

BURNOUT IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGE COUNSELORS

by

Theresa J. DeFranco

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

Community College Education

APPROVED:

Don G. Creamer, Co-Chairman

Lawrence H. Cross, Co-Chairman

Steve R. Parson

W. Robert Sullins

Roseanne J. Foti

December 1988

Blacksburg, Virginia

BURNOUT IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGE COUNSELORS

by

Theresa J. DeFranco

Committee Co-Chairmen: Don G. Creamer and Lawrence H. Cross
Community College Education

(ABSTRACT)

Several factors, such as changing academic environmental conditions and the nature of human service work, can be stressful for two-year college counselors. If stress from these sources goes unrelieved for prolonged periods, burnout can result. Although the literature suggests that social support can be an effective means of coping with burnout, studies are few and scattered among different occupational groups.

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence that social support variables (spouse/confidant, friends, co-workers, and supervisors) had on burnout in two-year college counselors. In addition, several job-related and demographic variables, found to be related to burnout in previous studies, were also used for this study. A randomly selected group of counselors employed at two-year colleges throughout the United States during the 1987-88 school year were surveyed.

Descriptive data were computed on all the variables in this study. The descriptive statistics for burnout found

only 18 counselors out of 507 experiencing high level of burnout as defined by Maslach (high scores on the emotional exhaustion subscale, and depersonalization accomplishment subscale). This somewhat surprising finding negated the possibility of trying to predict burnout by Maslach's definition. Therefore, attention was redirected at predicting scores for each of the three burnout subscales (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a recoded composite burnout score.

Major findings were: (a) age was a significant predictor of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and the composite burnout score; (b) emotional exhaustion decreased when opportunities for time-out increased and co-worker support, supervisor support, and total support increased; (c) depersonalization and burnout decreased when the number of full-time equivalent counselors increased and co-worker support, supervisor support, and total support increased; (d) personal accomplishment increased when counseling responsibilities increased and spouse/confidant support and total support increased.

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my co-chairmen Dr. Don G. Creamer and Dr. Lawrence H. Cross for their support and belief in me during each phase of my study. A sincere thank you is extended to Dr. Stephen R. Parson, Dr. W. Robert Sullins, and Dr. Roseanne J. Foti for serving on my dissertation committee. Also, recognition is extended to Dr. Richard Smith for his support during the early stages of this doctoral program.

I am grateful to the _____ of Education, administrators, and our past superintendent, _____, for supporting the release time that was needed to complete this doctoral program. I would also like to thank _____, president of Atlantic Community College, for his sponsorship of my mail surveys. My gratitude is extended to _____ for her assistance with the printing of my survey and to _____ for the long hours that she put in helping with each mailing. Also, a special thank you is extended to _____ for her assistance in typing this study.

I am grateful to my family including my two sisters _____ for their understanding and patience during my many missed family functions. Also, a thank you is extended to my aunt _____ who served as a role model for me during my early childhood years.

Finally, my gratitude is extended to some very special friends. I would like to thank my friends _____ and _____ and _____ for their continued support not only during my growing years but throughout this doctoral program. A thank you is extended to _____ for the many special happy times we shared during our residence at Virginia Tech and throughout this doctoral program. My gratitude is extended to my friend _____ who provided me with my first theoretical book on stress. A sincere thank you is also extended to my friend _____ who taught me how to strive and reach goals that might appear unattainable. Last, I would like to thank my very dear friend and driving partner _____. His continued support and willingness to listen throughout the good and rough times of this doctoral program has made his friendship very special.

Dedication

This study is dedicated to my parents, and
, for the love, patience, understanding, and
encouragement they have given me during my pursuit of this
doctoral degree.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	vi
LIST OF FIGURES.	xi
LIST OF TABLES	xii
 CHAPTER	
I INTRODUCTION	1
Background	3
Statement of the Problem	6
Purpose.	7
Research Questions	7
Need for the Study	8
Definitions.	10
Delimitations and Limitations.	12
II REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	13
Stress	13
Definitions.	13
Theoretical Explanations of Stress . .	15
Stress Models.	23
Burnout.	33
Definitions.	33
Primary Causes of Burnout.	35
Strategies for Coping with Burnout . .	46
Social Support	48

	Page
Definitions.	48
Social Support Hypotheses.	50
Impact of Off-the-Job Support.	51
Social Support and Psychological Health	52
Social Support and Psychological Health Outcomes.	56
Impact of On-the-Job Support	58
Relationship Between On and and Off-the-Job Social Support	63
Impact of Social Support on Human Service Professionals.	64
Burnout and Selected Individual Variables.	66
III METHODS.	69
Population and Sampling Plan	69
Instrumentation.	72
Prediction of Each Subscale and the Burnout Composite.	76
Research Questions	77

	Page
IV RESULTS.	81
Description of the Sample.	81
Tests of the Hypotheses.	90
Regression Analyses.	91
Emotional Exhaustion	94
Depersonalization.	97
Personal Accomplishment.	100
Burnout Composite.	102
V SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.	105
Summary.	105
Conclusions.	108
Implications	110
Recommendations.	111
REFERENCES	114
Appendix A: Questionnaire	134
Appendix B: Cover Letter 1st Mailing.	145
Appendix C: Postcard.	147
Appendix D: Cover Letter 2nd Mailing.	149
Appendix E: Cover Letter 3rd Mailing.	151
Appendix F: Counselor Comments.	153

	Page
Appendix G: Permission Letters.	156
VITA	165

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
1. A General Model of the Relationships Between Occupation, Job Stress, Strain, and Health Illness.	21
2. Theoretical Model of Stress, Strain, and Consequences of Strain.	22
3. Interacting Environmental Components: Positive (+) and/or Negative (-).	24
4. A Framework for Interactions Between the Individual and the Environment.	27
5. IRS Model of Stress	30
6. A Paradigm of Stress Research	32
7. The "Conditioning" or "Buffering" (i.e. Interactive) Effect of Social Support on the Relationship Between Occupational Stress and Health	60

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
1. Categories in the Sample Selection Process.	70
2. Frequencies and Percentages of Questionnaire Responses Within Each Institutional Group	82
3. Frequencies and Percentages of the Demographic Variables.	83
4. Frequencies and Percentages of Time Devoted to Three Major Job Responsibilities	86
5. Frequencies and Percentages of Institutional Characteristics and Total Support (Spouse/Confidant, Plus Friend Support, Plus Co-Worker Support, Plus Supervisor Support).	87
6. Frequencies and Percentages of Students Counseled in a Week	89
7. Frequencies and Percentages of the Three Burnout Subscales and the Recoded Burnout Score (Emotional Exhaustion, Plus Depersonalization, Plus Personal Accomplishment).	92
8. Intercorrelation Matrix of the Independent and Dependent Variables.	95
9. Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression Analyses of the Independent Variables on Emotional Exhaustion.	96

	Page
10. Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression Analyses of the Independent Variables on Depersonalization	98
11. Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression Analyses of the Independent Variables on Personal Accomplishment	101
12. Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression Analyses of the Independent Variables on the Burnout Composite	103

CHAPTER I

Introduction

The academic community has been confronted by a form of stress called burnout. In this study, burnout has been defined as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work extensively with people. The impact of burnout on higher education is such that it can reduce the over-all effectiveness of an institution. Burnout typically strikes the most enthusiastic, committed, and dedicated workers, leaving them physically and emotionally exhausted and unable to function efficiently in their jobs.

Stress has been identified as the main cause of burnout, but other conditions of the academic environment also contribute. For example, such issues as enrollment declines, financial concerns, aging faculty, and increased demands for accountability place pressure on people. As stress from these issues exceeds the tolerance level of a staff member, the gateway to burnout is opened.

In higher education, two-year college counselors constitute one group likely to experience burnout. Several factors such as the nature of human service work and changing academic environmental conditions can be stressful. In

addition, there is general agreement among researchers that human service work is psychologically fatiguing. Still further, Edelwich and Brodsky (1980), Shapiro (1981), and Warnath (1979) have indicated that many individuals enter human service fields with idealistic, highly romanticized expectations about what they can accomplish. These expectations contribute to considerable stress and frustration on the job. If unrelieved for a prolonged period, this stress can lead to burnout.

The academic community's response to burnout in education is just beginning to be recognized. The National Education Association, in agreement with Pines, Aronson, and Kafry (1981), considers burnout such a severe problem that it has passed a resolution encouraging local school authorities "to develop stress management programs that will facilitate the recognition, prevention and treatment of stress related problems" (Swick & Hanley, 1980, p. 36). In higher education, however, burnout is still an enigma. Many decision-makers have little awareness of the condition or its consequences.

To recognize and alleviate burnout in higher education, current research must continue to be studied and disseminated in the academic community. Studies will enable leaders to identify the severity of burnout within their college and provide direction for further staff development programs that can be offered. Such research will be addressed in this

study. Several conceptual frameworks of stress and the person-environment fit theory will be used contextually for the study.

Background

The early research of physiologist Hans Selye (1956) gave impetus to the concept of stress and its link to disease. Selye analyzed the impact of threatening conditions on physiological well-being. He discovered that the body reacts to various threatening situations in the environment with such physiological changes as increased heart rate and endocrine secretions. It is these specific physiological changes that Selye defined as stress.

Stimulus researchers define stress as those aspects of the environment that are demanding or disorganizing for an individual. This approach places an emphasis on analyzing the cause of stress rather than on defining stress as a physical or emotional reaction.

French, Rodgers, and Cobb (1974), who study occupational stress, hold that stress is neither out there in the environment nor wholly within the individual. Rather, it is the result of a mismatch between the individual and his or her job environment, or a failure of the person's environmental fit.

Several conceptual frameworks for stress research have been developed (French, Caplan, Harrison, & Pinneau, 1976;

House & Wells, 1978; Kahn, 1981; Shaw, Bensky, & Dixon, 1981; Shinn, 1979) and will be addressed in this study. A more recent conceptual framework has been proposed by the steering committee in the Institute of Medicine report on Stress and Human Health (Elliott & Eisdorfer, 1982). In this framework, these researchers focused on how the environment can affect individuals. They identified three primary elements that interact between the individual and the environment. The first element initiates the stress process and becomes activated when an event or condition in the environment changes an individual's present state, thus causing the individual to react (biologically or psychosocially) to that activator.

The end result of this reaction leads to a (positive or negative) consequence (Elliott & Eisdorfer, 1982). This activator - reaction - consequence has been referred to as the X - Y - Z sequence and will serve as a conceptual base for this present study of two-year college counselors.

Freudenberger (1974) first coined the term "burnout" to help explain the cumulative debilitating effects of individuals who were unable to cope with severe and chronic stress related to their job (cited in Edelwich & Brodsky, 1980). While working as a psychoanalyst, during the 70s, he recognized this syndrome in human service workers. Other researchers as well (Kafry & Pines, 1980; Maslach, 1976; Maslach & Pines, 1977; Pines et al., 1981; Pines & Kafry,

1978; Pines & Maslach, 1978) have found that these workers often pay a heavy psychological price for the constant or repeated strain of helping people in trouble. Burnout has also been identified as a major factor in low morale (Austin, 1981; Pines & Maslach, 1978; Stewart & Meszaros, 1981); absenteeism (Pines & Maslach, 1981); high job turnover (Austin, 1981; Pines & Maslach, 1978); and low productivity (Stewart & Meszaros, 1981).

Recent stress research has revealed that social support can act directly to reduce stresses and consequent burnout. It can also act as a buffer between occupational stress and various deleterious physical and mental results. According to Dean (1986), Durkheim's study of suicide in 1897 may have been one of the theoretical roots of the current conception of social support and related concepts. In his classic study, he illuminated the origins of disease based on social conditions. Durkheim expected suicide rates to reflect the nature and function of various forms of social integration. Since then, other studies have attempted to examine the relationship of social systems to the occurrence of psychiatric disorders.

In a series of studies of white collar men in NASA, it was found that social support, from one's supervisor and from one's subordinates, buffers the effects of job stress (Caplan, 1972; French, 1973; French & Caplan, 1972). In addition, House and Wells (1978) have indicated that

increases in social support from supervisors would directly reduce certain kinds of occupational stress (e.g., role conflict), and hence, improve health. The implications of social support for stress prevention and intervention could strengthen the over-all effectiveness of an institution.

Statement of the Problem

The literature suggests that many capable, committed counselors are succumbing to a severe form of job-related stress called "burnout" (Maslach, 1978a, 1978b, 1979; Spaniol & Caputo, 1980; Warnath, 1979; Warnath & Shelton, 1976). The burnout syndrome is marked by extreme disillusionment and ultimate withdrawal from family and career. Burnout eventually leads many dedicated human service professionals to become ineffective and apathetic workers. Still further, it takes a toll, not only on counselors themselves, but on the organization and clients they serve. Maslach, in particular, attempted to develop a framework from which to study and better understand burnout. Her research has focused on the common sources of stress shared by those in human service professions. In addition, other researchers have indicated that some individuals may be exposed to other variables that serve to buffer the stress which leads to the deleterious effects of burnout. One such variable addressed in the literature is that of social support. This form of support has been found to reduce the effects of various sorts

of stress. A study of unemployed factory workers (Gore, 1973) demonstrated that men whose wives offered them support displayed fewer symptoms of stress than men who did not receive such support. The problem in this study is to determine the degree of burnout and the level of social support as perceived by counselors in two-year colleges.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between selected variables and burnout in two-year college counselors.

Research Questions

This study will examine the following major research questions:

1. What is the relationship between burnout and the demographic variable of:
 - a. age?
 - b. gender?
 - c. marital status?
 - d. ethnic background?
 - e. educational attainment?

Other research questions will include:

2. What is the relationship between burnout and the job characteristic of:
 - a. opportunity for sanctioned "time-out"?

- b. percentage of time spent with counseling duties?
 - c. percentage of time spent with teaching duties?
 - d. ratio of students to counselors?
 - e. size of school (number of students)?
 - f. setting of school (rural, suburban, urban)?
 - g. years of counseling experience at a two-year college?
 - h. additional hours worked each week?
3. What is the relationship between burnout and support received from:
- a. spouse/confidant?
 - b. friends?
 - c. co-workers?
 - d. supervisors?
 - e. total?

Need for the Study

The concept of burnout is a well known occurrence as it applies to the human service profession. A plethora of research includes reports that burnout can be mentally and physically debilitating to workers, costly to institutions and agencies, and detrimental to clients (Cherniss, 1980; Edelwich & Brodsky, 1980; Ekbohm, 1985; Farber, 1983; Freudenberger & Richelson, 1980; Jones, 1981; Paine, 1982; Pines et al., 1981). In the field of counseling, Garte and Rosenblum (1978), Hagan, Haug, and Sussman (1975), Pines and

Maslach (1978), and Warnath and Shelton (1976) confirmed that professional burnout is a serious problem.

Research shows that it usually strikes the most competent and committed--those who feel strongly about the value of what they are doing and who want to do the best job. According to Pines et al. (1981), one of the great costs of burnout is the diminution of the effective service of the very best people in a given profession.

In spite of the interest on burnout, there is still a lack of basic research on this specific issue. Studies are few in number and scattered among the different occupational groups (Maslach, 1981). In addition, more systematic studies need to be performed to determine the factors that lead to professional burnout and to determine solutions which are effective in the prevention or lessening of burnout (Walsh, 1979). These factors, coupled with the debilitating mental and physical consequences burnout can have on human service professions, indicate a need for more empirical research.

Pines et al. (1981) called the efficient and creative use of social support "among the most effective ways of coping with burnout" (p. 122). In addition, several studies showed the benefits of social support for psychological and physical health in the face of occupational stress (House & Wells, 1978; La Rocco, House, & French, 1980; La Rocco & Jones, 1978) and the stress of human service work in particular (Pines et al., 1981). Mueller (1980) points out

that social support appears to be a factor more amenable to change through intervention than are some of the other variables such as personality traits.

Evidence of the ameliorating effects of social support are just beginning to accumulate. House and Wells (1978) have noted that the potential gains from enhancing social support are many, and the potential risk costs are few. Thus, recognizing this, it is advisable to continue to experiment with social support as an important variable for buffering people against the debilitating effects of occupational stress and burnout.

The intent of this study was to determine whether certain deficits in the personal and occupational social support system of sampled community college counselors resulted in stress and burnout. If significant results are found, efforts could be directed toward determining strategies that would prevent or lessen the impact of burnout in counselors entering the counseling profession.

Definitions

The following definitions apply in the context of the present study:

Burnout. A syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do "people-work" of some kind (Mashlach, 1976). The Mashlach Burnout Inventory

operationally defines burnout as high scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization Subscales and low scores on the Personal Accomplishment Subscale (Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

Counselors. Counselors employed at two-year colleges throughout the United States during the 1987-88 school year.

Human service professions. Those professions whose major duties require close, personal contact with people in need (Ekblom, 1985).

Moderating variables. Situational or individual characteristics that moderate (or buffer, reduce, cushion, or condition) the relationship between perceived stress and health (House & Wells, 1978).

Social support. Information that leads a person to believe that he or she is loved and cared for, valued and esteemed, and is part of a network of mutual obligation and communication (Cobb, 1976). The scores on The Social Support Measure provide an operational definition for social support (House, 1980). The Social Support Measure includes spouse/confidant support, supervisor support, co-worker support, friend support, and total support.

Social support networks/systems. Lasting interpersonal ties to groups of people who share common values and standards; and who can be counted on to provide feedback, emotional sustenance, resources, and assistance (Caplan, 1974).

Strain. A behavioral or psychological deviation from normal responses in an individual (French, 1976).

Stress. A misfit between the person and his or her environment resulting from an individual perceiving a situation as threatening due to excessive demands or inadequate supplies to meet an individual's needs (French, 1976).

Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to counselors who are employed at two-year colleges. In addition, there are at least two other limitations to this study. They include:

1. The study is survey in nature, therefore, causal ordering cannot be established.
2. The study will rely solely on self-report (therefore, subjective) indicators of all variables.

CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

The first section of the chapter is used to examine literature on various definitions, theories, and conceptual frameworks of stress including the conceptualization of the construct of burnout as a continuum within the stress-distress process. The second section is devoted to current research regarding burnout. It includes definitions of burnout, the clientele affected and why, its consequences, and its link with the stress-distress research frameworks. The third section of this chapter includes discussions of social support and is used to examine the relevance of this construct as a key element in the prevention of such stress-related, ill-health outcomes as occupational burnout. Within this section, literature supporting both on- and off-the-job social support and its positive effects on occupational strain and burnout will be reviewed. The last section is used to identify and document the individual variables in this study.

Stress

Definitions

Stress research includes an array of definitions for the term "stress." Most definitions are based upon three types of models or theories of stress--stimulus oriented theories,

response oriented theories, and organism oriented or interactional theories.

Stimulus oriented theories define stress as a potential residing within the organism's environment. According to this view, those aspects of the environment which are demanding or disorganizing impose stress upon an individual. Stimulus theorists frequently use an engineering analogy for conceptualizing stress. In such theories, stress is viewed as a force or stimulus which, if present in sufficient magnitude, induces strain or deformation in an object to which it is applied (McLean, 1974). This formulation is analogous to Cannon's (1935) early definition of stress. According to Cannon, an amount of stress which exceeded a critical threshold could strain people beyond their adaptive level. The engineering analogy possesses surface appeal; however, it is often too simplistic a model for human stress phenomena.

Response oriented theories define stress as the physiological or psychological response of an individual to an external event or condition called a stressor (Matteson & Ivanwich, 1982). This definition was influenced primarily through the work of Selye (1970) and his elucidation of the general adaptation syndrome. Selye (1956) defined the general adaptation syndrome as a nonspecific bodily response to psychological and biological demands. Although this syndrome is useful in explaining psychological stress, other

research shows that the body's reaction to stress is dependent upon whether the stressor is biological or psychological (Baum, Singer, & Baum, 1981).

Interactional theorists recognize the characteristics of the organism as dominant mechanisms that mediate between stimulus characteristics of the environment and the responses they invoke. The person-environment fit theory provides an interactional perspective that meshes with a stress perspective. This theory defines stress as any characteristic of the environment that poses a threat to the individual--either excessive demands or insufficient supplies to meet his or her needs--and that result in a misfit between the person and his or her environment (French, 1976).

Theoretical Explanations of Stress

A Biological Perspective of Stress

A biological perspective of stress emphasizes the direct effects of environmental factors of human health. According to the biological models of Cannon, Selye, and Mason, the key link to understanding stress is the understanding of the adjustments the organism makes in order to maintain a positive balance. In their views, stress is generated by threatened curtailment of the needs central to organismic survival.

Cannon (1928) examined those emotional factors of stress that disrupted an individual's normal internal environment. He described emotional stress as a syndrome involving activation of the adrenal medulla and the subsequent release of catecholamines. The function of one of the released substances (epinephrine) involved establishing readiness in an organism for "fight or flight." When situations signaled danger, sympathetic arousal was supported and extended by elevation of circulating epinephrine--thus preparing the organism to cope. Cannon (1963) suggested that the name "homeostasis" be given to the coordinated physiological processes which maintain internal stability. However, stress that exceeded an individual's critical threshold could strain one beyond the adaptive limits.

