes" or "no" or "doesn't apply/ I am not sure" to questions concerning

job satisfaction, and summed scores ranged from 0-54. The sum scores on the JDI are not

meant to replace the JIG as they measure different constructs of job satisfaction (Mental

Measurements Yearbook, 2009). The 18 item JDI facet measured five areas of

satisfaction; (a) work on present job, (b) present pay, (c) opportunities for promotion, (d)

supervision, and (e) people on your present job. The JIG scale includes18 items and asks

questions concerning the overall assessment of job satisfaction. The higher the

respondent's score on the assessment indicated a higher their level of job satisfaction.

The JDI assessment as a whole has .70-.90 reliability on the five subscales (Armstrong et

al., 2008). The JIG scale has evidenced high reliability separately as well (.91). The JDI

and the JIG as conjoint assessment tools are used widely to measure job satisfaction, and

they have considerable empirical evidence supporting their psychometric properties

(Mental Measurements Yearbook, 2009).

Created in 2001, the abridged version of the JDI, the aJDI, had 25 items retaining

the five areas of satisfaction; a) work on present job, (b) present pay, (c) opportunities for

promotion, (d) supervision, and (e) people on your present job, and was successfully

validated to the JDI (Stanton et al., 2002). Russell et al. (2004) employed the scale

reduction technique develop by Stanton, Sinar, Balzer, and Smith (2001) to reduce the 18

questions on the JIG to an eight-item test to and to save time while maintaining

reliability. The three validation studies produced high internal reliability consistency of

.85.

A few studies have used the aJDI and the aJIG in job satisfaction research and the helping professions. Recently, Billings, Kimball, Shumway, and Korinek (2007) used the aJDI with marriage and family therapists. In addition, rural social workers were tested using the aJDI in Mississippi (Boston, 2009). As a relatively new assessment, the aJIG has already been used to gauge job satisfaction with volunteers in helping professions (Crossley, Bennett, Jex & Burnfield, 2007), in job search methods and satisfaction (Crossley & Highhouse, 2005), and in personnel psychology (Madlock, 2008).

```
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │  The abridged Job in General  │
                    │   Scale and abridged Job      │
                    │     Descriptive Index         │
                    │          Measure              │
                    └─────────────────────────┘
        ┌──────────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────┐
        │  Abridged Job Descriptive  │        │  Abridged Job in General  │
        │      Index (aJDI)          │        │        (aJIG)             │
        └──────────────────────┘        └──────────────────────┘
        ┌──────────────────────┐
        │ Five Subscales (each 5 items) │
        │  1. Work                      │
        │  2. Income                    │
        │  3. Opportunities for         │
        │     Promotion                 │
        │  4. Supervision               │
        │  5. People                    │
        └──────────────────────┘
```
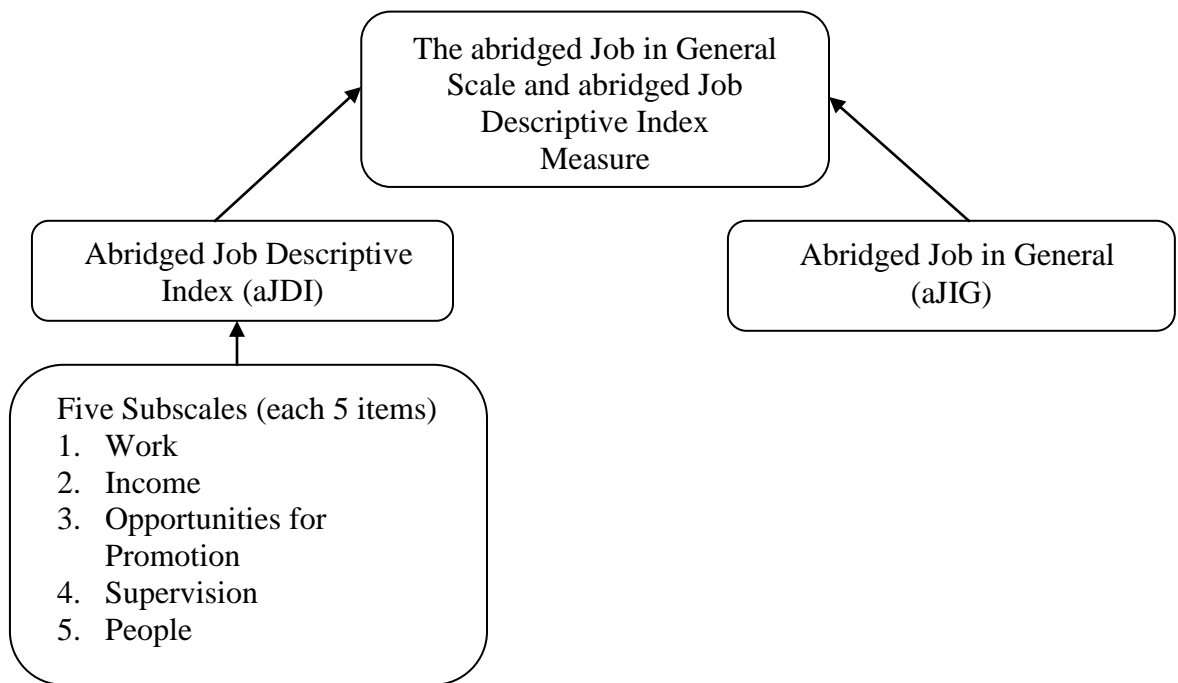
Figure 4- Conceptual disgram of the abridged Job Descriptive Index (Stanton et al., 2002) and the abridged Job in General Scale (Russell et al., 2004).

In this study, the scale reliability coefficient of the aJIG measure was slightly higher .91 than reported by the manual of .85 (Stanton, Sinar, Balzer & Smith). The aJDI

reliability was reported by the authors as having the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for the five subscales ranging from .7 to .9. In this sample, the five subscales had coefficients of (1) .77 work; (2) .72 people; (3).79 promotion; (4) .92 supervision; and (5) .88 for the people subscale.

The variables for job satisfaction were transformed for final analysis. The job satisfaction measure included the totals of two scales, the abridged Job Descriptive Index (Stanton et al. 2004) and abridged Job in General scale (Russell et al. 2004). The author of the assessment provided a sheet for this researcher to recode the original scores to numbers that produce a higher score for satisfied answers and a lower score for less satisfied responses. Figure 5 below shows how the job satisfaction transformed variables were formed. The aJDI/JIG measure is comprised of two scales the abridged job descriptive index made of 25 items that break into five subscales and the aJIG which has 8 items. After the scores were recoded, the total scores were used in the analysis and the subscales were used in the post hoc follow up and the total score of the aJIG was also calculated.

```
                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │ Job Satisfaction│
                    │    Variables    │
                    └─────────────────┘
                  ↙                     ↘
    ┌─────────────────┐         ┌─────────────────┐
    │   Abridged Job  │         │  Abridged Job in│
    │ Descriptive Index│         │  General Scale  │
    │  (AJDI) 25 items-│         │     (AJIG)      │
    │ recoded= total score│      │ 8-items recoded =│
    └─────────────────┘         │   total score   │
            ↓                    └─────────────────┘
    ┌──────────────────────────┐
    │Five Subscales (5 items per scale)│
    │  1. Work                 │
    │  2. Income               │
    │  3. Opportunities for Promotion│
    │  4. Supervision          │
    │  5. People               │
    └──────────────────────────┘
```

Figure 5: Job satisfaction variables

Data Collection

Upon Institutional Review Board's (IRB) approval, this researcher contacted of

organization leaders, agency supervisors, and continuing education unit (CEU) providers

to establish onsite data collection dates. The data collection employed volunteering sites

along with e-mail data collection between March 2010 and May 2010. The researcher

provided participants with a ticket to a free CEU event to be scheduled during the

Summer of 2010.

Sampling Procedures

The researcher contacted the clinical directors of agencies, private practitioner

groups, professional organization presidents, and CEU event coordinators in Florida by

phone and e-mail. Next, the researcher introduced the study, the exempt status informed

consent, explained the purpose and mechanics of group administration and discussed e-

mail administration capabilities. Then, data collection dates and non-work related e-mail

addresses were exchanged. Central Florida participants comprised the majority of the

sample and a group from Jacksonville contributed data. Most of the data collected was in

the Central Florida area, and one group was obtained from Jacksonville. However, the

participants listed that they lived in a variety of locations in Florida. Counselors from 11

agencies, six private practice groups, three professional organization monthly meetings,

and three CEU events participated, either by group administration or e-mail.

Group Administration

A majority of the data collected was in the Orlando area and one group was

obtained from Jacksonville. However, the participants listed that they lived in a variety of

locations in Florida. At the arranged meeting time, this researcher introduced the purpose

of the study and handed out a manila envelope with three data collection instruments: (a)

the abridged job descriptive index (AJDI) and job in general scale (AJIG) (see Appendix

E), (b) the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) (see Appendix D), and (c) the Counselor

History Questionnaire (CHQ) (see Appendix G). They returned the instruments to this

researcher upon completion. The IRB summary of exempt research and ticket to the free

CEU event for participating were also included in the packet, which they retained. When

the researcher identified missing data, an e-mail attempt was made to collect the missing

data. If the participant responded, the information was then added to the data set.

Email-administration

A small sample of Clinical directors, professional organization leaders, or private practitioners opted for the e-mail administration. Participants that chose the e-mail administration provided their non-work e-mail addresses. Participants received an e-mail introducing the study (see Appendix B) with the Summary of Exempt Research, the SVS, the aJDI and aJIG, the e-mail answer sheet for the aJDI and aJIG (see Appendix F), the Counselor History Questionnaire (CHQ), and a ticket to a CEU event (see Appendix H). The IRB Summary of Exempt Research informed participants that completion and submission for the assessments and questionnaire indicated their consent for participation in the study. The participants e-mailed this researcher back the results, usually within one week. If a missing portion was found upon review of the data, an e-mail attempt was made to collect the data. If the participant responded, it was then added to the data set. In a few cases, the participants were contacted twice to increase response rate (Dillman, 2001).

Data and Research Management

This researcher handled data in a manner to protect confidentiality of client information and of the data itself. For the group administrations, there was a small slip of paper attached to the research packet asking the respondents for a contact e-mail or phone number where the researcher could contact them in the case of missing data. The slips of paper were removed and destroyed after the researcher established the absence of missing data. The research packets were collected, placed in a box in the researchers' car to be transported home, and then placed in a locked drawer in the doctoral studies office at the University of Central Florida. For e-mail administration, the researcher printed

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assessments and, upon ensuring completion, deleted the e-mail and emptied the trash

folders so only printed hard copies of the assessments remain.

Data Analysis

Research Question 1 concerned the differences of job satisfaction for professional

counselors in two settings and to test the stated null hypothesis that there is no significant

differences in job satisfaction scores for counselors in agency and private practice

settings, a one-way Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted. The

variables of interest were the independent variables (work setting) of private practice or

agency, and the dependent variables, which are the scores for the aJDI (Stanton et al.,

2002) and aJIG (Russell et al., 2004).

Research Question two concerned the differences between the values of (a) *self-*

transcendence (SVSST) and (b) *self-enhancement* (SVSSE) exist between counselors in

private practice and counselors in agencies and to test the null hypothesis that: (1) No

differences exist between *self-enhancement* and *self-transcendence*, as measured by the

SVS (Schwartz, 1992), between counselors in private practice and agency settings. A

MANOVA was conducted for this research question as well. The variables of interest

were the independent variables (work setting) of private practice or agency, and the

dependent variables included the SVSST and the SVSSE value priority scores.

