

Job Satisfaction Among Elementary School Counselors
in Virginia: Thirteen Years Later

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(ABSTRACT)

This study was conducted to determine the current job satisfaction level of elementary school counselors in Virginia and compare it with elementary school counselors surveyed in 1995 and 1988. At the time of the 1988 survey, the Virginia Board of Education had passed a resolution to phase elementary guidance and counseling programs into the public schools over a four-year period beginning in the 1986-1987 school year. The elementary school counseling program was in full effect when the 1995 survey was conducted. In 2001 the program was no longer state mandated, but instead was a local option to be determined by school boards. An array of social and political changes have taken place since the first two studies were conducted by Kirk (1988) and Murray (1995) that may have impacted how satisfied counselors in Virginia are with their jobs. Because the job satisfaction level of elementary school counselors in Virginia in 2001 was undetermined, this study was undertaken.

Two mailed questionnaires were used to collect the data. An Individual Information Form (IIF) and a modified version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) were sent to 444 elementary school counselors who were members of the Virginia School Counselor Association. The total response rate was 76.35%.

In the current study, 90.9% of counselors surveyed indicated they were either satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs, while 9.1% were very dissatisfied or dissatisfied. Of the 20 aspects of work measured by the MSQ, counselors only indicated dissatisfaction with the compensation area. The two demographic variables of educational degree status and counselors' intent to remain in the current position were found to be predictors of job satisfaction for counselors in 2001.

A majority of all counselors in the 2001 study responded affirmative to whether the current social and political climate affected their feelings about their jobs. Counselors expressed feeling dissatisfaction with the lack of a state mandated counseling program and feeling stress and pressure from conflicting role expectations and demands.

Compared to counselors surveyed in 1995 and 1988, the overall level of job satisfaction in 2001 is similar. There were six areas of counselors' jobs that produced the most satisfaction in all three studies although the order varied somewhat. These areas were social service, moral values, creativity, activity, variety, and ability utilization. In all three studies, counselors were the least satisfied with the same three areas which included compensation, company policies, and advancement. Job security was the fourth area producing the most dissatisfaction in both the 2001 and 1995 studies, while it was eighth in 1988. There was an increase of about 5% in the number of counselors who are dissatisfied with their jobs in 2001 compared to 1995 and about a 2% increase from 1988. There has been a slight increase across all three studies in the percentage of counselors who are very satisfied with their jobs.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

One of the main tasks assigned to schools in the United States is to educate and equip young people for the future. As we enter this new millennium, the job of helping students to achieve success in school and to develop into contributing members of society becomes more challenging. Gysbers, Lapan, and Blair (1999) observe that today's youth must confront "a rapidly changing work world and labor force; violence in the home, school, and community; divorce; teenage suicide; substance abuse; and sexual experimentation..." (p. 357). School counselors occupy an important position within the school as they attempt to help students cope with these issues and the normal developmental tasks young people face.

Research has supported the benefits of having elementary school counselors within the school, such as students' improved academic success, attendance, peer relations, and classroom behavior (Borders & Drury, 1992; Lee, 1993; Miller, 1989; Schmidt, Lanier, & Cope, 1999). The cornerstones of the original elementary school counseling programs were based on research reflecting the adverse effects of unhealthy early childhood psychological development (Miller, 1989). Elementary school counselors are influential in the overall development of students' personal and academic success. Assistance is provided to students through the four primary interventions of counseling, large group guidance, consultation, and coordination (American School Counselor Association [ASCA], 1999). Although each is an important component of a comprehensive guidance program, research has shown that more effective programs

focus on providing direct services to students in the form of individual or group counseling (Borders & Drury, 1992; Gerler, 1985; Otwell & Mullins, 1997; Wiggins & Mickle-Askin, 1980).

Elementary school counselors often spend much of their time in noncounseling, administrative tasks (Bemak, 2000; Coll & Freeman, 1997; Hardesty & Dillard, 1994a; Morse & Russell, 1988). Although the role of the school counselor frequently has been defined as encompassing the duties of counseling, consulting, and coordination, this definition has expanded in recent years to include a variety of diverse activities. In Hardesty and Dillard's (1994a) survey of 369 Kentucky school counselors time allocation, they found an increasing trend in the areas of administrative paperwork and testing by elementary, middle, and high school counselors. Miller (1988) studied counselors in 666 schools identified by the United States Department of Education as excellent public schools. He found that for elementary school counselors, counseling and consulting were rated highest of 14 characteristics required to meet the excellent school criteria. Napierkowski and Parsons (1995) observed that counselors' roles have become more quasi-administrative, with counselors performing gatekeeper and custodial work. In a study that compared the functions of elementary school counselors with middle and secondary school counselors, Hardesty and Dillard (1994b) found that elementary school counselors performed more consulting, counseling, and coordinating functions and less administrative-like functions. Because of this difference, Hardesty and Dillard (1994b) stated that elementary school counseling may be viewed as more expendable to school administrations and legislatures and more likely to be eliminated from school budgets during tight budget times.

According to reports received by Marcia Obenshain, Virginia Counselors Association Advocacy Relations co-chair, Virginia's elementary school counselors increasingly "are being used as attendance keepers, testing coordinators, and additional instructional staff" (Obenshain, 2001). School counselors enter the profession because of their desire to help students (Ribak-Rosenthal, 1994). If they are unable to fulfill their role as a counselor, feelings of inadequacy and unhappiness may result. Because current state accreditation does not ensure that their role will be implemented according to prescribed national leadership statements, Virginia's elementary school counselors may be vulnerable to stress and job dissatisfaction.

Satisfaction with work has been positively correlated with having clear lines of authority and clear job descriptions (Kottkamp & Mansfield, 1985; Schuler, Aldage, & Brief, 1977). Burnham and Jackson (2000) note that school counseling roles historically have been ambiguous and difficult to define, interpret, and implement. Since its infancy, the elementary school counseling program in Virginia has struggled. Murray (1995) observes that throughout the 1990s Virginia's school counseling program was under attack from different sources attempting to restrict the role of counselors. Opposition to the program came from certain parents and legislators, and some members of the Virginia General Assembly (Kaplan, 1995).

During the past thirteen years, two studies were conducted to determine the job satisfaction level of Virginia elementary school counselors. The first study was conducted by Kirk in 1988. He found that 93.4% of counselors were either satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. The second study was conducted seven years later by Murray in 1995 and revealed that 96.3% of elementary counselors in the state were satisfied with their jobs.

Many changes have taken place in the state and nation since the 1988 and 1995 studies that have impacted counselors and the counseling program.

The Virginia Board of Education passed a resolution to phase elementary guidance and counseling programs into Virginia public schools over a four-year period beginning in the 1986-1987 school year (Virginia Department of Education, 1986). School accreditation standards were modified to reflect this resolution and stipulated that counselors were to spend at least 60% of their time in direct counseling with students. Accreditation standards were amended in 1988 to include all guidance staff members, including part-time counselors and directors of guidance (Virginia Department of Education, 1988). During the early 1990s, concerns from some parents about school counseling began to surface throughout the state. Kaplan (1995) states that between January 1993 and June 1994, 104 letters from concerned parents were received by the Board of Education and Department of Education. Kaplan notes that of the 104 letters, 57 were condemning counseling programs or practices and 47 were supportive. Many of the letter writers objected to the content of some programs being used in elementary guidance. Bills to restrict school counseling practices were initiated by the Virginia General Assembly in 1993 and 1994 (Kaplan, 1995). Regulations requiring local school boards to adopt policy governing guidance and counseling in schools by July 1, 1996 were adopted by the Board of Education on January 18, 1996 (Virginia Department of Education, 1996). Local school boards were directed to include in their policy guidelines provisions for schools to notify parents in writing annually about the academic, career, and personal/social counseling programs available in their children's school. The regulations also stipulated that local school boards were to establish either an "opt-out" or

“opt-in” option whereby parents could elect to have their children participate in the personal/social counseling. In September 1997, the Virginia Board of Education adopted comprehensive revisions to the standards of accreditation (Virginia Department of Education, 1997a). The revised standards set minimum administrative and support staffing requirements in elementary schools to include either guidance counselors or reading specialists, thus making the program a local option. Less secure positions and lack of a state mandate for the counseling program may be placing increased pressure upon Virginia elementary school counselors and affecting their level of job satisfaction.

Another significant change took place in 1995 when the Virginia Board of Education adopted new Standards of Learning (SOL) objectives for students in the four core academic areas of mathematics, science, English, history and social science, and computer/technology in grades 5 and 8 (Virginia Department of Education, 1997b). According to the Virginia Department of Education (1997b), the new Standards of Learning “set clear and concise expectations for what teachers should teach and students should learn. They also provide a benchmark for measuring student performance and achievement” (p. 1). The first statewide assessment of the new Standards of Learning was conducted in the spring of 1998. Under the 1997 revised standards of accreditation, students are required to pass some of the SOL tests to earn a standard or advanced diploma. These standards are also used as part of the criteria for retention or promotion. The Department of Education specified that a school’s accreditation will be based in part on the overall level of students’ performance. A 70% pass rate in the four core areas is required for elementary and middle schools to be fully accredited. At the third grade level, a 50% pass rate is required in science and history. Effective July 1, 1998 all schools

were rated as provisionally accredited as the phase-in of the new accreditation standards began. The provisional rating will cease at the end of the 2002-2003 school year, with schools being expected to meet the prescribed level of performance to be fully accredited by the 2003-2004 school year. If the fully accredited requirements are not met, schools will be accredited with warning. A corrective plan of action to improve student achievement on the SOL tests would then have to be designed, with no school being allowed an accredited with warning status for more than three consecutive years. If the requirements for being fully accredited are not met after the three years of being accredited with warning, schools will be denied accreditation. Pressure to perform well on the SOL tests has affected the operation of the entire school and the school division. Because such emphasis is being placed upon test performance and accreditation, priorities within the school are being restructured. A *Virginia Journal of Education* cover story "SOL Mania Hits the Schools" (Allen, 1999, p. 7) states, "Devout reverence for the SOLs, born out of holy terror over the possible fallout of assessment test scores, is changing the way a lot of things are done in Virginia's schools". To help foster students' academic success, elementary school counselors often conduct large group guidance lesson on various topics that include improving test-taking skills and reducing test anxiety. As teachers and students endeavor to meet increasing academic performance requirements, counselors may be expected to provide additional classroom guidance lessons which would reduce the amount of time for direct counseling. Myrick (1993) recommends that counselors devote no more than 7% to 8% of their time in classroom guidance. Coll and Freeman (1997) conclude from their investigation of role conflict of

elementary school counselors compared to middle and high school counselors the following:

If teachers are demanding more classroom guidance, students are demanding more one-to-one availability, principals are insisting upon relief from administrative duties, and parents are seeking assistance in raising troubled youth, the inevitable consequence may be frustration and exhaustion for the counselor. (p. 259)

One of the most challenging and complex issues that schools and school counselors have had to face during the past decade has been concerns about school violence. Although reported criminal incidents and types of discipline have remained constant and decreased in some areas (Riley & McDaniel, 2000), youth violence is alarming. Dykeman, Daehlin, Doyle, and Flamer (1996) observe that not only are children committing violent crimes at younger ages, they are also involved with violence as victims and witnesses. Fritz (2000) reports that 123,000 children are arrested each year for violent or serious crimes. According to Sandhu (2000) nearly three million serious crimes are committed annually in the nation's schools. Katz (2000) reports that since 1992 there have been 28 instances of "school mass homicides" such as the ones in Columbine High School in Littleton, Colorado and Jonesboro Middle School in Arkansas. As school administrators struggle with ways to prevent acts of violence from occurring within their schools, they increasingly turn to school counselors for leadership and help with establishing policies regarding violence prevention and school safety (Fryxell & Smith, 2000).

School counselors are in a strategic position to serve as resource agents for violence prevention within their schools and communities and to educate others about factors that foster violent behaviors in youths. As an advocate for the psychological

health of all children, counselors utilize their skills and leadership roles to help maximize students' development. Cunningham and Sandhu (2000) state, "The counselor's investment in the mental health of children can help ensure that this process provides attention to creating schools that are psychologically as well as physically safe for all children, particularly those who are at risk for developing problem behaviors such as violence" p. 128. Within the community, school counselors serve as a liaison between the school and outside service providers for troubled students. The Virginia Counselors Association (VCA) position statement on school violence prevention and intervention states, "All children have a fundamental right to learn in a safe environment. Therefore VCA believes that in order to promote optimal learning and personal responsibility, its members must take an active role in promoting safe schools and a culture of respect for all individuals" (Lynn, 2000, p. 13). At the national level, city mayors attending the 1998 National Summit on School Violence unanimously endorsed the recommendation to find funding for counselors in both elementary and middle schools (Guerra, 1998).

As counselors strive for innovative ways to help curb school violence, they may become frustrated as additional demands are placed upon them. Olson and Dilley (1988) observe that as add-on roles for counselors have increased, no other roles have been decreased, and this may serve as a source of stress. Still, other counselors may feel pressure over issues that hinder more effective problem solving of school violence reduction. For school counselor advocacy groups attempting to find solutions to the problems of school violence, Riley and McDaniel (2000) state the following:

Common themes emerge from these efforts, including concerns over student-counselor ratios that across the country do not meet the American School Counselor Association's (ASCA, 1999) suggested one counselor for every 250

students; concerns over the nature of the counselor's job, which is often described as more "paper pusher" than counseling provider; and articulation of the school counselor's potential contributions to efforts directed at addressing school violence in all of its manifestations. (p. 121)

School counselors frequently are expected to serve as prevention specialist, consultant, and community organizer without adequate training (Cunningham & Sandhu, 2000).

When counselors are expected to perform roles and functions without feeling they have the necessary skills, serve too many students, or be involved with activities that detract from their primary duties, job dissatisfaction may result.

Statement of the Problem

Decreased job satisfaction has been associated with a number of potentially damaging personal and professional symptoms (Coll & Freeman, 1997; Hansen, 1967; Schuler, 1977; Van Sell, Brief, & Schuler, 1981). Olson and Dilley (1988) stated that counselors' mental health and the quality of their work are related. Hansen (1967) observed that the interaction of workers with their jobs is reflected in their feelings and behaviors such as job participation and productivity. Brown, Hohenshil, and Brown (1998) noted that job satisfaction is necessary to ensure continuous and high quality services to children and the adults who work with them.

Changing social, economic, and political conditions during the past two decades have affected the role of school counselors. Herr (2001) observes the following:

In the years following the demise of the National Defense Education Act legislation in the early 1980s, the roles of school counselors were increasingly devoted to a range of social problems, including but not limited to chemical dependency, changing family structures and child-rearing problems, the needs of children with single parents or in blended families, the integration of minority children, child abuse, and violence in schools and other crisis issues. (p. 276)

School counselors are called upon to help students deal with a plethora of problems and issues. A primary goal of the school counseling program is to promote and enhance student learning. The American School Counselor Association (ASCA, 1999) recommends that counselors focus their skills, time, and energies on direct services to students, staff, and families, and spend at least 70% of their time in direct services to students. If counselors are unable to provide the necessary services to students, job satisfaction may decrease. Previous studies (Furlong, Atkinson, & Janoff, 1979; Dietz, 1972; Kirk, 1988; Murray, 1995) showed that counselors were satisfied with their jobs. However, current pressures from working with more challenging students and needs, increased administrative duties, time constraints, funding shortages, increased counselor-student ratios, and school reform may increase the level of counselors' stress and job dissatisfaction. Napierkowski and Parsons (1995) observed that counselors have always been agents of change and that frustration and dissatisfaction may result when counselors are blocked from implementing new programs or carrying out what they were trained to do. At this time, the current level of job satisfaction among Virginia's elementary school counselors is undetermined.