It was this background that eventually led Selye (1936) to become interested in the condition which he referred to as the "syndrome of just being sick" (p. 9). In 1956, Selye described the problem as the General Adaptation Syndrome, and divided this physiological response to stress into three stages. In so doing, he explained various nonspecific reactions of the pituitary-adrenal axis to pathogenic insults. These responses were evident in Selye's study of rats exposed to a variety of environmental insults. He found that a common pattern of bodily reactions consistently occurs regardless of the particular insult the body encounters (Arkes & Garske, 1982). This pattern of nonspecific

responses, the General Adaptation Syndrome, includes a sequence of alarm, resistance, and exhaustion that is characterized by certain physical events.

During the first stage in the General Adaptation Syndrome (G.A.S.), the body enters into a period of alarm which sets off an entire constellation of psychological responses. The purpose of this alarm is to defend against its perception of the harmful effects of a physical or mental stressor. If the stress is prolonged during this stage, the body manifests such signs as an enlarged adrenal gland and stomach ulceration. The second stage, the "state of resistance," is entered if the stress persists. In this stage, the nervous and endocrine system play an important role in restoring the body to a homeostatic state. A state of maximal resistance to stress is reached during this period. The "stage of exhaustion" occurs if the stress persists even further. During the exhaustion stage, resistance to stress deteriorates as the hormonal levels in the body elevate greatly. When resistance declines, physiological breakdown occurs, and the body becomes highly susceptible to disease.

This explanation of stress is primarily a "pathogen model," in which threats to the organism are physiological, and the organism's response is determined by mobilization to fight off this disease or infection. Selye's work encouraged

other researchers, e.g., Mason (1975), to analyze the specific impact that various stressors have on the body.

Work by Lacey (1967), Mason, Maher, Hartley, Mougey, Perlow, and Jones (1976), and others challenged the nonspecificity hypothesis of Selye's model. Mason and his colleagues argued that a necessary prerequisite for adrenal activity in the stress response is psychological threat. This is contrary to Selye's position that pathogens are sufficient for pituitary-adrenal arousal (Mason, 1975). This issue has been disputed by Selye and presently stands at a point of controversy (Selye, 1975). Mason (1968, 1975) has claimed that, at least as far as patterns of endocrine activity are concerned, the relationship between physiological response and emotional arousal or distress is specific.

An Individual Perspective of Stress

Goldberger and Breznitz (1982) suggested that individuals differ to some extent with respect to how they perceive, select, use, and interpret information from a certain event. Similarly, Averill (1979) stated that "to become a source of threat, an event must be appraised as potentially harmful . . . what may be appraised as harmful by one person may be appraised as benign by another, or by the same individual at some later time" (p. 367). Further, Burchfield (1979) claimed that an adaptive or maladaptive response to an event is influenced by an individual's

perception of that event and the meaning and value he/she attaches to it. If an event becomes so demanding that an individual is unable to accommodate its continued demand, all physiological and psychological coping energy will be depleted, and burnout will occur (Pusateri-Vlach, & Moracco, 1981).

An Individual-Environmental Perspective of Stress

The Person-Environment Fit Theory is one of the most widely accepted views of stress used in the literature. The basic premise of this theory holds that stress is neither out there in the environment nor wholly within the individual. Rather, it is the result of a mismatch between the individual and his or her environment, or a failure of the person-environment fit (French et al., 1974). This theory of stress takes into account both the complexity and the need for equilibrium in the relationship between internal and external factors. According to Goldberg and Breznitz (1982), a maximal fit in the personal environment relationship will exist when individuals and groups are able to pursue their goals with maximal support and minimal interference from the physical environment. Contrary to this notion is a minimal fit that exists when people receive maximum interference from the environment with the least amount of support.

French, Caplan, Harrison, and Pinneau (1976) developed a basic model to further explain their view of stress, the

person-environment fit, and its effects on individuals (See Figure 1). In their view, each occupation is comprised of various job demands or stresses. The worker will experience threat or stress if (a) the demands or stresses of one's job exceed the abilities of the individual, or (b) if the environmental supplies and opportunities leave major needs or motives unmet. Strain, a possible end result of unchecked stress, can be defined as any deviation from normal responses in an individual. French et al. (1976) hypothesized that these strains can affect various measures of health and illness.

One consequence of the effects of strain is burnout. A model constructed by Shinn (1979) illustrates this concept and is shown in Figure 2. According to Shinn, stress is a potentially damaging environmental force or condition that impinges upon the well-being of an individual. Based on Shinn's model, stress leads to strain which, in turn, results in such behavioral and psychological consequences as burnout. Shinn's model conceptualizes burnout on a continuum ranging from "strain," the product of job stress, to the "consequences of strain," a more intense area. Similarly, Kafry and Pines (1980) confirmed the notion that burnout occurs along a continuum. Such milder forms of burnout as feelings of strain are at one end, while the "breaking point" of the person is at the opposite end.

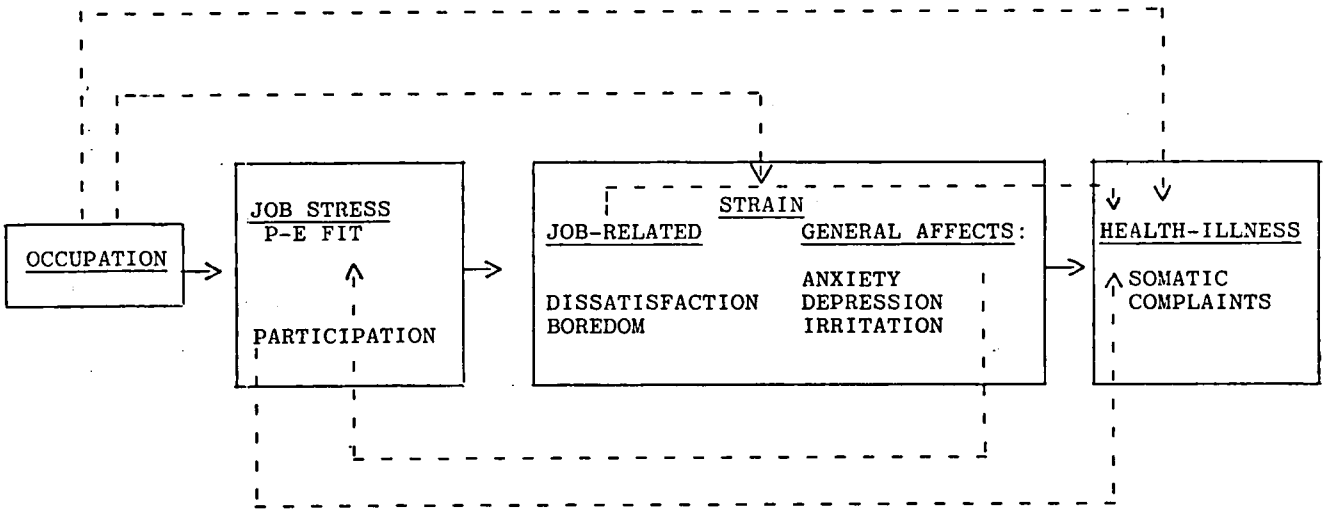


Figure 1. A General model of the Relationships Between Occupation, Job Stress, and Health Illness

Note: Dotted arrows represent relationships theoretically derived if the causal arrows hold true.

Note: From *Job Demands and Worker Health* (p. 11) by French, J. R. P., Jr., Caplan, R. D., Harrison, R. V., and Pinneau, S. R., Jr., 1976, Symposium presented at the 84th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC, 1976. Reprinted by permission of Caplan.

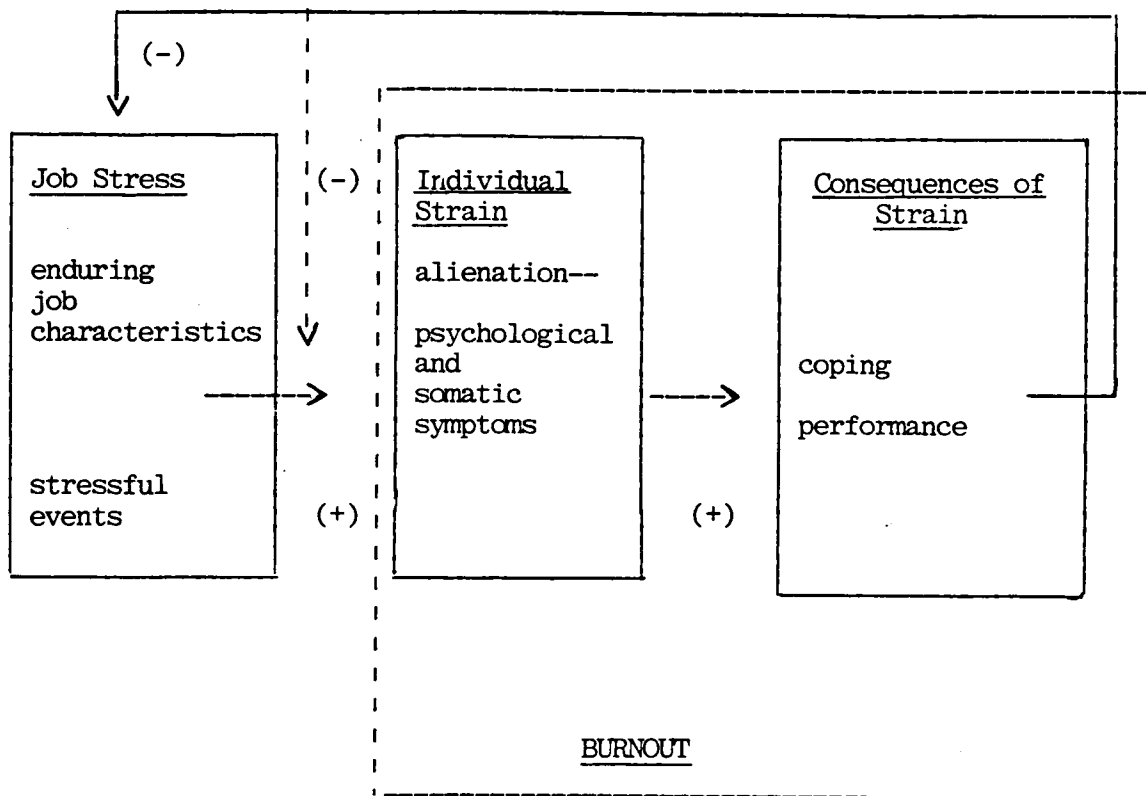


Figure 2. Theoretical Model of Stress, Strain, and Consequences of Strain.

Note: From Shinn, M. (1979). Staff burnout and turnover in child care agencies (p. 19), In: Burnout in Education, p. 34. (Mackenzie, T. E.) Doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1981. Reprinted by permission of Shinn.

Shaw et al. (1981) used a modified version of Hersey/Blanchard model to illustrate the environmental variables that interact with a person in their work setting (Figure 3). A close examination of these variables shows that each situation can result in a negative or a positive interaction. In addition, an important component which determines the outcome of the interaction is the "fit" which exists between the counselor and the environmental variables. Thus, one is led to conclude that any individual stress experienced by the counselor is based largely on this fit.

Stress Models

Several conceptual frameworks for stress research have been developed (French et al., 1976; House & Wells, 1978; Shinn, 1979; Kahn, 1981; Shaw, Bensky, & Dixon, 1981). Although each of these models examine the individual in relation to the environment, a more recent behavioral conceptual framework for stress research has been proposed by the steering committee in the Institute of Medicine Report on Stress and Human Health (Elliott & Eisoderfer, 1982). In this framework, researchers focus on ways in which the environment can affect individuals. They identify three primary elements which interact between the individual and the environment. The first of these elements becomes activated by an internal and/or external environmental event or condition that changes an individual's present state. (In

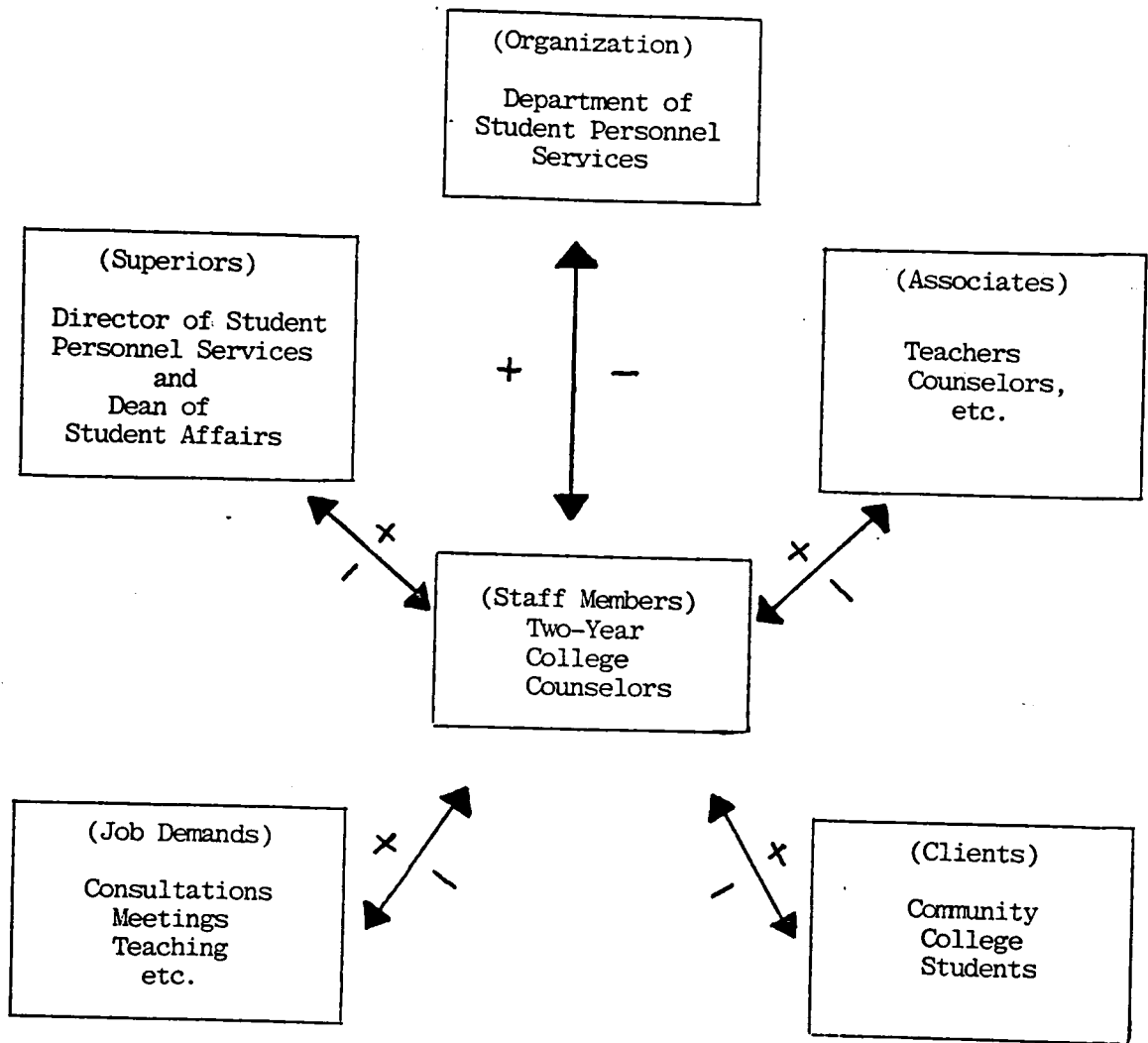


Figure 3. Interacting environmental components: positive (+) and/or negative (-)

Note: From Stress and Burnout, (p. 12) by Shaw, S. F., Bensky, J. M., and Dixon, B., 1981, Virginia: Council for Exceptional Children, 1981. Adapted by permission.

explaining this process, the use of the term "activator" is analogous to the term "stressor"). To be an activator, a condition needs only the potential to produce a change. The organizational complexity of these activators may range from a single enzyme working its way through organ systems to various psychological states, each being greatly influenced by the intensity, quantity, and temporal pattern of the activator. To characterize and identify potential activators for specific settings (e.g., educational environments) or individuals (e.g., counselors), one should be able to define them in terms of their probability of becoming stressors. In this particular study, these potential activators have been identified and characterized with their bases in the literature.

The second element, reaction, is revealed in the psychosocial or biological responses of an individual to an activator. Similar to activators, the level of complexity at which reactions occur can vary and can be influenced greatly by the intensity, quantity, and temporal pattern of the reaction. Some of these reactions may accumulate sufficiently or be intense enough to produce important consequences. However, other reactions are transient and produce no notable consequences.

The third of these elements are the sequelae to reactions, being the consequence, which are the result of more prolonged or cumulative effects of reactions. Like

activators and reactions, consequences can differ from one another in intensity, quantity, and temporal patterns. They also can occur at levels of structural complexity ranging from psychological and social to molecular and physiological. For purposes of this study, burnout will be the consequence of concern. Primarily associated with a negative consequence in our society, burnout is reflective of an evaluative component--the perception of whether a consequence is desirable or undesirable relative to some social or personal standard. Such a component plays an important role in one's assessment of a consequence.

The end result of this reaction is a positive or negative consequence (Elliott & Eisdorfer, 1982). This activator-reaction-consequence has been referred to as the X-Y-Z sequence. The sequence is not always straightforward and predictable. For example, potential activators may produce no reaction at all in one person, only a transient reaction in another, and an extreme reaction with marked consequence in a third person. In addition, as a result of changes during one's life course, the same individual may produce different reactions (see Figure 4).

During each stage in the X-Y-Z sequence, mediators act as filters or modifiers which produce individual variations in the sequence. The significance of a specific potential activator may be altered greatly by biological and psychological mediators. These mediators may also serve to

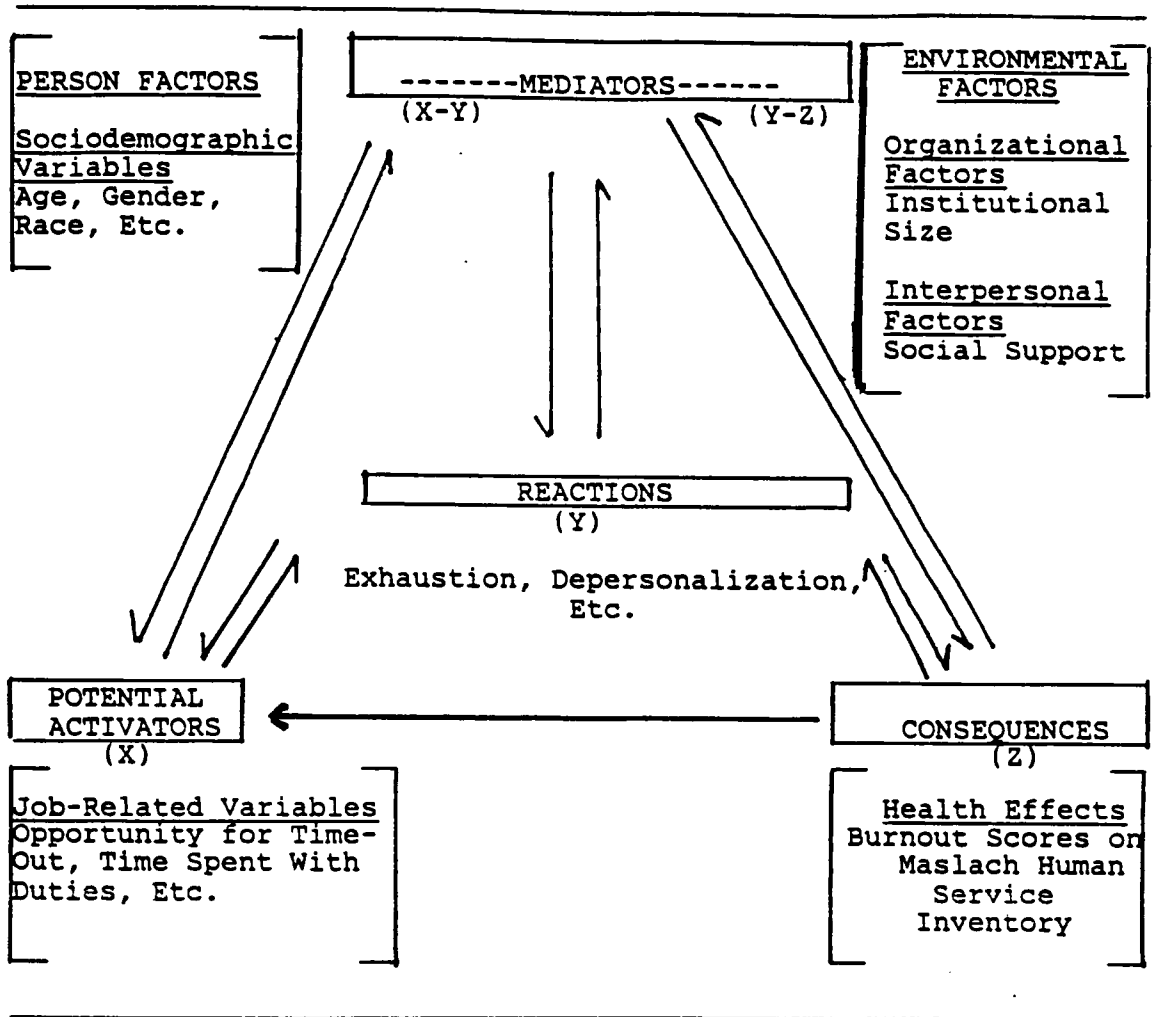


Figure 4. A Framework for interactions Between the Individual and the Environment

Note: Variables in [] represent the variables used in this present study of two-year college counselors.