Research question three queried the predictive capability of value priorities and

work location on job satisfaction. For this question, the four standard multiple regressions

conducted investigated relationships among the values priority scores for *self-*

transcendence and *self-enhancements* on the SVS (Schwartz, 1992) and the mean scores

for the aJDI/aJIG measure (Stanton et al., 2002; Russell et al., 2004) for private

practitioners and agency workers. The variables of interest for the four hypotheses were the values priority scores of *self-enhancement* and for *self-transcendence* from the SVS and the mean scores for the aJDI and the aJIG for agency workers and private practitioners. SPSS 18 statistical software was used for all the procedures.

The assumption of independence was met as groups were independent of each other and respondents were categorized as either a private practitioner or an agency worker. Demographic data of the counselors was collected and analyzed using descriptive statistics and frequency tables. The interval data from the SVS (Schwartz, 1992) and the aJDI (Stanton et al. 2002) and aJIG (Russell et al., 2004) will be the dependent variables, and the work location of Private practice or agency is categorical data. The other assumptions in multivariate procedures include (a) multicollinearity, (b) assumptions of equality of variance and co-variance, (c) assumptions of normality, and (d) heteroscedasticity (Hair et al., 2006). Finally, the data was inspected and cleansed to make sure that there was no missing or invalid data.

Ethical Considerations

University of Central Florida's Institutional Research Board approved the study prior to data collection (see Appendix J). The IRB requires an informed consent for the participants which covers the purpose of the study, investigators' qualifications, voluntary nature of research, contact for questions, and possible risks or harm incurred in the process of research (Department of Health and Human Services, 2009). One possible risk to participants will be revealing dissatisfaction about employment in their work setting. This researcher managed the risk through personal attendance and distribution of assessments by the researcher to minimize possible breaches of confidentiality by

managers or supervisors in the agency settings, prior to the study. Participants received a summary of exempt research was reviewed, and the purpose of the data collection. The assessments and questionnaire were confidential, with the caveat of slips of paper with name and contact information, which were only used for missing data and the CEU notification. The researcher later destroyed the slips of paper to maintain anonymity. This researcher did not release any identifying information, organization name or private practice information in the study. Names of participants or agencies were not used and demographic information was kept confidential. Additionally, the findings were written in a manner that does not reveal the individuals' work settings or characteristics about the participants that could otherwise reveal their identity. Furthermore, participation was voluntary and the data will be offered for participants to receive after the study is complete.

Conclusion

This study examined the relationships and differences between job satisfaction and value priorities of two different work setting of counselors. Counselors in private practice and agency settings in Central Florida completed data collection instruments chosen and developed to investigate the constructs. This chapter provided a description of the final population and sample, the data gathering procedures, the instrumentation and variable creation, the research questions and hypotheses of the study, and an orientation to the research design and data analysis procedures. Finally, a discussion of the assumptions of this research and ethical considerations concluded the chapter.

CHAPTER 4
FINDINGS

Counselors work in a variety of locations (Vacc & Loesch, 2000); yet, many

counselors enter the workforce without career guidance or knowledge of the different

settings. This lack of knowledge could contribute to well-documented issues of burnout

and turnover in the field (King, 2007). Research in career psychology has focused on

values research because, as Ros and Schwartz (2004) stated, "occupations are one main

avenue to express values" (p. 256). This study investigated the value priorities and job

satisfaction of counselors in the two common work settings: private practice and agency.

The results of three research questions posed and six null hypotheses tested are presented

here. Along with the results, a review of the data gathering and preliminary analyses, the

descriptive demographic data results, and the results of the data analyses for the

hypotheses to answer the research questions are presented.

Data Gathering

Participants completed data collection instruments from 11 agencies, six private

practice groups, three professional organization monthly meetings, and three Continuing

Education Credit professional workshops. Data collection took place between the months

of March and May of 2010. The total sample included 200 helping professionals in

Florida. Upon reviewing the licenses of the participants, 149 of the 200 included

Licensed Mental Health Counselors (LMHC), Licensed Marriage and Family Therapists

(LMFT), Registered Mental Health Counselor Interns (RMHCI), Registered Marriage

and Family Therapist Interns (RMFTI), Nationally Certified Counselors (NCC), and

Licensed Professional Counselors (LPC). The study omitted Licensed Psychologists and

Social Workers, School Counselors, Certified Addiction Professionals, and Occupational

Therapists and Dieticians, allowing for an in-depth inquiry of only counseling

professionals. Furthermore, the demographics questionnaire captured the current work

locations for each participant. One hundred and thirty six of the 149 participants worked

at a private practice or agency setting. Based on number of hours worked an employment

priority counselor working in both locations chose one category. The remaining 12

participants either had missing data for location or worked equally at both locations. Out

of the 135 final participants used in the analysis, 72 worked in an agency setting and 63

worked in private practice.

The majority of the participants took the assessments in person, either

individually or in groups (83%), and the remaining participants completed the data

collection instruments online (16.9%). The response rate included 98% for group

administration and 33% for e-mail administration; these response rates were typical and

usable in survey research (Cook, Heath, & Thompson, 2003; Dillman, 2002). The online

administration included 16 participants from Orlando (69%) and 7 from outside Orlando,

but still in the Central Florida area (30.4%). The in-person group administration included

57 participants from Orlando (51.8%), 38 from outside Orlando but in the Central Florida

area (34.5%), 5 from South of Central Florida (4.5%), one from North of Central Florida

(.9%) and 9 from Jacksonville (8.2%).

<div align="center">Results of Analyses</div>

The preliminary analysis conducted and identified any outliers exerting excessive

influence on the data and sought out missing data. Before each analysis, the data was also

examined to ensure the statistical assumptions were met. A visual inspection of the data

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table was performed, along with a review for missing data from the SPSS 18 frequency outputs. The three cases dropped contained 10% of one or more of the assessments had missing data. The researcher utilized data imputation when 10% or less missing data existed. In this method, the score used represented the mean score for all respondents' answers to that specific question used for the missing response (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Regarding outliers, visual inspection of the scatter plots for each variable revealed a few outliers on the aJIG variable, which were removed from the analyses (Hair et al.). Furthermore, the Cook's and Leverage values revealed that outliers were not affecting the models.

The third component of the preliminary analysis involved evaluating of any violation of assumptions related to multivariate analyses. The aJIG variable violated the assumption for normality. Upon further inspection of scatter plots, the data was confirmed to be valid but spread widely apart. Hair and colleagues (2006) stated normality violations are common for large samples and suggest continuing to perform tests using a more conservative measure of significance, .015, instead of .05. Other multivariate assumptions for MANOVAs and multiple regressions include: (a) sample size, (b) linearity, (c) multi-collinearity, (d) homogeneity of variance, and (e) equality of variances. An examination of the linearity scatter plots, studentized residuals plots, Box M and Levene's tests found no other violations.

Table 3: Means and Standard Deviations of the Dependent Variables

Variables	Private Practice		Agency		Total	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
1. aJDI	45.3	7.7	41.7	9.1	43.4	8
2. aJIG	22.8	2.7	19.1	6.0	20.8	5.1
3. SVSSE	-1.2	1.1	-1.3	1.0	-1.3	1.0
4. SVSST	1.1	.9	1.1	.9	1.1	.9

The means and standard deviations of the dependent variable were categorized by locations in Table 12. The total mean for the aJDI variable was ($M = 43.4$) with a standard deviation of ($SD = 8$). For aJIG, the total mean included ($M = 20.8$) with a standard deviation ($SD = 5.1$). The mean of the aJDI was slightly higher for private practitioners ($M = 45.3$, $SD = 7.7$) than for agency workers ($M = 41.7$, $SD = 9.1$). The same trend existed for the aJIG scores. The private practitioners' mean ($M = 22.8$, $SD = 2.7$) was slightly higher than for agency counselors ($M = 19.1$, $SD = 6.0$). A higher score indicated a higher rating of job satisfaction on the assessment. The overall total mean for SVSSE included ($M = -1.3$, $SD = 1$). The SVSSE mean was ($M = -1.2$, $SD = 1.1$) for private practice and ($M = -1.3$, $SD = 1$) for agency counselors. The means of SVST were identical for private practice ($M = 1.1$, $SD =.9$), agency ($M = 1.1$, $SD =.9$) and the overall total ($M =1.1$, $SD=.9$).

Table 4 : Correlation Coefficients for the Relations Between Dependent Variables

Measure		1	2	3	4
1.	aJIG	---			
2.	aJDI	.53**	---		
3.	SVSSE	.042	.054	---	
4.	SVSST	-.156	.000	.480**	--

** $p < 0.01$

The Pearson correlation coefficients presented in Table 4 contained the variables (1) aJIG, (2) aJDI, (3) SVSSE, and (4) SVSST. Of note, the correlations between aJDI and aJIG of .53 and SVST and SVSE of .48 were significant. A moderate correlation can be predicted between sub scores of the same scale. The aJDI/aJIG measure provided the aJDI and the aJIG variables, and, the Schwartz Values Survey provided the SVSST and the SVSSE variables. The correlations were moderate, but are not above .7, and can therefore be kept in the analysis (Hair et al. 2006). SVSST and aJDI had a correlation of .000, which is too low for a MANOVA but not a violation for multiple regression analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Research Question One and Null Hypotheses

The first research question concerned overall job satisfaction of counselors in two occupational settings: private practice and agency settings. To answer this research question, the following null hypothesis was examined: (1) No difference exists in job

satisfaction, as measured by the aJDI (Stanton et al., 2001) and the aJIG (Russell et al., 2004), between counselors in private practice and agency settings. A one-way between-groups MANOVA was performed to investigate job satisfaction differences. Two dependent variables were used: the total scores of the abridged Job Descriptive Index (aJDI) and abridged Job in General scale (aJIG). The independent variable was the work location of the participant: private practice or agency.

The multivariate tests for significance for the overall model were significant (F [2,133] = 9.88, p = .000]) with Pillai's trace at.129, Wilk's Lambda at .87, Hotelling's trace at .15, Roy's Largest Root at .15, and partial eta squared at.129. Therefore, 12.9% of the variance was accounted for by the variable and is a moderate to large effects size (Cohen, 1988). Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) recommend using Pillai's Trace to evaluate significance when assumptions are violated. Furthermore, the significance values were set more conservatively at .015 instead of .05 due to the violation of normality and the equality of variances on one of the variables, the aJIG (Tabachnick & Fidell). The model summary is presented in Table 5.

Table 5 : Multivariate Analysis of Job Satisfaction Variables

Test	Values	F(2,133)	p	η^2
Pillai's Trace	.13	9.88	.000	.129
Wilks Lambda	.87	9.88	.000	.129
Hotelling's Trace	.15	9.88	.000	.129
Roy's Largest Root	.15	9.88	.000	.129

The results for the follow-up univariate ANOVA indicated statistically significant results, using a Bonferonni adjusted alpha level of .025 for two dependent variables in the model. The abridged Job Descriptive Index (aJDI) was significant, F (1, 134) = 6.02, p =.015, with a partial eta squared .043. Therefore, 4.3% of the variance was attributed to the model and was considered a very small effect size (Cohen, 1998). Based on the mean scores, this finding indicated that private practitioner reported higher score mean job satisfaction (aJDI) score (M = 45.3, SD =7.7) than the mean reported by agency workers (M = 41.7, SD = 9.1). Also, the abridged Job in General (aJIG) score had statistical significance, F (1,134) = 19.838, p = .000, with partial eta squared .129. Therefore, 12.9% of the variance was attributed to model and is in between a moderate to large effect size, as a .06 is moderate and .16 is large (Cohen, 1988). Furthermore, private practitioners reported a greater mean score on the abridged Job in General scale (aJIG) (M = 22.8, SD = 2.7) than for agency workers (M =19.1, SD = 6.0). Table six presented the results of the univariate analyses are presented below in Table 6.