Significance of the Study

The level of job satisfaction contributes to how effectively an individual performs his or her job (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Mitchell, 1990; Ma & McMillan, 1999; Schuler, Aldage, & Brief, 1977; Spector, 1997; Van Sell, Brief, & Schuler, 1981). Studies indicate that job satisfaction influences the emotional and physical well being of an individual (Coll & Freeman, 1997; Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Olson & Dilley, 1988; Pugliesi, 1999), and job dissatisfaction is

associated with stress and burnout (Kesler, 1990; Kottkamp & Mansfield, 1985; Leiter & Meechan, 1986; Lobban, Husted, & Farewell, 1998; Martin & Schinke, 1998; Newton, 1989; Um & Harrison, 1998; Wolpin, Burke, & Greenglass, 1991). Elementary school counselors in Virginia are being bombarded with a multitude of duties that often are conflicting and unclear, thus making them vulnerable to stress. The school reform movement, mandated statewide accountability testing, cutbacks in personnel, school violence, and societal changes have altered how counselors spend their time and deliver services to students.

Since the original studies by Kirk in 1988 and by Murray in 1995, important changes have taken place in Virginia and throughout the nation that may affect how satisfied elementary school counselors are with their jobs. An examination of the current job satisfaction level of Virginia's elementary school counselors would provide data to assess the impact of these changes on counselors and counseling programs. Results from the study would be useful to counselors, counselor educators, school divisions, counseling associations, and local and state policy makers in planning and evaluating the elementary school counseling program. Therefore, it is appropriate to replicate the earlier studies of the job satisfaction of Virginia elementary school counselors.

Purpose of the Study

In this study I will investigate the current level of job satisfaction of elementary school counselors in the Commonwealth of Virginia. I will replicate the studies of Kirk (1988) and Murray (1995) to compare the level of job satisfaction in 1988 and 1995 with the level of job satisfaction in 2001. The following questions will be addressed:

1. What is the job satisfaction level expressed by elementary school counselors in Virginia?
2. Which of the 20 scales of the modified Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) explain the variance in job satisfaction of elementary school counselors in Virginia?
3. What is the relationship of the overall job satisfaction level of Virginia elementary school counselors with selected demographic and work environment characteristics?
4. How does the job satisfaction level of Virginia elementary school counselors in 2001 compare to the job satisfaction level of Virginia elementary school counselors in 1995 and 1988?
5. Does the current social and political climate affect counselors' feelings about their jobs and performance?

Limitations of the Study

The sample for the current study consists of approximately 450 elementary school counselors who are employed full-time in public schools in the Commonwealth of Virginia and are members of the Virginia School Counselor Association (VSCA). Based on the full-time equivalent count, the number of all elementary school counselors in the state is 1626.5 (Mona Mallory, personal communication, July 2001). Because of the study's small sample size and geographic area, national generalizability of results may be limited. Results may not be generalized to part-time counselors, counselors serving more than one school, non-public school counselors, middle and high school counselors, counselors who are not members of VSCA, or counselors working outside the school

setting. The results may be generalized to counselors in school divisions in other states only to the extent that they are similar to those in the sample. Although the most popular method of measuring job satisfaction is the questionnaire, it is limited to the facets chosen to be investigated by the developer (Spector, 1997). Therefore, more specific areas of satisfaction or dissatisfaction may not be disclosed.

Definition of Terms

In this study the following operational definitions will apply:

1. Elementary School Counselor—licensed school counselors who serve students primarily in grades K-5 in the public schools of Virginia.
2. Job Satisfaction—“... how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs” (Spector, 1997, p. 2). This state is assumed to be realized in the form of an overall job satisfaction score on the modified Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ).

Summary

The current study will measure the job satisfaction level of elementary school counselors in Virginia. Results of this study will be compared to two previous studies conducted by Kirk (1988) and Murray (1995) that investigated the job satisfaction of Virginia elementary school counselors. Discussion of the changes that have taken place in the country and the Commonwealth of Virginia since the two studies were completed was provided. If the job satisfaction level of elementary school counselors has changed since the 1988 and 1995 studies were completed, this study will attempt to identify possible reasons contributing to the change.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Job satisfaction has been a topic frequently researched. Many of the studies focused on the overall level of employee job satisfaction, while others examined the variables affecting job satisfaction such as age, gender, community involvement, and family stress. Research on job satisfaction traditionally has centered on workers in industrial organizations. During the past three decades more attention has been given to studying worker job satisfaction in the human services field, but the number of studies still remains low. The topic of job satisfaction and school counselors has received minimal research attention, with elementary school counselors receiving even less attention (Dietz, 1972; Kirk, 1988; Murray, 1995).

Studies related to job satisfaction reveal that heavy role demands, conflicting performance expectations, and local and state administrative policies influence satisfaction with work (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Mitchell, 1990; Kendrick, Chandler, & Hatcher, 1994; Ponec & Brock, 2000). The impact of societal changes, role incongruencies, and educational reforms on counselors' job satisfaction has not kept pace with the research.

This chapter will present a review of related research and selected literature that is important to understanding the variables that affect the job satisfaction of elementary school counselors in the Commonwealth of Virginia. Theoretical underpinnings and ways of measuring job satisfaction will be discussed. The changing role of the school counselor will be explored and its impact on counselors' job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction Historical Overview

The vast body of research done on job satisfaction reflects various factors that contribute to workers' satisfaction with their jobs. Locke (1976) categorized three different approaches that have been used to study job satisfaction. In the 1920s the focus on physical working conditions, physical arrangement of the work, and pay were emphasized. The human relations aspects of job satisfaction which explored the social role of the work group and the impact of good supervisory relationships was emphasized in the 1930s. The next trend emerged in the late 1950s and early 1960s and examined the features of the work itself that produce job satisfaction. Spector (1997) observes that most researchers today focus on workers' cognitive processes in the study of job satisfaction rather than on underlying needs.

Job satisfaction studies in the United States have their roots in the early explorations of industry's concern with ways to improve productivity (Gruneberg, 1976). One of the first studies to examine the relationship of the physical environment and worker productivity was carried out by Fredrick Taylor (1911) at the Bethlehem Steelworks. In the late 1920s another important study was conducted at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago. What was begun in 1927 as an attempt to identify the relationship between working conditions and physical conditions at the plant, ended with the realization that social factors and worker expectations had the greatest impact on job satisfaction (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939).

The Hawthorne studies gave way to extensive research on the multiplicity of factors involved in job satisfaction. Hoppock (1935) raised the notion that it may not be possible to disassociate job satisfaction with other satisfactions in life. In his famous

monograph, Job Satisfaction, Hoppock (1935) states that “family relationships, health, relative social status in the community, and a multitude of other factors may be just as important as the job itself in determining what we tentatively choose to call satisfaction” (p. 5). Hoppock surmised that job satisfaction could be a function of general satisfaction with life. Gruneberg (1979) asserts that Hoppock’s approach to job satisfaction is typical of many studies conducted since the 1935 monograph. Gruneberg states that this approach assumes that “if the presence of a variable in the work situation leads to satisfaction, then its absence will lead to job dissatisfaction...” (p. 7). Commenting on the earliest studies of general life satisfaction and job satisfaction, Brayfield, Wells, and Strate (1957) note that an investigation by Wesley of the University of Minnesota students in 1939 found that attitude towards the job was significantly and positively related to life in general. Wesley used the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Blank and the Rundquist-Sletto Morale Scale to survey 211 employed males 12 years after their enrollment at the university. His analysis revealed a 0.31 correlation between the two measures. Bamundo and Kopelman (1980) studied the moderating effects of several variables related to occupation, age and urbanization. The researchers used a global measure of general life satisfaction, a global measure of job satisfaction, and a facet-specific measure of job satisfaction in their study of 911 heads of households to examine the relationship between job and life satisfaction and specific variables. The moderating variables chosen for the study were based on the findings of their positive relationship to occupation, age, and urbanization in other research. They found evidence that the variables studied (which included occupational level, education, income, self-employment, age, job longevity, and residential city size) positively moderated the

relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Although widely studied and discussed in the literature, some researchers believe the studies linking job satisfaction and life satisfaction are too simplistic. Rain, Lane, and Steiner's (1991) analysis of four literature reviews done in the 1980s on the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction found that the "spillover hypothesis" was substantially more supported in the studies. Rain et al. (1991) described the spillover hypothesis as job satisfaction and life satisfaction each influencing the other. The researchers maintain that in the majority of these studies a theoretical position is not taken and that job satisfaction is just assumed to affect life satisfaction.

The intrinsic features of the work, or how people feel about the nature of the job tasks, have been purported to be instrumental in producing job satisfaction (Brockman, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; O'Driscoll & Randall, 1999; Thorpe & Campbell, 1965). Among the intrinsic factors frequently associated with job satisfaction are acquiring success and recognition, being able to apply or use skills, and feeling worthwhile and involved in the job (Gruneberg, 1979). In an extensive job satisfaction literature review, Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) found that the intrinsic nature of the job was cited most frequently as a contributing factor to job satisfaction. A study of 500 workers from a national longitudinal sample was conducted by Valentine, Valentine, and Dick (1998) to determine the association between job attitudes and various job motivators. Results from the study showed that intrinsic factors such as high involvement and enhanced self-esteem were a significant predictor of job attitudes among older workers. Other studies have found external factors, or features of

the job that are external to the work, influence job satisfaction (Brayfield, Wells, & Strate, 1957; Carraher & Buckley, 1996; Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Graham, 1966; Hulin & Smith, 1965; Pearson, 1991; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Lobban, Husted, & Farewell, 1998; Martin & Schinke, 1998). A 1991 Gallup Poll of American workers found that while Americans were more satisfied with the interest level of their work and the amount of contact with other people, many more were dissatisfied with fringe benefits and opportunities for promotion (Hugick & Leonard, 1991).

Situational factors have been shown to affect job satisfaction. This approach argues that job satisfaction comes from the nature of the job or work environment (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). One situational factor associated with job satisfaction is job level. Because higher level jobs generally are more complex and require greater skill diversity, they often have better working conditions and benefits. In one study examining the effects of workers' job level on job satisfaction, Robie, Ryan, Schmieder, Parra, and Smith (1998) studied 440 hospital employees. Job level was assessed through the use of four measures and job satisfaction was measured by the Job Descriptive Index. Robie et al. (1998) reported a consistently significant positive relationship between the measures of job level and job satisfaction.

The dispositional hypothesis has been proposed in recent years to explain job satisfaction and has received empirical support (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998; Steel & Rentsch, 1997). This approach is based on the premise that a person's character traits influence feelings about job satisfaction apart from the job or environment (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1977). According to Judge et al. (1997) value judgments or "core evaluations" represent the way individuals perceive themselves, other people, and the

world. A 1998 study by Judge, Locke, Durham and Kluger studied core self-evaluations (which included the concepts of self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and nonneuroticism) to see their effects on job and life satisfaction. Judge et al. (1998) found that core evaluations of the self had consistent effects on job satisfaction which were independent of the job attributes. Thus, Judge et al. (1998) argue that people with positive core self-evaluations view their lives and jobs in a better light because their internal make-up enables them to do so.

Virginia Elementary School Counselors and Job Satisfaction Studies

Kirk first studied the job satisfaction of elementary school counselors in Virginia in 1988. He conducted his study one year before a statewide mandated counseling program went into effect. At the time of his study, there were 324 elementary school counselors in the state. Kirk collected his data through an Individual Information Form (IIF) and a modified Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The entire population of 324 elementary school counselors were surveyed, and out of this number 288 were usable returns. Kirk's study found that 93.4% of Virginia's elementary school counselors were either satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. Of the 20 scales on the modified MSQ that measure job satisfaction, counselors were satisfied with all areas. Kirk's research did not find any of the demographic data a significant predictor of counselors' job satisfaction level.

Murray surveyed Virginia elementary school counselors in 1995 seven years after the state mandated program had been in effect. The number of counselors rose from 324 when Kirk did his study to 1,251 in the 1992-1993 school year. At the time of Murray's study, the state mandated counseling program stipulated that elementary school

counselors were to spend at least 60% of their time in direct counseling services to students. Murray collected her data through an Individual Information Form (IIF) and a modified Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) which was sent to members of the Virginia School Counselor Association. Of the 633 surveys mailed, 520 were returned with 488 being usable. The results of Murray's study showed that 96.3% of counselors were satisfied with their jobs in 1995. Of the 20 scales on the MSQ that measure job satisfaction, counselors were satisfied with 19 out of 20 areas. The area of dissatisfaction was reflected in the compensation scale. In both Kirk and Murray's studies, the opportunity to provide service to others was the area that provided the most job satisfaction.

Definition of Job Satisfaction

In reviewing the literature it becomes apparent that job satisfaction can be defined in a number of ways. Ivancevich and Donnelly (1968) define job satisfaction as "the favorable viewpoint of the worker toward the work role he presently occupies" (p. 172). A succinct definition given by Spector (1997) states that "Job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs" (p. 2). Nine different operational definitions of job satisfaction are identified by Wanous and Lawler (1972). Each of the operational definitions are described in terms of how different aspects or facets of job satisfaction are measured and how they combine to achieve an overall measure of satisfaction. The definitions include: (1) overall job satisfaction as the sum of job facet satisfaction across all facets of a job, (2) job satisfaction as a weighted sum of job facet satisfaction, (3) job satisfaction as the sum of goal attainment or need fulfillment when summed across job facets, (4) job satisfaction as a correspondence to

Vroom's "valence for a job", (5) job satisfaction as a discrepancy between how much there is now and how much there should be, (6) job satisfaction as a result of comparison between fulfillment and desires or ideals in the present (7) job satisfaction as a measure of desires or ideals of what one would like, (8) job satisfaction as the importance of a job facet that determines the degree of affect produced by an amount of discrepancy between fulfillment and desires, and (9) job satisfaction as the discrepancy between the importance of a job facet and the perception of fulfillment from a facet.

One of the difficulties in defining job satisfaction is the different terminology used by researchers to describe it. The literature reveals that job satisfaction is used interchangeably with terms such as morale, attitude, and feelings. As early as the 1930s the term workers' feelings and attitudes were identified in studies (Kornhauser, 1930). Ivancevich and Donnelly (1968) suggest that the term satisfaction is similar to morale and attitude. Brayfield and Roethe (1951) note that "...attempts to identify and estimate job satisfaction have preceded precise definition. Employee satisfaction and morale are often equated but seldom defined" (p. 307).

Another difficulty in clearly defining job satisfaction is the way in which satisfaction is measured. Ewen (1967) notes that usually job satisfaction is measured by determining how satisfied employees are with various facets or aspect of their jobs. A concern raised by Ewen is how much weight each facet should be assigned in measuring it. Evans (1969) notes that the validity of job satisfaction measures is dependent upon the assumption that respondents assign equal importance to each facet. In a similar vein, Wanous and Lawler (1972) raised concern that the many conceptual definitions of job satisfaction has led to different ways of measuring the term satisfaction. Scarpello and

Campbell (1983) observed that while the measurement of overall job satisfaction is the total of facet satisfaction, this assumption was appropriate only as long as the content of the satisfaction measure is valid.

Although there is no consensus on ways of defining job satisfaction or measuring it, job satisfaction generally is considered to be an affective state (Jayaratne, 1993). Spector (1997) states that “Job satisfaction can be considered as a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job” (p. 2). Although job satisfaction typically is expressed as an affective state, the cognitive component of workers’ satisfaction with their job increasingly is being recognized. Brief (1998) states that job satisfaction is defined as “an internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favor or disfavor” (p. 86).

Theories of Job Satisfaction

Many theories have been proposed to explain the concept of job satisfaction. Early attempts focused on understanding what contributed to workers’ job satisfaction in industrial organizations. These theories have been applied to the study of job satisfaction in human relations fields since the middle of the last century. More recent theoretical attempts to explain job satisfaction have focused on workers’ dispositional and cognitive traits.

One of the oldest theories is Maslow’s (1954) five-stage needs hierarchy. The needs range from lowest to highest and include basic physiological needs, safety and security needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization (Maslow, 1954). As lower order needs are met, higher order needs can be fulfilled. The implication of this

theory to job satisfaction supposes that when an individual's lower order needs for things such as pay and security have been met, then higher order needs begin to be desired.