Note: From Stress and Human Health (p. 19) by Elliott, G. R. and Eisdorfer, c., 1982, New York: Springer Publishing Co., 1982. Adapted by permission.

explain why one individual seems to experience many potential stressors without having any apparent consequence, while another reacts markedly and has many consequences. In this study, social support is the mediator which will be acting as a modifier. The researcher selected the X - Y - Z sequence as the conceptual base for this project because the process appeared to support the purpose of the study. For example, this model considered the influence that mediators had on either the conversion of the activator to the reaction, or on the reaction to the consequence.

Kahn's (1981) elaboration of the "IRS model" of stress is in accord with the behavioral science framework for stress research. Moreover, his model is similar to those proposed by other stress researchers (Levi, 1972; McGrath, 1970). In Kahn's paradigm, six classes of causally linked variables which involve a set of phenomena and processes are viewed as stress. They include:

- (1) Objective organizational environments
- (2) Perceptions of stress
- (3) Short-term affective, physiological or behavioral responses
- (4) Changes in mental and physical health
- (5) Enduring characteristics
- (6) Environment or interpersonal situation

Kahn proposes that these six causally linked variable process stress in the following manner.

Objective organizational environments or situations give rise to one's psychological perceptions of those environments. These include perceptions of stress--feelings that environmental demands are excessive relative to the individual's abilities, or environmental opportunities are inadequate to justify the individual's needs (French, 1974). Short-term affective, physiological or behavioral responses are increased by these perceptions and responses which may alter the individual's perceptions of the environment (how one adapts or copes) or objective environment. Finally, these responses may lead to more sustained changes in mental and physical health, depending on their nature, duration, and intensity. This process (Figure 5, arrows A-D) occurs or can recur over time, with the nature of the relationship or effect being conditional on the individual's enduring characteristics such as demographic properties and environment or interpersonal situation. For example, according to Cassel (1976) and Cobb (1976) individuals with supportive or trustful interpersonal relations are less likely to experience adverse health outcomes following exposure to stressors (Figure 5) (Elliott & Eisdorfer, 1982, p. 84).

House and Wells' 1978 model of stress points out that "stress" is in the eye of the beholder. This means that stress occurs when an individual is confronted with a situation in which one's usual modes of behaving are

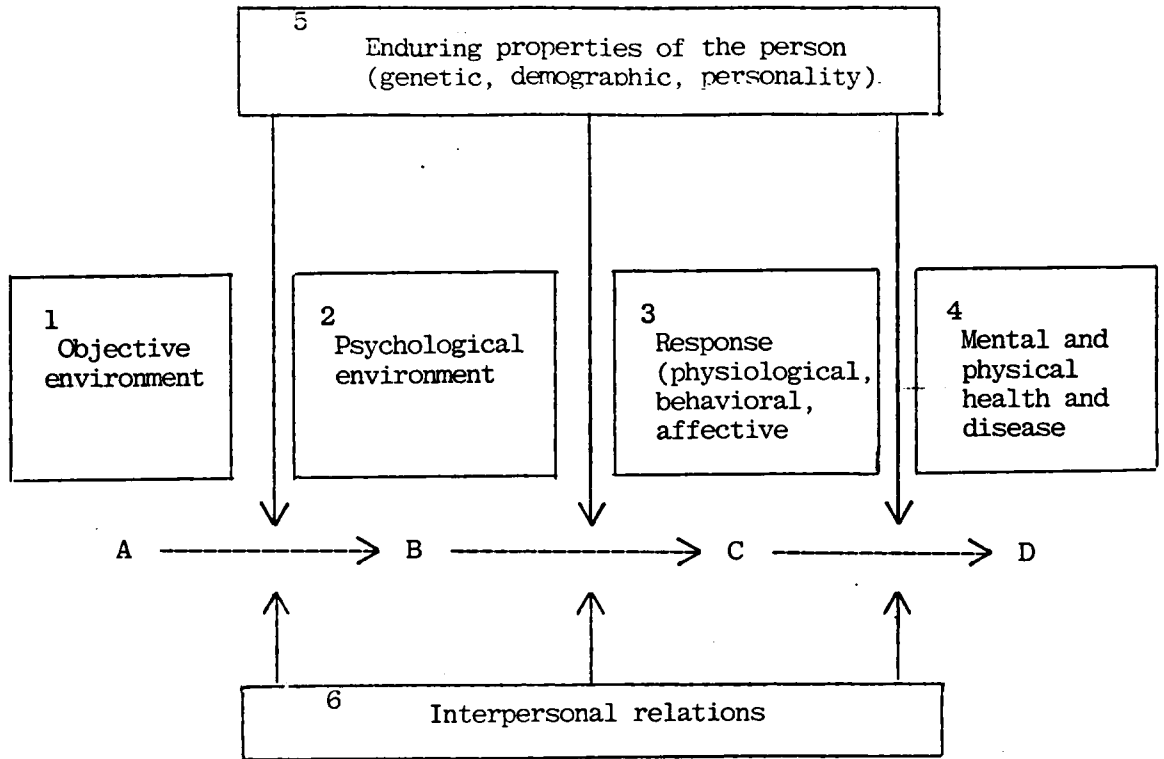


Figure 5. ISR Model of Stress

Note: From Work and Health (Figure 4.2) by Kahn, R. L. (1981), In: Stress and Human Health, p. 83 (Elliott, G. R. and Eisdorfer, C.) New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc. Reprinted by permission.

insufficient, and he/she perceives serious consequences of not adapting as serious. According to McGrath (1970) and French et al. (1974), these situations occur when the demands on an individual exceed one's abilities or when one is unable to fulfill strong values or needs. House and Wells (1978) have suggested that no objective social or occupational situation will necessarily produce perceptions of stress or its resultant psychological, physiological, or behavioral responses and outcomes in all people exposed to the situation. However, this may occur in such extreme situations as concentration camps or disasters (Figure 6). All three of these models (Elliott & Eisdorfer, 1982; Kahn, 1981; House & Wells, 1978) suggest that potentially stressful objective social conditions (e.g., overload and administrative responsibility), produce enduring health outcomes (e.g., mental and physical illness) only when the conditions are perceived as stressful and responded to in a manner conducive to disease. For example, of two employees exposed to the same work demands, one may find the situation too stressful, while the other may consider it optimal. The results depend upon the individual's perception of the fit or lack of fit.

As mentioned earlier, one moderating variable that appears to alter an individual's reactions to stress is social support. Several researchers (Caplan, 1972; Cobb, 1976; French & Caplan, 1972) suggest that organizational

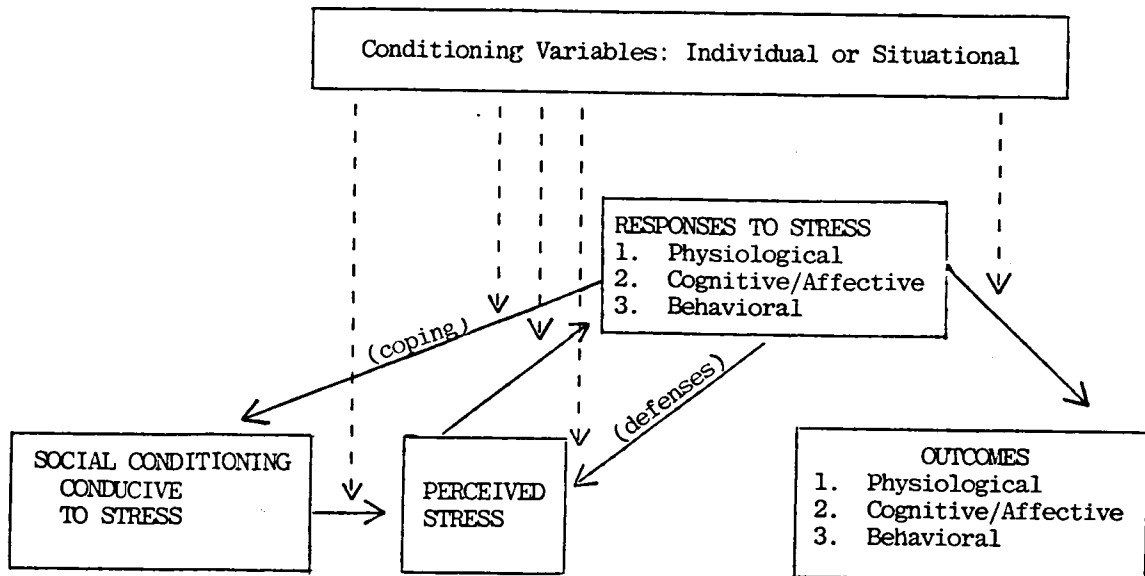


Figure 6. A Paradigm of Stress Research

Note: Solid arrows between boxes indicate presumed causal relationships among variables. Dotted arrows from the box labeled "conditioning variables" intersect solid arrows, indicating an interaction between the conditioning variables and the variables in the box at the beginning of the solid arrow in predicting variables in the box at the head of the solid arrow.

Note: From Occupational stress and health by House, J. S. and Wells, J. A., 1978, In: Reducing Occupational Stress, p. 13. (McLean, A., Black, G., and Colligan, M., eds.) Washington, DC: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1978, DHEW (NIDSH). Reprinted by permission.

stress is less marked for people with supportive relationships than for those who lack such support. A detailed examination of this moderating or conditioning variable is incorporated into this chapter. However, the review will be preceded by an examination of one result of excessive stress--burnout.

Burnout

Definitions

There are many situations in which people work intensely and intimately with other people. Such situations occur in the field of human services. Since the professionals in this field learn about people's psychological, social, and physical problems, they are often called upon to provide personal help of some kind. Maslach and Pines (1979) suggested that human service professionals often pay an extreme psychological price for serving in a "brother's keeper" capacity. In many cases, human service professionals who are unable to cope with the continued emotional job stress, eventually experience burnout.

Edelwich and Brodsky (1980), Freudenberger and Richelson (1980), Maslach (1982), and Pines et al. (1981) have studied the occurrence of burnout in human service providers.

Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) defined burnout as:

A condition experienced by individuals in the helping professions that results in a progressive loss of idealism, purpose, and energy. (p. 14)

Freudeberger and Richelson (1980) defined burnout as:

Depleting oneself and exhausting both physical and mental resources. A state of being worn out from excessively striving to reach unrealistic expectations imposed by the values of society on oneself. (p. 17)

Maslach (1982) viewed burnout as:

A syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment experienced by people in helping professions as a result of their work environment, job-related frustrations, and job strain.

Pines, Aronson and Kafry (1981) considered burnout as:

A syndrome of emotional and physical exhaustion and cynicism experienced by individuals who do some kind of "people work". It can result in gradual detachment from clients, and negative feelings about oneself and their job.

The Primary Cause of Burnout:
A Discrepancy Between Expectations and Reality

A mismatch between an individual's dreams and reality is the common thread which connects all these definitions of burnout. Such phrases as a "failure in the quest for ideals," "a progressive loss of idealism," and "excessively striving to reach some unrealistic expectation," acknowledge that a disillusioned idealism is caused by a discrepancy between an individual's aspirations and on-the-job accomplishments. This discrepancy contributes to burnout.

Several researchers (Cherniss, 1980; Spaniol & Caputo, 1980; Taylor, 1975; Warnath, 1979; Warnath & Shelton, 1976) identified the ways in which this discrepancy occurs. Cherniss (1980) suggested that within the first six months to a year, many young human service workers begin to experience burnout. He claimed that this is primarily due to the lack of appropriate training in the human-relations aspects of their job. Becoming discouraged, disillusioned and frustrated with their jobs, they experience a syndrome of withdrawal that is characteristic of burnout. Spaniol and Caputo (1980), Taylor (1975), Warnath and Shelton (1976) suggested that such inadequate professional learning occurs in the counseling field. Bundy (1983) claimed that counselors become disillusioned because they lack training for their profession or because they have been given a false concept of the nature of the real world. Similarly, Boy and

Pine (1980) indicated that many counselors have become personally and professionally discouraged because the professional role envisioned and internalized during counselor preparation seems inoperable in real life situations.

Warnath (1979) suggested that there is an idealistic "as-if" quality about counselor training. Many counselors are trained as if they were going to have affluent clients, have no restrictions on their time, and have no limits to their financial resources. This preparation is characteristic of the freedoms enjoyed by a private practitioner, not those experienced in most counseling situations. Neither the role of the counselor as an employee, nor the position of counseling within an institutional structure is very often examined. For many counselors, this inevitably leads to disappointment. Furthermore, burnout researchers Kafry and Pines (1980) confirmed that the struggling to achieve unattainable goals can lead to burnout in individuals.

The stress exhibited by these people is a result of the mismatch or discrepancy between dreams and reality. This is the same mismatch or "failure of the person-environment fit" that is considered a cause of stress by French et al. (1974). In addition, this person-environment mismatch was explained by House and Wells (1978) in connection with their use of the Paradigm of Stress Research. They explain that the mismatch

results from "situations where the demands on people exceed their abilities or where they are unable to fulfill strong needs or values" (p. 12).

In this study, models of stress research were used to examine the burnout process. These models were selected because both stress researchers and burnout researchers share common terms when explaining these processes. However, the research methodology used in stress research is more rigorous and substantive.

Burnout in Human Service Professions

Researchers indicated that those individuals who work in such helping professions as counseling, teaching, nursing, social work, and other supportive roles experience burnout at a higher rate than those in other occupations (Truch, 1981). Numerous researchers (Freudenberger, 1977; Kafry & Pines (1980); Maslach, 1976, 1978a, 1978b, 1979; Maslach & Jackson, 1978, 1979; Maslach & Pines, 1977, 1979; Mattingly, 1977; Pines & Kafry, 1978; Pines & Maslach, 1978; Reed, 1977) have reported that these professionals work in emotionally draining situations that require intense contact with people on a large scale and on a continuous basis. Burnout was reported to occur in physicians, crisis therapists, and mental health workers (Freudenberger, 1975; Wubbolding & Kessler-Bolotin, 1979), counselors (Kremer & Owen, 1979; Moracco, 1978; Valle, 1979; Van Auken, 1979; Vestermark &

Johnson, 1970), day care workers (Maslach, 1976), graduate students (Tiedeman, 1979; Warnath, 1979; Warnath & Shelton, 1976), and teachers (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1978; McGuire, 1979).

Such consequences as low morale (Austin, 1981; Pines & Maslach, 1978; Stewart & Meszaros, 1981), counterproductivity (Stewart & Meszaros, 1981), poor services (Pines & Maslach, 1978), and frequent staff turnover (Austin, 1981; Pines & Maslach, 1978) were found in those organizations whose staff members are afflicted with burnout. According to Armstrong (1979), burnout affects the mental health of the worker, the quality of the service delivery, and the performance of the agency. Similar claims in the counseling field (Haley, 1977) and the teaching profession have been indicated.

All of this burnout research seems to support the fact that burnout disproportionately affects members of the "helping professions." What leads these human service professionals to be so susceptible to burnout? An examination of this question and the factors contributing to this vulnerability will be identified.

Leading Factors Contributing to Burnout in Human Service Professionals

Several researchers identified characteristics of human service professionals that are built-in sources of stress. The very nature of these characteristics seems to predispose

the "helpers" of our society to burnout. Pines et al. (1981) suggested that there are three main characteristics shared by human service professionals which are the classic antecedents of burnout. They include: (a) performing emotionally taxing work, (b) sharing a client-centered orientation. and (c) sharing common personality characteristics that attracted them to a human service career. In addition, Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) included: (a) lack of criteria for measuring accomplishments, (b) low pay at all levels of education, skill, and responsibility, (c) upward mobility through the administrative channels only, (d) inadequate funding and institutional support, and (e) high public visibility coupled with popular misunderstanding and suspicion.

An examination of the effects of these characteristics on human service professionals, highlighting the counseling profession, will follow. In addition the three main characteristics recognized by Pines et al. (1981) and their influence on other characteristics contributing to human service professionals' susceptibility to burnout will be emphasized.

Emotionally Taxing Work

Those individuals who work in helping professions seek to respond to the recognized needs of people. For many of these professionals, the act of helping consists of more than simply "giving" something to a client. They view their role as one of providing service which enables a client to explore and discover a more enhanced effective relationship with self and others. For clients to proceed through this learning process, human service professionals become emotionally available, as they channel a great deal of their energy into empathizing and problem solving with clients. Often these clients are at different developmental levels than the human service worker.

Many of these professionals work too long, too much, and too intensely to accommodate the pressures connected with their helping role. While they experience outside pressure to give, they also feel an internal desire to work and to help. For many, additional pressure to contribute even more comes from their administrator(s). When these workers are attacked by such pressures, guilt may force them to give even more of themselves. This ultimately leads to exhaustion (Freudenberger, 1974).

Several researchers have identified such emotionally taxing demands in the counseling profession. Butcke, Moracco, and McEwen (1984) have noted that counseling is recognized as a time-consuming, energy-draining profession

with little rewards and positive feedback. In addition, Freudenberger (1975) has stated that many counselors in alternative institutions often serve clients that are in extreme need. These clients make continuous demands and treat the counselor as if there is no limit to their emotional availability. Many clients and counselors soon learn, however, that their emotional feeding supplies have become drained, leaving many of these professionals vulnerable to burnout.

A Client-Centered Orientation

Pines et al. (1981) explains that in a client-centered orientation the emphasis is on the people receiving service. With this orientation, human service professionals meet their clients' needs by serving as the technology for their clients. Any failure with a client, however, reflects the professionals' competence as technicians and their competence as people. The failure is therefore keenly personalized and felt (Kaduskin, 1974). While serving clients in this capacity, these professionals also are functioning in an asymmetric therapeutic relationship with their clients (the professionals give, and the clients take) (Pines et al., 1981). This relationship is in conflict with more normal relationships which are generally symmetrical and which provide a balance between giving and receiving (such as in the needs between friends). In the therapeutic relationship,

on the other hand, these professionals are expected to disregard personal needs and concentrate exclusively on their clients' needs while balancing the issues of objectivity, caring, spontaneity, and flexibility. In addition, appreciation or gratitude for such services is not always expressed by many clients.

This inattention to self and constant attention to others was recognized in the counseling profession by several researchers (Ball, 1977; Pusateri-Vlack & Moracco, 1981). Ball (1977) suggested that counselors are human and need a proper balance between giving and receiving. If those counselors who drain their emotional-psychological energies do not rebuild them in some way, they will lose their ability to function effectively as professionals.

Shared Personality Characteristics

The final main antecedent, shared personality characteristics, also serves to predispose human service workers to burnout. Swogger (1981) claimed that in professionals who choose vocations that require service to and care for others, one can frequently see these shared personality characteristics operating in a unique psychological constellation. The roots of this psychological constellation consist of caring, dedication, and commitment. These roots contain the characteristics that initially attract most human service professionals to a helping career.

In addition, most human service professionals are primarily people oriented. Their dominant philosophy is to help troubled individuals (Billingsley, Streshnesky, & Gurgin, 1966). They tend to have great empathy for the suffering of others (Pines et al., 1981). Many obtain their self-value through being sympathetic, unselfish, understanding, and helpful to others (Regiatt, 1970).

A study of students who were preparing for human service careers reported their perceptions of an ideal job. These students stated that such a job would be directed toward people rather than things, and would provide them with opportunities to be helpful to others (Rosenberg, 1964). The preference to work with people has been described by Kaduskin (1974) as a "dedicatory ethic." Furthermore, Pines et al. (1981) suggested that human service professionals view their jobs not merely as "work" but, rather, as a "calling." This unrealistic view set by high standards or ideals often accompanies committed and dedicated human service workers. The very roots (commitment and dedication) that initially attracted them to this profession also plays a significant role in contributing to burnout in this human service group.