Table 6: Univariate Analysis for Job Satisfaction

Variables	F (1,135)	p	η^2
aJIG	19.83	.000*	.129
aJDI	6.017	.015*	.043

*p <.025

In summation, we found significant differences in the mean scores for private practitioners and agency workers, with private practitioners rating more satisfaction on both measures. Thus, this null hypothesis that no difference exists in job satisfaction, as measured by the aJDI (Stanton et al., 2001) and the aJIG (Russell et al., 2004) between counselors in private practice and agency settings was rejected.

Research Question Two and Null Hypotheses

The second research questioned what differences exist, between the values of (a) *self-transcendence* (SVSST) and (b) *self-enhancement* (SVSSE) with counselors in private practice and counselors in agencies? Answering this question should offer vital information concerning what type of values counselors possess in each setting. To answer this question, the study examined the null hypothesis that no differences exist between *self-enhancement* and *self-transcendence*, as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), between counselors in private practice and agency settings. To answer this question, this study used a one-way MANOVA to investigate value priority differences. The two dependent variables included the SVSSE and SVSST total scores. The independent variable included the work location of the participant, private practice or agency.

Table 7: Multivariate Analysis for Schwartz Value Priority Variables

Test	Values	F(2,133)	p	η^2
Pillai's Trace	.001	.061	.941	.001
Wilks Lambda	.999	.061	.941	.001
Hotelling's Trace	.001	.061	.941	.001
Roy's Largest Root	.001	.061	.941	.001

Table 7 presented the overall model summary. Multivariate tests for significance for the overall model were not significant, F (2,133) = .061, p =.941, with Pillai's Trace at .001, Wilk's Lambda at .999, Hotellings' Trace at.001, Roy's Largest Root at .001, and the partial eta square at .001. Using the Bonferonni adjusted alpha level of .025 to account for two variables in the model, non significance existed with both variables when considered separately. The data suggested that there were no differences between private practitioners and agency workers on the value priorities SVSSE and SVSST.

Research Question Three and Null Hypotheses 1-4

The third research question examined the relationships among the value priorities of *self-transcendence* (SVSST) and *self-enhancement* (SVSST) and job satisfaction variables for counselors in the two locations of private practice and agency. Answers to

this question provided information on how value priorities may predict job satisfaction for counselors in the two locations. To study this question these four hypotheses were analyzed using a series of multiple regressions. Each null hypothesis is presented along with their accompanying analysis and results. Table 8 presented the correlation coefficients for the samples used in the analysis.

Table 8: Correlation Coefficients for Relationship between Dependent Variables in Private Practice

_____

Measure	1	2	3
1. aJDI	--		
2. SVSSE	.191	--	
3. SVSST	.072	-.481	--

_____
Note. Sample includes 63 Private Practitioners

Null Hypotheses One

The study employed a standard multiple regression analysis in order to investigate relationships among value priority variables and the aJDI variable for private practitioners. A multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate the first null hypothesis that no relationships existed among the value priority variables of *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement,* as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), and job satisfaction, calculated from the total score of the aJDI (Stanton, 2002), for counselors in private practice. The overall model was not significant in predicting job satisfaction of private practitioners, $F(2, 60) = 1.15$, $p = .32$; thus, accepting the null hypothesis that the

value priorities of SVSSE and SVSST do not predict job satisfaction (aJDI score) for private practitioners. The model summary is presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Regression Analysis Summary for Value Priorities Predicting Job Satisfaction(aJDI) for Private Practitioners

_____

Variable	B	$SE\ B$	β	t	p
SVSSE	1.47	1.04	.20	1.41	.164
SVSST	.21	1.18	.03	.18	.858

_____

Null Hypothesis Two

This study employed a standard multiple regression analysis to examine the relationship among the value priorities of *self-enhancement* (SVSSE), *self-transcendence* (SVSST), and the abridged Job Descriptive Index (aJDI) for counselors in agencies. Table 10 presented the correlation coefficients for the samples used in the analysis.

Table 10 : Correlation Coefficient for Relation between Dependent Variable In Agency

Measure	1	2	3
1. aJDI	--		
2. SVSSE	.061	---	
3. SVSST	.059	-.479	---

Note. N = 72 agency workers

Table 11 presented the model summary.

Table 11: Regression Analysis Summary for Values Priorities, Job Satisfaction(aJID)-

Agency

_____

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	*t*	*p*
SVSSE	-.371	1.21	-.042	-.307	.760
SVSST	.382	1.33	.038	.287	.775

_____

The overall model was not significant, *F* (2, 69) = .169; *p =.84,* accepting the null

hypothesis that the value priorities of SVSSE and SVSST do not predict job satisfaction

(aJDI score) for agency workers.

Null Hypothesis Three

This study conducted a standard multiple regression analysis to test the third null

hypothesis that no relationships exist among the value priority variables of *self-*

transcendence and *self-enhancement,* as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), and the

abridged job in general (aJIG) scale score (Russell et al., 2004) for counselors in private

practice. Table 12 presented the Pearson correlations of the private practice sample.

Table 12: Correlation Coefficient for Relation between Dependent Variables in Private

Practice.

_____

Measure	1	2	3
1. aJIG	--		
2. SVSSE	.12	---	
3. SVSST	-.14	-.48	---

Note: *N* = 63 private practitioners

The overall model was not significant, *F* (2, 60) = .683; *p* =.*51*, accepting the null

hypothesis that the value priorities of SVSSE and SVSST do not predict job satisfaction

(aJIG variable) for private practitioners. Table 13 presented the model summary.

Table 13: Regression Analysis Summary ofr Vlaue Priorities Predicting Job Satisfaction

(aJIG) for Private Practitioners

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	*t*	*p*
SVSSE	.18	.37	.07	.49	.630
SVSST	.29	.42	-.10	-.69	.487

Null Hypothesis Four

The researcher utilized a standard multiple regression analyses to examine the

fourth null hypothesis that no relationships exist among *self-transcendence* and *self-*

enhancement, as measured by the SVS (Schwartz, 1992), and job satisfaction, using the

total score of the abridged Job in General (aJIG) scale (Russell et al., 2004) for

counselors in agencies. Table 14 presented the correlations for the variables used with the

agency sample.

Table 14: Correlation Coefficients for Relation between Dependent Variables in Agency

Counselors

Measure	1	2	3
1. aJIG	--		
2. SVSSE	.00	---	
3. SVSST	-.19	-.48	---

Note: $N = 72$ agency workers

A non-significant finding resulted for the overall model, $F (2, 69) = 1.65$, $p = .20$; supported the null hypothesis was accepted that the value priorities of SVSSE and SVSST do not predict job satisfaction (aJIG variable) for agency workers. Table 15 presented the model summary.

Table 15: Regression Analysis Summary for Value Priorities Predicting Job

Satisfaction(aJIG)for Agency

Variable	B	$SE\ B$	β	t	p
SVSSE	-.68	.79	-.12	.86	.390
SVSST	1.6	.87	-.24	-1.82	.074

Post Hoc Analyses

The researcher conducted a follow post-hoc one-way ANOVA to examine the differences in the five subscales of the aJDI. Table 16 presented the overall results.

Table 16: Means, Standard Deviations, and Analaysis of Variance (ANOVA) results from Five Subscales form the abridged Job Descriptive Index

	Scale	Private Practice		Agency		ANOVA F		
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
1.	Work	14.7	1.1	13.6	3.1	43.1	7.67	.006*
2.	Income	8.8	4.7	6.7	4.6	147.2	6.78	.010*
3.	Promotion	8.3	4.4	7.3	4.8	35.4	1.67	.198
4.	Supervision	9.4	4.9	11.8	4.7	191.1	8.5	.004*
5.	People	13.5	3.6	14.2	2.6	16.1	1.69	.195

*p < .05

The ANOVA analysis produced significant results for three of the subscales. For the Work subscale there was statistical significance for the overall model, F (1,135) = 7.67, p = .006, ascertaining differences in the level of satisfaction, with private practitioners reporting a higher mean score (*M* = 14.7, *SD* = 1.1) than agency workers (*M* = 13.6, *SD* = 3.1). The eta squared of .054 indicated a small to moderate effect size. The Income subscale also boasted statistical significance for the overall model, F (1,135)= 6.68 , p = .010, with private practitioners reporting a higher mean score (*M* = 8.8, *SD* =

4.7) than agency workers ($M = 6.7$, $SD = 4.6$). The eta squared of .048 indicated a small

to moderate effect size (Cohen, 1998). Conversely, agency counselors reported a

significant difference for the Supervision subscales, $F (1, 135) = 8.47$, $p = .004$, with the

agency workers reporting a higher mean ($M = 11.8$, $SD = 4.7$) than private practitioners

($M = 9.4$, $SD = 4.9$). The eta squared of .059 indicated a moderate effect size. Non

significant differences existed for two subscales: promotion, $F 1,135) = 1.67$, $p =.198$ and

People, $F (1, 135) = 1.69$, $p = .195$.

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the data gathering, data screening,

preliminary analyses, demographics, variable formation, and results of each analysis. The

study examined three research questions and six null hypotheses. The results of the first

research question found differences in overall job satisfaction measures. Private

practitioners reported higher satisfaction means than agency workers. The second

research question accepted the null hypothesis that no differences existed between the

value priorities of *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement* for the counselors in the two

locations. Finally, the third research question also accepted the null hypothesis that no

relationship existed among the variables of value priorities and job satisfaction for private

practitioners and agency workers.

Post-hoc analysis included analyzing the five subscales of the aJDI between

private practitioners and agency counselors. The ANOVA conducted found statistical

significance between the two groups for three of the five subscales (Work, Income and

Supervision). Private practitioners reported higher mean than agency counselors for the

subscales of Work and Income. However, agency counselors reported a higher mean for

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the subscale of Supervision. Chapter five provided a thorough discussion, reviewed the results of the analyses, and included a discussion of the findings, potential limitations of the results, questions for future research, and implications of the findings.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This study investigated job satisfaction and the value priorities of counselors in private practice and agency settings. Parsons' goodness of fit theory (1909) supplied the theoretical base to explore these questions, and Schwartz Value Theory (1992, 1994) provided the influencing factor on job satisfaction for the counselors in the two settings. The influencing variables on job satisfaction included two opposing value sets of *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement*. Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) argue the two value priorities conflict with one another; any action towards helping others (self-transcendence) directly conflicts with obtaining personal power (self-enhancement). This researcher hypothesized that the opposing values influence job satisfaction in the two different job settings, private practice and agency. This chapter reviewed the research questions and results of the analyses. Results were compared to other research findings presented in Chapter Two. Limitations of the present study and implications for counselor educators, counselors, and future research were discussed.