The two-factor theory of job satisfaction has been used to explain what leads to worker satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory postulates that factors which produce job satisfaction are intrinsic and separate from factors which produce job dissatisfaction. Motivator factors consist of variables such as achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility, and work itself. These higher order needs correspond to Maslow's level of self-actualization. Hygiene or extrinsic factors consist of variables such as pay, security, and physical working conditions. In Maslow's (1954) hierarchy, they correspond to lower order needs. Bockman (1971) notes that "motivators fulfill the individual's need for growth and hygiene factors help him to avoid discomfort and unpleasantness" (p. 158). Herzberg's theory presumes that the presence of motivator factors produce job satisfaction, but the absence of them does not produce significant job dissatisfaction. In the same vein, the presence of hygiene factors does not produce feelings of satisfaction, but in their absence they do lead to job dissatisfaction.

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory posits that situational and personality variables combine to produce workers' satisfaction with their jobs. The expectancies are based on the individual's presumption that effort will lead to good performance and good performance will lead to rewards. The difference between what workers actually experience and receive as rewards and what workers expect to receive leads to a discrepancy.

Work adjustment theory proposes that worker adjustment outcomes can be explained by the interaction between an individual's personality and work environment (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). The theory was developed at the University of Minnesota as part of the Work Adjustment Project of the Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation in an endeavor to understand the problems of adjustment to work. Weiss et al. (1967) state that "work adjustment depends on how well an individual's abilities correspond to the ability requirements in work, and how well his needs correspond to the reinforcers available in the work environment" (p. v). Furthermore, Weiss et al. maintain that "satisfaction and satisfactoriness are measurable indicators of work adjustment, and that they can be measured independently of each other" (p. v).

Although role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964) does not seek directly to explain job satisfaction, it does have implications for workers' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their jobs. Role theory is defined as the occurrence of two or more inconsistent and unexpected behaviors for a task. Role ambiguity is defined as a lack of clearly identified information about responsibilities and duties and how they should be accomplished. Role conflict and role ambiguity have been associated with decreased job satisfaction, stress, and burnout (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Mitchell, 1990; Coll & Freeman, 1997; Dragan, 1981; Kahn, et al., 1964; Kottkamp & Mansfield, 1985; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970; Schuler, 1977; Um & Harrison, 1998).

The job characteristic model proposes that the way workers perceive task attributes, such as having variety in their jobs or receiving recognition, is associated with job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). If workers perceive task attributes

positively, they are more likely to find their work meaningful and be satisfied with their jobs. The intrinsic satisfaction received from the job motivates workers' performance.

Equity theory has been used to describe job satisfaction. Gruneberg (1979) states that equity theory is based on the concept of receiving a "just reward" for efforts expended. Because individuals characteristically compare themselves to others, workers feel dissatisfied if they believe they are getting less than fellow workers. If the rewards and efforts are comparable to that of others, then people feel satisfied. When there is a discrepancy between a person's perception of effort and rewards compared to others, employees will put less into their work and be less productive.

Reference group theory combines aspects of equity theory with the importance of understanding the group with whom the individual relates (Gruneberg, 1979). The theory speculates that since individuals compare themselves with others to determine if they are being treated equitably, then knowledge of the reference group will facilitate the understanding of workers' job satisfaction. How an individual chooses a reference group or what constitutes a reference group is not clear according to Gruneberg.

The situational theory of job satisfaction has been advanced by Quarstein, McAfee, and Glassman (1992). This theory posits that job satisfaction is determined by two factors which are labeled situational characteristics and situational occurrences. Situational characteristics include those things workers evaluate before taking a job such as pay, promotion, working conditions, and supervision. Situational occurrences are those things workers do not previously evaluate and include factors that can be positive or negative. Positive factors might be tangible or intangible, while negative factors might include typical inconveniences or irritations associated with the work environment.

Quarstein et al. (1992) maintain that both situational characteristics and situational occurrences affect job satisfaction and understanding them can facilitate improved worker satisfaction.

The theory of individual differences in job satisfaction (Motowidlo, 1996) is a cognitive approach to understanding the causes of job satisfaction. This model posits that when workers view their jobs favorably, their evaluation is based on retrieving stored memories from all positive and negative events associated with previous work environments.

Measurement of Job Satisfaction

Ways to measure job satisfaction have been attempted since Hoppock's monograph was presented in 1935 (Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1968). Since then thousands of studies have been conducted to try to determine the sources of workers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction with their jobs (Locke, 1969; Spector, 1985). Locke (1969) notes that despite the number of studies completed, advances in understanding the phenomenon of job satisfaction have not kept pace with the research. In reviewing the literature it becomes apparent that many different methods of collecting data and analyzing it are used. Because of the numerous methods used to investigate job satisfaction, different results are obtained (Locke, Smith, Kendall, Hulin, & Miller, 1964). The data collection techniques most often used in studies of job satisfaction include questionnaires, interviews, rank order studies, sentence completion tests, and critical incident inquiries (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969).

The most commonly used technique to measure job satisfaction is the questionnaire (Ewen, 1967; Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969; Spector, 1997). Spector

(1997) states that using existing questionnaires is an easy way to assess job satisfaction. Since they have been used in previous studies, reliability, validity, and norms generally have been established (Spector, 1997). Other advantages of using questionnaires include increased likelihood of insured confidentiality, ease of administering, economical, and frankness in response if used anonymously (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991)). Because it is less likely to deviate from the instructions and administration methods, Pedhazur and Schmelkin observe that questionnaires are less susceptible to bias.

Job satisfaction questionnaires can be divided into two types. One type measures overall job satisfaction and includes devices such as the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Scale or the Gallop Poll question, while the other type measures the various facets of the job and includes measures such as the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983). Scarpello and Campbell (1983) note that although both types of job satisfaction measures are useful depending upon the information sought, global measures and sum of facet measures are not equivalent measures. Scarpello and Campbell (1983) examined the relationship between the sum of facets on the MSQ and a single-item global satisfaction scale and found only a 0.32 correlation between the two measures. The literature discusses some disadvantages of using preexisting job satisfaction scales. Wanous and Lawler (1972) state that important construct and validity questions are raised with job satisfaction measures because it is not clear if the term satisfaction is being measured in the same way. Ewen (1967) raises doubt that job satisfaction questionnaires do not take into consideration the importance of the single components to the worker. Costs can be a

factor when a large number of people are going to be surveyed since many preexisting scales are copyrighted.

Interviews generally are used in combination with other methods to gather information about workers' job satisfaction (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969). Spector (1997) states that more extensive information can be obtained in an interview since respondents are free to elaborate about the issues under discussion. Also, a less formal atmosphere encourages responses not preplanned by the interviewer (Spector, 1997).

In rank order studies, respondents are asked to rank the characteristics of the job they consider to be the most important determinant to overall job satisfaction. Fournet et al. (1969) point out that Likert (1961) considered the use of this method questionable since its importance can only be measured by its correlation to total job satisfaction.

Sentence completion techniques are projective in nature and provide an opportunity for the respondent to reveal information that otherwise may not have been disclosed (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969). In this method individuals are asked to complete a sentence by using a phrase relative to their jobs.

The critical incident method utilizes an approach developed by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959). In this method workers are asked to describe times in which they were exceedingly happy or unhappy in their jobs. Workers are then asked to give reason for their feelings and how the feelings impact job performance and life satisfaction. The researcher then categorizes the factors that appear to be influencing job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Determinants of Job Satisfaction

A number of variables have been found to relate positively to job satisfaction while others have been found to be more of an indicator of job dissatisfaction. Mortimer (1979) observes that there is no uniform agreement among investigators about the relative importance or sources of job attributes and experiences. Murray (1995) notes that the variables are interrelated and difficult to determine their impact on each other and overall job satisfaction. A review of the literature indicates that most studies have focused on individual differences, age, education, intelligence, sex, and occupational level as determinants of job satisfaction (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969). Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) believe that age, tenure, job level, and salary are linked with job satisfaction.

Of the characteristics most often cited, age consistently has been linked to job satisfaction (Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1984; Bernal, Snyder, & McDaniel, 1998; Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996; Glenn, Taylor, & Weaver, 1977; Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Hoppock, 1960; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; McArthur & Stevens, 1955). Three views are associated with the relationship between age and job satisfaction (Lee & Wilbur, 1985). Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) described a U-shaped function to represent job satisfaction in the career span. In this model job satisfaction with younger workers is initially high and then drops after a few years, and finally rises as workers age. Using a large sample of British employees, Clark, Oswald, and Warr (1996) investigated the relationship between age and job satisfaction. They concluded that for overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with pay and work itself, strong evidence existed to support a U-shaped relationship between age and job

satisfaction. The second view holds that job satisfaction increases as age increases. A number of studies have shown a positive linear relationship between age and job satisfaction (Bernal, Snyder, & McDaniel, 1998; Hulin & Smith, 1965; Rhodes, 1983; Ronen, 1978). Glenn, Taylor, and Weaver (1977) investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and age for both males and females. Results of the study showed that job satisfaction increases with age for both genders. Lee and Wilbur (1985) surveyed 1,707 public employees of a United States county and state government. Respondents were categorized by three age groups which corresponded to the early, middle, and late stages of the career span. Findings revealed that job satisfaction increased for each of the three age categories, leading Lee and Wilbur to conclude that total job satisfaction increases as employees get older. The third view holds that job satisfaction and age are linear until a specific period and then declines (Saleh & Otis, 1964). Saleh and Otis (1964) studied 118 employees to see if job satisfaction increased with age until pre-retirement and then declined. Participants were administered a survey that was divided into five age periods with the last one being age 60 and over. Results showed that job satisfaction levels increased with each age group until the pre-retirement period which declined. Some studies do not find any significant relationship between age and job satisfaction. In his 1988 study of elementary school counselors in Virginia, Kirk did not find age and job satisfaction closely related. Murray's (1995) study of Virginia elementary school counselors also did not reveal a connection between age and job satisfaction. A study of a national sample of 1,095 workers was conducted by Bernal, Snyder, and McDaniel (1998) to investigate the relationship between age and job satisfaction. Respondents were divided into five age categories of 16-25 years, 26-35 years, 36-45 years, 46-55 years,

and 56 years or older. Eleven major occupational categories were included in the study with individual analyses being completed on five occupational categories that had more than 100 cases. A positive but weak linear relationship between age and job satisfaction was found. Bernal et al. (1998) concluded that age is not a viable predictor of job satisfaction.

Gender differences have been recognized as a factor in employees' job satisfaction level. Hulin and Smith (1964) surveyed 295 male workers and 163 female workers to determine how satisfied they were with their jobs. Results of the study indicated that female workers tended to be less satisfied with their jobs than male workers. The researchers postulate that it is not sex per se that leads to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, but that it is a combination of things that covary with gender such as pay, job level, or advancement opportunities. Hulin (1969) studied the effects of community characteristics on the job satisfaction of 470 male and female workers. One of Hulin's hypotheses was that workers' satisfaction with characteristics of their communities and their jobs was a predictor of both job and life satisfaction. Results from Hulin's study showed that there were differences between males and females for the variables related to job and life satisfaction. In Maynard's (1986) investigation of 338 employees' satisfaction level with work and related support networks, no significant differences were found in regards to gender. Ivancevich and Donnelly (1968) suggested that it is not gender differences that lead to job satisfaction but variations in societal treatment such as different compensation scales for males and females.

Studies linking salary and satisfaction with work have mixed results. Although the effects of salary on workers' job satisfaction are among the most frequently reported

determinants of job satisfaction, accurately assessing its association with job satisfaction is complicated by factors such as age, occupational level, and education (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969). Early studies by Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) reported that salary was not ranked high in importance by employees. Hoppock (1935) also did not find pay to be a significant factor in job satisfaction. Some studies have shown a positive relationship with age and pay satisfaction (Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Rhodes, 1983). Hulin and Smith (1965) state that “it is not a worker’s salary per se that affects his satisfaction, but rather the discrepancy between what he is earning [his present salary] and his salary aspirations [desired salary]” (p. 211). A 1996 study conducted by Carraher and Buckley explored another way of explaining satisfaction with pay based on the concept of cognitive complexity. The researchers defined cognitive complexity as the way in which individuals use their characteristics or traits to understand their world. In their study of 1,969 teachers, Carraher and Buckley (1996) concluded that cognitive complexities could account for different ways individuals conceptualize satisfaction with pay. Spector (1997) notes that workers tend to compare themselves to each other and are more concerned with equality in pay policies than in salary differences.

Opportunities for advancement have not been found to significantly affect job satisfaction. Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) found that advancement was more likely to be a determinant of job dissatisfaction than job satisfaction. In their national study of school psychologists’ job satisfaction, Brown, Hohenshil, and Brown (1998) found that workers were dissatisfied with opportunities for advancement. Brown et al. (1998) believe that both the lack and type of positions available to school psychologists contribute to the low priority given to advancement as a factor in job

satisfaction. In Kirk's 1988 study of Virginia elementary school counselors, out of twenty scales, advancement ranked 19th as a predictor of career satisfaction. Murray's (1995) study of elementary school counselors in Virginia also showed that advancement ranked 19 out of 20 scales.

Job tenure has been cited as a factor in job satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Schuh, 1967). Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) maintain that workers initially have high morale when starting a job but that it drops during the first few years of service and then increases as the number of years of service increases. In Hulin and Smith's (1965) study of 260 workers examining the effects of age, tenure on the job, tenure with the company, job level, salary, and salary desired minus salary received, the researchers did not find a U-shaped relation between age and tenure and job satisfaction. A study by Duffy, Ganster, and Shaw (1998) that explored the relationship among individuals with positive affectivity and tenure found that affectivity does impact job tenure in an organization. Duffy et al. (1998) concluded that individuals with high affectivity and longer tenure were more likely to experience dissonance and leave the job if they became dissatisfied. Duffy et al. surmised that workers with positive affectivity were more likely to seek ways to change their situation.

The relationship of workers' social support and job satisfaction has been linked since the famous study at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric carried out in the late 1920s (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957). Workers who identify with the group are more satisfied and likely to have interpersonal and friendship needs met (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969; Maynard, 1986). Graham (1966) posits that "social

acceptance by fellow workers often proves to be a more powerful incentive for maintaining the present level of production than does the promise of increased rewards for improving productivity” (p. 547). Maynard (1986) found that individuals who had a variety of support networks such as work, family, friends, and community were better adjusted at work. Maynard concludes that those individuals with deficient social networks experience more stress and are less able to cope. Ducharme and Martin (2000) used a nationally representative sample of 2,505 full-time employees to investigate whether social relationships in the workplace enhanced job satisfaction and whether social support mattered more to employees under the greatest job stress. The researchers differentiated between instrumental support, which is defined as functional interdependence, and affective coworker support, which is defined as personal affiliations. Findings from the study revealed that social support did significantly enhance workers’ job satisfaction, but neither instrumental support nor affective social support mediated the negative impact of job stress.

The relationship of the worker and supervisor has been emphasized since the late 1920s. Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) note that the attitude and effectiveness of employees are directly related to the quality of supervision provided to them. Schroffel (1999) sampled workers who served seriously mentally ill adults to determine if there was a relationship between job satisfaction and supervision style, quality of supervision, type of supervision, and match with employees’ types and preferences with supervision received. Two facet-level measures were used to collect the data. The results of the study indicated that it was the quality of the supervision and not the quantity that was most important to the workers. Other findings suggested that the

longer workers were in their jobs, the less satisfied they were with their supervision and the more they preferred the laissez-faire style of supervision. Another finding revealed that workers wanted, but believed they were not receiving, supervision that enhanced staff cohesion, clear communication, availability during urgent needs, and independent thinking. A study of 231 substance abuse counselors by Evans and Hohenshil (1997) concluded that job satisfaction could be predicted by a combination of four clinical supervision variables. The supervision variables were the number of hours per week of supervision, length of time the supervisor had been a clinical supervisor, degree level of the supervisor, and whether the supervisor was the clinical or administrative supervisor. In a study of school psychologists, Brown, Hohenshil, and Brown (1998) found that satisfaction with supervision had increased from the previous ten-year study. Brown et al. (1998) speculated the increase might have been the result of workers receiving supervision from qualified school psychologists.