Warnath and Shelton (1976) stated that institutions who train counselors often encourage such unrealistic, idealized expectations. Pines et al. (1981) claimed that in traditional training no attention has been given to developing skills for dealing with the emotional stresses

experienced by the professionals or with people. Instead, their training focuses almost entirely with cognitive material focusing on the service recipients and their problems. As these students enter the work force, several find themselves unprepared and shocked with the realities of the "real world." For many, their unrealistic, idealized job expectations become shattered. The disillusioned helper becomes frustrated by forces in which they have not been trained and/or over which they have no control. Some find their job load increased or job security threatened, or both, by budget cuts. According to Peterson and Spooner (1975) one cannot attend a meeting of counselors or student personnel workers without learning of or talking with someone who has lost their position due to budget cuts. In some cases, entire student personnel divisions have virtually been eliminated or reorganized out of existence (Hurst, Weigel, Morrill, & Richardson, 1973). Along with budget cutbacks, these workers experience increased caseloads and paperwork. As a result of large caseloads, conflicts between the service ideal and bureaucratic demands occur and create significant barriers to individualized helping. Such barriers foster feelings of frustration and inadequacy in one's job, and these feelings can result in burnout.

Bureaucratic Organizational Stresses

In addition to the aforementioned sources of stress in human service work, one is likely to be confronted with the pressures and stresses associated with any bureaucratic organization. The absence of autonomy, variety, feedback, success, and significance are stresses which may be correlated with burnout. In their study of social workers, Pines and Kafry (1978) identified these five variables as the internal characteristics of work conditions. Their study compared the internal characteristics of the work environment. The environment consists of support, worksharing, work relations, social feedback from colleagues and supervisors, and times out. Based on studying these characteristics, Pines and Kafry (1978) were able to determine which of these job stresses correlated more highly with burnout.

Results of the Pines and Kafry (1978) study revealed that significant correlations with burnout and work satisfaction were found in the properties of the work environment that serve as social support. In addition, overall significantly higher correlations with burnout were found with external work characteristics rather than with internal work characteristics. The results suggest that these workers (whose jobs are similar to those of counselors) may have a higher sensitivity to individuals as sources of support and emotional stress.

Similar results were found by House (1980) in his study of factory workers. House suggested that in determining levels of perceived job stress, interpersonal relations may have greater importance in their impact on health or in reducing job stress. Further, these results were also confirmed by Kafry and Pines (1980), who studied college students, social workers, and other human service professionals.

These findings, in addition to the leading factors contributing to burnout, leave one with the following question: How can counselors recover from burnout?

Strategies for Coping With Burnout

There are many and varied solutions that have been proposed for helping human service professionals recover from burnout. Some of these include leaving one's job (Walsh, 1979; Warnath & Shelton, 1976), having more realistic professional training (Pines & Maslach, 1978; Spaniol, 1979; Warnath & Shelton, 1976), using relaxation techniques (Emener, 1979; Freudenberger, 1977; Spaniol, 1979), and taking more time-outs (Daley, 1979; Pines & Maslach, 1978; Valle, 1979; Watkin, 1983). In addition to these suggestions, one of the strongest recommendations stated by Pines & Maslach (1978) urges institutions to try to develop support systems. Daley (1979), Emener (1979), Freudenberger (1974), and Walsh (1979) support this notion. Walsh (1979)

claims that the counselor who has access to social-professional supports will receive more feedback both on their job performance and personal development. The counselors are less likely to feel devalued, powerless, and apathetic in their institution and will be less prone to experience great amounts of stress.

Pines and Maslach (1978) recommend that organizations develop support systems through staff meetings. They suggest that such meetings can provide an opportunity for staff members to communicate openly with others about themselves and about their clients. In addition, staff meetings can offer emotional and social support for workers. Likewise, Daley (1979) suggested that unit meetings and informal discussions make workers aware of others having similar problems, help minimize workers' feelings of isolation, and enable them to share information on case-related problems. These recommendations emphasize social support, along with the other suggested solutions, as being viable means as easing or eliminating professional burnout. Numerous studies which stress the positive effects of social support under various conditions will follow.

Social Support

Definitions

A potential social mechanism responsible for ameliorating some of the deleterious effects of stress has been identified under the rubric of social support. Based in the literature, this situational variable has been found to operate in a direct or indirect manner to enhance one's health.

A number of scholars have sought to define social support. Among the results of their efforts are a more comprehensive definition of social support provided by Caplan (1979) and more highly developed conceptual definitions by Cobb (1976), and Caplan, Cassel, and Gore (1977). Social support was defined in a less strictly interpersonal way by Caplan and Killilea (1976) and Tolsdorf (1976).

Caplan (1979) focused on social support from two dimensions: objective-subjective and tangible-psychological. These dimensions form the following four variations of social support. First, objective tangible support is "behavior directed toward providing the person with tangible resources that are hypothesized to benefit his or her mental or physical well-being" (p. 85). Second, objective psychological support is "behavior directed toward providing the person with cognitions (values, attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions) and toward inducing effective

states that are hypothesized to promote well-being" (1979; 85). Last, objective tangible and objective psychological support are measured by an outside observer. On the other hand, Caplan (1979) suggests that subjective psychological support are analogous to tangible and psychological objective support, but they are determined by the individual's perception that supportive conditions exist (1979; 85).

Cobb (1976) suggested that there are three classes of social support, all of which focus on the interpersonal aspects of a person's life. He defined social support as: information leading the individual to believe that (a) "he or she is cared for and loved," (b) "he or she is esteemed and valued," and (c) "he or she belongs to a network of communication and mutual obligation" (p. 300-301).

The first class is often called emotional support, for this information meets Murray's (1938) need succorance for one person, need nurturance for the other, and need affiliation for both. The second class, esteem support, leads the individual to self-esteem and reaffirms sense of personal worth. In the third class, the information must be common to everyone in the network, and everyone must be aware that every other member knows.

Of the three classes, Cobb (1978) believed that from the perspective of health, emotional support is the most important or consequential aspect of social support.

Still others, Caplan et al., (1976) defined social support as

any input, directly provided by an individual (or group), which moves the receiver of that input towards goals which the receiver desires. (p. 211)

A similar definition was adopted by Tolsdorf (1976), who claimed that social support is

any action or behavior that functions to assist the focal person in meeting his personal goals or in dealing with the demands of any particular situation. (p. 410)

All these definitions imply that individuals can avoid or overcome the deleterious effects of stress and burnout and can master their emotional problems. This can be accomplished by mobilizing their psychological resources through the help of those people who support and sustain a person during crises and calm and with whom one can share feelings without fear of condemnation.

Social Supports Hypotheses

The literature contains studies that examine the relationships between social supports and mental and physical health. The hypotheses that are tested tend to be based on one of two theoretical explanations. The first hypothesis interprets social support systems as having main or direct beneficial effects on health when important human social

needs (such as security, social contact, affection and belonging) are met. The second hypothesis suggests that social support operates in an indirect or interactive manner to "modify," "mediate," "buffer," or "cushion" the connection between stress and health outcomes. Supportive evidence of this buffering effect has been reported by Caplan (1972), Cobb (1976), House and Wells (1977).

Of both of these hypotheses, research on the buffering hypothesis was considerable attention because of its implications for preventive intervention (Mueller, 1980). Cassel (1976) has indicated that rather than lessen the exposure to stressors, it seems more effective to try and improve and strengthen the social support. Furthermore, Thorts (1982) suggested that social relationships seem more amenable to change than do other types of factors, such as personality traits or coping habits during crises.

The Impact of Off-the-Job Social Support

A large body of literature investigating the role played by sources of social support (such as spouses, confidants, friends, and relatives) provides considerable evidence substantiating the importance of interpersonal relationships for psychological and physiological well-being. Cassel (1976), Cobb (1976), Dean and Lin (1977), and Caplan (1979), for example, examined a variety of studies and noted that social support received from significant "others" may serve

as a buffer or may ameliorate the effects of potentially stressful objective conditions and/or perceived stress on physical and mental health. Similarly, reviews from an array of studies by Cassel (1976) and Henderson (1977) have indicated that social support from the individual's primary groups can serve as a protection by "buffering" the individual from the psychological or physiological consequences of exposure to stressful conditions. Still other studies by Antonovsky (1972, 1974), Cobb (1976), and Kaplan et al. (1977) proposed that in promoting host resistance to ill-health outcomes, community ties may serve as important factors. Additionally, these researchers have suggested that a lack of resources and social ties under stressful conditions may alter host susceptibility and consequently may be related to ill-psychological and physiological health outcomes. Further demonstration of the strong effects of external sources of social support on both mental and physical health has been shown in the reviews and studies to follow.

Social Support and Psychological Health

There is little doubt among researchers (Brown, Birley, & Wing, 1972; Hessler, Kerbish, Kong-Ming New, Ellison, & Taylor, 1971; Liem & Liem, 1978) that stressful conditions can lead to ill psychological health. Myers, Lindenthal, and Pepper (1974) indicated that measures of symptomatic distress

will fluctuate, depending upon the nature and number of stressful events an individual experiences over a period of time. In addition, social support systems that are available to an individual during these stressful periods can serve as a buffer between stress and ill psychological health outcomes (Rabkin & Streuning, 1976).

Research supporting the role of the family in the etiology of mental disorders has been suggested in the developments of schizophrenia (Mishler & Waxter, 1965), neurotic symptoms (Cleveland & Longaker, 1972), psychosomatic illness (Titchener, Riskin, & Emerson, 1960) and less severe behavior disorders (Alkire, Goldstein, Rodnick, & Judd, 1971). Brown et al., (1972) reported that the emotional environment within the home in families of origin and in families of orientation is directly and curvilinearly related to the likelihood of relapse among schizophrenic patients. Furthermore, they have suggested that a patient's problems at work appear to interact with negative emotional responses from families, increasing the likelihood of relapse. These findings suggest that when the family environment is rejecting, the stress related to work is particularly debilitating.

Other findings in broader social contexts and under an array of stressful conditions also give credence to the beneficial effects of social support systems. For example, Gournash (1978) claimed that social networks appear to

counteract the effects of stressful events and serve as a natural support system. Evidence supporting this notion found psychological distress inversely related to the frequency of contact with network members and the proportion of emotional support among residents of low-income housing (Hessler et al., 1971) and college students (Liem & Liem, 1978). Results of these studies indicate that the greater the proportion of individuals in one's personal network providing encouragement and emotional support, the lesser the likelihood of reported feelings of depression and adequacy.

Other studies on friends (Kissel, 1965) and confidants (Lowenthan & Haven, 1968) demonstrated the buffering effects of external sources of social support on stress and ill-psychological outcomes. For example, a laboratory experiment by Kissel (1965) showed that among subjects performing an unsolvable perceptual reasoning task, those subjects with high test anxiety, who were accompanied by a friend experienced less stress (as measured by the Glavanic Skin Response) than students who were required to work in the presence of a stranger or alone. A study by Lowenthan and Hayen (1968) examined whether a single intimate relationship buffers against the stress of social disengagement which is usually associated with depression and poor morale in the aged. Their results indicated that those who have a confidant but decrease social interaction are no more likely to be depressed than those who increase social interaction.

Further, lack of a confidant was also related to depression in individuals not decreasing social interaction. But in the group with interaction reductions, the effect of the confidant was more marked.

Studies on humans in extreme situations (Shils & Janowitz, 1948; Swank, 1949; Titmuss, 1950 as cited in Bovard, 1959) also illustrate the importance of a group stress buffering dimension. Swank (1949) claimed that when the social supports provided by the combat unit were broken down because of an abundance of casualties, psychiatric breakdowns of soldiers occurred. Similarly, a study by Shils and Janowitz (1948) is an example of the systematic application of the primary group concept as a social support system. This study observed the policy used by the German High Command. These commanders withdrew units while leaving a sufficient amount of the group intact making replacements for casualties and providing the unit time to reform as a group. Despite major setbacks and losses, these German soldiers maintained high morale, cohesion, and combat effectiveness. Finally, additional evidence demonstrating the effects of social support's buffering role came from a study emphasizing mobilization of social support in crisis intervention. In this study, Porritt and Bordow (1976) found that road accident victims who were given social support had shorter periods of symptomatology than those given no crisis intervention. Further, patients who had reactions from

significant "others" reported better health outcomes than did patients with relatively poorer outcomes.

Social Support and Physiological Health Outcomes

Research ranging from animal experiments to epidemiological surveys has also demonstrated the importance of off-the-job sources of support and physiological health outcomes. Several of these investigators (Cassel, 1974; Gore, 1978; Nuckolls, Cassel & Caplan, 1972) noted the buffering effects of social support against ill-physiological health outcomes. For example, Cassel (1974) and Cobb (1976) examined a series of studies of both humans and animals who were exposed to a multitude of stressful conditions. Results indicated that those who had not been accompanied by "others" during a variety of stressful events experienced negative health outcomes while remaining subjects did not. Based upon these conclusions, Cassel proposed that the presence of social support during stressful events can buffer individuals from ill-health outcomes.

A study of men forced to change their jobs when their plants shut down disclosed that men who received low social support from their wives, neighbors, and friends had elevated cholesterol levels and serum uric acid levels (Gore, 1973). Further, a longitudinal study conducted by Gore (1978) examined the role of social support in buffering the stressful effects of unemployment. This study revealed that

unsupported, unemployed men showed higher levels of cholesterol, illness symptoms, and self blame than did unemployed men who received support. Still further evidence of a strong interaction effect between psychosocial assets (made up of the patients' reports of their relationships with their husbands and other significant persons and life event stress as predictors of pregnancy complications appears in a study by Nuckolls et al. (1972). In their analysis, neither support assets nor stress alone were related to the number of pregnancy and childbirth complications. But significant variation accounted for the interaction of support and stress. Among the highly stressed, the unsupported had complications three times the rate of the supported.

An array of literature on the impact of social isolation on heart disease was examined by Lynch (1977) in his study of personal relationships and heart disease. He concluded that lower rates of all types of coronary disease appear to be related to human companionship.

Other studies of individuals living in situations with an absence of stable social ties and resources have revealed an increased risk of ill-health. For example, it repeatedly has been observed that married couples have lower mortality rates than persons single, divorced, or widowed (Durkheim, 1951; Ortmeyer, 1974; Price, Slater, & Hare, 1971). Several other investigators including Maddison and Viola (1968), Marris (1958), Parkes (1964), Rees and Lutkin (1967) have

noted a particularly striking association between morbidity and mortality. These researchers indicate that widows, primarily in the first year following bereavement, have increased health complaints. They have increased mental and physical symptoms, believe they have sustained a lasting deterioration to their health, and have increased mortality rates (Berkman & Syme, 1979). A nine-year study by Berkman and Syme (1979) of 7,000 people in Alameda County, California, examined data on the Social Network Index for the number of a person's social ties and their relative importance. The study found that, for both men and women, those with the most social contacts--such as marriage, close friends and relatives, church membership, and informal and formal group relationships--had lower mortality rates.

The literature cited above provides some preliminary evidence that social support from off-the-job sources may play some role in the etiology of disease. Similar literature extending to on-the-job sources of social support will follow and will provide evidence of this association.

The Impact of On-the-Job Social Support

Studies have suggested that social support can be an effective means of reducing the negative effects of occupational stress (Caplan, 1972; Caplan, Cobb & French, 1975; Cobb, 1976; French & Caplan, 1972; French et al. 1974). House and Wells (1978) have indicated that a possible way of

alleviating that occupational stress which we cannot lessen should be through social support in its buffering role. A graphic illustration of this buffering or interactive effect has been demonstrated by House and Wells (1978) and is depicted in Figure 7.

This graphic illustration suggests that in the absence of social support, ratios of disease or poor health (e.g., burnout) should increase as occupational stress increases. But, as levels of social support rise, this relationship should decrease in strength, even perhaps disappearing under maximal social support (House & Wells, 1978).

A paradigm explaining how and why social support increases resistance to the deleterious consequences of occupational stress is in Figure 7. This paradigm posits that once a situation is perceived as stressful, a multitude of responses are possible. Some of these may serve to cushion the objective social conditions (arrow labeled "coping") and/or the individual's perception of it (arrow labeled "defense") so as to modify or eliminate the perception of stress, thus lessening its impact on health. According to Cobb (1976), these are the most important ways in which social support serves to buffer individuals against stress. Cassel (1976), and Kagan and Levi (1974) also support this hypothesis. They have suggested that social support mitigates the effects of potentially stressful objective situations (such as a boring job, heavy workloads,

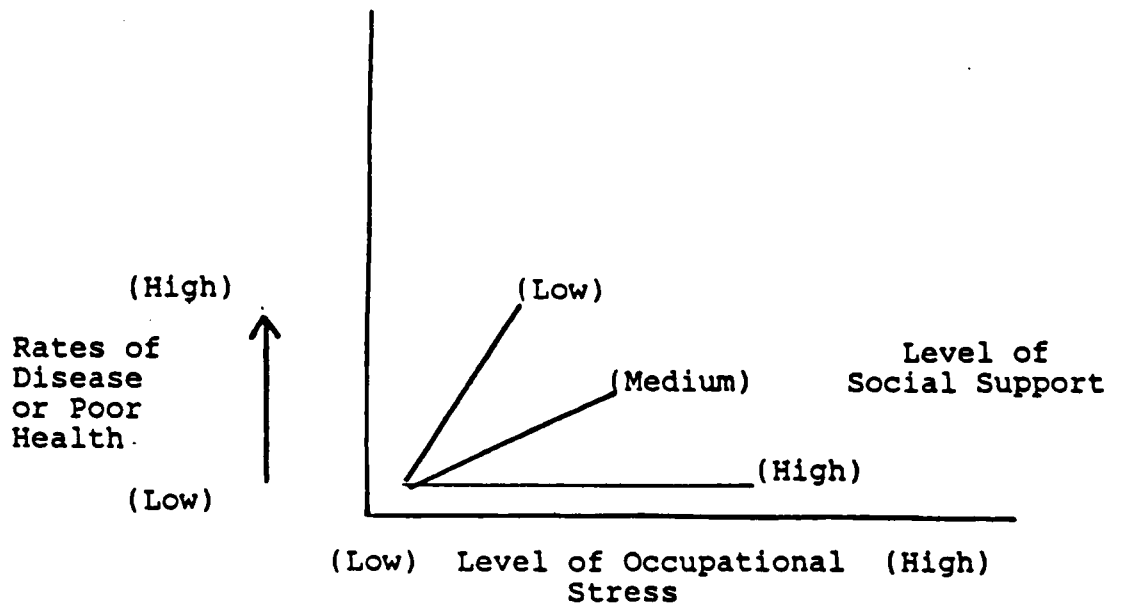


Figure 7. The "Conditioning" or "Buffering" (i.e. Interactive) Effect of Social Support on the Relationship Between Occupational Stress and Health

Note: From Occupational stress and health by House, J. S. and Wells, J. A., 1978, IN: Reading Occupational Stress, p. 11. (McLean, A., Black, G., and Colligan, M., eds.) Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1978, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health). Reprinted by permission.

unemployment, etc.) by causing an individual to perceive a situation as less stressful or threatening. This results in one's manifesting reduced amounts of the psychological, physiological, or behavioral responses which produce disease.

Other studies specific to occupational stress and health (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal 1964; Likert, 1961; Seashore, 1954) found variables indicative of social support (e.g., work group cohesion) with indicators of stress and/or health. In a study by Seashore (1971), members of cohesive work groups felt less work pressure than did those in noncohesive groups when equal pressure was objectively applied to the two groups. Similarly, Klein (1971) indicated that stress-producing intergroup conflicts can be minimized and production maximized when supervisors apply work pressure on a group basis.

Several other studies of the buffering effects of social support have resulted in mixed findings. A study by Caplan (1972) described the buffering effects of social support on health. His examination of the risk factors of coronary heart disease (CHD) among administrators, engineers, and scientists revealed the following. Among those employees who reported poor relations with their subordinates (i.e., low support), there was a positive relationship between role ambiguity and serum cortisol level, an indicator of physiological arousal tentatively connected to CHD.

Similarly, among employees having poor relations with their supervisors, coworkers, and subordinates, a positive relationship existed between perceived workload and serum glucose, blood pressure, and smoking. However, these kinds of work stress are not associated with CHD risk factors among those employees having positive relations with other (i.e., high social support). Results of this study reveal that good work relations serve as a buffer between some occupational stresses and some physiological strains.

Pinneau (1975, 1976) reviewed Caplan's (1972) results and tested for the buffering effect of social support of workers in high-stress occupations (such as air-traffic controllers). His cross-sectional data reported that job-related stresses and psychological strain across a number of occupations were significantly related to social support. However, the buffering effects of stress on either psychological or physiological strain was only slightly evident.

A reanalysis of the data collected from male workers in 23 occupations, originally collected by Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison, and Pinneau (1975) and analyzed by Pinneau (1975, 1976) was examined by House and Wells (1978), using different statistical procedures. Results indicated that high support from one's supervisor and from coworkers had many effects on reports of low role conflict, low present and

future role ambiguity, high participation, and good utilization of skills.