Counselor training is expensive and time consuming, yet little information exists concerning the career mentoring that follows graduation and the different work settings (King, 2007). One major decision counselors make after their training is whether to work in the public or private sector (Kottler & Brown, 2000). However, during graduate training, novice counselors spend the majority of their time studying the trade of counseling and enter the field with very little knowledge of the different work settings (King, 20??). The differences between private practice settings and agencies include

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activities during the work day, fee for services, client case load, paperwork, severity of clients' issues, and decision making about therapeutic interventions (Rupert & Morgan, 2006). Furthermore, the transition from school to work for new counselors comprises a major stressor (Skovholt & Ronnestad, 2003). Students report a strong desire for career mentorship during this time (King, 2007).

Additionally, burnout and turnover were well documented issues in the field of counseling (Knudson, Ducharme, & Roman, 2006; Lawson, 2007; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1986; Rupert & Morgan, 2005; Watkins, 1983; Witmer & Young, 1996).The mismatch of counselor graduates to work settings could contribute to burnout and turnover, yet little empirical research existed in this area (King, 2007). Values influence career choice and can predict job satisfaction (Berings, Fruyt, & Bouwen, 2004; Knafo & Sagiv, 2004). This study attempted to address the research gap for counselors' value priorities in relation to work settings. The goal of this study included increasing knowledge for future counselor educators and practicing counselors.

Counselors benefit from career mentorship when entering the work force (King, 2007). Skovholt and Ronnestad (2003) stated that gaining employment overwhelms the novice counselor. One common concern for many new counselors is gaining confidence in their ability to provide good services, and the additional strain of finding suitable employment makes the transition even more difficult. This research contributed knowledge about job setting and predictors of optimal person-organization fit. For counselors entering the profession, this research could contribute to better job placements and decreased job dissatisfaction and burnout from the profession.

The first research question asked, are there any differences in job satisfaction between counselors in private practice and agency settings? The findings indicated that private practitioners reported more satisfaction with their jobs than their counterparts in agency settings. The second research question investigated whether there are any differences in the value priorities of s*elf-enhancement* and *self-transcendence* for counselors in private practice and agency settings? The findings suggested no differences between value priorities of *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement* for the two groups. The third research question examined, are there any relationships among the value priorities (*self-enhancement* and *self-transcendence*) and job satisfaction for counselors in private practice and agency? The results indicated that there were no predictive relationships for this sample. Additionally, a post-hoc analysis investigated the five subscales of the aJDI and found significant results between the groups with private practitioners indicating greater satisfaction on the Work and Income subscales, and agency counselors reporting greater satisfaction in the subscale of Supervision.

<div align="center">Discussion of Analysis and Findings</div>

Research Question One

The first research question investigated job satisfaction variables, calculated from the aJDI (Stanton et al., 2002) and the aJIG scale (Russell et al., 2004), using a MANOVA analysis to evaluate differences between counselors in private practice and agency settings. Statistically significant findings for the overall model and the follow-up univariate analysis suggest private practitioners report higher levels of satisfaction. Specifically counselors in private practice reported higher levels of job satisfaction for both job satisfaction variables on the aJDI/aJIG measure, the job facet questionnaire

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(aJDI), which assesses specific areas (i.e., income, co-workers), and the global sense of satisfaction (aJIG). Private practitioners reported a statistically significantly higher mean for the aJDI assessments ($M = 45.3$, $SD = 7.7$) than did agency workers ($M = 41.7$, $SD = 9.1$). The same trend existed for the aJIG. The mean for private practitioners ($M = 22.8$, $SD = 2.7$) ranked a statistically significantly higher than the mean for agency workers ($M = 19.1$, $SD = 6.0$).

Previous research supported these findings. Fortener's (2000) research with 208 licensed professional counselors found that work setting contributed the most to therapist burnout. One of the major differences between private practice and agency involved was the level of choice or freedom that counselors had in different aspects of their work. Private practitioners chose caseload size, length of time for services, therapeutic interventions, and levels of paperwork more often than agency counselors (Jayaratne, Siefert, & Chess, 1988). Even though private practitioners struggled to keep their businesses viable and exerted a great deal of energy to find referrals for their practices (Hellman, Morrison, & Abramowitz, 1987), the ability to limit number of clients and adjust their caseloads in response to other life demands remained a possibility. Agency employed counselors have a different experience, the administration of the agency decided the amount of clients seen per week. Furthermore, funding and agency policies drove decisions concerning caseload rather than the preferences of each counselor. Therefore, agency counselors may provide services to an excessive number of clients, which could lead to burnout and job dissatisfaction (Maslach, 1983).

Another facet of private practice included the counselor choosing the therapeutic intervention based on his or her expertise and the needs of the client. In Cunningham's

(2009) qualitative research involving agency directors' perspectives on wellness in agency settings, an agency director conveyed how the setting (agency v. private practice) can affect therapeutic decisions. A private practice counselor running a family group session can ask a colleague to join them to co-facilitate in order to obtain another professional's perspective or to provide additional services to the family. In an agency setting, a co-facilitator for a family session may not be covered by funding sources. Farber's (1985) qualitative research reported that counselors in agencies with more centralized bureaucratic decision-making styles experienced more burnout. In addition, Knudsen, Ducharme, and Roman's (2006) study, which included a sample from 253 therapeutic communities, found that counselors in agencies with high centralized decision-making reported higher burnout and turnover intention. The ability to choose allowed counselors to practice within their personal theoretical preferences and adjust therapy modalities based on professional expertise and client need (Jayaratne, Siefert, & Chess, 1988).

Furthermore, agencies nationwide experienced pressure to use empirically supported interventions to receive and maintain funding (Wampold, Lichtenburg, & Waehler, 2002). Therefore, agency directors instructed all counselors to use the same interventions for clients with similar incoming diagnoses or issues (Gaal, 2009). For example, an agency exclusively promoting cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT) interventions with adolescents with anger outbursts, might have limited optimal services for their clients. If a counselor from a different theoretical background is required to provide services outside of his or her preferences, it increases the chance of substandard care. Furthermore, managed care limits the number of sessions, and brief therapy was the

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preferred method as fewer sessions are more cost effective (Gaal). In many cases, counselors in agencies terminate sessions due to policy and financial limitations rather than goal attainment and achievement of desired outcomes as decided by client and counselor (King, 2007).

In fact, Rupert and Morgan (2005) reported that a sample of 571 agency psychologists experienced higher emotional exhaustion due to having a lack of control over work activities, seeing more managed care clients, and working with more clients that were suicidal/homicidal. The lack of choice in modality and length of treatment decreased satisfaction. Thus, the findings from this research and previous research suggest that the private practitioner's ability to choose lends to higher job satisfaction.

Whereas, the aJIG scale (Russell et. al, 2004) consists of a global measure of satisfaction and assesses a person's overall judgment about their job, the aJDI (Stanton et al., 2002) acts as a useful secondary scale, assessing which aspects of work are satisfying and which are distressing.

Research Question Two

The second research question investigated the differences of value priorities for counselors in private practice and agency settings, and the findings supported the null hypothesis. The Schwartz Value Survey (SVS; Schwartz, 1992) assessed the values of counselors. Schwartz (1992) stated *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement* compete with one another. For this study, self-transcendence involved the values of universalism and benevolence, and *self-enhancement* involved the values of power and achievement. Elizur and Sagie (1999) reported that counselors rated the value priority for *self-transcendence* highly, which included the desire to help others (benevolence) and values

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equality, peace, and beauty (universalism). People in different occupations hold varying value priorities. For example, Schwartz (1992) suggested that business entrepreneurs ascribe to the value priority of *self-enhancement*, which includes the desire for social status and power over resources and people (power) and includes enjoying the positive gains and outcome from achieving goals from personal effort (achievement).

This researcher hypothesized that counselors struggle internally with wanting to help others and achieve social justice (self-transcendence) yet also desire social prestige offered to other professionals with graduate training and/or crave a sense of achievement via financial achievement or success with clients (self-enhancement). This study examined differences in the value scores and priorities of counselors in the two different work locations, and the overall model was not statistically significant. This finding suggests counselors' values match in both settings. In this study, the mean scores were equal for the value priority of self-transcendence (SVSST) for both private practitioners and agency counselors (*M*=1.1, SD=.9.). The self-enhancement mean (SVSSE) for private practitioners was higher at (*M*= -1.2 *SD*=1.1) than for agency counselors (*M*= -1.3 and SD= 1). The slight variation in the means suggests further research with a larger national sample might find self-enhancement values carrying less importance for agency workers than private practitioners.

Value priorities are theorized to guide the career choice to become a counselor (Berings, Fruyt, & Bouwen, 2004). However, the findings do not suggest a difference in value priorities of counselors at different work settings; instead, all the counselors share the value of helping others over gaining prestige or power for themselves. The findings of this study can add to the overall picture of values for counselors and, as Hanna and

Bemak (1997) stated, help to create "a recognizable identity" for counselors. More research is needed assessing counselors' values using Schwartz Value Survey assessment. In a national survey of counselors, Kelly (1995) found similar means for the values that were reported in this study. The means in Kelly's national survey of counselors included: Benevolence (M=5.27), Universalism (M=4.89), Power (M=2.09), and Achievement (M=4.63). In this study, the means included: Benevolence (M=5.42), Universalism (M=4.73), Power (M=3.08), and Achievement (M=4.81). Of note, the Power value was slightly higher in this researcher's sample than in Kelly's research. Kelly's research was performed in 1995 during a time of economic prosperity, whereas the economy during this study was in a recession, which may have influenced counselors' values towards materialistic concerns (Burroughs & Rindefleisch, 2002). Recently Shillingford and Lambie (2010) investigated school counselors' priorities; the results indicated school counselors in Florida ranking *self- transcendence* higher than *self-enhancement*. These researchers also looked at the other two priorities, *openness to change* and *conformity*. The school counselors' values aligned more with *conformity*, or following the rules and protecting customs, than they did with *openness to change,* which includes more risk taking and self-direction type behaviors (Shillingford & Lambie).

In regards to the lack of differences between the two work settings and value priorities, this researcher suggests that value priorities may influence people to decide to enter the field of counseling, but the choice of work location may be decided by more realistic concerns, such as gaining licensure and/or financial opportunities. Many registered mental health interns choose agencies to gain their required supervised pre-licensed hours for licensure and do not plan to remain at the facility once they have met

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these requirements. After licensure, counselors can move to a private practice setting. So, the career path of these counselors may include agency as a means to obtain pre-licensed hours and not as a choice or preference. Counselor work location might be better predicted in future research using variables such as expectations upon entering graduate education, socioeconomic status upon graduation, professional network and connections upon graduation, life roles and support outside of work, and current job market and economy.

Research Question Three

The final research question investigated the relationships among value priorities and job satisfaction of counselors in private practice and agency settings. The two work settings include very different day-to-day activities, and this researcher hypothesized that the values held by each counselor could influence level of satisfaction. Optimally Person-Organization fit profile could be created such that counselor educators could direct graduates to an optimal work setting based on their value priorities. The findings did not support the research question, which is discussed further in the implications section.