Job Satisfaction of School Counselors

Several factors have been found to affect counselor job satisfaction negatively. Among those frequently cited are role conflict and confusion, stress and burnout, and administrative policies (Kirk, 1988; Murray, 1995). Since the infancy of the guidance and counseling movement, school counselors roles have been ambiguous and problematic and sources of dissatisfaction (Burnham & Jackson, 2000; Hoyt, 1993). Before examining the ways role conflict and confusion, administrative policies, and stress and burnout affect counselor job satisfaction, an overview of the school counseling program will be discussed. This historical overview will provide baseline information to show how the role and function of school counselors have changed in focus over the years.

Guidance and counseling programs first began to appear in the 1900s. They emerged from the vocational education movement of the day and were designed to enhance students' character development and social skills and to help students with career and vocational planning. Over time, the focus of school counseling programs began to shift. Sink and MacDonald (1998) note that the shift in program development progressed from an early vocational emphasis, to a clinical emphasis, and finally to the present-day comprehensive developmental emphasis.

The passage of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (NDEA) was one of the most significant legislative acts to provide impetus for the role of the school counselor (Cole, 1988). Although this act expanded provisions for school counseling, the emphasis was aimed at secondary schools. Thousands of counselors were trained at NDEA Institutes during the 1960s and began working in the public schools. The NDEA was extended in 1964 and made federal funds available at the elementary school level. It was during this time that more counselor education programs and school officials began to consider providing guidance and counseling in elementary schools.

The way counselors have carried out the role and activities of counseling has evolved with time (Herr, 2001; Sink & MacDonald, 1998). As trends in the economic, educational, political, and social world emerged, counselors responded by altering techniques and approaches (Cole, 1988). The current focus of school counseling programs is the comprehensive program approach. In this approach, guidance and counseling is organized around a sequential, structured, and district-wide program of services in grades K-12. The counselor's role is placed within the framework of a comprehensive program orientation instead of a position orientation. Gysbers, Lapan, and

Jones (2000) define the position approach as an ancillary and supplementary set of services delivered by the counselor. Different planning guides for comprehensive school guidance programs (Burnham & Jackson, 2000) exist and serve as resources for program planning, implementation, and management. Core components of a comprehensive guidance program center around student competencies, delivery methods, resources, and management structures. Comprehensive guidance programs began to emerge in the late 1960s and early 1970s in response to renewed interest on behalf of students' vocational, career, and developmental guidance goals, concerns about school accountability and evaluation, and concerns about the position approach to guidance and counseling in schools (Gysbers, Lapan, & Jones, 2000). In Sink and MacDonald's (1998) survey assessing the status of comprehensive guidance programs in use throughout the 50 states, out of the 41 states responding to the survey, approximately half had some type of model in place.

The changing and divergent needs of society have contributed to the re-examination of the most appropriate focus of school counseling programs (Gerler, 1991). Paisley and Peace (1995) noted that without a proven theory-to-practice framework for delivering program services to students, programs would consist of a mixture of a disjointed set of activities (Paisley & Peace, 1995). There is a paucity of research that supports the effectiveness of a comprehensive approach to guidance and counseling (Borders & Drury, 1992; Gysbers, Lapan, & Blair, 1999; Gysbers, Lapan, & Jones, 2000; Paisley & Borders, 1995; Schmidt, Lanier, & Cope, 1999; Sink & MacDonald, 1998).

While guidance and counseling in secondary schools was a function embraced by parents, administrators, and the public, the role of elementary school counselors in

schools has not been as widely understood or accepted (Morse & Russell, 1988). Fifteen years after the expanded provisions of the NDEA, the majority of states had fewer than 200 counselors at the elementary level (Miller, 1989). In 1989 only 17 states had passed legislation requiring school systems to employ elementary school counselors (Hardesty & Dillard, 1994b). By 1998 there were 20 states which had mandates for the provisions for elementary school counselors in public schools (Towner-Larsen, Granello, & Sears, 2000). A Virginia study conducted by Vaught (1996) to determine the number of school counselors needed at different intervals during the next ten years revealed that at least 800 counselors would be needed. At this time, there is no legislation in Virginia mandating the hiring of elementary school counselors.

Since the early 1960s when a joint Committee of the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) and the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) issued the ACES-ASCA statement, counseling, consultation, and coordination have been established functions of elementary school counselors (Muro & Dinkmeyer, 1977). These same functions are reflected in the role statement that was approved in June, 1999 by the American School Counselor Association. The current focus of guidance and counseling with children in elementary schools is based upon human development theories. Developmental counseling helps students cope with the normal developmental tasks of childhood that are characteristic of each stage of growth. Substantial empirical evidence exists to support the effectiveness of a developmental guidance approach in working with children (Borders & Drury, 1992; Gerler, 1985; Neukrug, Barr, Hoffman, & Kaplan, 1993; Paisley & Borders, 1995; Paisley & Peace, 1995; Peace, 1995; Zaccaria, 1965).

Role Conflict

Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) defined role conflict as the occurrence of conflicting and inconsistent expectations placed upon an individual by various role senders. In an organization there exists many role senders who hold different role expectations toward the focal person. Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) state that when individuals are expected to perform behaviors that are conflicting and inconsistent, they will experience stress and become dissatisfied with their jobs.

At the school level, counselors experience role conflict from various sources. Historically, counselors have been asked to fulfill diverse roles. Dragan (1981) writes:

...the counsellor is exhorted to function as a psychologist, consultant, activist, applied behavioural scientist, confrontive communicator, ombudsman, early childhood educator, environmental engineer, human relations trainer, change agent, psychological educator, propagandist, life skills coach, and disciplinary consultant. (p. 18)

In addition to conflicting performance expectations, many groups such as school administrators, teachers, parents, and special interest groups often hold varying expectations of counselors (Baker, 2000; Burnham & Jackson, 2000; Cunanan & Maddy-Bernstein, 1994; Day & Sparacio, 1980; Tenneyson, Skovholt, & Williams, 1989; Welch & McCarroll, 1993; Wiggins, Evans, & Martin, 1990). The goals of each interest group sometimes conflict with the goals of counselors. Many of the services that counselors would like to provide for their students often have been compromised because of the competing and sometimes conflicting pressures from various groups (Coll & Freeman, 1997). In a study that examined how satisfied counselors were in relation to job activities, (Hansen, 1967) found that counselors were most satisfied with their jobs when working with teachers and individual students. Hansen notes that if counselors are not allowed to

spend some time on the activities they favor, they will become dissatisfied and possibly leave their jobs.

Although many studies have explored counselors' role and function as it relates to role confusion, the topic of counselor job satisfaction and role confusion or conflict has been less researched. In one of the earliest studies examining how role conflict affects job satisfaction, Dietz (1972) surveyed secondary school counselors in Tennessee to see how satisfied they were with performing the American School Counselor Association's (ASCA) role and function recommendations. Dietz found that counselors rated placement as the highest area of job satisfaction and research as the lowest. In this study the activity of counseling was ranked low by the respondents. Dietz observed that while counselors were devoting time to this function, they were not meeting ASCA's recommendation of maintaining a 50% commitment to counseling. Dragan (1981) surveyed school counselors in Canada to determine the effects of role conflict and role ambiguity. Findings from the study revealed that among the counselors, principals, and counselor educators participating in the survey, there was more agreement about what counselors should not do rather than on what they should do. Dragan concluded that "school counselors must indeed be regarded as high risk, role conflict, stress material" (p. 21).

There are few early studies that have focused solely on elementary school counselors satisfaction with their roles. One study conducted by Furlong, Atkinson, and Janoff (1979) surveyed elementary school counselors from three school districts in California to determine if the amount of time actually spent in various roles was consistent with counselors ideal role expectations. Of the 14 counselor roles examined, the results indicated that counselors were performing duties they would like to perform

under ideal conditions. Congruence was shown in the areas of individual and group counseling, consulting, and helping parents. Since then, other studies have shown that elementary school counselors experience feelings of discrepancy between their actual and ideal roles. A 1988 study of 130 elementary school counselors conducted by Morse and Russell revealed that on the majority of items evaluated, counselors ideal role ratings were higher than the actual ratings. In the area of group counseling, counselors indicated that ideally they would like to be able to spend more time doing group work. Partin's (1993) study of elementary, middle-junior high, and high school counselors actual and ideal allocation of time also showed that elementary school counselors wanted to spend more time working with groups of students. School counselors at all levels placed a high priority on working directly with students either individually or in groups. Wiggins and Mickle-Askin (1980) examined the relationship between counselor effectiveness and reported work emphasis. They found that counselors who are highly effective spend 64% of their time providing individual counseling to students, while ineffective counselors only spend 27% of their time in direct counseling. In a study to determine what functions counselors perform in schools recognized as excellent, Miller (1988) found that elementary school counselors rated counseling, consulting, and professional development higher than their middle and high school counterparts. More recently, Coll and Freeman (1997) investigated role conflict among elementary school counselors compared to middle and secondary school counselors. Coll and Freeman found that elementary school counselors experienced more role conflict than either middle or secondary school counselors in all areas surveyed. In a survey question about working on unnecessary things, elementary school counselors rated themselves higher than their middle and

secondary school counterparts. Coll and Freeman believe this corresponds to counselors being asked to perform more noncounseling-related tasks. The researchers posit that counselors may be agreeing to these extra role demands because it is politically expedient.

The effects of role conflict across occupational groups have been frequently researched (Freeman & Coll, 1997; Johnson & Stinson, 1975; Pearson, 1991; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970; Schuler, Aldage, & Brief, 1977; Schuler, 1977; Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982; Van Sell, Brief, & Schuler, 1981). Role conflict consistently has been shown to be a factor in job dissatisfaction. In addition to lower job satisfaction, role conflict is associated with lower performance, high turnover, tension, anxiety, and decreased confidence in superiors and the organization (Coll & Freeman, 1997; Dragan, 1981; Schuler, 1977). The many demands and conflicting expectations placed upon school counselors by various groups make them vulnerable to role confusion and stress.

Stress and Burnout

Research investigating the impact of stress and burnout on job satisfaction has been well documented (Dragan, 1981; Farber & Heifetz, 1981; Gartley, 1981; Leiter & Meechan, 1986; Martin & Schinke, 1998; Newton, 1989; Pugliesi, 1999; Um & Harrison, 1998; Wolpin, Burk, & Greenglass, 1991). Studies involving stress originally were associated with workers in industry, while studies on burnout during the mid-seventies became associated with workers in the caring profession (Handy, 1988). According to Handy, the two fields have begun to overlap with stress research examining more closely the impact on caring professionals.

Factors often contributing to stress include being closely involved in other people's lives and crises almost daily, working in isolation, being unable to share concerns with other workers due to confidentiality matters, increasing paperwork and bureaucracy, and having increased workloads (Farber & Heifetz, 1981). A study by Pugliesi (1999) investigated the impact of emotional labor and psychological distress on job satisfaction. Emotional labor was defined as paid work for the performance of varying forms of emotional management in people. Emotional management was described as the use of strategies to modify or create expression of emotions through use of cognitive, behavioral, or physical means in both workers own emotions and the emotions of others. Findings from Pugliesi's research revealed that attempting to change one's own emotions or others' emotions increases job and psychological stress and decreases job satisfaction. She further observed that high demand and low control jobs create the most stress for workers.

Studies involving stress and the school counselor during the past two decades reveal that counselors are a vulnerable group. Mercer (1981) and Hassard (1981) both suggested that increased stress was the result of unclear role definition, role conflict, and role strain. Olson and Dilley (1988) examined several studies that explored stress and school counselors. They stated that it was the number of roles counselors were assuming that was producing the stress and not the conflict between the roles. Olson and Dilley concluded that counselors could not perform all the roles expected of them, and this was a significant source of stress. Kendrick, Chandler, and Hatcher (1994) surveyed 245 elementary, middle, and high school counselors to identify sources of job stress. Respondents ranked job expectations and demands as the major stressors in their job. In

addition to feeling stress from serving too many students in one or more schools, many counselors reported feeling overwhelmed from dealing with students' serious mental health problems.

Many physical and psychological features have been associated with burnout such as physical exhaustion, cynicism, attempts to distance oneself from clients, and feelings of a lack of personal accomplishment (Kottkamp & Mansfield, 1985). In a longitudinal study conducted by Wolpin, Burk, and Greenglass (1991) examining the relationship between burnout and job satisfaction, the researchers concluded that burnout appeared to be a causal factor in job satisfaction. Um and Harrison (1998) studied the effects of burnout and job satisfaction on clinical social workers. The randomly sampled 165 social workers in the study were administered instruments that measured role conflict and role ambiguity, burnout, social support, and job satisfaction. The results of their study revealed that role conflict added to burnout, but social support from co-workers was instrumental in moderating the impact of burnout on job satisfaction. Cummings and Nall (1983) surveyed 300 school counselors to investigate the relationship between their felt degree of burnout and their perceptions of school leadership style, their jobs, themselves, and their clients. Findings showed that the style of leadership in a school was related to how counselors perceived themselves and their jobs. Schools with an authoritarian leadership style were negatively related to counselors' perception of themselves. Other findings revealed that as burnout levels increased, counselors assigned more negative meaning to their jobs, themselves, and their clients. Counselors evaluation of school leadership style was not found to be related to their perceived ability to be effective with clients.

Administrative Policies

Administrative policies and practices have a direct impact on workers in many ways. Fournet, Distefano, and Pryer (1969) note that administrative practices directly affect employee morale. Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) state that company policies and practices are a concern to employees because it is related to worker security and contributes significantly to job satisfaction. Administrative practices also dictate how workers and supervisors communicate. Ma and MacMillian (1999) studied 2,202 Canadian elementary school teachers to investigate how teacher professional satisfaction related to background characteristics and workplace conditions. Three aspects of teacher satisfaction in the workplace measured included feelings of competence, administrative control, and organizational culture. Results showed that the administration was a significant influence on teachers' feelings of being valued for their work and having a sense of substantive involvement in school operations. Job satisfaction was related to perceived administrative support regardless of the level of teaching experience. Administrative activities that were seen as not contributing to students' academic achievement were shown to adversely affect teachers' job satisfaction. Bacharach, Bamberger, and Mitchell (1990) note that supervisors (principals and department heads) help determine the quality of information teachers receive by the amount of contact they provide and the way they communicate information.

The relationship between the principal and the counselor is a key determinant in the effectiveness of the counseling program. Ponec and Brock (2000) used semi-structured personal interviews and shadowing experiences to explore the relationship of elementary school counselors and their principals. Their findings indicated that effective

counselor-principal teams and guidance programs are based upon having mutual trust and consistent communication, maintaining support for the complimentary roles of each professional, and having a well-defined description of the counselor role. In discussing the problems that lead to ineffective school counseling programs, Brown (1989) noted that because some principals do not understand the objectives of the program, they do not provide needed leadership or support. Cole (1991) observed that “the goal of both administrator and counselor is the same: to enable the student to learn better and, by extension, the teacher to teach more effectively” (p. 6). Vaught (1995) described a collaborative approach that if used by counselor and administrator would enhance the learning experience of students. Counselors are encouraged to become proactive in educating the building principal about the goals and objectives of the counseling program.

School board policies influence the overall way school counseling programs are organized and maintained. Because of the importance of the role school boards have in policy making, Gysbers, Lapan, and Jones (2000) analyzed the policy manuals from 24 state school board associations to see how information about the counseling program was presented. They concluded that many school boards policies “fragment” and “marginalize” school counseling programs and view them as marginal and supplementary.

In both Kirk’s (1988) and Murray’s (1995) study of job satisfaction among elementary school counselors in Virginia, counselors ranked satisfaction with policies and practice 18th out of 20 subscales in the survey. Commenting on Kirk’s (1988) study, Murray (1995) attributes this lower ranking to school counselors difficulty in fulfilling

their roles because of local and state policies that dictate the manner in which they can perform their jobs. Murray (1995) observes that the low ranking of policies and procedures by counselors in her study may reflect changes in areas such as policies, funding, and state leadership.

Summary

The topic of job satisfaction has been widely studied. Job satisfaction research has its early roots in the study of organizational behavior. Many theories have been purported to explain the concept of job satisfaction. Although the study of job satisfaction has been conducted across many occupational groups, the majority of the studies have been with workers in disciplines other than the human relations field. Few studies have been focused on school counselors, with even fewer on elementary school counselors. In 1988 Kirk investigated the job satisfaction level of elementary school counselors in Virginia, and seven years later in 1995 Murray conducted another investigation. A search reveals no other job satisfaction studies with elementary school counselors since then.