The Relationship Between On- and Off-the-Job Social Support

The influence of sources of social support from supervisors, coworkers, wives, friends, and relatives have been examined by several researchers. For example, La Rocco et al. (1980) reanalyzed the data from a previous study (Pinneau, 1975) to test the buffering effects of social support from on-the-job and off-the-job sources. Results revealed that social support is an effective means of buffering the impact of stress on basic psychological strains (e.g., anxiety, depression, somatic complaints) with non-work-related sources of support (wives, family, and friends). Sources of support from one's supervisor and coworkers had main or direct effects on job-related stress and strain (job dissatisfaction, boredom, dissatisfaction with work load).

Another study which included on- and off-the-job sources of support was completed by House and Wells (1978). This study examined the effects of perceived social support from sources (supervisors, wives, coworkers, friends, and relatives) upon the relationship between stress and health in 1,809 white males working in a tire and manufacturing plant. Results indicated that under optimal levels of social support, symptoms of self-reported ill-health increased only

marginally, or not at all, as stress increased.

"Significant" others (wife and supervisor) were the most effective means of buffering the effects of occupational stress.

The Impact of Social Support on Human Service Professionals

Studies by several researchers (Armstrong, 1979; Ekbohm, 1985; Maslach & Pines, 1977; Pines & Kafry, 1978) and others (Bundy, 1983; Daley, 1979) have emphasized the use of social support in reducing stress and burnout in human service professionals. According to Daley (1979), job stress can be counteracted in child care workers who have peer and supervisory support. He relates that this can be provided by emotional support as well as by sharing information to assist workers with difficult problems. Similarly, Bundy (1983) has suggested that the teacher or counselor who has social-professional support at work and who is provided with personal and/or professional feedback is less likely to experience great amounts of stress.

Evidence relating to social support in human service professionals can be found in several studies. Maslach and Pines (1977) examined 83 staff members in several day care centers and discovered the importance of quality work relationships. An analysis of their study found that better work relationships resulted in greater satisfaction in one's

job, greater sense of success, and reports of more "good days" and fewer "bad days." This study also suggested that those professionals who actively express, analyze, and share their personal feelings with their colleagues have lower burnout rates. In addition, this process is greatly enhanced in those institutions which encourage well-developed support systems. Similarly, a study of 76 staff members in various mental health facilities in the San Francisco Bay area revealed that workers reported many "good days" and few "bad days" when work relationships were good (Pines & Maslach, 1978). In addition, workers perceived the average schizophrenic patient in a more positive manner than did workers with poor work relationships. Further support was discovered in an investigation by Pines and Kafry (1978) which examined the various stresses inherent in social service work. This study found that positive social milieu in the work environment seemed to offer the worker with support systems which served as protective buffers against occupational stresses. Pines and Kafry explain:

Workers are less likely to experience the emotional, physical and attitudinal exhaustional reaction of tedium in a supportive environment where work relations are positive, where staff members share the work load and provide one another with feedback, positive advice, and support, and where time-outs are available during periods of

stress. These workers also have high overall levels of job satisfaction, are favorable about their job, have positive work attitudes and are more contented with their caseloads. (p. 505)

Still further, in a study of 162 workers in 11 child abuse projects located throughout the United States, Armstrong (1979) found that of those who reported an inability of their leadership to provide support and structure, 85% were scored as burned out. Similarly, when workers perceived the work environment as having inadequate staff support or supervision, the majority was likely to be burned out. In addition, in a study 279 counselors located in Minnesota, Ekbohm (1985) found that burnout decreased when co-worker support and supervisor support increased. The results of these studies emphasize the fact that social support is an important variable that can directly or indirectly reduce burnout in human service professionals.

Burnout and Selected Individual Variables

The effects of selected individual variables (five of them demographic, eight job-related, were examined in this present study, in addition to the social support variables being studied. Some of these individual variables have been shown to effect burnout scores in previous studies. Other individual variables selected are expected by researchers to be connected with burnout but have not been studied yet.

Research on the individual variables selected for this study will follow:

Demographic Variables

1. Age (the younger the individual, the higher the burnout scores) (Armstrong, 1979; Cherniss, 1980; Ekbohm, 1985; Maslach, 1982).
2. Gender (women tend to have higher burnout scores than men) (Maslach, 1982).
3. Marital status (lower burnout scores tend to be associated with married people rather than others) (Maslach, 1982).
4. Ethnic backgrounds (higher burnout scores tend to be associated with Caucasians rather than others) (Maslach, 1982).
5. Educational attainment (higher burnout scores tend to be associated with lesser amounts of education) (Maslach, 1982).

Job-Related Variables

1. Time out (burnout scores tend to be lower in counselors who can temporarily withdraw to do other work activities (Ekbohm, 1985; Maslach & Pines, 1977; Pines & Maslach, 1978).
2. Work duties (it is expected that burnout scores will be higher for those counselors who spent more time with

administrative/staff responsibilities and teaching duties rather than counseling).

3. Student/counselor ratio (the larger the ratio of clients one must deal with, the higher the burnout scores) (Ekbohm, 1985; Maslach & Pines, 1977).

4. School size (it is expected that for those counselors working in larger schools, burnout scores will be higher).

5. School setting (it is expected that burnout scores will be higher for those counselors working in an urban setting school rather than rural or suburban setting).

6. Years of counseling experience (higher burnout scores tend to be associated with fewer years of counseling experience) (Freudenberger, 1975; Pines et al., 1981).

7. Additional hours worked (it is expected that burnout scores will be higher for those counselors working extra hours each week).

CHAPTER III

Methods

In this chapter, topics related to the execution of this investigation will be presented. The topics include: a description of the population and sample, the instrumentation, research hypotheses, and the method of analysis.

Population and Sampling Plan

The population was defined as those persons who are employed as counselors in two-year colleges throughout the United States during the 1987-1988 school year. A random sample of this population was taken using the following procedures:

1. A list of all public two-year colleges throughout the United States was obtained from the American Association of Junior and Community Colleges.

2. From this list, a population of 887 institutions was identified.

3. A stratified sample of 188 institutions was selected from among one of seven enrollment categories (See Table 1).

4. The median enrollment for each of the seven categories was calculated.

Table 1

Categories in Sample Selection Process

Enrollment of Group	Enrollment Ranges	Estimated % Enrollment	Number of Institutions	Number of Counselors
1	Low - 1,000	3%	17	23
2	1,001- 1,500	5%	15	38
3	1,501- 2,500	11%	27	88
4	2,501- 4,500	19%	30	150
5	4,501- 7,000	19%	18	98
6	7,001-12,000	26%	30	207
7	12,001-30,000	17%	13	131
Total		100%	188	735

5. The estimated total enrollment for each category was calculated by multiplying the number of institutions within that category by the median enrollment.

6. The proportion of the total enrollment that each category represents was calculated by dividing the estimated total enrollment for each category by the total enrollment of all categories.

7. Based on a table for determining sample size (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970), it is estimated that 335 counselors were needed to carry out the analysis plan.

8. In order to obtain counselor names, specific institutions within each category were randomly selected. The number of institutions within each category was determined by dividing the number of counselors per category by the estimated number of counselors per institution.

9. In order to obtain the number of counselors needed within each category and the names of each counselor in the institutions selected, two-year college catalogs from the College Catalog Microfiche Collection were viewed.

10. A sample mailing list was generated by randomly choosing, from the list of counselors' names, the appropriate proportion of counselors needed to survey within each category.

11. The sample was comprised of 735 counselors.

12. A cover letter explaining the study, a questionnaire, and a self addressed stamped envelope to

return the completed questionnaire was sent to each counselor on February 22, 1988.

13. Approximately two weeks later, a postcard was sent to all counselors that had not yet responded.

14. Two additional mail-outs were sent on March 21st and April 25th.

15. Five hundred and seven counselors completed and returned the questionnaire. An additional 29 counselors returned the questionnaire unanswered.

Instrumentation

Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)

Maslach and Jackson (1986) developed a 22-item burnout inventory. The MBI consists of three subscales that are designed to measure three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. The items within each subscale are rated using a 0-6 response format (0=almost never through 6=easily every day). The maximum score for each subscale was the number of items times six.

The subscale of Emotional Exhaustion contains nine items that describe feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work. The Depersonalization subscale contains five items that describe an unfeeling and impersonal response toward recipients of one's care or service. The higher the mean score for both Emotional Exhaustion and

Depersonalization subscales, the greater the tendency toward high levels of burnout.

The eight items in the Personal Accomplishment subscale describe feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work with people. Lower mean scores on the Personal Accomplishment subscale are associated with a tendency toward higher levels of burnout. Thus a high degree of burnout is defined by an individual having a high score on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization subscales and a low score on the Personal Accomplishment subscale. Maslach suggested the following cutoff scores for defining a high level of burnout using these three subscales:

Emotional Exhaustion	27 or above
Depersonalization	13 or above
Personal Accomplishment	39 or above

Score Reliability. Test-retest reliability on the MBI was reported for two samples: graduate students in social welfare and administrators in a health agency. A two-four week interval was allotted for the two test sessions. The results of the overall test-retest reliability coefficients for the subscales of the two samples were the following: .82 Emotional Exhaustion; .60 Depersonalization; and .80 Personal Accomplishment.

Validity. The validity of the MBI was obtained through convergent and discriminant validity evidence. Convergent validity was investigated by correlating MBI scores with

independently administered behavioral ratings. Secondly, job characteristics that were expected to contribute to burnout were also correlated with MBI scores. Finally, measures of several outcomes that had been hypothesized to be related to burnout were correlated with MBI scores. According to Maslach and Jackson (1986), substantial evidence for the validity of the MBI was provided from all three sets of correlations.

Evidence of discriminant validity was gathered by distinguishing the MBI scores from measures of other psychological constructs assumed to be uncorrelated with burnout such as job and social desirability.

A slightly adapted version of the MBI was used in this present study, based on the feedback received in piloting the MBI and from the comments shared by members of the dissertation committee. The instrument was pilot tested on approximately 30 teachers, employed for the Absecon, New Jersey Board of Education. The recommendations received from both groups resulted in the elimination of one item on the Depersonalization subscale. Therefore, a high score on depersonalization was changed to 10 or over. The cutoff scores for the other two subscales remained the same.

In addition, based on the somewhat surprising findings on burnout presented in Chapter 4, further analyses were undertaken on each subscale and a composite burnout score. The three burnout subscales were combined and added together

to make up the composite burnout score. However, it was necessary to recode the personal accomplishment scores to be consistent with the other subscales. The recoding was done so that a person experiencing burnout would have a high score on the Personal Accomplishment subscale as well as the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization Subscales. The result was that the higher the total score, the higher the level of burnout.

The Social Support Measure

A 13-item questionnaire that would measure whether a sample of 2,856 blue collar workers were or were not receiving social support from four sources: supervisor; spouse; co-workers or peers; and friends and relatives was developed by House (1980) and House and Wells (1978). A maximum level of support from all four sources was a score of 52. This present study contained 13-items that were adapted from the Social Support Measure developed by House (1980) and House and Wells (1978) and two items adapted from the Work Environment Scale (Insel & Moos, 1981). The items were rated according to 4-1 response options (4=agree through 1=disagree) with a maximum level of support being a score of 60.

The Social Support Measure (House, 1980; House & Wells, 1978) contains two questions pertaining to four sets of significant other people in the lives of respondents: immediate supervisor; co-worker; spouse; and friends and

relatives that were adapted from Caplan et al. (1975) and used in this study. In addition, two items asking about the respondent's immediate supervisor, in the Social Support Measure (House, 1980; House & Wells, 1978) and also used in this study, were adapted from a questionnaire developed from the Quality of Working Conditions (Quinn, et al., 1974).

Score Reliability. Based on the sample of 1,851 blue collar workers, House (1980) reported the following alpha coefficients: supervisor support .88; co-worker support .75; friend and relative support .83; spouse support .95 and total support .78.

Validity. J. A. Wells (personal communication, February 7, 1988) feels that the Social Support Measure has never been independently validated, mainly because the measure more or less directly asks for the information needed.

Prediction of Each Subscale and the Burnout Composite Definition of the Three Clusters of Variables

The three clusters of independent variables used in testing each subscale and the burnout composite were made up of the following characteristics. The first cluster, the demographic variables, were made up of five characteristics which counselors brought to the job. The second cluster, the job-related variables, included situational characteristics found on the job. The third cluster was made up of the four

sources of social support found on and off the job plus a composite of the four sources of support.

Research Questions

The null hypotheses stated below were originally proposed with Burnout defined as Maslach suggested. However, use of Maslach's definition resulted in only 18 counselors identified as experiencing burnout via her criteria. Because of this somewhat surprising finding on burnout (presented in Chapter 4), an exploration of the hypotheses was undertaken using the responses to Maslach's instrument in a different way. Rather than forgoing the testing of the research hypotheses altogether, each cluster group of independent variables identified below was used to predict each of the burnout subscales and the composite burnout score.

1. There is no relationship between any of the following demographic variables and the burnout scores.

- a. age
- b. gender
- c. marital status
- d. ethnic background
- e. educational attainment

2. There is no relationship between any of the following job-related variables (after the influence of demographic variables have been controlled) and the burnout scores.

- a. opportunity for sanctioned "time-out"
- b. percentage of time devoted to major counseling responsibilities
- c. percentage of time devoted to major teaching responsibilities
- d. number of full-time equivalent counselors
- e. setting of school (rural, suburban, urban)
- f. size of school (number of student)
- g. years of experience at a two-year college
- h. additional hours worked each week

3. There is no relationship between perceived social support from any of the following sources (after the influence of the demographic and job-related variables have been controlled) and the burnout scores.

- a. spouse/confidant
- b. friends
- c. co-workers
- d. supervisors
- e. total

Testing the Hypotheses with Regression Analyses

The three clusters of independent variables (demographic, job-related, and social support) were regressed on each dependent variable using a three step hierarchical solution. In step 1, the set of demographic variables was regressed on each dependent variable. This step determined

the contribution to the explained variance, in each dependent variable, made by the set of demographic variables. In step 2, the set of eight job-related variables was regressed on each dependent variable. This step determined the contribution that the set of job-related variables made to the explained variance when added to the regression equation. In step 3, the composite support variable, the sum of all four sources of support, was entered into the regression equation (with each dependent variable) to determine whether the addition of the composite support variable was significant. This process also was completed with each support variable by adding each source of social support into a separate regression equation, in step 3. This process was incorporated in order to determine which of the individual independent variables contributed most to the explained variance.

Following the hierarchical solution, a forward selection solution was used to regress all the demographic, job-related variables, and the composite support variable on each dependent variable. This process was incorporated in order to determine which of the individual independent variables contributed most to the explained variance.

Separate Analyses for Each Cluster

The variables used in the three clusters determined the influence that each set of independent variables (predictor variables) had on each dependent variable (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment, and the burnout composite score). It should be noted that each dependent variable was tested separately with each of the three clusters of independent variables. Regression analysis was used on each cluster in order to determine whether the contribution made to the explained variance was significant.

CHAPTER IV

Results

Questionnaires were sent to a random sample of 735 counselors employed at two-year colleges throughout the United States. A total of 539 questionnaires returned for a response rate of 73%; however, only 507 questionnaires had complete data on each variable. Prior to the mailing of the questionnaires, institutions were selected according to their enrollment size. As Table 2 indicates, there was at least a 60% response rate from each institutional group.

Description of the Sample

The descriptive data reported in Table 3 shows several notable findings. Of the counselors sampled, 71% have approached their mid-life, that is, are at least 40 years of age or older (M 44.8, SD 8.8). In addition, the data appear to indicate that there is a fairly equal representation of counselors by gender--52% are male and 48% are female. Further, a moderately high percentage, 76%, of the counselors are married or in equivalent relationships. This would suggest that spouse/confidant support potentially is available to a majority of the counselors. A moderately high percentage (76%) of the counselors came from a white ethnic background. The data also indicated that 94% of the counselors have obtained at least a master's degree.

Table 2

Frequencies and Percentages of Questionnaire Responses
Within Each Institutional Group

Instit. Group	Instit. Size	# of Questionnaires Mailed	# of Questionnaires Returned	% of Questionnaires Returned
1	Low - 1,000	23	14	61
2	1,000- 1,500	38	29	76
3	1,501- 2,500	88	62	70
4	2,501- 4,500	150	105	70
5	4,501- 7,000	98	72	73
6	7,001-10,000	207	126	61
7	12,001-15,000	131	99	76
	Total	735	507	73

Table 3

Frequencies and Percentages of the Demographic Variables

Variable	F	% of N
Age		
23-29 years	14	3
30-39 years	131	26
40-49 years	196	39
50-59 years	129	26
60-67 years	28	6
Gender		
Male	262	52
Female	242	48
Marital Status		
Not Married	49	10
Married or Equivalent Relationship	382	76
Divorced	11	2
Separated	57	11
Widow	5	1
Ethnic Background		
Black	71	14
Mexican American	24	5
Native American	6	1

Table 3 (Cont'd.)

Frequencies and Percentages of the Demographic Variables

Variable	F	% of N
Ethnic Background (continued)		
White	379	76
Oriental	6	1
Other	15	3
Level of Education		
Bachelor's Degree	29	6
Master's Degree	403	80
Doctorate Degree	69	14

The descriptive job-related data in Tables 4 and 5 contain several points of interest. Table 4 shows the percentage of time the respondents allocate to the three major functions: counseling, administration, and teaching. Inspection of Table 4 reveals that counseling is the activity allotted greatest time by most respondents, with only a small percentage of the respondents reporting a majority of their time spent in administration or teaching. Specifically, the data indicate that 80% of the counselors devote 40% or more of their time to the responsibility for which they were sampled (counseling). Table 5 reveals, however, that regardless of the job responsibility in which counselors are engaged, slightly more than one-half (54%) of the counselors do not have an opportunity for time-out on the job. Counselors appear to have a fairly strong support system. Approximately 349 counselors, 79%, scored between 34-55 (maximum score for support is 60) on total support which included: spouse/confidant, friends, co-worker, and supervisor. Further findings (Table 6) suggest, however, that the percent of time that is spent in direct contact with students each week appears to be focused on educational planning and career counseling with 75% of the counselors counseling fewer than 11 students each week for personal problems.

Table 4
Frequencies and Percentages of Time Devoted to Three
Major Job Responsibilities

% of Time	Counseling		Administration		Teaching	
	F	Cum %	F	Cum %	F	Cum %
0 - 20	24	5	293	58	396	79
21 - 40	59	17	122	82	47	88
41 - 60	123	41	57	93	11	90
61 - 80	179	76	30	99	6	91
80 -100	119	100	2	100	44	100

Table 5

Frequencies and Percentages of Institutional Characteristics
and Total Support (Spouse/Confidant Support, Plus Friend Support
Plus Co-Worker Support, Plus Supervisor Support)

Variable	F	% of N
Opportunities for Times Out		
No	268	54
Yes	228	46
# of Full-Time Equivalent Counselors		
1 - 2	61	14
3 - 5	120	26
6 - 8	101	22
9 - 11	60	13
12 - 14	40	9
15 - 20	56	12
21 - 50	19	4
College Setting		
Urban	155	31
Suburban	220	44
Rural	124	25

Table 5 (Cont'd.)

Frequencies and Percentages of Institutional Characteristics
and Total Support (Spouse/Confidant Support, Plus Friend Support
Plus Co-Worker Support, Plus Supervisor Support)

Variable	F	% of N
Years as a Counselor in a Two-Year College		
1 - 6	128	25
7 - 12	142	28
13 - 18	115	23
19 - 23	100	20
24 - 29	15	3
30 - 35	4	.7
Additional Hours Worked Each Week		
0 - 5	224	49
6 - 10	141	31
11 - 15	62	13
16 - 20	18	4
21 - 25	10	2
26 - 30	5	1

Table 6

Frequencies and Percentages of Students Counseled in a Week

# of Students	Counseling for Personal Problems		Counseling for Educational Planning		Career Counseling	
	F	% of N	F	% of N	F	% of N
0 - 5	222	47	48	10	117	25
6 - 10	129	28	61	13	129	28
11 - 20	69	15	127	27	124	27
21 - 30	28	6	104	22	48	10
31 - 40	6	1	55	12	13	3
41 - 50	6	1	32	7	16	3
51 - 60	2	.4	11	2	8	2
61 - 70	1	.2	7	2	0	0
71 - 80	5	1	22	5	8	2

Tests of the Hypotheses

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between social support (spouse/confidant, friends, co-workers, and supervisors) and burnout in two-year college counselors. Demographic and job-related variables known to be related to burnout were selected from a review of the literature. Each set of independent variables (social support, demographic, and job-related variables) was used to test one of the three following hypotheses: (a) There is no relationship between demographic variables and burnout; (b) There is no relationship between job-related variables and burnout; and (c) There is no relationship between social support variables and burnout.

Prior to the testing of each hypothesis, descriptive data were computed on all variables. The descriptive statistics for burnout found only 18 counselors in this sample experiencing high levels of burnout as defined by Maslach's definition (See Chapter 3). This finding was somewhat surprising. While such a burnout rate must be interpreted as a positive finding from a substantive perspective, it negates the possibility of trying to predict burnout in this sample if burnout is defined by Maslach's definition. Therefore, a decision was made to incorporate an alternative use of the data by employing the responses to Maslach's instrument in a different way.