The value theories covered in Chapter 2 argue that values are a good career research tool and a core predictor of job satisfaction (Berings, Fruyt, & Bouwen, 2004). Furthermore, researchers suggested more work is needed using values in Person-Organization fit research (Clerq, Fontaine, & Anseel, 2008; Knafo & Sagiv, 2004; Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999). Brill (1998) posited that when values were in conflict with a job setting, job dissatisfaction ensues. Findings from the current study indicate that the values that the counselors held as priorities matched previous research (Kelly, 1995), but

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these values did not relate in a predicted way to satisfaction levels at the two work

settings. However, following Parson's 'goodness of fit' theory, these findings can be

interpreted in a different way. His theory posits that a satisfied worker results from

knowledge of self and knowledge of work setting, which leads to a good match and more

satisfaction. Therefore, the results of this study suggest that counselors' values have a

better match to private practice than to agency settings.

Alternatively, Decelles (2007) argued that the reason values and job satisfaction

research has produced contradictory or weak results to job behavior is due to singular

values encompassing only one factor of the person, which does not capture the entire

picture. Schwartz Value Theory posits values are in conflict or in opposition with one

another. In Decelles' (2007) study, which investigated conflicting value sets, the

researcher hypothesized and the results validated that values could be held

simultaneously and produce positive work attitudes. Therefore, the values linked to job

satisfaction may not fit neatly into clear-cut categories such as, value priority 'x' is more

satisfied in this setting, and value priority 'y' is more satisfied in that work setting. In

fact, there are many other ways to gauge values in relation to the work setting exist. As

presented in Chapter 2 values can be assessed for each organization using the

Organization Climate Sale (OCS: Lehman, Greener, & Simpson, 2002.). The OCS

assesses the fit between the worker's values and the organization's values. For this study,

agency workers comprised one variable; therefore, the effects of each agency were

unknown. The results of this study suggested that agency workers reported less

satisfaction as a whole, yet missing data exists concerning the value match of each

employee to each agency. For example, in Carmelli and Fruend's (2009) study, the

researchers found that agencies held in high esteem by a community correlated with the job satisfaction of its employees. Furthermore, studies found that employees at agencies lacking a clear mission, which is based on a set of values, also reported less satisfaction (Garner, Knight, & Simpson, 2007).

The field of career psychology distinguishes between the study of values, interests, expectancies, and attitudes. Whereas this study's focus included current value priorities in the work setting, the counseling students' expectations about life after graduation and the local job market could be another area where values collide. This study theorized that a lack of work setting information and value conflict are at the root of the job dissatisfaction and burnout. A pivotal study by D'Aprix, Dunlap, Abel, and Edwards (2004) offers an example of how values can conflict with the profession before even entering training. The researchers investigated the expectations and motivations of incoming social workers and found that students who chose to obtain a Masters in Social Work MSW degree did so because it would secure a high paying job in many agency settings locations. The students appeared unaware of the core values of social work and did not express the desire to help people. In effect, the students' decision-making process did not include what the job entails; instead, they chose the career based on more materialistic concerns. Students entering the helping profession may not be closely investigating the field, which could lead to job dissatisfaction as they move into the work world.

Post Hoc

The aJDI gauges satisfaction in five specific facets of the job: (a) Work, (b) Income, (c) Opportunities for promotion, (d) Supervision, and (e) People at work. In the

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Post-Hoc analysis, the three statistically significant findings on the aJDI included the Work, Income, and Supervision subscales. However, these findings are limited as the proper sample of 200 to 250 is warranted to run these analyses with sufficient power (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). The final sample in this study included 135 participants, therefore the power was lessened.

The first statistically significant finding included the Work subscale, where private practitioners rated a higher mean score ($M = 14.7$, $SD = 1.1$) than agency counselors ($M = 13.6$, $SD = 3.1$). The Work subscale prompts the respondent to think about the work itself, which includes counseling clients and performing related tasks (e.g., paperwork, appointment setting, managing the business, etc.). Furthermore, the assessment prompts the respondent to rate whether or not their work is 'satisfying' and 'gives a sense of accomplishment.'

These findings related most closely to previous research with the Personal Accomplishment subscale on the Maslach Burnout Inventory- Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). A large portion of research examined job satisfaction employed the MBI-HSS assessment. This assessment gauges three main areas: Personal Accomplishment (PA), Emotional Exhaustion (EE), and Depersonalization (DP). The higher rating on the PA scale indicates job satisfaction, and a high rating on the EE or DP scale indicates job dissatisfaction. With a sample of 68 psychotherapists in Texas, Raquepaw and Miller (1989) reported that private practitioners rated higher levels of PA and lower levels of DP and EE than their counterparts in the agency setting. Rosenberg and Pace (2006) reported similar findings with marriage and family therapists in a nationwide survey. Therefore, in these studies,

private practitioners rate their work more satisfying and experience more feelings of personal accomplishment than agency employees.

The amount of remuneration for services differed for private practitioners and agency workers. In this study, private practitioners were statistically significantly more satisfied with income (M=8.8, SD= 4.7) than agency workers (M=6.7, SD=4.6). Previous research supports this finding. Duraisingham, Pidd, and Poche (2009) reported common factors such as low pay and high stress that contribute to increase burnout. Furthermore, psychologists reported low income as a stressor in Ackerly, Burnell, Holder, and Kurdek's (1998) study. Currently, the salaries for many agency counselors are lower than other helping professional such as nurses, school counselors, educators, and social workers (Bureau of labor statistics: http://www.bls.gov). The agency worker experiences increased dissatisfaction with low salary, thereby increasing burnout and turnover intention. Financial constraints negatively impact the overall sense of well-being and satisfaction with one's job. On the other hand, private practice, in theory, includes more possibilities for increased income (Jayarante, Siefert, & Chess, 1988). The need for capital to start up the business and to market in order to generate referrals often produces stress for counselors (Brill, 1988). However, the ability to make more money as a result of personal effort and through providing good services may be more motivating and satisfying than receiving a biweekly paycheck.

The last statistically significant subscale addressed Supervision. This scale prompts the respondent to rate satisfaction level with their current work supervisor. In a different trend from the other statistically significant findings, the agency workers reported having more satisfaction (M = 11.8, SD=4.7) with their supervision than private

practitioners ($M = 9.4$, $SD = 4.9$). Supervision is a vitally important relationship during the student and pre-licensed years (Skovholt & Ronnestad, 2003). Previous research suggested receiving poor supervision increased burnout for agency workers (Knudsen, Ducharme, & Roman, 2006; Munn, Barbar, & Fritz, 1996; Tieg, Tetrick, & Fried, 1992). Conversely, a good supervision relationship enhanced the well-being and job satisfaction of counselors (Evans, & Hohensil, 1997).

While the statistically significant findings point towards agency counselors experiencing more satisfaction with their supervisors than private practitioners, this researcher believes that this specific finding is influenced by the presence of registered interns (post-degree/pre-licensed practitioners) in agencies. Upon completion of their graduate training, most counselors work in agencies to gain enough direct client contact hours to obtain licensure. Upon receiving a license, supervision is no longer required. Also, most agencies provide clinical supervision for all licensed and unlicensed workers, which is not the case in private practice. In private practice, most counselors are licensed and consult with colleagues concerning cases that are challenging. Therefore, in this study, more licensed counselors worked in private practice and rated 'do not apply' on the subscale concerning supervision. The 'do not apply' rating on the aJDI scores a 'one'. If a respondent rated their supervision positively on the scale, it translates to a score of 'three'; if they rated their supervisor negatively, it translates to a score of "zero". Therefore, the private practitioners in this sample who were not receiving supervision rated a score of 'one'. This lowered the overall private practice mean score. In effect, these results suggest that more agency workers had supervisors than did private practitioners.

In summation, the first goal of this study included examining current trends in job satisfaction of counselors in Central Florida. The findings suggested that private practitioners are more satisfied than agency workers. Furthermore, the subscales of the work aspect and income were specific points of higher satisfaction for the private practitioners. The agency workers reported higher satisfaction with their supervision. The sample included a large number, N=39 (21%), of registered interns (RMHCIs and RMFTIs) as opposed to 11 (8%) in private practice, which could contribute to sample bias. Registered interns must obtain supervision and have fewer options for work setting. The second research question investigated the value priorities of counselors in the two settings suggested that counselors in this sample share similar values found in the national sample. However, the value ratings do not differ for the counselors in the two work settings, which suggested other factors contribute to their choice of work setting. Other alternative explanations for the findings included outside factors exerting influence over work location, such as socio economic status SES upon completion of training and/or demands for licensure.

Finally, the third question examined predictive relationships among value priorities and job satisfaction within the two work settings of private practice and agencies. The findings did not support the research question, and the alternative hypotheses were discussed. More information on the effect of each individual agency could provide further knowledge regarding job satisfaction in future research. Another alternative hypothesis stated singular values may be too simplistic to gain an overall picture of Person-Organization fit for counselors and work settings (Decelles, 2007). Finally, the research involving value conflicts that occur before entering training was discussed.

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Synthesis

The purpose of this study included investigating good-fit indicators, from a Person- Organizational theoretical standpoint, for graduating counselors to be able to choose a work place setting intelligently. This study employed the constructs of job satisfaction and value priorities to investigate differences and relationships among two specific work settings hypothesized to be different in key areas. The key areas of work place difference included the entrepreneurial aspects of private practice versus the altruistic desires to help underserved populations in the agency settings. The value priorities of self-enhancement and self- transcendence were hypothesized to have relationships for the two settings, with job satisfaction levels reflecting the good-fit. These hypotheses were not supported.

However, this study's findings supported previous research on counselors' value priorities. This conclusion suggests that counselors have an overall identity, which is more stable than the different value aspects at each work location. Values priorities could not predict any relationships of job satisfaction or provide good-fit indicator for either location. This non-significant finding is relevant in values research. Basically, counselors are more similar to each other than people in other occupations and hold the same values even in very different environments. This finding strengthens the identity of counselors through providing a clear value priority of this group that can be researched further. However, the question remains, is there another trait or factor that could provide a guide to graduates to their optimal work setting?

The job satisfaction measures successfully gauged varying levels of job satisfaction for counselors in the two locations. The findings supported previous research

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that private practitioners report higher levels of job satisfaction. The research reviewed in Chapter Two conveyed clear findings that certain factors added stress to counselors (i.e. centralized decision making, heavy paperwork, low income) and led to counselor burnout, turnover, and intention to leave. These empirical findings could guide improvements in the structure of agencies to improve job satisfaction for counselors. A theme that emerged in reviewing the literature included exercising choice and control as a facet that increased satisfaction for the private practitioners and the lack of decreasing satisfaction for agency workers. Choice of therapeutic services, length of services, caseload amount, paperwork, and setting are all facets that private practitioners can decide; whereas these same facets are most often out of the agency counselor's control.

Counseling students have a variety of choices in where to work upon graduation. The goal of this study included adding empirical knowledge for counselor educators to guide counselors to an optimal work setting. This study acted merely as a beginning. More information is needed for counselor educators to assist counselors in the transition from graduation to the work. For example, this study separated counselors into private practice and agency. A large piece of information missing included each agency administrations' effect on employees involved in the study. Furthermore, there are many work settings not included in this study, including in home counseling and outdoor experiential counseling settings.

Limitations

Sample

A few limitations included the sample, instruments and design of the study. The study sample included professional counselors from the Central Florida area and

Jacksonville. Therefore, the ability to generalize the findings outside of these cities is limited. Another limitation concerned the gender and ethnicity imbalance of the population: (79.9%) female and (83.1%) Caucasian. Even though the sample's demographics are representative of the national demographics for counselors (Lawson, 2007), minorities and males are not robustly represented. Another factor impacting this study included the licensure status. A large portion of the RMHCIs and RMFTIs in this sample worked in agency settings (20%) versus in the private settings (9%). Registered Mental Health Interns are less able to choose their work location than licensed counselors, which may have skewed the findings. Also, participants volunteered, and research shows that this fact distinguishes the participants from those in the target populations who were not willing to fill out the data collection instruments (Dillman, 2000).