A number of factors have been found to significantly impact the job satisfaction level of school counselors. Among those frequently cited are role conflict and confusion, stress and burnout, and administrative policies and practices. Since Kirk (1988) and Murray's (1995) studies were conducted, many changes have taken place in Virginia that have affected the way elementary school counselors do their jobs. Changes in state regulations governing the status of counseling programs, mandatory statewide accountability testing, and increasing incidents of students disruptive and violent behavior are changing the way elementary school counselors deliver services to students. While counselors are still expected to perform traditional duties and tasks, the demands

placed upon them by various groups and the changing environment continue to increase. Consequently, elementary school counselors may be experiencing a decrease in job satisfaction. To determine the current level of job satisfaction among elementary school counselors, it is necessary to replicate the earlier studies of Kirk (1988) and Murray (1995).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study is designed to determine the present level of job satisfaction of elementary school counselors in the Commonwealth of Virginia. The job satisfaction level of counselors in 2001 is compared with elementary school counselors surveyed in 1995 and 1988. This study is descriptive in nature and uses a survey format to gather information. Borg and Gall (1989) have noted that descriptive studies have contributed significantly to the understanding of what happens in schools and are instrumental in finding out the current status of operations. In this chapter the research procedures for this study are presented. The research questions, sample population, data collection procedure, and statistical techniques to analyze the data are described.

Research Questions

The procedures detailed in this chapter are designed to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the job satisfaction level expressed by elementary school counselors in Virginia?
2. Which of the 20 scales of the modified Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) explain the variance in job satisfaction of elementary school counselors in Virginia?
3. What is the relationship of the overall job satisfaction level of Virginia elementary school counselors with selected demographic and work environment characteristics?

4. How does the job satisfaction level of Virginia elementary school counselors in 2001 compare to the job satisfaction level of Virginia elementary school counselors in 1995 and 1988?
5. Does the current social and political climate affect counselors' feelings about their jobs and performance?

Participants

The participants in this study were drawn from the membership roster of the Virginia School Counselor Association (VSCA) who indicated on their VSCA membership form that they currently serve as public elementary school counselors. There are 440 members in this state organization and all were selected for this study. The VSCA is comprised of over 1,100 school counselors throughout the state and is the largest branch of the Virginia Counselors Association (VCA) which is the official state branch of the American School Counselor Association (ASCA).

Instrumentation

Instruments used to collect data for this study were an Individual Information Form (IIF) and a modified version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967).

The IIF gathered demographic information on participants' age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, and parental status. Participants were asked to provide professional information about their degree status, special licenses or certifications held, type of Virginia school counselor license held, classroom experience, types of non-counseling experience, percent of time employed as an elementary school counselor, counseling training, primary job title, years employed as an elementary school counselor, contract

length, number of schools served, number of counselors in current school, number of assigned students, counselors in the school division, community demographics, percent of school population receiving free or reduced lunch, plans to remain in current position, plans to remain in profession of elementary school counseling, receiving or providing clinical supervision, and desire to change to an administrative position. Participants were asked to respond to questions about the impact of not having a state mandate for elementary school counseling, the passage of the Standards of Learning assessments, and the increased awareness of school violence. If participants believed there were significant impediments to their preferred role and functions, they were asked to give examples. Participants were asked to rate how satisfied they were in their present position.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, et al., 1967) is one of the most popular (Spector, 1997) and widely researched instruments available (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983). It was derived from the Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation in 1967 and was revised in 1977. The MSQ consists of 100 items that sample job satisfaction on a 20-scale questionnaire. The 20 scale items include the following:

1. Ability Utilization: The chance to make use of abilities.
2. Achievement: The feelings of accomplishment one derives from the job.
3. Activity: Being able to stay busy on the job.
4. Advancement: The chances for advancement on the job.
5. Authority: The chance to tell others what to do.
6. System Policies and Practices: The way system policies are put into practice.

7. Compensation: Feelings about pay in contrast to the amount of work completed.
8. Co-workers: How one gets along with co-workers.
9. Creativity: The chance to try one's own methods.
10. Independence: The opportunity to work alone.
11. Moral Values: The opportunity to do things that do not run counter to one's own conscience.
12. Recognition: Being recognized for doing a good job.
13. Responsibility: The freedom to use one's judgement.
14. Security: The way a job provides for steady employment.
15. Social Service: Being able to do things for others.
16. Social Status: Having the respect of the community.
17. Supervision-Human Relations: The relationship between employees and supervisors.
18. Supervision-Technical: The technical quality of supervision.
19. Variety: The opportunity to do different things.
20. Working Conditions: Physical conditions in which one works.

The MSQ yields a total of 20 scores with an overall satisfaction score. Each scale has a total of 5 questions with 5 possible responses that range from Very Dissatisfied to Very Satisfied. Values are assigned to each of the response possibilities with Very Dissatisfied having an assigned value of 1 and Very Satisfied having an assigned value of 5. Scale scores are derived by summing the response weights for the 5 items that represent each

scale. The MSQ is self-administered and requires approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete (Weiss et al., 1967).

The MSQ provides normative data on 25 occupational groups from the following areas: professional, technical, managerial; clerical and sales; service; benchwork; and miscellaneous. To interpret the MSQ, raw scores are converted to percentiles and compared to the most appropriate norm group.

Hoyt Reliability coefficients for the MSQ have ranged from 0.97 on the Ability Utilization scale for stenographers and typists to a low of 0.59 on Variety for buyers. Weiss et al. reported that of 567 Hoyt reliability coefficients from 27 groups with 21 scales each, 83% were 0.80 or higher and only 2.5% were lower than 0.70 (p. 14). Stability coefficients for test-retest correlations for a one-week interval ranged from 0.66 for Co-Workers to 0.91 for Working Conditions. Test-retest reliability for a one-year period ranged from 0.35 for Independence to 0.71 for Ability Utilization with a median coefficient of 0.61 for the 20 scales.

Weiss et al. (1967) reported that construct validity for the MSQ was derived indirectly from construct validation studies of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ) which has its theoretical roots outlined in the *Theory of Work Adjustment*. In a study described by Weiss et al. (1967), separate scales on the MSQ were predicted from the relationship between vocational needs measured by the MIQ and estimated levels of occupational reinforcers. The studies hypothesized that groups with high needs and high reinforcements would express greater job satisfaction than groups with high needs and lower reinforcements. Of the 16 MSQ scales studied, scores on 7 scales indicated a relationship to need-reinforcement correspondence.

Concurrent validity has been determined for the MSQ. Twenty-five occupational groups were analyzed through a one-way analysis of variance. Results showed that group differences were statistically significant at the 0.001 level for means and variances on each of the 21 MSQ scales (Weiss et al., 1967).

Content validity has been shown through factor analytic studies. Fourteen norm groups with at least 100 individuals per group were used to compute intercorrelations of the 21 MSQ scales. An extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction factor was extracted. The scales representing the extrinsic factor were Supervision-Technical, Supervision-Human Relations, Company Policies and Practices, Working Conditions, Advancement, Compensation, and Security. Intrinsic motivation factors were represented by the remaining scales (Weiss et al., 1967).

In this study the MSQ was used as modified by both Kirk (1988) and Murray (1995) in their studies of job satisfaction of Virginia elementary school counselors. A modified version of the MSQ was developed by Anderson (1982) to make the wording consistent with employment in school settings and to simplify interpretation. The neutral response (N) was eliminated, leaving four response options that included Very Satisfied (VS), Satisfied (S), Dissatisfied (DS), and Very Dissatisfied (VDS). As in the original MSQ, there were 20 scales with 5 associated job statements which produced a 100-item inventory. The response options VDS, DS, S, and VS were assigned ordinal weights of 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively. Scale scores were derived by summing the response weights for each of the 5 job statements, with higher scores indicating higher levels of job satisfaction that ranged from 5 to 20. Response options were considered to be the midpoint of an interval. Satisfaction categories were derived by multiplying the response

option interval values by the number of scale items (5). Therefore, the category of Very Dissatisfied would be represented by the interval values of 2.5 to 7.5, and the category of Very Satisfied would be represented by the interval values of 17.51 to 22.50.

Respondents' overall satisfaction scores were obtained by summing the response weights of the 100 items. Overall satisfaction categories were obtained by multiplying each response option interval by 100 which produced the following categories: Very Dissatisfied from 50 to 150; Dissatisfied from 151 to 250; Satisfied from 251 to 350; and Very Satisfied from 351 to 400. Anderson reported that internal consistency reliability of the 20 scales on the modified version ranged from 0.738 to 0.937. Overall job satisfaction as computed by Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for the modified MSQ in other studies have ranged from 0.957 to 0.973 (Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1984). Kirk (1988) made one additional change to the modified MSQ by the rewording of school psychologists to school counselors on the Compensation scale. The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients obtained on the 20 scales of the modified MSQ in Kirk's study ranged from 0.76 to 0.93 and the Coefficient Alpha for the overall score was 0.93. Murray's (1995) study also reflected the rewording of school psychologists to school counselor. Cronbach's Alpha obtained in this study ranged from 0.80 to 0.94 and the Coefficient Alpha for the overall score was 0.97.

Data Collection

Procedures used in the survey followed a five-step process. This included the mailing of a pre-letter, initial survey, postcard reminders, follow-up reminders, and second follow-up reminders.

Pre-Letter

An introductory letter endorsed by a leader in the field of school counseling was sent to all participants three days before the initial mailing. The primary purpose of the letter was to describe the significance and purpose of the study, to encourage participation, and to discuss anonymity and confidentiality of survey responses.

Initial Mailing

The initial mailing included the letter explaining the survey purpose, survey materials, a stamped self-addressed envelope, and a packet of coffee for an incentive to complete the survey. Survey forms and the return self-addressed stamped envelopes were coded to identify who had and had not responded.

Postcard Reminders

A postcard reminder was sent to all participants one week after the initial survey mailing. The reminders thanked participants for their cooperation in completing the surveys and requested non-respondents who had not received survey materials to call the researcher collect to receive a packet of survey materials.

First Follow-Up

Two weeks after the initial survey mailing, a second mailing of materials was sent to those who had not responded. A letter urging participants to complete the surveys and assuring confidentiality was included in the mailing.

Second Follow-Up

Four weeks after the initial survey mailing another letter stressing the importance of the survey and encouraging participation was sent to non-respondents.

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software was used to analyze the data in this study. The following statistical analyses were conducted:

1. A frequency count of the number of responses in each job satisfaction category was used to determine the overall level of job satisfaction of Virginia elementary school counselors.
2. Means and standard deviations were calculated for each of the 20 modified Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) scale scores across participants to construct a job satisfaction hierarchy.
3. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the means on the 20 MSQ scales in the 2001, 1995, and 1988 studies.
4. A multiple regression analysis was run to determine the relation between selected demographic and work setting variables and the overall job satisfaction level of elementary school counselors in Virginia. Selection of these variables was based upon their influential nature as demonstrated in other job satisfaction studies with counselors (Kirk, 1988).
5. The chi-square test of independence was used to compare overall job satisfaction categories in the 2001, 1995, and 1988 studies.
6. A qualitative analysis of reasons given for job satisfaction or dissatisfaction on selected questions on the IIF was completed.

Summary

The research methods used in this study were designed to determine the current level of job satisfaction among elementary school counselors in Virginia. This chapter

described the population, sampling procedures, data collection techniques, and specific statistical procedures to analyze the data. Five research questions were set forth, and the methodological procedures to analyze the data. The statistical analyses included the following: a frequency count based upon the number of responses in each job satisfaction category on the MSQ was used to determine overall job satisfaction among Virginia elementary school counselors; means and standard deviations for each of the modified MSQ scale scores across participants were used to construct a job satisfaction hierarchy; a one-way analysis of variance was used to compare the means of the 20 MSQ scales in the 2001, 1995, and 1988 studies; a multiple regression analysis was used to determine the relation between the overall job satisfaction of elementary school counselors and selected demographic variables and work variables; a chi-square test of independence was used to compare the overall job satisfaction levels in the 2001, 1995, and 1988 studies; and a qualitative analysis of reasons given for job satisfaction or dissatisfaction on selected questions on the IIF was conducted.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to examine the current job satisfaction level of elementary school counselors in Virginia and to compare it with school counselors surveyed in 1995 and 1988. This chapter describes the research findings. Response rates in the data collection procedures, demographic data of the sample surveyed, and analyses relating to each of the five research questions are presented and explained. A brief summary is given at the end of the chapter.

Survey Response

A total of 444 survey packets were included in the initial mailing. Of this total, 339 individuals responded to the survey. This represented an overall response rate of 76.35% and included 38 non-usable returns. Of the 38 non-usable returns, 6 were incomplete and 32 were erroneously listed on the mailing list as elementary school counselors. The percentages of return during each step of the data collection process are presented in Table 1.

Demographic Data

Participants' responses to items on the Individual Information Form (IIF) were used to describe the population and to identify relationships between demographic variables and job satisfaction. The variables are discussed in the order they appeared on the IIF.

Age

Table 2 presents the number and percentage of responses for each of the eight age categories along with that of Kirk's (1988) and Murray's (1995) samples. The 50-55 age

Table 1

Survey Response Rates

Step	Number Returned	% Total
Initial Mailing (including postcard reminder)	248	55.86
First Follow-up Mailing	65	14.64
Second Follow-Up Mailing	26	5.85
Total	339	76.35

Note: There were 444 possible participants

Table 2

Age Range	2001		1995		1988	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
20 – 25	1	0.34	1	0.21	5	1.86
26 - 31	24	8.16	48	9.90	23	8.55
32 – 37	16	5.44	44	9.07	57	21.19
38 – 43	32	10.88	111	22.89	91	33.83
44 – 49	61	20.75	173	35.67	45	16.73
50 – 55	112	38.10	75	15.46	31	11.52
56 – 61	40	13.61	28	5.77	13	4.83
62 and over	8	2.72	5	1.03	4	1.49
Total	294	100.00	485	100.00	269	100.00

Note: Seven respondents failed to answer this item in the 2001 sample; three respondents failed to answer this item in the 1995 sample; four respondents failed to answer this item in the 1988 sample.

range represented the largest percentage of respondents (38.1%). Seventy-three percent (72.46%, $n = 213$) of the respondents were between ages 44 and 61 with the median age being 50.0. In Kirk's study the median age was 41.0, and in Murray's study the median age was 45.0. Seven respondents did not complete this item in the present study.

Gender

The number of female respondents was 281 (94.61%), and the number of male respondents was 16 (5.39%). Four respondents in this study failed to complete this item. In Murray's study, 458 (93.85%) were females while 30 (6.15%) were males. Kirk's study was comprised of 231 females (84.62%) and 42 males (15.38%).

Race

The largest percentage of respondents in the present sample was European-Americans ($n = 268$, 89.93%), followed by African-Americans ($n = 26$, 8.72%), and Hispanic-Americans ($n = 2$, 0.67%). Two respondents checked the other category. Three respondents failed to mark this item. In Murray's study 87.9% ($n = 429$) were European Americans, followed by 11.3% ($n = 55$) African-Americans. Hispanic-Americans, Asian-Americans, and Native Americans comprised less than 1% in Murray's sample. European-Americans were the largest percentage of respondents in Kirk's sample 82.42% ($n = 225$) and was followed by African-Americans with 17.22% ($n = 47$). One respondent (0.36%) from Kirk's study was listed as Hispanic-American.

Marital Status

Eighty percent (80.87%, $n = 241$) of respondents reported being married, 29 (9.73%) reported being single, 23 respondents (7.72%) reported being divorced, 3

respondents (1.01%) reported being widowed, and 2 respondents (0.67%) reported living with someone. Three respondents in this sample failed to check this item. In Murray's study the largest percentage of respondents reported being married ($n = 395$, 80.9%) while 41 respondents (8.4%) reported being single, 40 respondents (8.2%) reported being divorced, 8 respondents (1.6%) reported being widowed, and 4 (0.8%) reported living with someone. This question was not asked in Kirk's study.