Rather than impose Maslach's cutoff scores on the distribution of scores shown in Table 7, it was decided that the sets of independent variables would be used to predict the scores for the three subscales directly. A separate analysis was undertaken for each of the three burnout subscales. In addition, the three burnout subscales were combined, after recoding the personal accomplishment subscale, by adding the three scores together (See Chapter 3 for further elaboration). The result was that the higher the composite burnout score, the higher the level of burnout. Table 7 shows the distribution of the recoded burnout scores.

Regression Analysis

The overriding objective of this study was to predict burnout among counselors at two-year colleges using three blocks of variables: demographic, job-related, and social support. For reasons described earlier, it was necessary to forgo Maslach's Measure of Burnout based on high and low scores on the three subscales. Attention was redirected, therefore, at predicting scores from each of three subscales (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) as well as total burnout scores obtained on the sum of the responses to all three subscales, after recoding the personal accomplishment responses. Thus four separate analyses are reported below; one for each subscale and one for the total burnout scores.

Table 7

Frequencies and Percentages of the Three Burnout Subscales
and the Recoded Burnout Score (Emotional Exhaustion Plus
Depersonalization Plus Personal Accomplishment)

Variable	Reliability	F	Cum %
Emotional Exhaustion Subscale Score	.90		
0 - 5		67	13
6 - 10		95	32
11 - 16		101	52
17 - 24		97	71
25 - 30		59	82
31 - 35		39	90
36 - 40		29	96
41 - 51		22	100
Depersonalization Subscale Score	.73		
0 - 1		277	55
2 - 3		77	70
4 - 6		83	86
7 - 9		35	93
10 - 12		23	98
13 - 17		12	100

Table 7 (Cont'd.)

Frequencies and Percentages of the Three Burnout Subscales
and the Recoded Burnout Score (Emotional Exhaustion Plus
Depersonalization Plus Personal Accomplishment)

Variable	Reliability	F	Cum %
Personal Accomplishment Subscale Score	.89		
0 - 29		21	4
30 - 35		35	11
36 - 40		100	32
41 - 45		175	66
46 - 48		171	100
Recoded Burnout Score	.88		
0 - 8		70	14
9 - 17		121	38
18 - 26		87	55
27 - 35		88	82
36 - 43		58	93
44 - 52		42	100

Table 8 presents the intercorrelation matrix among all independent and dependent variables. All subsequent regression analyses are based upon these correlations. It should be noted that only total support is reported in these regression results, even though all four social support variables were considered and are reported in Table 8.

Emotional Exhaustion

Table 9 shows the results of regressing the independent variables on the Emotional Exhaustion scores. A hierarchical solution is presented wherein five demographic variables were entered as a block in step one, followed by eight job-related variables in step two, followed by the composite support variable in the last step. As shown in Table 9, the multiple R associated with these three steps were .06, .12, and .18 respectively.

The same independent variables were regressed on the Emotional Exhaustion scores using a forward selection solution. Inspection of the beta weights from these various models shows that age and support are significant at the .01 level across both the stepwise solution and the full model. The negative coefficients were interpreted to mean that Emotional Exhaustion scores were lower among the older respondents and were lower among those reporting higher levels of support.

TABLE 8

Intercorrelation Matrix of Independent and Dependent Variables

Variable	Demographic Variables			Job-Related Variables							Social Support Variables							Subscales and Burnout Variables								
	\bar{X}	SD		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	
Demographic Variables																										
1. Age	45	9																								
2. Gender			-21																							
3. M/Stat.				-31																						
4. E/Bac.					18																					
5. Degree						14																				
Job-Related Variables																										
6. Setng.																										
7. Time																										
8. C/Job	66	2																								
9. T/Job	10	1																								
10. FTE/C	9	7																								
11. Stds.																										
12. 2 Yr/C	12	1																								
13. Hr/Wk	5	5																								
Social Support Variables																										
14. S/C Sp	10	3																								
15. F/Sp	7	2																								
16. CW/Sp	10	2																								
17. S/Sp	22	6																								
18. Tot/Sp	48	9																								
Subscales and Burnout Variables																										
19. E Exh	18	12																								
20. D Per	3	4																								
21. P Acc	42	7																								
22. BO Rec	26	17																								

Note 1: Lead decimal omitted.
 Note 2: 1 = Age, 2 = Gender, 3 = Marital Status, 4 = Ethnic Background, 5 = Highest Degree, 6 = College Setting, 7 = Opportunity for Time-Out, 8 = Counseling Job Responsibilities, 9 = Teaching Job Responsibilities, 10 = Full-Time Equivalent Counselors, 11 = Students Enrolled, 12 = Years as a 2-Yr. Counselor, 13 = Additional Hours Worked Each Week, 14 = Spouse/Confidant Support, 15 = Friend Support, 16 = Co-Worker Support, 17 = Supervisor Support, 18 = Total Support, 19 = Emotional Exhaustion, 20 = Depersonalization, 21 = Personal Accomplishment, 22 = Burnout Recorded.

Table 9

Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression Analyses of the Independent Variables on Emotional Exhaustion

Variable	Step 1 Demographic Variables		Step 2 Demographic + Job-Related Variables		Full Model Step 3 Demographic + Job-Related + a Social Support Vari- able (Tot/Sp)		Stepwise Solution	
	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t
Age	-.20	-4.3**	-.21	-3.3**	-.19	-3.1**	-.15	-3.3**
Gend	.06	1.3	.11	2.0*	.11	2.2*	.06	1.3
M/Sta	-.02	-0.5	.02	0.4	.05	1.0		
E/Bac	.13	2.8*	.08	1.5	.08	1.5	.10	2.2*
Degr	-.02	-0.5	-.10	-1.9	.06	-1.2		
Setng			-.03	-0.7	-.02	-0.5		
Time			-.16	-3.2**	-.10	-2.0		
C/Job			-.08	-1.4	-.08	-1.5		
T/Job			.03	0.6	.03	0.5		
FTE/C			-.13	-2.2*	-.14	-2.3*	-.05	-1.1
Stds			.14	0.0	.12	0.0		
2Yr/C			.13	2.1*	.12	2.0		
Hr/Wk			-.02	-0.3	-.04	-0.7		
Tot/Sp					-.25	-5.0**	-.31	-7.0**
	R ² =.06		R ² =.12		R ² =.18		R ² =.15	

* p < .05 ** p < .01

Note: Age = Age, Gend = Gender, M/Sta = Marital Status, E/Bac = Ethnic Background, Degr = Highest Degree, Setng = College Setting, Time = Opportunity for Time Out, C/Job = Counseling Job Responsibilities, T/Job = Teaching Job Responsibilities, FTE/C = Full-Time Equivalent Counselors, Stds = Students Enrolled, 2Yr/C = Years as a 2-Yr. Counselor, Hr/Wk = Additional Hours Worked Each Week, Tot/Sp = Total Support

It should be noted that separate analyses were undertaken for each of the four support variables making up the composite support variable reported in Table 9. These analyses showed that only co-worker and supervisor support contributed significantly to the prediction of emotional exhaustion. Support from spouses and friends did not make a significant contribution.

Although opportunity for time-out is not significant in Table 9 for the full model or for the stepwise solution, time-out was significant in the other four analyses wherein the support variables were considered separately. This was interpreted to mean that opportunities for time-out are associated with lower Emotional Exhaustion scores, but this was obscured in Table 9 by the inclusion of the composite support variable. Presumably, those who report high support from co-workers and supervisors also report opportunities for time-out as evidenced by the .26 correlation between time-out and total support shown in Table 8.

Depersonalization

Table 10 shows the result of the regression analysis for Depersonalization. In these analyses, the procedures for predicting depersonalization were identical to that of the previous subscale. The set of demographic variables were entered as a block in step 1, followed by the entry of the job-related variables in step 2, followed by the composite

Table 10

Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression Analyses of the Independent Variables on Depersonalization

Variable	Step 1 Demographic Variables		Step 2 Demographic + Job-Related Variables		Full Model Step 3 Demographic + Job-Related + a Social Support Vari- able (Tot/Sp)		Stepwise Solution	
	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t
Age	-.14	-3.0**	-.21	-3.1**	-.19	-3.0**	-.18	-3.1**
Gend	-.16	-3.3**	-.13	-2.3*	-.13	-2.3*	-.13	-2.7**
M/Sta	-.08	-1.7	-.06	-1.1	-.04	-0.7		
E/Bac	.09	1.9	.06	1.1	.05	1.0		
Degr	-.04	-0.9	-.08	-1.6	-.05	-1.0		
Setng			-.04	-0.7	-.03	-0.6		
Time			-.03	-0.6	-.02	0.3		
C/Job			-.04	-0.7	-.04	-0.7		
T/Job			.02	0.3	.01	0.2		
FTE/C			-.16	-2.7*	-.16	-2.7*	-.12	-2.2*
Stds			.15	0.0	.13	0.0	.06	0.0
2Yr/C			.16	2.4*	-.15	2.2*	.13	2.1*
Hr/Wk			-.01	-0.3	-.03	-0.6		
Tot/Sp					-.20	-3.8**	-.18	-3.9**
	R ² =.04		R ² =.08		R ² =.12		R ² =.09	

* p < .05 ** p < .01

Note: Age = Age, Gend = Gender, M/Sta = Marital Status, E/Bac = Ethnic Background, Degr = Highest Degree, Setng = College Setting, Time = Opportunity for Time Out, C/Job = Counseling Job Responsibilities, T/Job = Teaching Job Responsibilities, FTE/C = Full-Time Equivalent Counselors, Stds = Students Enrolled, 2Yr/C = Years as a 2-Yr. Counselor, Hr/Wk = Additional Hours Worked Each Week, Tot/Sp = Total Support

support variable in step 3. The multiple R obtained from each set were .04, .08, and .12 respectively.

The same independent variables were regressed on the Depersonalization scores using a forward selection solution. Inspection of the beta weights from these various models shows that gender was significant at the .01 level for the stepwise solution. Also, the variables age and support were significant at the .01 level across both the stepwise solution and the full model. The negative coefficients were interpreted to mean that the lower Depersonalization scores were associated with males, were lower among the older respondents, and lower among those reporting higher levels of support.

The results of the separate analyses for each of the four support variables showed that only co-worker and supervisor support made a significant contribution to the prediction of depersonalization. Spouse/confidant support and friend support did not make a significant contribution to the explained variance in depersonalization.

It should be noted that although the full-time equivalent variable was not significant in Table 10 for the full model or for the stepwise solution, this variable was significant with co-worker and supervisor support at the .01 level. This was interpreted to mean that Depersonalization scores were lower among those counselors reporting an increase in the number of full-time equivalent counselors,

however, the addition of the composite support variable obscured these findings.

Personal Accomplishment

The results of regressing the independent variables on the Personal Accomplishment scores are shown in Table 11. A hierarchical solution was obtained after the set of demographic variables were entered as a block in step 1, followed by the set of job-related variables in step 2, followed by the composite support variable in step 3. The multiple R associated with these three steps were .03, .07, and .11 respectively.

A forward selection solution was used to regress the same independent variables on personal accomplishment. An examination of the beta weights from these various models shows that only counseling responsibilities was significant at the .01 level across both the stepwise solution and the full model. Also, the support variable was significant at the .01 level for the stepwise solution. The positive coefficients were interpreted to mean that personal accomplishment scores were higher among those reporting high involvement in counseling responsibilities and were high among those counselors that indicated having high levels of support.

Separate analysis were completed for each of the four support variables. Inspection of the beta weights shows that

Table 11

Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression Analyses of the Independent Variables on Personal Accomplishment

Variable	Step 1 Demographic Variables		Step 2 Demographic + Job-Related Variables		Full Model Step 3 Demographic + Job-Related + a Social Support Vari- able (Tot/Sp)		Stepwise Solution	
	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t
Age	-.09	2.0*	.11	1.7	.10	1.5		
Gend	.06	1.3	.01	0.2	.00	0.1		
M/Sta	.10	2.2*	.06	1.1	.04	0.7		
E/Bac	-.01	-0.3	-.00	-0.0	.00	0.1		
Degr	.08	1.6	.05	0.9	.02	0.3		
Setng			.08	1.5	.07	1.3		
Time			.01	0.1	-.05	-1.0		
C/Job			.16	2.8*	.16	2.8**	.18	3.5**
T/Job			.13	2.3*	.13	2.4	.13	2.5*
FTE/C			.10	1.6	.10	1.7	.10	2.0*
Stds			-.02	0.0	.00	0.0		
2Yr/C			-.15	-2.3*	-.14	-2.2		
Hr/Wk			.09	1.6	.10	2.0		
Tot/Sp					.22	4.1	.22	4.6**
	R ² =.03		R ² =.07		R ² =.11		R ² =.09	

* p < .05 ** p < .01

Note: Age = Age, Gend = Gender, M/Sta = Marital Status, E/Bac = Ethnic Background, Degr = Highest Degree, Setng = College Setting, Time = Opportunity for Time Out, C/Job = Counseling Job Responsibilities, T/Job = Teaching Job Responsibilities, FTE/C = Full-Time Equivalent Counselors, Stds = Students Enrolled, 2Yr/C = Years as a 2-Yr. Counselor, Hr/Wk = Additional Hours Worked Each Week, Tot/Sp = Total Support

only spouse/confidant and friend support contributed significantly to the prediction of personal accomplishment. Support from co-workers and supervisors did not make a significant contribution.

The variable counseling responsibilities was significant in the separate analyses with each of the four support variables.

Burnout Composite

The procedures used in regression analysis for the Composite Burnout scores were identical to those followed with each of the subscales (Table 12). The procedures used in regression analysis for the Composite Burnout scores were identical to those followed followed with each of the subscales (Table 12). In step 1, the set of demographic variables were entered as block, followed by the entry of the job-related variables in step 2, followed by the composite support variable in step 3. The multiple R obtained from each set were .06, .13, and .18 respectively.

The same independent variables were regressed on the Composite Burnout scores using a forward selection solution. Inspection of the beta weights from these various models shows that support was significant at the .01 level across both the stepwise and the full model. The variable age was significant at the .01 level for the stepwise solution. Also, the variable full-time equivalent counselors was

Table 12

Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression Analyses of the Independent Variables on the Burnout Composite

Variable	Step 1 Demographic Variables		Step 2 Demographic + Job-Related Variables		Full Model Step 3 Demographic + Job-Related + a Social Support Vari- able (Tot/Sp)		Stepwise Solution	
	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t
Age	-.20	-4.3**	-.23	-3.6**	-.21	-3.4**	-.24	-4.3**
Gend	-.01	-0.3	.04	0.8	.05	0.9		
M/Sta	-.08	-1.8	-.03	-0.5	-.00	-0.04		
E/Bac	.13	2.8*	.09	1.7	.09	1.7	.11	2.3*
Degr	.07	-1.4	-.13	-2.4*	-.09	-1.7		
Setng			-.08	-1.5	-.07	-1.4		
Time			-.13	-2.5*	-.06	-1.3		
C/Job			-.09	-1.7	-.10	-1.8		
T/Job			.00	0.1	-.00	-0.0		
FTE/C			-.17	-2.8**	-.17	-3.0**	-.09	-1.9
Stds			.15	0.0	.13	0.0		
2Yr/C			.16	2.5*	.14	2.3*	.12	2.1*
Hr/Wk			-.04	-0.7	-.06	-1.1		
Tot/Sp					-.25	-4.9**	-.29	-6.6**
	R ² =.06		R ² =.13		R ² =.18		R ² =.18	

* p < .05 ** p < .01

Note: Age = Age, Gend = Gender, M/Sta = Marital Status, E/Bac = Ethnic Background, Degr = Highest Degree, Setng = College Setting, Time = Opportunity for Time Out, C/Job = Counseling Job Responsibilities, T/Job = Teaching Job Responsibilities, FTE/C = Full-Time Equivalent Counselors, Stds = Students Enrolled, 2Yr/C = Years as a 2-Yr. Counselor, Hr/Wk = Additional Hours Worked Each Week, Tot/Sp = Total Support

significant at the .01 level for the full model. The negative coefficients were interpreted to mean that the composite burnout scores were lower among the older respondents, lower among those reporting higher levels of support, and lower among those reporting a higher amount of full-time equivalent counselors.

Separate analysis were completed for each of the four support variables. Inspection of the beta weights showed that only co-worker and supervisor support made a significant contribution to the prediction of the burnout composite. Spouse/confidant support and friend support did not make a significant contribution to the explained variance in the burnout composite.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

Summary

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between selected variables and burnout in two-year college counselors. Answers were sought to three research questions. They are:

1. What is the relationship between burnout and certain demographic variables?
2. What is the relationship between burnout and certain job-related variables?
3. What is the relationship between burnout and social support variables?

The original plan of data analysis was to answer these questions by testing null hypotheses as follows: (a) There is no relationship between demographic variables and burnout; (b) There is no relationship between job-related variables and burnout; and (c) There is no relationship between social support and burnout. This plan was abandoned in favor of a regression analysis designed to predict burnout from scale scores of Maslach's Measure of Burnout when the Maslach cutoff score method yielded only 18 of 507 community college counselors experiencing burnout. Obviously, no meaningful relationship between burnout and demographic variables, job-related variables, or social support variables can exist

when only 18 of the 507 counselors sampled were experiencing burnout, as defined using Maslach's measure.

Of the five demographic variables, age of counselor proved to be a predictor of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and the composite burnout score. Age was not a significant variable in predicting personal accomplishment. The contribution to the explained variance made by the set of demographic variables was modest, but statistically significant. However, the set of demographic variables made slightly more of a contribution to the explained variance in emotional exhaustion ($R^2=.06$) and the composite burnout ($R^2=.06$) than in depersonalization ($R^2=.04$) and personal accomplishment ($R^2=.03$).

The job-related variables were introduced to the hierarchical regression model in the second step, following the demographic variables. When opportunities for time-out increased and co-worker support, supervisor support and total support increased, emotional exhaustion decreased. Further, when the number of full-time equivalent counselors increased and co-worker support, supervisor support, and total support increased, depersonalization and burnout decreased. The findings also revealed that when counseling responsibilities increased and spouse/confidant support and total support increased, personal accomplishment increased.

The contribution to the explained variance made by the set of job-related variables was significant for each of the

dependent variables. The job-related variables were introduced as the third set of variables following the demographic and job-related variables. The addition of the set of job-related variables explained slightly more of the variance in the composite burnout ($R^2=.07$) and emotional exhaustion ($R^2=.06$) than in depersonalization ($R^2=.04$) or personal accomplishment ($R^2=.04$). Similar findings related to the social support variables were found. The addition of the social support variable explained slightly more of the variance in emotional exhaustion ($R^2=.06$) and composite burnout ($R^2=.05$) than in depersonalization ($R^2=.04$) and personal accomplishment ($R^2=.04$). In addition, the results found in this study regarding decreased burnout with increased age tend to agree with the literature (Armstrong, 1979; Cherniss, 1980; Ekblom, 1985; Maslach, 1982).

Evidence was provided supporting the benefits of social support and some of the job-related variables. The mediator, social support, was significant in decreasing the consequence, burnout, when co-worker, supervisor, and total support increased. These findings appear to support the Elliott and Eisoderfer (1980) X - Y - Z framework that served as a conceptual base for this project. Also, results related to decreased emotional exhaustion when opportunities for time-out increased and co-worker support increased are consistent with findings by Pines and Kafry (1978). This study appears to support a study by Freudenberger (1974) who

suggested that lack of support by supervisors can lead to emotional exhaustion. Results found in this study showing that increased co-worker support is associated with decreased burnout agree with those of Ekblom (1985) and Maslach and Pines (1977). Moreover, the results found associated with decreased burnout when supervisor support increased agree with Armstrong (1979) and Ekblom (1985).

There are several findings not addressed in this study for which comparable results were not previously studied. The findings that burnout and depersonalization decreased with increased full-time equivalent counselors was not discussed in the literature. In addition, findings that personal accomplishment increased with increased spouse/confidant support and increased counseling job responsibilities were not revealed.

Conclusion

Several studies documented in the literature suggest an explanation of why a majority of the counselors in this study were not experiencing burnout as defined by Maslach. The literature does not contain a base rate on burnout from which these findings can be compared to selective occupational groups. However, some normative data has been compiled by Maslach (1982) which suggest that the burnout rate found in this study is low. The over-all sample mean from 11,067 professionals representing various occupational groups

(social services, medicine, mental health, education, etc.) suggest that these professionals are experiencing a moderate degree of burnout (Emotional Exhaustion \bar{x} = 20.99, Depersonalization \bar{x} = 8.73, Personal Accomplishment \bar{x} = 34.58). The sample mean for this study indicates that two-year college counselors are not experiencing burnout as defined by Maslach (Emotional Exhaustion \bar{x} = 18, Depersonalization \bar{x} = 2.8, Personal Accomplishment \bar{x} = 42). Evidence possibly interpreting the low level of burnout found in this study is explained below.