Research Design

This study employed a descriptive correlational design with a survey and assessment data collection method. Since the career path of the counselor is of interest in this study, assessing values and job satisfaction at one point in time does not capture how values influence job satisfaction for counselors' choices over time. Furthermore, an inherent limitation of correlational design includes the inability to determine causality. Therefore, correlational research comprises a weaker methodology than true experimental design. However, correlational research is still a viable methodology when a true experiment is not ethical or cost effective (Thompson, Diamond, McWilliam, Snyder, & Snyder, 2005).

Instrumentation

Concerning the instruments and psychometrics; the lower variability in scores for the job satisfaction measures weakens the ability to make a fine distinction in the relationships between the variables. The mean reliability for all the ten values for the Schwartz Value Survey is listed at a moderate .68 (Schwartz, 2005). Reliability optimally should be in the range of .7 to .9, with .8 or higher being preferred (Shrout, 1998). Although, SVS is a widely used instrument, a .68 does raise questions about the measures' reliability. A perfect correlation can only be as high as the reliability of the instruments used (Lomax, 2001). Therefore a lower reliability weakens the overall ability to make associations between variables. Furthermore, the reliability of the four values used in this study also averaged a . 68. Finally, assessing only one aspect of values can lead to weak results (Decelles, 2007). Finally, an outside influence of the current economy could exert influence on job satisfaction scores.

Implications for Practice

Counselor Educators

Counselor educators train future counselors and act as their supervisors, mentors, professors, and role models. However, upon graduation, the novice counselors fumble through employment settings and are often left alone to deal with the transition from academia to the work world (Ronnestad & Skovholt, 2003). Counselor educators can provide services to improve graduates transition to the world of work by hosting workshops or classes on any of the following topics: (a) business knowledge for private practice; (b) work settings, including the differences between the various settings (e.g.,

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residential versus outpatient); (c) open discussion of the stressors of the profession (i.e.,

burnout, income, caseloads, etc.) (d) recommendation or establishment of post graduation

networking and support groups to enhance the process of gaining licensure and finding

suitable employment; and (e) creation of list serves about job openings in local areas that

are not posted, which can enhance counselors' chances for obtaining satisfying

employment.

Counselors

Increasing one's knowledge of personal values, career settings, and the self in

relation to work increases the chance of finding a suitable location to provide therapeutic

services. Examining the job market and average salaries in the different locations can arm

the counselor with realistic expectations. Often, the type of location will decide the

salaries, and awareness can lessen later frustrations. It is essential that new counselors

gather a support group to discuss their careers. Support groups give novice counselors a

place to share, receive support, gain ideas, and network. Experiencing a variety of

settings in both practicum and internship sites will grant the opportunity to have hands-on

experience in the different settings before entering the field. Finally, gaining career

knowledge about oneself through taking career inventories, exploring work history,

examining work values, and thinking about one's best work environment will increase

the chances of finding optimal employment.

<center>Implications for Future Research</center>

This study included a limited sample; therefore, a larger national sample would

provide a more complete picture of job satisfaction, value priorities, and work setting. In

addition, a sample including only licensed counselors would decrease the likelihood that

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counselors chose jobs merely to speed up the licensure process. A battery of value assessments that includes work values (OCS: Lehman, Greener, & Simpson, 2002) and a mixed methodology that includes a qualitative component would provide a more in-depth view of the phenomenon of values and job satisfaction.

The value priorities of interest in this study included *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement*. Kelly's (1995) research with professional counselors did correlate positively to the value of achievement but negatively to the value of power. In future studies, researchers should examine all ten values separately to investigate each value on job satisfaction in various settings. Finally, researching more types of work settings, such as residential and in-home counseling settings, could elucidate differences.

Longitudinal research assessing counselors would provide a wider scope of the career paths in the field. This researcher hypothesized that counselors struggle with wanting to both help others and feel personally successful. Using qualitative methods, interviewing counselors about what Schwartz (1996) called 'tradeoffs', could give information about how counselors feel about the 'give and take' of being a counselor. Furthermore, future research investigating the influence of age and generation on values and job satisfaction could illuminate the influence of culture. One study found that as people age, they become more self-transcendent and less open to change, and their level of self-enhancement decreases (Smith & Schwartz, 1997). Finally, interviewing the different generations of counselors about job satisfaction and values priorities could provide vital perspectives for how to shape our field in the future.

Conclusion

This study investigated the differences of job satisfaction for counselors in private practice and agency settings. The dependent variables included the total scores of two separate scales of job satisfaction on the aJDI (Stanton et. al, 2002) and the aJIG scale (Russell et. al, 2004), and the independent variable included the work location of each counselor (private practice or agency). A MANOVA analysis investigated the first null hypothesis that there were no differences in job satisfaction between the counselors in the two work settings. A follow-up univariate analysis further validated the statistically significant findings for both scales separately. The results of the statistical analyses supported the first research question that job satisfaction levels differ for counselors in the two settings, suggesting that private practitioners experience more satisfaction than agency counselors. The post-hoc performed on the subscales of the aJDI produced statistically significant results for three subscales: Work, Income, and Supervision.

Next, the second research question examined the differences of value priorities for counselors in two settings: private practice and agency. The dependent variables included the value priority scores for two opposing value sets: *self-transcendence* and *self-enhancement*. The independent variable included the work location. A MANOVA examined the second question and the null hypothesis that there were no differences in value priority scores between the counselors in the two work settings. However, the results did not support the second research question. Value priorities were the same for counselors at both settings.

Finally, the third research question investigated the relationships among job satisfaction and value priorities of counselors in private practice and agency setting. Four

standard multiple regressions analyzed the predictive correlational relationships among

the variables. The independent factors included the work location of the counselors and

the value priorities. The dependent variables included the job satisfaction subscales. Four

multiple regressions examined the effect of each job satisfaction variable for each work

location of the counselors using the value priorities scores. The results did not support the

research question.

The goal of this study included bridging the gap between counselor training and

the transition into work. Little is known empirically about the differences in work settings

for counselors (King, 2007). Counselors struggle with becoming adept at counseling and

experience stress in locating suitable employment (Skovholt, & Ronnestad, 2003). This

study's results relate to previous research stating counselors experience more satisfaction

in the private practice setting. Furthermore, research is recommended to investigate more

Person-Organization fit factors to guide future counselors into jobs that increase job

satisfaction and decrease burnout and turnover.

APPENDIX A
RECRUITMENT LETTER FOR PARTICIPATION FOR AGENCIES AND
ORGANIZATIONS

Greetings,

I am a graduate student in the Department of Child, Family and Community Sciences in the College of Education at the University of Central Florida under the direction of Dr. Andrew Daire. I am conducting my dissertation study on *Job Satisfaction and Values of Counselors in Private Practice and Agency Settings*. I am requesting your participation because you are a professional counselor in the state of Florida. Your participation in this study has the potential to assist future counselors choose an optimal work setting based on their value priorities. This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of Central Florida.

Participation will involve workers in your agency that volunteer to read and sign an informed consent, then complete two assessments and one questionnaire: The Schwartz Value Survey (SVS), Abridged Job Description Index and Job in General scale (aJDI/aJIG), and the Counselor History Questionnaire (CHQ). In total, the two assessments and the questionnaire will take 15- 20 minutes to complete. All information that you provide is confidential. The results of the study may be published. No agency, practice or individual indentifying information will be disclosed.

Although there may be no direct benefit to your agency, the possible benefit of your participation will contribute in assisting counselor educators in the ability to mentor future counselor in optimal job placements. Your participation in this study is voluntary.

If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be

no penalty. If you have any question about research you can contact the IRB directly at

(407) 823-2901. Participants will receive a ticket to attend a 2 credit CEU training free of

charge that will be offered in Summer 2010.

    If you have any questions concerning the research study, please contact me

at lcunning@mail.ucf.edu. You may also contact my faculty advisor, Dr. Andrew Daire,

by email at adaire@mail.ucf.edu or by telephone at (407) 823-0385.

 Thanking for being part of this important research,

 Laura Cunningham, M.A., NCC, Counselor Intern

 Doctoral Candidate

 University of Central Florida

 College of Education

 4000 Central Florida Blvd.

 Orlando, Florida, 32816

APPENDIX B
RECRUITMENT LETTER FOR PARTICIPATION VIA E-MAIL

Greetings:

I am a graduate student in the Department of Child, Family and Community Sciences in the College of Education at the University of Central Florida under the direction of Dr. Andrew Daire. I am conducting my dissertation study on *Job Satisfaction and Values of Counselors in Private Practice and Agency Settings*. I am requesting your participation because you are a professional counselor in the state of Florida. Your participation in this study has the potential to assist future counselors choose an optimal work setting based on their value priorities. This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of Central Florida.

Participation will involve workers in your agency that volunteer to read and sign an informed consent , then complete two assessments and one questionnaire: The Schwartz Value Survey (SVS), Abridged Job Description Index and Job in General scale (aJDI/aJIG), and the Counselor History Questionnaire (CHQ). In total, the two assessments and the questionnaire will take 15- 20 minutes to complete. All information that you provide is confidential. The results of the study may be published. No agency, practice or individual indentifying information will be disclosed.

Although there may be no direct benefit to your agency, the possible benefit of your participation will contribute in assisting counselor educators in the ability to mentor future counselor in optimal job placements. Your participation in this study is voluntary.

If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. If you have any question about research you can contact the IRB directly at (407) 823-2901. Participants will receive a ticket to attend for free admission to a 2 credit CEU training will be offered in Summer 2010.

As in most internet communication there may be some record of exchange in your cache somewhere on your computer system or internet service provider's log file. It is suggested that you use a non-work related e-mail, clean out your temporary internet files, and close your browser after submitting your survey.

Completing the assessments and questionnaire will indicate your consent for participation in this study. Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. If you have any question about research you can contact the IRB directly at (407) 823-2901. Participants will receive a ticket to attend a 2-credit CEU training free of charge that will be offered in Summer 2010.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please contact me at lcunning@mail.ucf.edu. You may also contact my faculty advisor, Dr. Andrew Daire, by email at adaire@mail.ucf.edu or by telephone at (407) 823-0385.

If you are willing to assist me with this important part of my study

1.   Please open the informed consent attachment and read

2.   If you consent to participate in this study, please complete and return via e-mail the following documents:

a.   Schwartz Value Survey (SVS)

b.   Abridged Job Descriptive Index(aJDI) and Abridged Job in General Scale (aJIG)

c.   The answer sheet for the aJDI and the AjIG

d.   Counselor History Questionnaire

Thank you for taking time for our research.