Parents and Children

The number of respondents reporting being parents was 235 (78.86%) with 63 of the respondents (21.14%) indicating they were not parents. Three respondents failed to complete this item. Murray's study indicated that 373 (76.6%) of the respondents were parents with 114 (23.4%) reporting they were not parents. Kirk did not include this question in his study.

Of the 235 respondents reporting having children, only 206 indicated the number. The range of children was from 1 to 6 with the mode being 2 ($n = 120$). The mode was 2 children ($n = 167$) in Murray's sample. This question was not asked in Kirk's study.

Degree Status

Table 3 presents the number and percentage of responses for each degree level held by counselors in the present sample along with Murray and Kirk's sample findings. Those holding the master's degree represent the largest percentage of responses in all three studies (in 2001, 92.31%, $n = 276$; in 1995, 92.42%, $n = 451$; in 1988, 92.65%, $n = 252$).

Table 3

Degree Status

Degree	2001		1995		1988	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
Bachelors	1	0.33	4	0.82	9	3.31
Masters	276	92.31	451	92.42	252	92.65
Educational Specialist/CAGS	15	5.02	28	5.74	6	2.20
Doctorate	7	2.34	5	1.02	5	1.84
Total	299	100.00	488	100.00	272	100.00

Note: Two respondents failed to check this item in the 2001 sample, while one respondent failed to check this item in the 1988 sample.

Licenses or Certifications

Professional licenses other than state education licenses held by respondents ($n = 26$) was 8.6%. Of this total, 58% ($n = 15$) held a license as a Licensed Professional Counselor. The remaining 42% ($n = 11$) were licensed as either a Licensed Marriage and Family Therapist, Licensed Clinical Social Worker, Substance Abuse Counselor, Registered Nurse, Registered Play Therapist, Registered Art Therapist, or Speech Pathologist.

Seventeen respondents held certification as either National Certified Counselors ($n = 14$) or National Certified School Counselor ($n = 3$). Three respondents were certified in mediation.

Type of Elementary Guidance License

Participants were asked to indicate what type of school license they held. Response categories were Collegiate Professional/Postgraduate Professional, Pupil Personnel Services, Not Certified, and Other. All 3 of the respondents who checked the Other category listed the Provisional License as the type held. As defined in state licensure regulations for school personnel (Virginia Department of Education, 2001), the Collegiate Professional License is a five-year, renewable license available to anyone who has earned a baccalaureate degree and has met all the requirements for licensure prescribed by the Board of Education; the Postgraduate Professional License is a five-year, renewable license available to anyone who has met the requirements for the Collegiate Professional License and has earned an appropriate graduate degree from an accredited institution; the Pupil Personnel License is a five-year, renewable license

available to anyone who has an appropriate degree and has completed endorsement requirements as a guidance counselor, school psychologist, school social worker, or visiting teacher; and the Provisional License is a nonrenewable licenses issued for three years. Endorsement requirements for school counselors include having an earned master's degree from an accredited school and two years of either counseling or teaching experience. Two years of successful guidance and counseling experience under a provisional license may be accepted to meet the endorsement requirement. Table 4 presents the number and percentage of responses for each of the degree categories for the 2001, 1995, and 1988 samples. In all three studies, the Collegiate Professional and Postgraduate Professional License represented the largest percent of the total (in 2001, 75.90%, $n = 211$; in 1995, 78.03%, $n = 380$; 1988, 87.28%, $n = 199$).

Elementary School Counseling Training

Participants were asked to indicate where they had received their counseling training. Of the 290 responding to this item, almost 82% (81.72, $n = 237$) indicated they had received their counseling training at in-state institutions, while 18% (18.28, $n = 53$) indicated their training was received from out-of-state institutions.

The years when respondents were licensed or endorsed as elementary school counselors ranged from 1970 to 2001. Table 5 presents the percentage of responses for the age categories in the current study and in Murray and Kirk's studies.

Counselors were asked to indicate if their training institution was CACREP approved when they graduated. Of the counselors responding to this item ($n = 177$), 89

Table 4

Type of Elementary Guidance License

Type of License	2001		1995		1988	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
Collegiate Professional/ Postgraduate Professional	211	75.90	380	78.029	199	87.28
Pupil Personnel Services	58	20.86	93	19.096	27	11.84
Provisional Certificate	3	1.08	5	1.027	2	.88
Not Certified	6	2.16	9	1.848		
Total	278	100.00	487	100.00	228	100.00

Note: Twenty-three respondents failed to answer this item in the 2001 sample; one respondent failed to answer this item in the 1995 sample; forty-five respondents failed to answer this item in the 1988 sample.

Table 5

Year Licensed/Endorsed as an Elementary School Counselor

Range	2001		1995		1988	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
Before 1970	5	1.75	6	1.29	16	7.17
1970 – 1975	31	10.88	36	7.78	49	21.97
1976 – 1980	36	12.63	30	6.48	55	24.67
1981 – 1985	18	6.32	37	7.99	51	22.87
1986 - 1990	92	32.28	241	52.05	52*	23.32
1991 – 1995	59	20.70	113	24.41		
1996 – 2001	44	15.44				
Total	285	100.00	463	100.00	223	100.00

Note: Sixteen respondents failed to answer this item in the 2001 sample; 25 respondents failed to answer this item in the 1995 sample; 50 respondents failed to answer this item in the 1988 sample.

*The range for Kirk's sample was less than two years for 1986 to 1988.

(50.28%) indicated their institution was CACREP approved, and 88 (49.72%) indicated their institution did not have this accreditation.

Primary Job Title

The number and percentage of responses for respondents' primary job title in this study along with Murray and Kirk' findings are presented in Table 6. Of the 296 respondents in the current survey, 286 (96.62%) indicated their primary job title was elementary guidance counselor and 6 (2.03%) indicated their primary job title was Supervisor/Administrator of Elementary Guidance Program. Four respondents (1.35%) checked the Other category which included middle school counselor and supervisor. In Kirk's study the Other category included assistant principal, visiting teacher, secondary guidance counselor, school social worker, and middle school counselor.

Years Employed as an Elementary School Counselor

The mean number of years elementary school counselors have been employed in the present study was 9.81 years. In Murray's study the mean years employed as an elementary school counselor was 9.88, while in Kirk's study the mean was 5.24 years. Table 7 presents the number and corresponding percentages for the 2001, 1995 and 1988 studies.

Classroom Teaching Experience

Of the 268 respondents to this question, 218 (81.34%) have had classroom teaching experience. The range of experience is from 1 to 31 years. Respondents that had no classroom teaching experience were 50 (18.66%). Although the largest number of respondents had between 6 and 15 years of experience in all three groups, this percentage

Table 6

Primary Job Title	2001		1995		1988	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
Elementary School Counselor	286	96.62	486	99.59	201	75.00
Supervisor/Administrator of Elementary School Counseling Program	6	2.03	2	0.41	NA	NA
Counseling Resource Teacher	NA	NA	NA	NA	56	20.90
Other	4	1.35	0	0.00	11	4.10
Total	296	100.00	488	100.00	268	100.00

Note: Five respondents failed to answer this item in both the 2001 and 1988 samples.

Table 7

Years Employed as an Elementary School Counselor

Range	2001		1995		1988	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
0 - 3	47	15.93	99	20.29	150	55.56
4 - 6	38	12.88	258	52.87	37	13.70
7 - 10	56	18.98	95	19.47	35	12.97
11 - 15	124	42.03	18	3.69	38	14.07
16 - 20	22	7.47	15	3.07	9	3.33
21 or more	8	2.71	3	.61	1	.37
Total	295	100.00	488	100.00	270	100.00

Note: Six respondents failed to complete this item in the 2001 sample, and 3 respondents failed to complete it in the 1988 sample.

has decreased across the studies (in 2001, $\underline{n} = 108$, 40.30%; in 1995, $\underline{n} = 209$, 42.83%; in 1988, $\underline{n} = 132$, 48.89%). Table 8 presents the information from the present study along with Kirk and Murray's studies.

Participants were asked to list either the grade or subject taught if they had classroom experience. Of the counselors responding to this question ($\underline{n} = 211$), pre-school to grade 5 was the most frequently listed ($\underline{n} = 153$) and represented 72.51% of the total. Respondents with experience in grades 6 through 8 ($\underline{n} = 25$) represented 11.85% of the total, and those with high school experience ($\underline{n} = 16$) represented 7.58% of the total. Approximately 8% (8.06%, $\underline{n} = 17$) had taught more than one grade level so responses are not mutually exclusive. In Murray's study, 59.9% ($\underline{n} = 227$) had taught pre-school to grade 3 and 55.7% ($\underline{n} = 211$) had taught grades 4 through 6. Kirk's study showed that 52.03% of the respondents had taught pre-school to grade 5. The list of subjects taught by respondents in the 2001 sample is presented in Table 9.

Non-school Counseling Experience

Approximately 32% (31.89, $\underline{n} = 96$) of respondents reported having counseling experience other than school counseling. This shows a slight increase from Murray's study that found almost 29% (28.8, $\underline{n} = 106$) of counselors had non-school counseling experience. Non-school experience ranged from one half year to 20 years of experience. Sixty respondents (62.5%) had between one half and 5 years of experience, 23 respondents (23.96%) had between 5 ½ and 10 years of experience, 10 respondents (10.42%) had between 11 and 15 years of experience, and 3 respondents (3.12%) had over 15 years of non-school experience. Kirk did not ask this question in his study.

Table 8

Years of Teaching Experience

Range	2001		1995		1988	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
0	50	18.66	93	19.057	23	8.52
1 – 5	68	25.37	95	19.467	81	30.00
6 – 15	108	40.30	209	42.828	132	48.89
16 – 31	42	15.67	91	18.648	34	12.59
Total	268	100.00	488	100.00	270	100.00

Note: Thirty-three respondents failed to answer this item in the 2001 sample, and three respondents failed to answer this item in the 1988 sample.

Table 9

Subjects Taught

Subjects	Number	% Total
Math	7	9.46
English	13	17.57
Science	6	8.11
P.E.	4	5.41
Social Studies	7	9.46
History	3	4.05
Band/Music	7	9.46
Business	1	1.35
Art	3	4.05
Technology	1	1.35
Special Education	15	20.27
Alternative Education	3	4.05
Total	74	100.00

Of the 96 counselors who reported having non-school counseling experience, 75 listed the type of experience. Thirteen counselors (17.33%) had worked as community mental health agency counselors, 11(14.67%) had worked as counselors at colleges, 7 (9.33%) had worked as career or employment counselors, 6 (8.0%) had worked as social workers, 6 (8.0%) had worked as counselors in private practice, and 5 (6.67%) had worked in a psychiatric hospital. The remaining 27 (36%) had worked in various agency settings.

Percent of Time Employed as an Elementary School Counselor

A total of 292 counselors responded to the question about what percentage of time they were employed as elementary school counselors. Of this total ($n = 260$), 89.04% indicated they worked full time as elementary school counselors. The remaining percentage (10.96%, $n = 32$) held additional duties as art teacher, librarian, and assistant principal. In Murray's study 92.21% ($n = 450$) of the respondents were employed full time with 7.79% ($n = 38$) being employed less than 100%. Kirk's study found that 92.86% ($n = 234$) of counselors were employed full-time with 7.14% ($n = 18$) being employed less than 100%.

Contract Length

The number of respondents and corresponding percentages for each of the contract length categories for the current study along with Murray and Kirk's studies are presented in Table 10. In all three samples, the 10-month contract was the most common.

Table 10

Contract Length	2001		1995		1988	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
9 months	36	12.29	80	16.39344	52	19.12
10 months	234	79.86	393	80.53278	194	71.32
11 months	9	3.07	7	1.43442	19	6.98
12 months	14	4.78	8	1.63934	7	2.58
Total	293	100.00	488	100.00000	272	100.00

Note: Eight respondents failed to answer this item in the 2001 sample, and one respondent failed to answer it in the 1988 sample.

Annual Salary

As shown in Table 11, the largest number of respondents in the current study ($n = 126$, 43.15%) earned between \$35,001 and \$45,000. In contrast, both Murray and Kirk's studies showed that the largest number of respondents earned between \$25,001 and \$35,000 (in 1995, $n = 254$, 52.81%; in 1988, $n = 149$, 54.98%).

Number of Schools Served in School Division

Of the 296 responses to this item, 88.85% ($n = 263$) indicated that they served 1 school, and 8.45% ($n = 2$) indicated they served 2 schools. One respondent (0.34%) served 3 schools. Seven respondents (2.36%), who also indicated they were supervisors, served more than 4 schools. As in both Murray and Kirk's studies, the majority of counselors served only one school ($n = 403$, 82.6%, in 1995; $n = 190$, 70.37%, in 1988).

Only Elementary School Counselor in the School

In the current sample, 55.67% ($n = 162$) of the 291 respondents indicated they were the only elementary counselor in their school, while 129 (44.33%) indicated they were not. This compares with Murray's study which showed that 58% ($n = 283$) of the respondents were the only counselor in their school. Kirk's sample showed 91.95% ($n = 240$) respondents were the only elementary counselor in the school they served.

Number of Students Assigned

Information about the number of students which counselors are assigned to work with is presented in Table 12. In the current sample 50% (50.36, $n = 141$) of the respondents reported serving between 301 and 500 students. In both Murray and Kirk's sample, most counselors reported being assigned to work with students in the range of

Table 11

Annual Salary	2001		1995		1988	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
\$15,000 or less	3	1.03	5	1.04	7	2.58
\$15,001-\$25,000	11	3.77	28	5.82	77	28.41
\$25,001-\$35,000	56	19.18	254	52.81	149	54.98
\$35,001-\$45,000	126	43.15	147	30.56	37	13.65
Over \$45,001	96	32.87	47	9.77	1	.37
Total	292	100.00	481	100.00	271	100.00

Note: Nine respondents failed to answer this item in the 2001 sample; seven respondents failed to answer this item in the 1995 sample; three respondents failed to answer this item in the 1988 sample.

Table 12

Number of Students Assigned

Range	2001		1995		1988	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
0	0	0.00	0	0.00	11	4.11
1 – 100	2	0.71	4	0.83	9	3.36
101 – 300	25	8.93	47	9.79	13	4.85
301 – 500	141	50.36	235	48.96	91	33.95
501 – 700	86	30.71	164	34.17	69	25.75
701 – 900	21	7.50	22	4.58	43	16.04
901 – 1100	2	0.71	6	1.25	14	5.22
Over 1100	3	1.08	2	0.42	18	6.72
Total	280	100.00	480	100.00	268	100.00

Note: Twenty-one respondents failed to answer this item in the 2001 sample; eight respondents failed to answer this item in the 1995 sample; five respondents failed to answer this item in the 1988 sample.

301 to 500 (in 1995, $n = 235$, 48.96%; in 1988, $n = 91$, 33.95%). Forty percent of counselors ($n = 112$) in the present study serve more than 500 students, while 9.64% ($n = 27$) serve less than 300.

Number of School Counselors in the Division

A total of 269 (89.37%) of counselors responded to the question about the number of school counselors in the division, with 142 (52.79%) indicating there were between 1 and 20. Thirty-two (10.63%) participants did not respond to this item but many stated they did not know the answer. Table 13 presents the information about the number of school counselors in the division in the current study along with the 1995 and 1988 studies.

Community in which School Is Located

School setting categories were defined as follows: (1) rural—a community with a population of less than 2,500; (2) suburban—a community with a population of 2,500 to 50,000; (3) urban—a community with a population of more than 50,000. Over 50% of the respondents (55.29%, $n = 162$) in the current study reported that their school setting was in a suburban area compared with a little less than 50% (49.9%, $n = 243$) in Murray's 1995 study. Table 14 compares the 2001 data about the school community setting with the data from 1995. This question was not included in Kirk's study.

School Population Receiving Free or Reduced Lunch

Participants were asked to identify what percentage of their school population received free or reduced lunch. Sixty-four respondents failed to answer this question, and many stated that they did not know the answer. Of the 237 respondents 43.46% ($n = 103$)

Table 13

Number of Elementary School Counselors in the School Division

Number of Counselors	2001		1995		1988	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
1 – 20	142	52.79	256	57.7	177	72.24
21 – 90	101	37.55	127	28.6	68	27.76
over 90	26	9.66	61	13.7	NA	NA
Total	269	100.00	444	100.00	245	100.00

Note: Thirty-two respondents failed to answer this item in the 2001 sample; forty-four respondents failed to answer this item in the 1995 sample; twenty-eight respondents failed to answer this item in the 1988 sample.