First, studies by Armstrong (1979), Ekbohm (1985), and Cherniss (1980), and Maslach (1982) suggest that low burnout scores were associated with older people. The findings in this study appear to support their findings. Second, a study by Maslach (1982) found that lower burnout scores tend to be associated with married people. Findings in this study appear to support Maslach, however, this study used spouse/confidant as equivalent. Third, Freudenberger (1975) implied that many counselors who serve clients in extreme need become emotionally drained and are vulnerable to burnout. The data revealed in this study appears to agree with Freudenberger's claim. This study found that a large percentage of counselor time was spent with career and educational counseling rather than counseling students with personal problems. The low number of students counseled each week for personal problems suggest the possibility for lesser

emotionally taxing demands placed on these counselors. Fourth, Maslach and Pines (1977) and Pines and Maslach (1978) have indicated that burnout scores tend to be lower in counselors who have opportunities for time-out to work on other work activities. The data collected in this study supports their findings. Fifth, Maslach and Pines (1977) suggest that the larger the number of clients one must deal with the higher the burnout scores. This study appears to support their findings. Last, several researchers (Bundy, 1983; Daley, 1979; Maslach & Pines, 1977; Pines & Kafry, 1978) indicate that social support can be effective in reducing stress and burnout in human service professionals. The findings in this study tend to support this position.

Implications

There are several implications drawn from the findings in this study. They include:

1. Very few counselors in this sample appeared to have a problem with burnout, contrary to what was expected based on the literature. The findings in this study suggest that community college counselors are not as susceptible to burnout as persons in other human services professions.
2. Based on comments made by counselors as part of this study, counselors may be experiencing problems other than burnout, e.g., lack of involvement in

decision-making, lack of flexibility in determining job tasks, low priority given to support counselor and faculty needs, lack of training in areas where extra responsibilities have been added.

Administrators should examine these issues and others in their institutions.

3. Administrators should carefully review any changes that could reduce the existing support system available to counselors.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. Similar quantitative studies should be completed using more than one burnout instrument or a different one. However, prior to studying burnout, other burnout instruments should be reviewed to determine if they are appropriate for measuring burnout in two-year college counselors. Perhaps a new burnout instrument should be developed specifically for college counselors. In addition, burnout in two-year college counselors should be studied using a qualitative approach to determine if similar results are found.
2. An investigation of the effects of social support on burnout in counselors employed at state colleges

and universities across the country should be studied. This would determine whether there was a difference in the level of burnout experienced by this group in comparison to two-year college counselors.

3. An investigation of the issues identified by the two-year college counselors in this study (e.g., work conditions, duties, support, governance, budget/salary and professional development/promotion) should be completed. These issues are provided in Appendix F.

It should be noted that recommendations relating to community colleges should be considered in the context of the complexities facing these institutions over the next decade. Two important issues contributing to the complexity of the community college future are demographic changes and mission ambiguity. Demographic projections pose a serious challenge for community college leaders. A decrease in the traditional college age population is projected (Hodgkinson, 1983). In order to maintain their present enrollment levels, community colleges will need to focus on attracting alternative client groups. According to the literature, mission ambiguity continues to be a problem for community colleges. Many community colleges attempt to maintain a comprehensive mission. However, this makes it difficult to develop a clear direction for the institution. The effectiveness of

institutional planning and the resource allocation process is reduced without stated priorities (Breneman & Nelson, 1981; Cohen & Brawer, 1982; Deegan & Tillery, 1987). Factors such as these should be considered when reviewing the above recommendations concerning burnout in community college counselors.

REFERENCES

- Alkire, A., Goldstein, M., Rodnick, E., & Judd, L. (1971). Social influence within the family of four types of disturbed adolescents. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 77, 32-42.
- Antonovsky, A. (1972). Breakdown: A needed fourth step in the conceptual armamentarium of modern medicine. Social Science Medicine, 6, 537-544.
- Antonovsky, A. (1974). Conceptual and methodological problems in the study of resistance resources and stressful life events. In B. S. Dohrenwend & B. P. Dohrenwend (Eds.), Stressful life events: Their nature and effects. New York: Wiley.
- Arkes, H. R. & Garske, J. P. (1982). Psychological theories of motivation (2nd ed.). Monterey, CA: Brook/Cole.
- Armstrong, K. L. (1979). How to avoid burnout: A study of the relationship between burnout and worker, organizational and management characteristics in eleven child abuse and neglect projects. Journal of Child Abuse and Neglect, 3, 145-149.
- Austin, D. A. (1981). Combatting burnout. Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance, 52, 35-36.
- Averill, J. R. (1979). A selective review of cognitive and behavioral factors involved in the regulation of stress. In R. S. Depue (Ed.), The psychobiology of the depressive

- disorders: Implications for the effects of stress. New York: Academic.
- Ball, W. R. (1977). Emotional stamina: The practitioners dilemma. Counselor Education and Supervision, 16, 230-232.
- Baum, A., Singer, J. E., & Baum, C. S. (1981). Stress and the environment. Journal of Social Issues, 37, 4-35.
- Berkman, L. F., & Syme, S. L. (1979). Social networks, host resistance, and mortality: A nine-year follow-up study of Alameda County residents. American Journal of Epidemiology, 100, 186-204.
- Billingsley, A., Streshinsky, N., & Gurgin, V. (1966). Social work practice in child protective services. Berkeley: University of California School of Social Welfare.
- Bovard, E. W. (1959). The effects of social stimuli on the response to stress. Psychology Review, 66, 267-277.
- Boy, A. V., & Pine, G. J. (1980, Nov.). Avoiding counselor burnout through role renewal. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 59, 161-163.
- Breneman, D. W., & Nelson, S. C. (1981). Financing community colleges: An economic perspective. Washington, DC: Brookings.

- Brown, G., Birley, J., & Wing, J. (1972). Influence of family life on the course of schizophrenic disorders: A replication. British Journal of Psychiatry, 121, 241-58.
- Bundy, K. O. (1983, Fall). Everything you always wanted to know about professional burnout but were afraid to ask. Journal of Contemporary Education, 9-11.
- Burchfield, S. R. (1979). The stress response: A new perspective. Psychosomatic Medicine, 41, 661-672.
- Butcke, P., Moracco, J. C., & Mc Ewen, M. E. (1984). Measuring occupational stress among counselors: A multidimensional concept. Journal of Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 17(1), 24-31.
- Cannon, W. B. (1928). Neural organization for emotional expression. In M. L. Reynert (Ed.), Feelings and emotions; The Wittenberg symposium. Worcester, MA: Clark University Press.
- Cannon, W. B. (1935). Stresses and strains of homeostasis. American Journal of Medicine, 189, 1-14.
- Cannon, W. B. (1963). The wisdom of the body. New York: Norton.
- Caplan, R. D. (1972). Organizational stress and individual strain: A social-psychological study of risk factors in coronary heart disease among administrators, engineers, and scientists. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Michigan.

- Caplan, G. (1974). Support systems and community mental health: Lectures on concept development. New York: Behavioral Publications.
- Caplan, R. D. (1979). Social support, person-environment fit and coping. In L. Ferman & J. Gordis (Eds.), Mental health and the economy. Kalamazoo, Mich.: Upjohn Foundation.
- Caplan, R. D., Cobb, S., French, J. R. P., Jr., Harrison, R. V., & Pinneau, S.R., Jr. (1975). Job demands and worker health (HEW Publication No. 75-160). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Caplan, G., & Killilea, M. (Eds.). (1976). Support systems and mutual help: Multidisciplinary explorations. New York: Grune & Stratton.
- Cassel, J. (1974). An epidemiological perspective of psychosocial factors in disease etiology. American Journal of Public Health, 64, 1040- 43.
- Cassel, J. C. (1976). The contributions of the social environment to host resistance. American Journal of Epidemiology, 104, 107-123.
- Cherniss, C. (1980). Professional burnout in human service organizations. New York: Praeger.
- Cleveland, E., & Longaker, W. (1972). Neurotic patterns in the family. In Handel E. (Ed.), The psychosocial interior of the family (159-85). Chicago: Aldine.

- Cobb, S. (1976). Social support as a moderator of life stress. Psychosomatic Medicine, 38, 300-314.
- Cobb, S. (1978, September-October). Social support and health through the life cycle. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science.
- Cohen, A., & Brawer, F. B. (1982). The American community college. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Daley, M. R. (1979). Burn-out: Smoldering problem in protective services. Social Work, 24, 375- 379.
- Dean, A. (1986). Social support in epidemiological perspective. In N. Lin, A. Dean, W. Ensel (Ed.), Social support, life events, and depression. New York: Academic Press.
- Dean, A., & Lin, N. (1977). The stress buffering role of social support. Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 165, 403-417.
- Deegan, W., & Tillery, D. (1987, April/May). Toward a 5th generation of community colleges: Seven priorities for action. Community, Technical, and Junior College Journal, pp. 36-40.
- Durkheim, E. (1951). Suicide. New York: The Free Press.
- Edelwich, J., & Brodsky, A. (1980). Burnout: Stages of disillusionment in the helping professions. New York: Human Sciences Press.

- Ekbom, C. W. (1985). The effects of social support on counselor burnout. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute & State University.
- Elliott, G. R., & Eisdorfer, C. (1982). Stress and human health: Analysis and implications of research. New York: Springer.
- Emener, W. G. (1979, Jan./Feb./March). Professional burnout: Rehabilitation's hidden handicap. Journal of Rehabilitation, 55-58.
- Farber, B. (Ed.). (1983). Stress and burnout in human service professions. New York: Pergamon.
- French, J. R. P., Jr. (1973). Person-role fit. Occupational Mental Health, 3, 15-20.
- French, J. R. P., Jr. (1974). Person-role fit. In A. McLean (Ed.), Occupational stress. Springfield, IL: Thomas.
- French, J. R. P., Jr. (1976). Job demands and worker health: Introduction. A portion of a symposium presented at the 84th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.
- French, J. R. P., Jr., & Caplan, R. D. (1972). Organizational stress and individual strain. In A. Morrow (Ed.), The Failure of Success. New York: AMACOM.
- French, J. R. P., Jr., Rodgers, W., & Cobb, S. (1974). Adjustment as person environment fit. In B. Coeche, D. Hamburg, & J. Adams (Eds.), Coping and adaptation: Interdisciplinary perspectives. New York: Basic Books.

- French, J. R. P., Jr., Caplan, R. D., Harrison, R. V., & Pinneau, S. R., Jr. (1976, September). Job demands and worker health. A symposium presented at the 84th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.
- Freudenberger, H. J. (1974). Staff burnout. Journal of Social Issues, 30, 159-165.
- Freudenberger, H. J. (1975). The staff burn-out syndrome in alternative institutions. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, and Practice, 12, 73-82.
- Freudenberger, H. J. (1977). Burnout: Occupational hazard of the child care worker. Child Care Quarterly, 6, 90-99.
- Freudenberger, H. J., & Richelson, B. (1980). Burn-out. New York: Bantam.
- Garte, S. H., & Rosenblum, M. L. (1978). Lighting fires in burned-out counselors. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 57, 158-160.
- Goldberger, L., & Breznitz, S. (1982). Handbook of stress: Theoretical and clinical aspects. New York: The Free Press.
- Gore, S. (1973). The influence of social support and related variables in ameliorating the consequences of job loss. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania.

- Gore, S. (1978). The effect of social support in moderating the health consequences of unemployment. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 19, 157-165.
- Gournash, N. (1978). Help-seeking. A review of the literature. American Journal of Psychology, 6(5), 413-423.
- Hagan, F., Haug, M., & Sussman, M. (1975). Comparative profiles of rehabilitation counseling graduates: 1965 and 1972. Working Paper #5, Cleveland: Western Reserve University.
- Haley, J. (1977). A quiz for young therapists. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 14, 161-168.
- Henderson, S. (1977). The social network, support and neurosis: The function of attachment. British Journal of Psychiatry, 131, 85.
- Hessler, R. M., Kerbish, P., Kong-Ming New, P., Ellison, D. L., & Taylor, I. (1971). Demographic context, social interaction and perceived health status: Excedrin headache #1. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 1971, 12, 191-199.
- Hodgkinson, H. L. (1983). Guess who's coming to college: Your students in 1990. Washington, DC: National Institute of Independent Colleges and Universities.
- House, J. S. (1980). Occupational stress and the mental and physical health of factory workers. A research report of

the Institute for Social Research (Publication No. ISBN 0-87944-254-9). The University of Michigan.

House, J. S., & Wells, J. A. (1977, May). Occupational stress, social support, and health. Paper presented at the Conference on Reducing Occupational Stress, White Plains, New York.

House, J. S., & Wells, J. A. (1978). Occupational stress, social support and health. In A. McLean, G. Black, & M. Colligan (Eds.), Proceedings of a conference (Publication No. 78-140). U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

Hurst, J. C., Weigel, R. G., Morrill, W. H., & Richardson, F.C. (1973). Reorganizing for human development in higher education: Obstacles to change. Journal of College Student Personnel, 14(1), 10-15.

Insel, P. S., & Moors, R. H. (1974). Work environment scale. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Jones, J. W., (Ed.). (1981). The burnout syndrome. Park Ridge, IL: London House Management Press.

Kadushin, A. (1974). Child welfare services. New York: Macmillan.

Kafry, D., & Pines, A. (1980). The experience of tedium in life and work. Human Relations, 33, 477-503.

Kagan, A. R., & Levi, L. (1974). Health and environment--psychosocial stimuli: A review. Social Science and Medicine, 8, 225-241.

- Kahn, R. L. (1981). Some propositions toward a researchable conceptualization of stress. In J. E. McGrath (Ed.), Social and psychological factors in stress. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Kahn, R., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., Snoeb, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A.. (1964). Organizational stress. New York: Wiley.
- Kaplan, B. H., Cassel, J. C., & Gore, S. (1977). Social support and health. Medical Care, 15, 47-58.
- Kissel, S. (1965). Stress-reducing properties of social stimuli. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 2, 378-384.
- Klein, S. M. (1971). Workers under stress: The impact of work pressure on group cohesiveness. Lexington: University of Kentucky Press.
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. Eductaional and Psychological Measurement, 30, 607-610.
- Kremer, B. J., & Owen, W. A. (1979). Stress in the life of the counselor. The School Counselor, 26, 40-46.
- Kyriacou, C., & Sutcliffe, J. (1978). A model of teacher stress. Educational Studies, 4, 1-6.
- Lacey, J. I. (1967). Somatic response patterning and stress. Some revisions of activation theory. In M. H. Appley & R. Trumball (Eds.), Psychological stress. New York: Appleton.

- LaRocco, J. M., & Jones, A. P. (1978). Co-worker and leader support as moderators of stress-strain relationships in work situations. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, 629-634.
- LaRocco, J. M., House, J. S., & French, J. R. P., Jr. (1980). Social support, occupational stress, and health. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 21, 202-218.
- Levi, L. (1972). Stress and distress in response to psychosocial stimuli. New York: Pergamon.
- Liem, R., & Liem, J. (1978). Social class & mental illness reconsidered: The role of economic stress & social support. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 20, 108-119.
- Likert, R. (1961). New patterns of management. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lowenthal, M. E., & Haven, C. (1968). Interaction and adaptation: Intimacy as a critical variable. American Sociological Review, 33, 20-30.
- Lynch, J. (1977). The broken heart. New York: Basic Books.
- MacKenzie, T. E. (1981). Burnout in education. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Michigan.
- Maddison, D., & Viola, A. (1968). The health of widows in the year following bereavement. Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 12, 297-306.
- Marris, R. (1958). Widows and their families. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

- Maslach, C. (1976). Burned-out. Human Behavior, 5, 16-22.
- Maslach, C. (1978 a). The client role in staff burn-out. Journal of Social Issues, 34(4), 111-123.
- Maslach, C. (1978 b). Job Burnout--How people cope. Public Welfare, 36, 56-58.
- Maslach, C. (1979). Classroom stress and teacher burnout. Phi Delta Kappan, 60, 25.
- Maslach, C. (1981). Understanding burnout: Problems, progress and promise. In W. S. Paine (Ed.), Proceedings of the First National Conference on Burnout (pp. 37-63). Philadelphia, PA.
- Maslach, C. (1982). Burnout: The cost of caring. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1978, April). A scale measure to assess experienced burnout: The Maslach burn-out inventory. Paper presented at annual convention of Western Psychological Association, San Francisco.
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. (1979). Burned-out cops and their families. Psychology Today, 12(12).
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1986). The Maslach Burnout Inventory. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Maslach, C., & Pines, A. (1977). The "burnout" syndrome in day care settings. Child Care Quarterly, 6, 100-113.

- Maslach, C., & Pines, A. (1979). Burnout, the loss of human caring. In A. Pines & C. Maslach (Eds.), Experiencing social psychology. New York: Random House.
- Mason, J. W. (1968). Over-all hormonal balance as a key to endocrine organization. Journal of Psychosomatic Medicine, 30, 791-808.
- Mason, J. W. (1975). An historical view of the stress field. Journal of Human Stress, 2, 22-35.
- Mason, J. W., Maher, J. T., Hartley, L. H., Mougey, E., Perlow, M. J., & Jones, L. G. (1976). Selectivity of corticosteroid and catecholamine response to various natural stimuli. In G. Serban (Ed.), Psychopathology of human adaptation. New York: Plenum.
- Matteson, M. T., & Ivancevich, J. M. (1982). Managing job stress and health: The intelligent person's guide. New York: Free Press.
- Mattingly, M. A. (1977, Summer). Sources of stress and burn-out in professional child care work. Child Care Quarterly, 6.
- McGrath, J. (1970). (Ed.), Social & psychological factors in stress. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- McGuire, W. H. (1979). Teacher burnout. Today's Education, 68, 5.
- McLean, A. (1974). Occupational stress. Springfield, IL: Thomas.

- Mishler, E., & Waxter, N. (1965). Family interaction patterns and schizophrenia: A review of current theories. Merrill Palmer Quarterly, 11, 269-315.
- Moracco, J. C. (1978). Counselor burnout: Prevention and care. Unpublished manuscript, Auburn University, Counselor Education Department.
- Mueller, D. P. (1980). Social networks: A promising direction for research on the relationship of the social environment to psychiatric disorder. Social Science and Medicine, 14A, 147-161.
- Murray, H. A. (1938). Explorations in personality. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Myers, J., Lindenthal, J., & Pepper, M. (1974). Social class, life events, and psychiatric symptoms: A longitudinal study. (pp. 191-206) In B. S. Dohrenwend and B. P. Dohrenwend (Eds.), Stressful life events: Their nature and effects. New York: Wiley.
- Nuckolls, K. B., Cassell, J. C., & Kaplan, B. H. (1972). Psychosocial assets, life crisis, and the prognosis of pregnancy. American Journal of Epidemiology, 95, 431-444.
- Ortmeyer, C. F. (1974). Variations in morality, morbidity, and health care by marital status. In C. Erhardt & J. Berlin (Eds.), Morality and morbidity in the United States. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

- Paine, W. S. (Ed.). (1982). Job stress and burnout: Research theory and intervention perspectives. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Parkes, C. M. (1964). The effects of bereavement on physical and mental health--A study of the medical records of widows. British Medicine Journal, 2, 274-279.
- Peterson, W. D., & Spooner, S. E. (1975, January). Career crises for helping professionals. Who counsels the counselor in crisis? Journal of College Student Personnel, 80-84.
- Pines, A., & Kafry, D. (1978). Occupational tedium in the social services. Social Work, 23, 499-507.
- Pines, A., & Maslach, C. (1978). Characteristics of staff burnout in mental health settings. Hospital and Community Psychiatry, 29, 233-237.
- Pines, A., & Maslach, C. (1980). Combatting staff burnout in a day care center: A case study. Child Care Quarterly, 9, 5-16.
- Pines, A., Aronson, E., & Kafry, D. (1981). Burnout: From tedium to personal growth. New York: The Free Press.
- Pinneau, S. R. (1975). Effects of social support on psychological and physiological strains. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Michigan.
- Pinneau, S. R. (1976, September). Effects of social support on psychological and physiological stress. Paper

- presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.
- Porritt, D., & Bordow, S. (1976). Some implications on an experimental trial of crisis intervention with road trauma in patients. Journal of Alcohol Drug Depend., 3, 136-138.
- Price, J. S., Slater, E., & Hare, E. H. (1971). Marital status of first admissions to psychiatric beds in England and Wales in 1956 and 1966. Social Biology, 18, 574-594.
- Pusateri-Vlach, N., & Moracco, J. C. (1981). Burnout: A stress action model. Alabama Personnel and Guidance Journal, 8, 5-11.
- Quinn, R. P., & Shepard, L. J. (1974). The 1972-73 quality of employment survey: Descriptive statistics with comparison data from the 1969-70 survey of working conditions. Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center.
- Rabkin, J. G., & Streuning, E. L. (1976). Life events, stress, and illness. Science, 194, 1013-1020.
- Reed, M. J. (1977). Stress in live-in child care. Child Care Quarterly, 6(2).
- Rees, W. P., & Lutkins, S. G. (1967). Morality of bereavement. British Medicine Journal, 4, 13-16.
- Registt, W. (1970). The occupational culture of policemen and social workers. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

- Rosenberg, M. (1964). Occupational values and occupational choice. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbia University.
- Seashore, S. (1954). Group cohesiveness in the industrial work group. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research.
- Seashore, S. (1971). The impact of work pressure on group cohesiveness. In S. Khein (Ed.), Workers under stress. Lexington, KY: University of Kentucky.
- Selye, H. (1936). A syndrome produced by diverse nocuous agents. Nature, 138(32).
- Selye, H. (1956). The stress of life. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Selye, H. (1970). The evolution of the stress concept. American Journal of Cardiology, 26, 289-299.
- Selye, H. (1975). From dream to discovery. New York: Arno Publishing Co., Inc.
- Shapiro, C. H. (1981). Creative supervision: An antidote for burnout. In W. S. Paine (Ed.), Proceedings of the First National Conference on Burnout (pp. 37-63). Philadelphia, PA.
- Shaw, S. F., Bensky, J. M., & Dixon, B. (1981). Stress and burnout: A primer for special education and special services personnel. Reston, VA: Published by Council for Exceptional Children.