Sincerely,

Laura Cunningham, M.A., NCC, Counselor Intern

Doctoral Candidate

University of Central Florida

College of Education

4000 Central Florida Blvd.

Orlando, Florida, 32816

APPENDIX C
INFORMED CONSENT FOR ALL PARTICIPANTS

Research Study Title

JOB SATISFACTION AND VALUES OF COUNSELORS IN PRIVATE PRACTICE AND

AGENCY SETTINGS

Informed Consent for an Adult in a Non-Exempt Non-medical Research Study

Principal Investigator(s):   Laura Cunningham, M.A., Doctoral Candidate

Sub-Investigator(s):

Faculty Supervisor: Andrew Daire, PhD- Dissertation Committee Chair

Sponsor: UCF

Investigational Site(s):   *Sites and Organizations in Central and South Florida*

Introduction: Researchers at the University of Central Florida (UCF) study many topics. To do this we need the help of people who agree to take part in a research study. You are being invited to take part in a research study which will include around 200 participants in the state of Florida. You have been asked to take part in this research study because you are a professional counselor at a private practice or agency setting. You must be 18 years of age or older to be included in the research study and sign this form. You can read this form and agree to take part right now, or take the form home with you to study before you decide.

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The person doing this research is Laura Cunningham, M.A. Doctoral Candidate of UCF Department for Child, Family and Community Services. Because the researcher is a doctoral candidate, she is being guided by Andrew Daire, PhD, a UCF faculty supervisor in the counselor education department.

What you should know about a research study:

- Someone will explain this research study to you.

- A research study is something you volunteer for.

- Whether or not you take part is up to you.

- You should take part in this study only because you want to.

- You can choose not to take part in the research study.

- You can agree to take part now and later change your mind.

- Whatever you decide it will not be held against you.

- Feel free to ask all the questions you want before you decide.

Purpose of the research study: The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships and differences of value priorities and job satisfaction between counselors in private practice and agency settings. There is a lack of empirical information for counselors on which settings might suit them best, and this study's aim is to assist Counselor Educators and graduates make optimal choices and possibly reduce burnout in the counseling field.

What you will be asked to do in the study: Participation includes reading and signing an informed consent, answering two assessments and completing a questionnaire in person or through and e-mail. The assessments include: Schwartz Values Survey (57 questions), the abridged Job Description Index and the abridged Job in General scales, which are on one sheet together and include a total of 33 questions. Finally, the Counselor History Questionnaire includes 14 questions. All together the assessments and questionnaire should take 15 to 20 minutes to complete (IC/ 2-3 minutes, SVS/5-7 minutes, aJDI & aJIG 3-5 minutes, CHQ/3-5 minutes).

Location: You will complete either in a group format at your work location or at a professional organizational meeting or via e-mail.

Time required: We expect that you will be in this research study for 15- 20 minutes on one occasion.

Risks: Risks are minimal and no more than what is experienced when persons consider satisfaction with their job. For participants taking the survey through e-mail, the risk of others seeing the information will be reduced through the use of a non-work related e-mail.

Benefits: The potential benefits to participants include positive feelings regarding their career choice and positive feelings related to their assistance in this research.

Additionally, participants will receive a ticket to attend a 2 credit CEU training free of charge that will be offered in Summer 2010.

Confidential research: This study is confidential. That means that your identifying information (your name and contact information) will be a small slip of paper at the top of your assessment until the data is verified as complete, then the identifying information will be destroyed. At that time the information will become anonymous. Your work location will never be asked for or associated with your responses. For participants using e-mail, a non-work e-mail is suggested for return of the completed documents and after the assessments are printed out verified as complete the e-mails will be deleted. Furthermore, e-mails will be sent and retrieved on a password protected computer.

Study contact for questions about the study or to report a problem: If you have questions, concerns, or complaints, or think the research has hurt you talk to Laura Cunningham, Graduate Student, Counselor Education, College of Education, (321) 438-1385 or Dr. Andrew Daire, Faculty Supervisor, Department of Child, Family, and Community Sciences (407) 823-0385 or by email at lcunning@mail.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. You may also talk to them for any of

the following:

- Your questions, concerns, or complaints are not being answered by the research
team.
- You cannot reach the research team.
- You want to talk to someone besides the research team.
- You want to get information or provide input about this research.

Withdrawing from the study: You can withdraw participation of the study at any time

without penalty.

For paper and pencil participants:

Your signature below indicates your permission to take part in this research study:

_____
Name of participant

_____   _____
Signature of participant   Date

For e-mail participants, reading the informed consent, completing the assessments and

questionnaires will indicate your consent in this research study.

APPENDIX D
SCHWARTZ VALUE SURVEY

VALUE SURVEY

In this questionnaire you are to ask yourself: "What values are important to ME as guiding principles in MY life, and what values are less important to me?" There are two lists of values on the following pages. These values come from different cultures. In the parentheses following each value is an explanation that may help you to understand its meaning. Your task is to rate how important each value is for you as a guiding principle in your life. Use the rating scale below:

0--means the value is not at all important, it is not relevant as a guiding principle for you.

3--means the value is important.

6--means the value is very important.

The higher the number (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), the more important the value is as a guiding principle in YOUR life.

-1 is for rating any values opposed to the principles that guide you.

 7 is for rating a value of supreme importance as a guiding principle in your life; *ordinarily there are no more than two such values.*

In the space before each value, write the number (-1,0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7) that indicates the importance of that value for you, personally. Try to distinguish as much as possible between the values by using all the numbers. You will, of course, need to use numbers more than once.

AS A GUIDING PRINCIPLE IN MY LIFE, this value is:

opposed to my supreme values	not important		important		very important		of
-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Before you begin, read the values in List I, choose the one that is most important to you and rate its importance. Next, choose the value that is most opposed to your values and rate it -1. If there is no such value, choose the value least important to you and rate it 0 or 1, according to its importance. Then rate the rest of the values in List I.

VALUES LIST I

1. ☐ EQUALITY (equal opportunity for all)

2. ☐ INNER HARMONY (at peace with myself)

3. ☐ SOCIAL POWER (control over others, dominance)

4. ☐ PLEASURE (gratification of desires)

5. ☐ FREEDOM (freedom of action and thought)

6. ☐ A SPIRITUAL LIFE (emphasis on spiritual not material matters)

7. ☐ SENSE OF BELONGING (feeling that others care about me)

8. ☐ SOCIAL ORDER (stability of society)

9. ☐ AN EXCITING LIFE (stimulating experiences)

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AS A GUIDING PRINCIPLE IN MY LIFE, this value is:

opposed to my supreme	not					very	of
values	important		important			important	importance
-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. ☐ MEANING IN LIFE (a purpose in life)

11. ☐ POLITENESS (courtesy, good manners)

12. ☐ WEALTH (material possessions, money)

13. ☐ NATIONAL SECURITY (protection of my nation from enemies)

14. ☐ SELF RESPECT (belief in one's own worth)

15. ☐ RECIPROCATION OF FAVORS (avoidance of indebtedness)

16. ☐ CREATIVITY (uniqueness, imagination)

17. ☐ A WORLD AT PEACE (free of war and conflict)

18. ☐ RESPECT FOR TRADITION (preservation of time-honored customs)

19. ☐ MATURE LOVE (deep emotional & spiritual intimacy)

20. ☐ SELF-DISCIPLINE (self-restraint, resistance to temptation)

21. ☐ PRIVACY (the right to have a private sphere)

22. ☐ FAMILY SECURITY (safety for loved ones)

23. ☐ SOCIAL RECOGNITION (respect, approval by others)

24. ☐ UNITY WITH NATURE (fitting into nature)

25. ☐ A VARIED LIFE (filled with challenge, novelty and change)

26. ☐ WISDOM (a mature understanding of life)

27. ☐ AUTHORITY (the right to lead or command)

28. ☐ TRUE FRIENDSHIP (close, supportive friends)

29. ☐ A WORLD OF BEAUTY (beauty of nature and the arts)

30. ☐ SOCIAL JUSTICE (correcting injustice, care for the weak)

*   *   *   *   *

VALUES LIST II

Now rate how important each of the following values is for you as a guiding principle in YOUR life. These values are phrased as ways of acting that may be more or less important for you. Once again, try to distinguish as much as possible between the values by using all the numbers.

Before you begin, read the values in List II, choose the one that is most important to you and rate its importance. Next, choose the value that is most opposed to your values, or--if there is no such value--choose the value least important to you, and rate it -1, 0, or 1, according to its importance. Then rate the rest of the values.

AS A GUIDING PRINCIPLE IN MY LIFE, this value is:

opposed to my supreme values	not important			important		very important		of supreme importance
-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

31. ☐ INDEPENDENT (self-reliant, self-sufficient)

32. ☐ MODERATE (avoiding extremes of feeling & action)

33. ☐ LOYAL (faithful to my friends, group)

34. ☐ AMBITIOUS (hard-working, aspiring)

35. ☐ BROADMINDED (tolerant of different ideas and beliefs)

36. ☐ HUMBLE (modest, self-effacing)

37. ☐ DARING (seeking adventure, risk)

38. ☐ PROTECTING THE ENVIRONMENT (preserving nature)

39. ☐ INFLUENTIAL (having an impact on people and events)

40. ☐ HONORING OF PARENTS AND ELDERS (showing respect)

41. ☐ CHOOSING OWN GOALS (selecting own purposes)

42. ☐ HEALTHY (not being sick physically or mentally)

43. ☐ CAPABLE (competent, effective, efficient)

44. ☐ ACCEPTING MY PORTION IN LIFE (submitting to life's circumstances)

45. ☐ HONEST (genuine, sincere)

46. ☐ PRESERVING MY PUBLIC IMAGE (protecting my "face")

47. ☐ OBEDIENT (dutiful, meeting obligations)

48. ☐ INTELLIGENT (logical, thinking)

49. ☐ HELPFUL (working for the welfare of others)

50. ☐ ENJOYING LIFE (enjoying food, sex, leisure, etc.)

51. ☐ DEVOUT (holding to religious faith & belief)

52. ☐ RESPONSIBLE (dependable, reliable)

53. ☐ CURIOUS (interested in everything, exploring)

54. ☐ FORGIVING (willing to pardon others)

55. ☐ SUCCESSFUL (achieving goals)

56. ☐ CLEAN (neat, tidy)

57. ☐ SELF-INDULGENT (doing pleasant things)

APPENDIX E
THE ABRIDGED JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX AND ABRIDGED JOB IN GENERAL
SCALE

WORK ON PRESENT JOB

Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases <u>describe your work</u>? Circle:

1   for "Yes" if it describes your work
2   for "No" if it does not describe it
3   for "?" if you cannot decide

	Yes	No	?
Satisfying	1	2	3
Gives sense of accomplishment	1	2	3
Challenging	1	2	3
Dull	1	2	3
Uninteresting	1	2	3

PRESENT PAY

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases <u>describe your present pay</u>?

	Yes	No	?
Income adequate for normal expenses	1	2	3
Fair	1	2	3
Insecure	1	2	3
Well paid	1	2	3
Underpaid	1	2	3

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words or phrases <u>describe your opportunities for promotion</u>?

	Yes	No	?
Good opportunities for promotion	1	2	3
Promotion on ability	1	2	3
Dead-end job	1	2	3
Good chance for promotion	1	2	3
Unfair promotion policy	1	2	3

SUPERVISION

Think of your supervisor and the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words or phrases <u>describe your supervision</u>?

	Yes	No	?
Praises good work	1	2	3
Tactful	1	2	3
Up-to-date	1	2	3
Annoying	1	2	3
Bad	1	2	3

PEOPLE AT WORK

Think of the majority of people that you work with now or the people you meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases <u>describe these people</u>?