Table 14

Community in which School is Located

Type Community	2001		1995	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
Rural	55	18.77	105	21.56
Suburban	162	55.29	243	49.90
Urban	76	25.94	139	28.54
Total	293	100.00	487	100.00

Note: Eight respondents failed to answer this item in the 2001 sample while one respondent failed to answer this item in the 1995 sample.

indicated that 25 % or less of their students received free or reduced lunch, 29.96% ($n = 71$) indicated that between 26 % and 50% of their students received free or reduced lunch, 17.72% ($n = 42$) indicated that between 51% and 75% of their students received free or reduced lunch, and 8.86% ($n = 21$) indicated that more than 75% of their students received free or reduced lunch. The mean percentage receiving free or reduced lunch in the current study was 35.18% compared with the mean percentage receiving free or reduced lunch of 35.26% in Murray's 1995 study. Kirk did not include this in his survey.

Remain in Current Position

Almost 88% (87.63%, $n = 248$) of the 283 respondents indicated that they intended to remain in their current position, while only 12% (12.37%, $n = 35$) indicated they did not plan to remain in their current position. Murray found in her 1995 study that over two-thirds (71.3%, $n = 346$) of the respondents planned to stay in their current position for 5 or more years, with almost 30% (28.7%, $n = 139$) indicating they did not plan to stay in the same position. Kirk did not ask this question in his survey. Of those respondents giving reasons for not planning to stay in the position, some cited desire to be a full-time mother, budget cuts, transfers, retirement, moves to administration, wanting new challenges, and dissatisfaction with "the changing climate and shifts in responsibilities and duties". Eighteen respondents failed to complete this item in the current sample, while 3 respondents failed to complete it in the 1995 sample.

Remain in the Profession

This item asked participants if they intended to remain in the profession of elementary school counseling. A total of 284 (94.35%) responded to this question. Over

90% (92.25%, $n = 262$) indicated they intended to remain, while less than 10% (7.75%, $n = 22$) indicated they did not plan to stay in the profession. In Murray's 1995 study, 80% (80.37%, $n = 389$) indicated they planned to stay in the profession, with almost 20% (19.63%, $n = 95$) indicating they did not plan to remain in the profession. Twenty-two respondents failed to answer this item in the 2001 sample, while 4 respondents failed to answer it in the 1995 sample. Reasons given by the respondents for not planning to stay in the profession were retiring, wanting to change to a different grade level, going into administration, burnout, and entering private practice. This question was not asked in Kirk's study.

Clinical Supervision

Participants were asked if they received clinical supervision in their current position. Of the total respondents ($n = 294$, 97.67%) over 80% (83.33%, $n = 245$) indicated that they did not receive any clinical supervision. Forty-nine respondents (16.67%) indicated they did receive supervision. This represents a 5.58% increase in the percentage of counselors receiving supervision from Murray's 1995 study in which almost 89% (88.91%, $n = 433$) reported not receiving any supervision and 11% (11.09%) indicated they received supervision. Seven respondents in the current survey did not answer this item, while one respondent in the 1995 study failed to answer it.

Of the 49 respondents who did receive supervision, 44 indicated from whom it was received. Thirty-one (70.45%) received supervision from their supervisor, 6 (13.64%) received supervision from a private practitioner, 5 (11.37%) received

supervision from their peers, 1 (2.27%) received supervision from a university coordinator, and 1 (2.27%) received supervision from an assistant superintendent.

Participants were asked if they provide clinical supervision to anyone in their current job. Once again, a total of 294 (97.67%) responded to this item with 7 failing to answer it. A little over 84% (84.35%, $n = 248$) indicated that they did not provide any type of supervision, while over 15% (15.65%, $n = 46$) reported that they did provide supervision. Of this number, 40 stated whom they supervised. Almost 88% (87.5%, $n = 35$) indicated that they provided supervision to counseling interns and practicum students, while the remaining 12% (12.5%) indicated they supervised other counselors. Murray's findings revealed that 11.5% ($n = 56$) of respondents provided clinical supervision and 80.4% ($n = 389$) did not. One respondent failed to answer this item in the 1995 sample. This question was not asked in Kirk's study.

Administrative Position

A total of 284 participants responded (94.35%) to this item that asked if they were interested in changing to an administrative position. Of this number, 263 (92.61%) indicated they were not interested in an administrative position, while 7.39% ($n = 21$) said they were interested in a position in administration. This represents an increase of 5.81% over Murray's 1995 sample that showed that the majority of respondents were not interested in changing to an administrative position ($n = 421$, 86.8%). Positions in administration that respondents were interested in included guidance supervisor, director of instruction, assistant principal, and pupil personnel services. Seventeen respondents

did not answer this item in the present study, and three respondents failed to answer it in the 1995 sample. Kirk did not ask this question in his study.

Lack of a State Mandate

Participants were asked if not having a state mandate for the elementary school counseling program affected the satisfaction they feel with their jobs. Table 15 summarizes these results. Of the 286 (95.02%) who responded to this item, 58% (58.39%; $n = 167$) indicated that it did affect their job satisfaction level, while almost 42% (41.61%; $n = 119$) said it did not affect how they feel about their jobs. Fifteen respondents did not answer this item. Of those who gave explanations of ways the lack of a state mandate affected their job satisfaction ($n = 140$; 83.83%), 62 (44.29%) said their job security felt threatened. Fifty-seven (40.71%) said they did not feel others think that their position is needed, valued, or important. Eight (5.71%) said that not having clear-cut guidelines allowed too many others to set their agendas. Eight (5.71%) stated that they were serving too many students to be effective. Three (2.15%) said they did not have enough time for counseling, and 2 (1.43%) stated that they now did too much classroom guidance.

Passage of the Standards of Learning Assessments

Participants were asked if passage of the Standards of Learning assessments affected their level of job satisfaction. These results are presented in Table 16. A total of 290 (96.35%) responded to this item. Almost two-thirds (65.52%, $n = 190$) indicated their job satisfaction level was affected negatively by the Standards of Learning assessments, while one-third (34.48%, $n = 100$) reported that their feelings about their jobs were not

Table 15

Responses to “Does the lack of a state mandate for the elementary school counseling program affect the satisfaction you feel with your job?”

Category	Number of Responses	% Total
Job security feels threatened	62	44.29
Feel less valued and important	57	40.71
Allows too many others to set counseling agenda	8	5.71
Serve too many students	8	5.71
Not enough time for counseling	3	2.15
Do too much classroom guidance	2	1.43
Total Responses	140	100.00

Table 16

Responses to “Has passage of the Standards of Learning assessment affected the way you feel about your job?”

Category	Number of Responses	% Total
Feel more pressure and stress	51	29.65
More difficult now to get students out of class	46	26.74
Unhappy with school’s lack of emphasis on student’s personal and social development	29	16.86
Testing duties take away from counseling time	27	15.70
Schedule and activities revolve around test preparation and test taking	13	7.56
Have more administrative and paperwork demands	6	3.49
Total Responses	172	100.00

associated with the Standards of Learning assessments. Eleven respondents failed to answer this item. Several explanations were given by 172 respondents of ways the Standards of Learning assessments impact counselors and their jobs. About 30 % (29.65%, $n = 51$) stated that they felt pressure and stress from the administration, teachers, and parents. Stress was defined in various ways such as one respondent stating “lots of tension at school; test instruction is becoming the only thing that matters”. Another respondent stated that “school has become a very serious place; more pressure on students and teachers that is detrimental to the children”. Still, another respondent said, “the testing process is very stressful and logistically difficult”. About 27% (26.74%, $n = 46$) said that it was more difficult to get students for individual or group counseling. Almost 17% (16.86%, $n = 29$) stated that there was too much school-wide focus on preparing for test taking to the exclusion of emphasizing the personal and social aspect of development. Another 15% (15.7%, $n = 27$) said that their job as test coordinator took away from their time to do direct counseling and perform other counseling functions. About 8% (7.56%, $n = 13$) indicated that schedules and activities revolved around the Standards of Learning tests, while 4% (3.49%, $n = 6$) stated that they had more administrative and paperwork demands placed upon them.

Increased Awareness of School Violence

Participants were asked if their role as a school counselor has changed as a result of increased awareness of school violence. Of the 288 responding to this item, ($n = 173$) 60.07% indicated their roles had changed because of the awareness of school violence, while 39.93% indicated their roles had not changed. Thirteen respondents did not answer

this item. A total of 138 counselors indicated that they were impacted by school violence awareness. Fifty-six respondents (40.58%) said that they taught more conflict resolution skills, anger management, and mediation skills; 47 (34.06%) stated they provided more lessons on bullying and violence prevention; 12 (8.7%) indicated that they taught more character education lessons; 12 (8.7%) said they provided more inservice training to school personnel on violence prevention; 8 (5.79%) indicated that they dealt with more referrals due to discipline problems and at-risk issues; and 3 (2.17%) stated that students and staff were more worried when strangers came to the school. These results are presented in Table 17.

Impediments to the Preferred Counselor Role

Participants were asked if there are significant impediments to how they would prefer to do their jobs. A total of 286 (95.02%) responded to this item. Of 286 respondents, 163 (56.99%) indicated there were impediments to ways they would prefer to do their jobs, while 123 (43.01%) said there were no impediments. Fifteen respondents did not complete this item. Of the 163 respondents who said they had impediment to carrying out their jobs, 154 gave specific reasons. Eighty-eight (57.14%) said that the greatest impediment to their jobs was having to take on more roles and activities that conflicted with their ability to do direct counseling such as serving as testing coordinator, attendance keeping, teacher substitute, child study chairperson, gifted coordinator, and office work; 34 (22.08%) stated that they were limited to the amount of time they could have with students due to teachers feeling pressure to prepare for the Standards of Learning tests; 9 (5.84%) said that the counselor-to-student ratio was too high; 9 (5.84%)

Table 17

Responses to “Has your role as a school counselor changed as a result of the increased awareness of school violence?”

Category	Number of Responses	% Total
Teach more conflict resolution and anger management	56	40.58
Provide more bullying and violence prevention lessons	47	34.06
Do more in-service training for school personnel	12	8.70
Emphasize character education more	12	8.70
Have more discipline referrals	8	5.79
Worry more when strangers enter school	3	2.17
Total Responses	138	100.00

indicated they did not feel supported by the administration; 8 (5.20%) stated they were doing too much classroom guidance and not enough direct counseling; 4 (2.60%) indicated that lack of funding was a barrier; and 2 (1.3%) said that the issues students were presenting with more serious mental health issues. Counselors made comments such as, “There’s not enough time to do all the things that need to be done or provide the best service”; “I’m performing too many noncounseling duties”; There’s too many students for one counselor”; and “Being SOL testing coordinator takes the majority of my time from mid-April to the end of May”. These results are presented in Table 18.

Go into the Same Profession Again

Participants were asked to rate how they would feel about going into the same profession again. Of the 290 respondents, only 6 (2.07%) said they would feel very dissatisfied, while 14 (4.83%) said they were dissatisfied. The majority of respondents were either satisfied ($n = 144$, 49.66%) or very satisfied ($n = 126$, 43.44%). Eleven respondents did not complete this item.

What It Is Like Most of the Time

Participants were asked to rate how they feel about their job the majority of the time. A total of 293 responded to this item, while 8 did not complete it. Only about 1% (1.02%, $n = 3$) indicated that they were very dissatisfied, and less than 6% (5.8%, $n = 17$) said they were dissatisfied. Over 50% (56.66%, $n = 166$) indicated that they were satisfied and 37% (36.52%, $n = 107$) indicated they were very satisfied.

Table 18

Responses to “Do you feel there are significant impediments to the preferred role and functions of your job?”

Category	Number of Responses	% Total
Taking on more roles that detract from counseling	88	57.14
Teachers less willing to release students from class	34	22.08
Counselor-student ratio too high	9	5.84
Feel unsupported by Administration	9	5.84
Having to do more classroom guidance and not enough direct counseling	8	5.20
Insufficient funds for resources	4	2.60
Student issues more therapeutic	2	1.30
Total Responses	154	100.00

Feelings about Present Job

Participants were asked to rate how they generally feel about where they work. Of the 292 respondents, 154 (52.74%) stated they were satisfied, and 115 (39.38%) stated they were very satisfied. Five respondents (1.71%) stated they were very dissatisfied, while 18 (6.17%) stated they were dissatisfied. Nine respondents failed to answer this item.

Overall Job Satisfaction

Participants were asked to rate their overall level of job satisfaction in their current position. A total of 293 responded to this item, while 8 failed to answer it. Of the 293 respondents, 5 (1.70%) indicated they were very dissatisfied with their job, and 22 (7.51%) indicated they were dissatisfied. Over 50% (51.88%, $n = 152$) expressed they were satisfied with their jobs. About 39% (38.91%, $n = 114$) indicated that they were very satisfied with their jobs. A majority of the 487 respondents in Murray's study were satisfied (48.66%, $n = 237$) or very satisfied (46.41%, $n = 226$) with their jobs. Respondents who were very dissatisfied with their jobs in Murray's study were 0.62% ($n = 3$) while 4.31% were dissatisfied. Kirk did not include this question on his Individual Information Form.

Job Satisfaction among Elementary School Counselors

The job satisfaction level of Virginia elementary school counselors who are members of the Virginia School Counselors Association was measured by the modified Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). Analysis of the 20 scales of the modified MSQ form the basis of the results discussed below.

Levels of Overall Job Satisfaction

Response weights across all 100 items on the modified MSQ were summed to obtain an overall job satisfaction score for each respondent. There were two scores (0.67%) that fell within the very dissatisfied range, while 25 scores (8.42%) fell within the dissatisfied range. The largest number of scores ($n = 233$, 78.45%) fell within the satisfied range, and 37 scores (12.46%) fell within the very satisfied range. Table 19 compares the overall job satisfaction level of elementary school counselors in the 2001 study with the 1995 and 1988 studies.

Sources of Job Satisfaction

A hierarchy of the 20 modified MSQ scales was constructed to determine the current sources of job satisfaction among Virginia elementary school counselors. Means and standard deviations for each scale were obtained. Table 20 presents this information. Mean scale scores of 12.51 or greater indicate general feelings of satisfaction in that area. The compensation scale was the only one to fall below this range with a mean of 11.83. Although the hierarchy of MSQ scales in all three studies varied, they were very similar. In Murray's study the area of compensation also represented the only area of dissatisfaction with a mean scale score of 12.43, while in Kirk's study there were no significant sources of dissatisfaction on any of the MSQ scales. The six areas representing the most satisfaction in all three studies were social service, moral values, creativity, activity, variety, and ability utilization. Compensation, company policies, and advancement were the areas in which counselors were least satisfied in all three

Table 19

Levels of Overall Job Satisfaction

Score Category	2001		1995		1988	
	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
Very Dissatisfied	2	.67	1	.2	1	.37
Dissatisfied	25	8.42	17	3.5	17	6.23
Satisfied	233	78.45	411	84.2	224	82.05
Very Satisfied	37	12.46	59	12.1	31	11.35
Total	297	100.00	488	100.0	273	100.00

Table 20

Hierarchy of MSQ Scales

Scale	Mean	Std. Deviation
Social Service	18.1220	2.3495
Moral Values	17.5435	2.2454
Creativity	17.4251	3.6538
Activity	17.2740	2.9215
Variety	17.0903	2.1407
Ability Utilization	17.0871	2.8997
Achievement	16.8601	2.3977
Responsibility	16.6857	2.1547
Co-workers	15.9930	2.8643
Independence	15.9777	2.4387
Working Conditions	15.5280	4.1731
Authority	15.4163	1.9350
Recognition	14.9046	3.9241
Supervision-Human Relations	14.8876	3.3124
Social Status	14.8854	2.3869
Supervision-Technical	14.7004	3.0889
Security	14.6914	3.9329
Advancement	13.1120	3.7137
Company Policies	12.6823	3.1863
Compensation	11.8315	3.5388

studies. In both the current study and Murray's 1995 study, security represented the fourth areas producing the least satisfaction, while in Kirk's 1988 study it was eighth.