- Shils, E. A., & Janowitz, M. (1948). Primary groups in the German army. (Abridged and adapted from cohesion and disintegration in the Wehrmacht in World War II.) Public Opinion Quarterly. In L. Broom, & P. Selznick, (Eds.), (1955). Sociology, (5th ed.) New York: Harper & Row.
- Spaniol, L. (1979). Teacher burnout. Instructor, 88, 56-62.
- Spaniol, L., & Caputo, J. (1980, December). How to recognize, cope with and avoid professional burnout. Journal of Instructional Innovator, 18-20.
- Stewart, M. S., & Meszaros, P. S. (1981). What's your burnout score? Journal of Home Economics, 73, 37-39.
- Swank, R. L. (1949). Combat exhaustion: A descriptive and statistical analysis of causes, symptoms and signs. Journal of Nervous Mental Disorders, 109, 475-508.
- Swick, K. J., & Hanley, P. E. (1980). Stress and the classroom teacher. Washington, DC: National Education Association.
- Swogger, G. Jr. (1981, January). Toward understanding stress: A map of the territory. Journal of School Health, 29-33.
- Taylor, A. R. (1975). The graduate student experience. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 54, 35-39.
- Thorts, P. A. (1982). Conceptual, methodological and theoretical problems in studying social support as a buffer against life stress. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 23, 145-159.

- Tiedeman, D. V. (1979). Burning and coping out of counseling. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 57, 328-330.
- Titchener, J., Riskin, J., & Emerson, R. (1960). The family in psychosomatic process. Psychosomatic Medicine, 22, 127-42.
- Tolsdorf, C. (1976). Social networks, support, and coping: An exploratory study. Family Process, 15, 407-17.
- Truch, S. (1981). A method to combat counsellor stress and burnout. School Guidance Worker, 37(2), 5-57.
- Valle, S. K. (1979). Burnout: Occupational hazard for counselors. Alcohol Health and Research World, 3, 10-14.
- Van Auken, S. (1979). Youth counselor burnout. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 58, 143-144.
- Vestermark, M., & Johnson, D. (1970). Counselor fatigue and renewal. The School Counselor, 18, 105-110.
- Walsh, D. (1979). Classroom stress and teacher burnout. Phi Delta Kappan, 61, 253.
- Warnath, C. F. (1979). Counselor burnout: Existential crisis or a problem for the professional? Personnel and Guidance Journal, 57, 325-328.
- Warnath, C. F., & Shelton, J. L. (1976). The ultimate disappointment: The burned-out counselor. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 55, 172-175.
- Watkins, C. E. Jr. (1983). Burnout in counseling practice: Some potential professional and personal hazards of

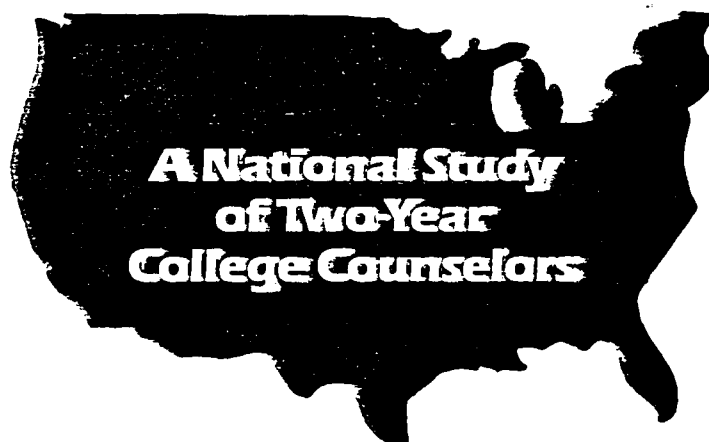
becoming a counselor. Personnel and Guidance Journal,
61, 304-308.

Wubbolding, R. E., & Kessler-Bolotin, E. (1979). Reality
therapy as an antidote to burnout. American Mental Health
Counselors Association Journal, 1, 39-44.

APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE

Social Support

**Can it help the way
you feel about your job?**



Atlantic Community College

Counselor Survey

Part 1 -Job-Related Feelings

In this part you are asked to express how you feel about your job from an emotional perspective. For each statement below please indicate how often you experience the emotions expressed in your job as a counselor. Please circle the number of the response choice that best describes your feelings.

HOW OFTEN	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Almost never	A few times a year	About once a month	About twice a month	About once a week	About twice a week	Easily every day

ITEMS	HOW OFTEN?
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
4. I can easily understand how my students feel about things.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6

HOW OFTEN	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Almost never	A few times a year	About once a month	About twice a month	About once a week	About twice a week	Easily every day
5. I treat some students as if they were impersonal objects.						0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
6. I feel strained from working with students all day.						0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
7. I deal very effectively with the problems of my students.						0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
8. I feel burned out from my work.						0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
9. I feel I'm positively influencing students' lives through my work.						0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
10. I feel I display a callous attitude toward students since I took this job.						0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
11. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.						0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
12. I feel very energetic.						0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
13. I feel frustrated by my job.						0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
14. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.						0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
15. I don't really care what happens to some students.						0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
16. I feel working with students directly puts too much stress on me.						0 1 2 3 4 5 6	

17. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
18. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
19. I feel I accomplish many worthwhile things in my job. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
20. I feel at the end of my rope. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
21. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6

Part II - Feelings of Support or Non-Support

In this part you are asked to indicate the level of work support you receive from your spouse/confidant, friends, co-workers and immediate supervisor(s).

- | | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|-------|---------------|------------------|----------|
| | Agree | Tend to Agree | Tend to Disagree | Disagree |
| 22. My spouse/confidant can be relied upon for support when things get tough at work. | | | | 4 3 2 1 |
| 23. My spouse/confidant understands when I am irritated about work-related problems and responds to me. | | | | 4 3 2 1 |
| 24. When I need to try new things and make work-related changes, my spouse/confidant supports me. | | | | 4 3 2 1 |
| 25. My friends can be relied upon for support when things get tough at work. | | | | 4 3 2 1 |
| 26. My friends are willing to listen to my work-related problems. | | | | 4 3 2 1 |

	4	3	2	1
	Agree	Tend to Agree	Tend to Disagree	Disagree
27. My co-workers can be counted on for support when things get difficult at work.	4	3	2	1
28. My co-workers are willing to listen to me about work-related problems.	4	3	2	1
29. My co-workers are helpful in getting the job done.	4	3	2	1
30. When things get difficult at work my supervisor can be counted on for support.	4	3	2	1
31. My supervisor is willing to listen to my work-related problems.	4	3	2	1
32. My supervisor is helpful in getting the job done.	4	3	2	1
33. My abilities are valued by my immediate supervisor at work.	4	3	2	1
34. I am clear about what I am to do and what my immediate supervisor expects from me.	4	3	2	1
35. My supervisor expresses interest in my work.	4	3	2	1
36. My supervisor is competent.	4	3	2	1

Part III - Job Responsibilities

Listed below are three major job-related responsibilities that a counselor might reasonably hold. Please indicate the percentage of time in an average week that you devote to each of these responsibilities. Please be sure the sum of your percentages equals 100.

37. Counselor	_____ %
38. Administrative/meetings	_____ %
39. Teaching	_____ %
Total	100 %

Within these major responsibilities are specific duties. Assign your percentages to each of the following duties in each area.

Counseling Duties

40. Individual counseling with students with informational problems (financial aid, scheduling, course selection, etc.)	_____ %
41. Individual counseling with students with personal problems	
42. Group counseling with students	_____ %
Total	100 %

Administrative/Meeting Duties

43. Administrative work (reading mail,
reading professional literature,
writing and filing reports, etc.) _____ %
44. Traveling for college-related business _____ %
45. Consulting with others (teachers,
administrators, etc.) _____ %
46. Attending counseling staff meetings _____ %

Teaching Duties

47. Teaching (non-credit/credit
course[s]). _____ %
48. Presenting workshops. _____ %
- Total 100 %

Part IV - Personal and Job-Related Background

Please circle the number or fill in the blank, as appropriate, for your responses to the following questions:

49. What is your age? _____
50. What is your gender? 1)Male
2)Female

51. What is your marital status?
- 1) Never Married
 - 2) Married or equivalent relationship
 - 3) Divorced
 - 4) Separated
 - 5) Widow/Widower
52. What is your ethnic background?
- 1) Black
 - 2) Mexican-American
 - 3) Native American
 - 4) White
 - 5) Oriental
 - 6) Other _____
53. What is the highest degree you possess?
- 1) Bachelor's
 - 2) Master's
 - 3) Doctorate
54. What most nearly describes the setting of your college?
- 1) Urban
 - 2) Suburban
 - 3) Rural
55. Are there opportunities for counselors to voluntarily choose less stressful work when they are under pressure such as ("time-outs") built into the workday?
- 1) No
 - 2) Yes
56. How many years have you been a counselor in a two-year college? _____ Years

57. How many years have you been a counselor at your college? _____ Years
58. What is the student enrollment (head count) at your college? _____ # of Students
59. How many full-time equivalent (FTE) counselors are employed at your college? _____ FTE
60. What is the average number of students you counsel each week with regard to:
- a. personal problems _____ #
 - b. educational planning _____ #
 - c. career counseling _____ #
 - d. total? _____ #
61. How many additional hours a week do you work beyond what is required by your contract/policy? _____ # of Hours

(Please see back cover)

Are there aspects of counselor job responsibilities or social support systems, not included in this survey, that you feel would be important to consider in future research efforts? If so, please provide your comments in the space below or in a separate letter.

Your contribution to this effort is greatly appreciated. If you would like a summary of results, please print your name and address on the back of the return envelope (NOT on this questionnaire).

Please return the completed questionnaire to:

Theresa DeFranco
Atlantic Community College
Mays Landing, New Jersey 08330-9888

APPENDIX B
COVER LETTER 1ST MAILING



February 22, 1988

Dear Counselor:

As you well know, there has been a lot of discussion about job burnout among school teachers in recent years. It is estimated that burnout has already affected thousands of sensitive, thoughtful, and dedicated teachers. However, very little research has focused upon burnout among counselors. As a counselor, I am concerned that burnout is an equally large problem among counselors; and I need your help to investigate this possibility.

The purpose of this letter is to seek your participation in a nationwide survey I am conducting of counselors at two-year colleges. Your institution was randomly selected from over 1,200 two-year colleges, and I am asking you, and possibly one or more of your colleagues, to express your views. Therefore, in order for the results to truly represent counselors working in two-year colleges, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The code number on each questionnaire is for mailing purposes only. This is so that we may check your name off the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned.

The results of this study will be made available to other researchers and all interested participants. If you would like a summary of my findings, please write your name and address on the back of the return envelope.

Your consideration of this request will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Theresa DeFranco

P.S. I am obligated to inform you that the Job Related Feelings portion of the survey was reproduced by special permission of the publisher, Consulting Psychologist Press, Inc., Palo Alto, CA 94306. From Human Services Survey (publication) by Christina Maslach and Susan Jackson c. 1981. Further reproduction is prohibited without the publisher's consent.

Mays Landing, NJ 08330 • 609-625-1111, 646-4950

APPENDIX C

POSTCARD

Dear Counselor:

I recently mailed you a questionnaire seeking your perceptions about your job and social support. Your name was chosen randomly from a list of two-year college counselors nationwide.

If you have already completed and returned the questionnaire please accept a sincere thanks. If not, please do so today. Because the questionnaire has been sent to only a small, but representative sample of two-year college counselors it is extremely important that your response be included in the study if the results are to accurately represent the perceptions of two-year college counselors.

If you did not receive the questionnaire or misplaced it, I will be sending you another.

Sincerely,

Theresa DeFranco

APPENDIX D
COVER LETTER 2ND MAILING



March 21, 1988

Dear Counselor:

About three weeks ago, I wrote to you seeking your participation in a nationwide survey of two-year college counselors. As of today, I have not yet received your completed questionnaire.

This study has been undertaken to investigate two-year college counselors' perceptions about their job and support system.

I am writing to you again because of the significance each questionnaire has to the usefulness of the study. Your name was selected through a scientific sampling of two-year college counselors.

In order for the results of the study to be truly representative of two-year college counselors, it is essential that each person in the sample return their questionnaire.

In the event that your questionnaire has been misplaced, a replacement is enclosed. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Theresa DeFranco

APPENDIX E
COVER LETTER 3RD MAILING



April 25, 1988

Dear Counselor:

I am writing to you concerning the national study of two-year college counselors' perceptions about their job and support system. Your questionnaire still has not been received.

The large number of questionnaires returned is very encouraging. But, whether this study will be able to describe accurately how counselors perceive their job and support system depends upon you and the others who have not yet responded..

This is the first national study of this type that has been done on two-year college counselors. Therefore, the results may not only be of interest to counselors, but administrators as well. The usefulness of these results depends on how accurately they describe the job perceptions and support systems of two-year college counselors.

I'll be happy to send you a copy of the results if you want one. Simply put your name and address on the back of the return envelope. If your questionnaire has already been mailed, thank you for your participation.

Your contribution to the success of this study will be appreciated.

Sincerely,

Theresa DeFranco

APPENDIX F
COUNSELOR COMMENTS

SELF-PERCEIVED NEEDS OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE COUNSELORS

Categories that emerged from counselor survey comments.

1. WORK CONDITIONS

- * greater flexibility in determining job tasks, work hrs. etc.
- * more release time for special projects
- * greater attention given to stress encountered during peak times
- * more time-off to replenish energy level

2. DUTIES/SKILLS

- * more training in areas where extra responsibilities have been added
- * greater understanding by administration of role ambiguity and role conflict

3. SUPPORT

- * administration and faculty to value the counselor's role
- * morale enhancement through having colleagues and administration recognize the achievements, honors, and efforts of counselors
- * the college to provide support systems for counselor

- * equal priority given to counselor and faculty needs
- * administration not to use student services as a scapegoat for errors made by other areas
- * greater cohesiveness of work group within student services
- * more clerical support

4. GOVERNANCE

- * counselors to be part of the decision-making process
- * contract conditions (work day, work week, work yr.) flexible enough to accommodate the needs of the population served
- * counselors should have a better understanding of the politics of resources both internally and externally

5. BUDGET/SALARY

- * pay differential above regular salary for extra duties
- * higher salary
- * greater understanding by administration of the impact of reduced budgets on operational efficiency and effectiveness

6. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT/PROMOTION

- * a policy for promotion within the department
- * opportunities to grow professionally (keep up with innovations and changes in the field)
- * creativity, new projects, and risk-taking should be rewarded

APPENDIX G
PERMISSION LETTERS

April 7, 1987

Paula Horner
Consulting Psychologists
Press, Inc.
577 College Avenue
Palo Alto, CA 94306

Dear Ms. Horner:

I am writing to ask your permission to use the Maslach Burnout Inventory in a national survey I am planning to conduct for my dissertation study at Virginia Tech.

The study is designed to identify factors related to burnout among community college counselors. With your permission, I'd like to incorporate the items from your instrument along with those from another instrument and demographic items in a single questionnaire, rather than mail separate instruments to the respondents. The directions and ordering of the items will, however, be maintained.

If granted permission, I will be happy to send you a copy of the data collected as well as a copy of my report. Your consideration of this request will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Theresa DeFranco
Graduate Student

Lawrence H. Cross
Associate Professor
Dissertation Advisor

CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGISTS PRESS, INC.

577 College Ave. (P.O. Box 60070), Palo Alto, California 94306 (415) 857-1665

Theresa DeFranco

In response to your request of April 7, 1987 permission is hereby granted you to
(Date)

reproduce the Maslach Burnout Inventory to be combined with another instrument in a single questionnaire, for the purpose of gathering data for completion of your dissertation at Virginia Tech, as per your letter,

subject to the following restrictions:

- (a) Any material used must contain the following credit lines:

"Reproduced by special permission of the Publisher, Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.,
Palo Alto, CA 94306,

from Human Services Survey

by Christina Maslach and Susan Jackson^(publication) © 1981
(author)

Further reproduction is prohibited without the Publisher's consent."

- (b) None of the materials may be sold or used for purposes other than those mentioned above.
(c) One copy of any material reproduced will be sent to the Publisher.
(d) Payment of a reproduction fee of \$.13 per copy x N = Total to be
determined by you and remitted to my attention upon reproduction of
(e) the items from the MBI. Thank you.

Please remit without further notice and mail to my attention. Be sure to identify material for which payment is made.

CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGISTS PRESS, INC.

By XXXXXXXXXXXX Supervisor of
Contracts, Permissions and Licenses

Date 4/27/87

9-1-87

Dear Dr. Caplan:

This letter is to confirm our telephone conversation regarding permission to reprint your model in my dissertation. Enclosed you will find a copy of the model I would like to use.

Your support is appreciated.

Thank you.

Theresa DeFranco

Please sign if permission is granted.

Permission Granted

September 10, 1987

Dear Ms. Shinn:

As a doctoral student at Virginia Poly-Tech Institute, I'm presently involved in writing my dissertation on burnout in two-year colleges. I would like to have your permission to use the Theoretical Model of Stress, Strain, and Consequences of Strain. Enclosed you will find a copy of this figure.

I would appreciate your signing and returning the enclosed copy of this letter, if permission is granted.

Your support would be greatly appreciated.

Thank you,

Theresa DeFranco

Enclosures

9-1-87

Dear Ms. Flamm:

This letter is to confirm our telephone conversation regarding permission to adapt Shaw and Bensky's model in my dissertation. Enclosed you will find a copy of the original model and the one I would like to use.

Your support is appreciated.

Thank you,

Theresa DeFranco

Please sign if permission is granted.

Permission Granted

9-1-87

Dear Ms. Shklar:

This letter is to confirm our telephone conversation regarding permission to adapt the Behavioral Science Framework in my dissertation. Enclosed you will find a copy of the original framework and the one I would like to use.

Your support is appreciated.

RECEIVED SEP 10 1987

Thank you,

Theresa DeFranco

Please sign below if permission is granted.

Permission Granted

9-1-87

Dear Ms. Scarborough:

This letter is to confirm our telephone conversation regarding permission to reprint Kahn's ISR Model of Stress in my dissertation. Enclosed you will find a copy of the model that I would like to use.

Your support is appreciated. **Figure 4.2 from Kahn/WORK AND HEALTH.**

Thank you.

Theresa DeFranco

Please sign below if permission is granted:

Permission Approved

OCT 20 1987

Permission granted.
Credit must be given to
our work in the book.

Credit must include the following:

- Title of book or journal
- Name (s) of author (s) and/or editor (s)
- Copyright notice, including:
 - the year of publication
 - the publisher's name
 - the page number
 - the page range
- Page number of the book
- Page number of the chapter
- Page number of the section

ISR

SURVEY RESEARCH CENTER / INSTITUTE FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH / THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN
ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN 48106-1248

September 9, 1987

Ms. Theresa DeFranco

Dear Ms. DeFranco:

You have my permission to use the measures of social support from my rubber workers study, and Figures 1.1 and 1.2 from "Occupational Stress, Social Support and Health," that I authored with James A. Wells in Reducing Occupational Stress: Proceedings of a Conference, Alan McLean, Gilbert Black and Michael Colligan, Editors, for use in your dissertation.

I will appreciate receiving the results when you are finished. Good luck with your work.

Sincerely,

James S. House
Program Director and
Professor and Chair
of Sociology

Enc.
JSH:mk

**The two page vita has been
removed from the scanned
document. Page 1 of 2**

**The two page vita has been
removed from the scanned
document. Page 2 of 2**