	Yes	No	?
Boring	1	2	3
Helpful	1	2	3
Responsible	1	2	3
Intelligent	1	2	3
Lazy	1	2	3

JOB IN GENERAL

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? For each of the following words or phrases, circle:

	Yes	No	?
Good	1	2	3
Undesirable	1	2	3
Better than most	1	2	3
Disagreeable	1	2	3
Makes me content	1	2	3
Excellent	1	2	3
Enjoyable	1	2	3
Poor	1	2	3

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APPENDIX F
ANSWER SHEET FOR E-MAIL PARTICIPANTS FOR THE AJDI AND THE AJIG

Answer sheet for the aJDI and the aJIG. Please reference the PDF version for the full explanation of what each question is asking. Then place a check next to your answer using the fill-in-form fields

Work on present job	Yes	No	?
Satisfying	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Gives sense of Accomplishment	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Challenging	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Dull	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Uninteresting	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3

Present Pay	Yes	No	?
Income adequate for normal expenses	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Fair	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Insecure	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Well Paid	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Underpaid	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3

Opportunities for Promotion	Yes	No	?
Good opportunities for promotion	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Promotion on ability	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3

	Yes	No	?
Dead-end job	□1	□2	□3
Good chance for promotion	□1	□2	□3
Unfair promotion policy	□1	□2	□3

Supervision	Yes	No	?
Praises good work	□1	□2	□3
Tactful	□1	□2	□3
Up-to-date	□1	□2	□3
Annoying	□1	□2	□3
Bad	□1	□2	□3

People at Work	Yes	No	?
Boring	□1	□2	□3
Helpful	□1	□2	□3
Responsible	□1	□2	□3
Intelligent	□1	□2	□3
Lazy	□1	□2	□3

Job in General	Yes	No	?
Good	□1	□2	□3

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Undesirable	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Better than most	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Disagreeable	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Make me content	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Excellent	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Enjoyable	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3
Poor	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3

APPENDIX G
COUNSELOR HISTORY QUESTIONNAIRE

Counselor History Questionnaire

This information will be part of a research study that may help to better assist Counselor Educators mentor future graduates of counseling. Please take a moment to fill out this survey - it should take under ten minutes to complete. *Please note that the information you provide will be kept strictly confidential. Any information that would identify you will not be collected on this form. Thank-you!*

Part 1: Education and Work History

1. Please fill in all of your education degrees and tracks. Please include non-counseling and counseling-related degrees (For example: B.A. in Marketing , M.A. in Counseling, Psy.D. in Clinical Psychology, etc..)

2. What professional licenses and counseling related certifications do you currently hold and list the years you have held each.

> [For example: LMHC (9 years), Registered Mental Health Intern (3 months)]
>
> License/Certification _____ Number of years held _____
>
> License/Certification _____ Number of years held _____
>
> License/Certification _____ Number of years held _____
>
> License/Certification _____ Number of years held _____

3. How many hours a week do you devote towards work (not just the direct clinical hours) in the work settings listed below:

   a)   Private practice [   ]

   b)   Agency [   ]

4. Briefly list (no more than four) any past non counseling related careers (i.e. nurse, finance, marketing, etc.)

5. List (no more than four) any past counseling related work settings (i.e. hospital settings, inpatient residential, outpatient, private practice, etc.).

   <u>Part Two: Expectations and Career Mentoring</u>

6. Rate your level of awareness of the job market for counselors upon entering graduate school (put a checkmark next to a number).

   (None at all)   (Some idea)

   (Fully aware)

   ☐1………… ☐2………… ☐3………… ☐4………… ☐5………… ☐6………… ☐7

7. During your transition from graduate school to work, did you have a mentor to discuss career related decisions and/or choices of work setting?

a)   Yes ☐ (If you answered 'Yes' please go to question 7.)

b)   No ☐ (If your answered 'No' please go to question 8.)

8. If you answered 'yes' to question (7), what role was the person/people in your life (for example: supervisor, colleague, teacher, or parent)?

9. If you answered 'no' to question (7), would mentoring have been helpful?

(Not at all)   (Somewhat Helpful)   (Extremely Useful)

☐1………….☐2………….…☐3………….…☐4………….…☐5………….…☐6………….…☐7

10.   What do you do believe Counselor Educators could do to better prepare graduates for the occupation of counselor?

Part 3: Demographics

Demographic Information – **About You**

Gender: ☐1 Male ☐2 Female   Your Age [   ]

Ethnicity: ☐₁ White/Non-Hispanic   ☐₂ Hispanic/Latino   ☐₃
Black/Non-Hispanic

☐₄ Native American   ☐₅ Asian American   ☐₆ Other

Thank you for your participation!

_____

Are you interested in receiving a free 2-hour CEU training for your participation in this research?

Yes ☐

No ☐

If yes which topic(s) would be of interest to you? You can check more than one.

1. ☐ Online Gaming Addiction

2. ☐ The Developmental Counseling Framework approach to clients with DSM diagnosis

3. ☐ Using Meditation with Depressed and Anxious Clients

This researcher will contact your organization shortly with availability in your area!

APPENDIX H
TICKET FOR FREE CEU EVENT
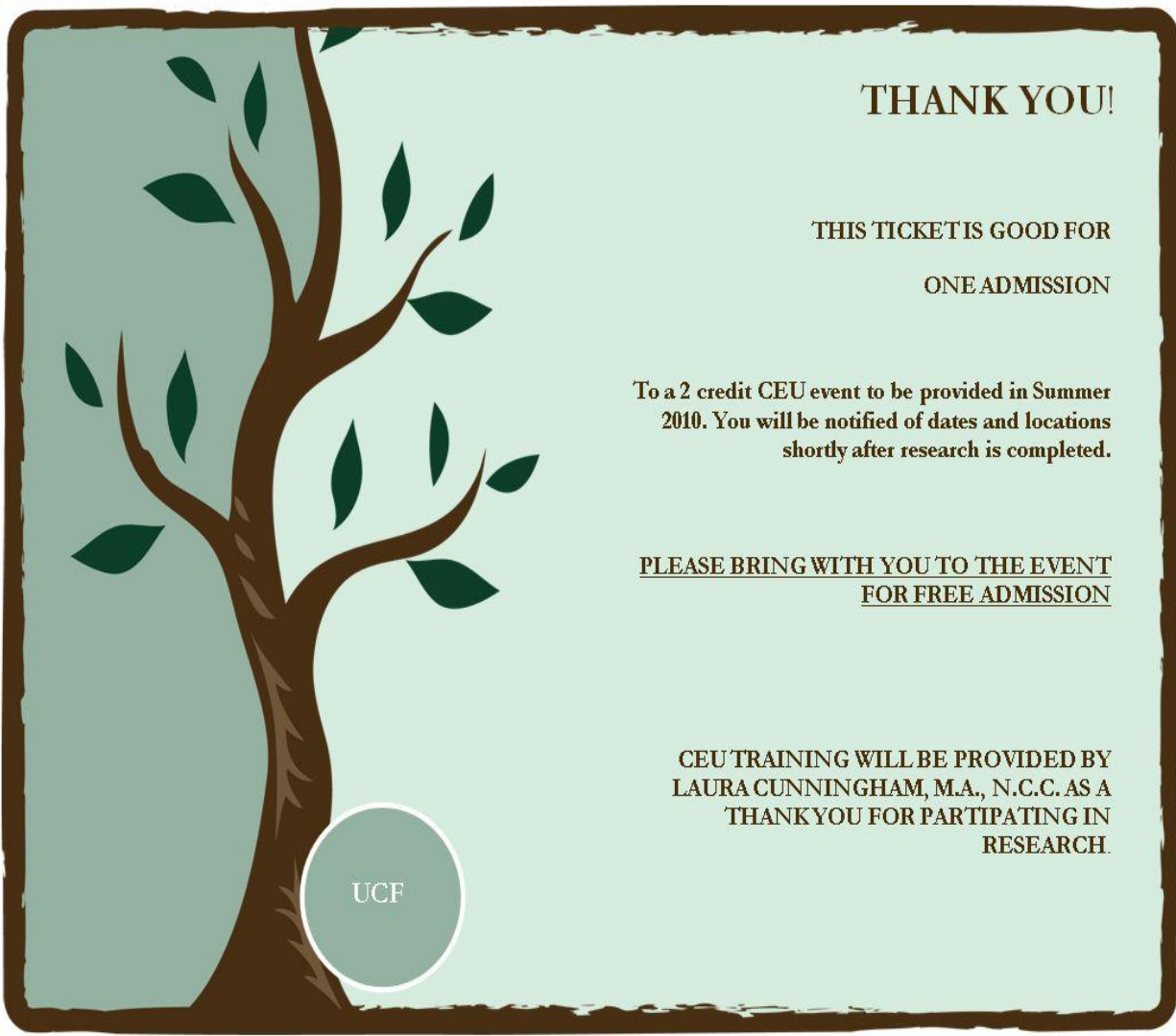
THANK YOU!

THIS TICKET IS GOOD FOR

ONE ADMISSION

To a 2 credit CEU event to be provided in Summer 2010. You will be notified of dates and locations shortly after research is completed.

PLEASE BRING WITH YOU TO THE EVENT FOR FREE ADMISSION

CEU TRAINING WILL BE PROVIDED BY LAURA CUNNINGHAM, M.A., N.C.C. AS A THANK YOU FOR PARTIPATING IN RESEARCH.

UCF

APPENDIX I
Agencies and Professional Organizations in Central Florida

Name of Organization (All of Florida)
Mental Health Counselors of Central Florida
Palm Beach Mental Health Counselors Association
Sun Coast Mental Health Counselors Association
Region 3 of Florida Counseling Association
Central Florida Association Marriage and Family Therapist
Local Chapters of the Florida Association Mental Health Counselors Association
Name of Site (Orlando and surrounding areas)
Center for Drug Free Living
The Healing Tree
Harbor House
Orange Blossom Heath Care
Catholic Charities
Stetson Universities
Circles of Care
Gulf Coast Mental Health Counselors Association
House Next Door
. Hospice of the Comforter

. Behavioral Strategies
. Path Coordinator
. Halifax Behavioral
. UCF Counseling Center
. Rollins Counseling Center
. Park Place
. University Behavioral Center
. Boystown
. Department of Juvenile Justice
. Children's Home Society
. Deveruex
Name of Site (Gainesville)
Mental Health Services
Mental Health Associates Social Services
Family counseling and Health
Gainesville family Institute
Village Counselors of Gainesville
Community Behavioral Sciences
Chrysalis Counseling Center
Alachua County Community Services
Grace Clinical Counseling

Name of Sites (Tampa)
Northside Mental Health Center
Charter Behavioral Health
Bayshore Counseling Center
Mental Health Care , Inc.
Heart to Heart Counseling
Green Fields Mental Health Services
Center for Mental Health Services

Name of Sites (Jacksonville)
Hope Haven Children Clinic and Family
Mental Health Research Center
Mental Health Center of Jacksonville
RCI Employment Services
Northwest Behavioral Health Services
River Region Human Services
Victim Services Center
Gateway Community Services
Jacksonville Center for Counseling
Birkmire Behavioral Health Care

APPPENDIX J

IRB OUTCOME LETTER

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: Laura Cunningham

Date: February 15, 2010

Dear Researcher:

On 2/15/2010, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review:	Exempt Determination
Project Title:	Job Satisfaction and Values of Counselors in Private Practice and Agency Settings
Investigator:	Laura Cunningham
IRB Number:	SBE-10-06703
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 Joseph Bielitzki, DVM, UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Joanne Muratori on 02/15/2010 03:25:08 PM EST

IRB Coordinator

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