Scale Score Comparisons between the Years

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the means of each of the 20 scales on the MSQ in 2001, 1995 and 1988. In both the current and 1995 studies, the mean score on the compensation scale was the only one to fall below the general satisfaction level, while in Kirk's 1988 study all 20 of the MSQ scales were in the general satisfaction range. Results of the one-way ANOVA showed that there was not a significant difference between the means for the different years [$F(2, 57) = .244$]. Table 21 presents the results of the one-way ANOVA.

Job Satisfaction and Demographic Variables

As in Murray (1995), multiple regression was used to determine the relation between selected demographic variables and overall job satisfaction. Based upon previous research and the research questions in the current study, the following demographic variables were selected: age, gender, educational degree status, type of elementary school counselor state license held, number of students with which the counselor works, number of elementary school counselors in the division, number of students receiving free or reduced lunch, whether the counselor intends to remain in the current position, and whether the counselor intends to remain in the profession of elementary school counseling. All variables were dropped out of the stepwise regression except the intent to remain in the current position and the educational degree of the

Table 21

Analysis of Variance of means on MSQ Scales for 2001, 1995 and 1988

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F
Between Groups	1.217	2	.609	.244
Within Groups	141.974	57	2.491	
Total	143.192	59		

P < .05

respondent. Counselors' intent to remain in the position and degree status were found to be significant sources of variance in overall satisfaction [$t(178) = -2.226, p = .027$ for intent to remain; $t(178) = 2.094, p = .038$ for degree status]. These two variables contributed significantly to counselors overall job satisfaction, while none of the other demographic variables contributed to the regression equation. Table 22 shows the results of the regression analysis.

Kirk used a forward selection of blocks of predictors in his regression analysis. None of the blocks were found to affect job satisfaction. In Murray's stepwise regression analysis, the variables number of elementary school counselors in the division, intentions of remaining in the position for 5 years, and having a Collegiate/Postgraduate Professional license were statistically significant sources of variance in job satisfaction.

Overall Comparisons of Job Satisfaction Levels

The overall measured levels of job satisfaction among Virginia elementary school counselors in the current study and the 1995 and 1988 studies were compared. A chi-square test of independence was used to conduct this analysis. There was no significant relationship between the survey years and how respondents answered this item. The observed and expected frequencies in each cell across all 3 years were similar. Table 23 presents this information.

Summary

This chapter presented results of the study. A total of 339 counselors responded to the survey which represented a response rate of 76.35%. Of the respondents, over 90%

Table 22

Multiple Regression Summary

Source	Sum of Sq.	df	Mean Sq.	F	
Regression	3.606	2	1.803	4.837	
Residual	65.601	176	.373		
Variable	B	Beta	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Constant	3.248		.285	11.409	.000
Remain in Position	-.347	-.163	.156	- 2.226	.027
Degree	.216	.154	.103	2.094	.038

p < .05

Table 23

Chi-Square Test of Independence for 2001, 1995 and 1988 Studies

Category	2001 (Observed/Expected)	1995 (Observed/Expected)	1988 (Observed/Expected)	Total
Very Dissatisfied	2 / 1.1	1 / 1.2825	1 / .7175	4
Dissatisfied	25 / 16.6	17 / 21.8029	17 / 12.1971	59
Satisfied	233 / 243.7	411 / 407.2010	224 / 227.7990	868
Very Satisfied	37 / 35.7	59 / 57.7135	31 / 32.2865	127
Total	297	488	273	1,058

$$\chi^2 (6) = 10.311, p = .112$$

expressed being either satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. The only area of dissatisfaction as measured by the modified Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was the compensation area. However, within the general satisfaction range, advancement opportunities and company policies ranked at the end of the MSQ hierarchy. The areas of social service, moral values, and creativity were the three highest areas that contributed to feelings of job satisfaction. Two demographic variables, intent to remain in the position and educational degree status, were found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction. Compared to the studies of both Murray (1995) and Kirk (1988), the current sample is very similar in overall job satisfaction levels.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the study. The results and significant findings are discussed and conclusions are drawn. Recommendations for counselors and counselor educators along with recommendations for future research are given. A brief summary concludes the chapter.

Summary of the Study

While the study of job satisfaction has been widely researched, few studies have investigated the job satisfaction of elementary school counselors. The feelings individuals have about their jobs affect not only their physical and emotional well being, but also their quality of work. An array of social, cultural, and political changes during the last two decades has presented new challenges to the profession of school counseling. At a time when a growing body of empirical research supports the benefits of having a K-12 counseling program, Virginia elementary school counselors have seen their program relegated to a local option status. The purpose of this study was to investigate the current level of job satisfaction of elementary school counselors in Virginia and compare it with the job satisfaction level of counselors surveyed in 1995 and 1988.

Participants in this study were Virginia elementary school counselors who were members of the Virginia School Counselor Association. Data were collected through a mailed Individual Information Form (IIF) and a modified Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The overall response rate was 76.35%. It should be noted that

even though there is a high response rate a positive upward bias in the data may exist (Marlow, 1998).

The results of the study will be summarized through each of the research questions listed below:

1. What is the job satisfaction level expressed by elementary school counselors in Virginia?

The majority of elementary school counselors in Virginia who are members of the Virginia School Counselor Association are either satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. As measured by the MSQ, over 90 % of the counselors surveyed expressed satisfaction with their jobs, while less than 10% indicated they were not happy with their jobs. These findings are very similar to those on the IIF which also showed that over 90% of counselors were satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs, and less than 10% are dissatisfied or very dissatisfied.

2. Which of the 20 scales of the modified Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) explain the variance in job satisfaction of elementary school counselors in Virginia?

Virginia elementary school counselors are satisfied in their present jobs with all areas measured by the MSQ except the compensation area. Compensation compares how counselors feel about their pay with the amount of work they perform. Social service, the opportunity to do things for other people, provided the greatest amount of satisfaction.

3. What is the relationship of the overall job satisfaction level of Virginia elementary school counselors with selected demographic and work environment characteristics?

A stepwise multiple regression was used to determine the relation between selected demographic variables and overall job satisfaction. The demographic variables selected were age, gender, educational degree status, type of elementary school counselor state license held, number of students with which the counselor works, number of elementary school counselors in the division, number of students receiving free or reduced lunch, whether the counselor intends to remain the current position, and whether the counselor intends to remain in the profession of elementary school counseling. The combined influence of two variables, intent to remain in the current position and educational degree status, explained 5.2% of the variance in job satisfaction. Elementary school counselors who have a master's degree and intend to stay in their current position are more satisfied with their jobs.

4. How does the job satisfaction level of Virginia elementary school counselors in 2001 compare to the job satisfaction level of Virginia elementary school counselors in 1995 and 1988?

The overall job satisfaction level of Virginia elementary school counselors as measured by the modified MSQ in 2001, 1995, and 1988 shows similarities. The majority of respondents in all three years indicated they were satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. In 2001 this represented 90.9% of the total, while in 1995 the percentage of counselors that were satisfied with their jobs was 96.3% and in 1988 it was 93.5%. There has been a slight increase across all three studies in the percentage of counselors who are very satisfied with their jobs. There was an increase of 5.4% of counselors who were very dissatisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs in 2001 compared to 1995 and a 2.5% increase

compared to 1988. Even though the overall job satisfaction level dropped 5.4% from 1995 and 2.6% from 1988, the decrease in satisfaction is not statistically significant.

In both the 2001 and 1995 studies, elementary school counselors were satisfied with 19 out of 20 areas measured by the MSQ, while in 1988 they were satisfied with all 20 areas. All three groups were most satisfied with social service, moral values, creativity, activity, variety, and ability utilization although there was variation in the order. The area producing the greatest satisfaction for all three groups was social service. Areas in which counselors were least satisfied for all three years was compensation, company policies, and advancement. In both the current and 1995 studies, security was the fourth area in which counselors were least satisfied with their jobs. The fifth area in which counselors were least satisfied with their jobs in 2001 was the technical quality of supervision.

5. Does the current social and political climate affect counselors' feelings about their jobs and performance?

Counselors in this study responded to a series of questions about how the current social and political atmosphere affects their feelings about their jobs. In response to the question "Does the lack of a state mandate for the elementary school counseling program affect the satisfaction you feel about your job?", of those who specified ways they were affected over 40% stated that their sense of job security felt threatened. Likewise, 40% stated that they did not feel as valued as other staff members or that their position was viewed as important. Statements such as "I don't feel valued or appreciated", "It's demoralizing to feel that the need for counselors is not recognized", and "I always feel like my job is in jeopardy" were typical of those who commented on this question.

Counselors were asked to respond to the question, “Has passage of the Standards of Learning assessments affected the way you feel about your job?” Of those responding, almost two-to-one said their feeling about their jobs were affected by the Standards of Learning assessments. Thirty percent of these counselors stated that they felt more pressure and stress in their jobs. Another 25% said they were frustrated over the difficulty they had in getting students who needed to see them out of class. A number of counselors expressed feelings such as “There’s more pressure to teach study skills and less time for counseling” or “We have lots of tension at school”. One counselor stated, “I spend ungodly hours as test coordinator and I neglect most students at that time.”

In response to the question “Has your role as a school counselor changed as a result of the increased awareness of school violence?”, the majority of counselors reported their roles had been altered. Over 40% of those stating ways their roles had changed said they now place more emphasis on teaching conflict resolution and anger management skills. Another third said that they devoted more time to providing bullying and violence prevention lessons. Replies such as these, “I am expected to take more of a disciplinary approach now”, “I do more preventative education with students and staff”, and “I have more referrals on potential violent acts than before which detracts from my developmental work” were common.

The last question, “Do you feel there are significant impediments to the preferred role and function of your job?”, was answered affirmative by the majority that responded to the question. Of these counselors, over 50% indicated they were providing services in areas in which they would rather commit less time. Another 20% of counselors stated that teachers were more reluctant to release students from class because of increased

academic pressures and testing expectations, thus making it hard to set up individual or group sessions. Counselors commented, “I’m assigned so many administrative duties I don’t seem to be able to go to classes and talk about pro-social topics”, “The roles of a counselor have expanded so widely that working one-to-one with children seems to be the last priority rather than the first”, “I’m assigned mandatory classroom guidance without my input”, and “There’s an overwhelming and increasing amount of paperwork and added responsibilities.”

Conclusions

The present study examined the job satisfaction of elementary school counselors in Virginia who are members of the Virginia School Counselor Association and compared it to counselors surveyed in 1995 and 1988. In all three studies results showed that counselors were satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. The overall job satisfaction level of counselors surveyed in 2001 was 90.9%, while in 1995 it was 96.3% and in 1988 it was 93.5%. Almost 88% of counselors indicated they intended to remain in their current position and over 90% indicated they intended to remain in the profession. These findings are consistent with surveys conducted periodically in the United States by various organizations that show that most Americans are generally satisfied with their work. According to a 1991 Gallup poll, 88% of those responding to the survey reported feeling satisfied with their jobs (Hugick & Leonard, 1991).

The dimensions of job satisfaction and their importance to counselors were also measured in this study. Twenty aspects of the work environment that pertain to 20 psychological needs were obtained by the MSQ. Although a number of factors appear to contribute to how workers feel about their jobs, according to Brief (1998) no theory

explains which facets of job satisfaction should be considered or their relative importance. In the 1991 Gallup poll, workers were surveyed on 16 different work aspects (Hugick & Leonard, 1991). The majority of respondents were more satisfied with aspects of the job that directly related to the work itself. Other aspects of the work environment that produced job satisfaction were feeling that the job was interesting and having an opportunity to be around people. Workers in the Gallup poll were least satisfied with health benefits, chances for promotion, pay, and job stress. In Virginia, elementary school counselors were satisfied with most aspects of their jobs as measured by the MSQ. In both 2001 and 1995 they were satisfied with all but one aspect, compensation, and in 1988 they indicated they were satisfied with all aspects of their jobs. For all three studies, being able to do things for others was the most satisfying. This finding is consistent with the 1991 Gallup poll that also showed that American workers in general were happier with the aspects that directly related to their jobs (Hugick & Leonard, 1991). Several studies have supported the contention that the intrinsic features of the work are instrumental in producing job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Valentine, Valentine, & Dick, 1998).

The facet producing the most dissatisfaction in the 2001, 1995, and 1988 studies was compensation (feelings about pay in contrast to the amount of work completed). A number of factors can be attributed to counselors' low ranking of the compensation facet. As counselors try to carry out their ever-increasing duties, in today's economic and political climate they often are met with such barriers as authority figures, politics, and lack of funds (Coll & Freeman, 1997). Vroom (1964), in an attempt to answer the question of why people work, identified financial remuneration as one of the properties.

Today, with more single-parent households and rising costs-of-living, workers at all levels are confronted with significant financial challenges. These challenges are mirrored in the 1991 Gallup findings that showed one in six full-time workers hold a second job to make ends meet (Hugick & Leonard, 1991).

In contrast to the 1995 and 1988 studies, company policies and practices was the second area that produced the least satisfaction for counselors. This is not surprising in light of the fact that when Murray (1995) completed her study the elementary school counseling program was required in all public schools. At the time of Kirk's (1988) study, the state mandate was to be in full effect the next year. Since these two studies were completed, the state mandate has been lifted and elementary school counseling has become a local option.

Counselors continue to be dissatisfied with their chances for advancement which represented the third least satisfying job aspect. This dissatisfaction may be a reflection of the lack of career moves available in the profession of elementary school counseling.

There was a decrease in counselors' satisfaction with both the human relations and technical aspects of supervision from the 1995 and 1988 studies as measured by the MSQ. The human relations aspect refers to how the supervisor and counselor interact, while the technical aspect refers to the supervisor's "know-how" and competence in making decisions. Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell (1957) noted that employees' attitudes and effectiveness were related to the quality of supervision they received. As counselors continue to take on different roles and job demands resulting from societal changes, the need for refined strategies and interventions grows. If counselors do not believe they are being provided adequate support and direction from their supervisors,

feelings of inadequacy and dissatisfaction may result. Schroffel (1999) observed that during the past decade the role of the supervisor has become more administrative and less clinical. It is possible that counselors who are working with students with more complex issues may desire more consistent and technical supervisory support. If supervisors are unable to meet the needs of the counselors they are supervising, dissatisfaction with this job facet may occur.

Counselors' feelings of social status, the chance to be "somebody" in the community, increased slightly from the 1988 study. As the profession has matured and grown in importance, this may reflect counselors' overall satisfaction with their career choice.

Many different variables and their relation to job satisfaction have been examined by researchers. Demographic variables are often interrelated and not easy to isolate to determine their overall impact on job satisfaction (Fournet, Distefano, & Pryer, 1969; Hulin & Smith, 1965; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Motowidlo, 1996). In the present study, two demographic variables were found to be significant sources of variance in overall job satisfaction. Educational degree status and counselors' intent to stay in their current position combined to explain 5.2% of the variance. While 5.2% is statistically significant, it explains only a small amount of the variance in job satisfaction.

The majority of elementary school counselors in this study had a master's degree. Although studies investigating the relationship between educational level and job satisfaction have been conflicting, higher education is often associated with higher pay and job status. The 1991 Gallup poll showed that both older workers and workers that were college graduates were more satisfied with their jobs (Hugick & Leonard, 1991).

Bamundo and Kopelman (1980) found that the variables of job tenure, educational level and salary correlate highly with age. Fournet, Distefano, and Pryer (1969) stated that the effects of educational level on job satisfaction were “contaminated” with the variable of age. Motowidlo (1996) observed, however, that the variables of education and age show fairly consistent positive correlations. Many studies have shown that workers become more satisfied with their jobs as they get older (Bernal, Snyder, & McDaniel, 1998; Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996; Glenn, Taylor, & Weaver, 1977; Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957). It is likely that some counselors have gone back to school to obtain a higher degree since becoming an elementary school counselor, while other counselors are graduating from school counseling programs with a master’s degree. The median age of counselors has increased since Kirk’s original study and may explain why the percentage of elementary school counselors who are very satisfied with their jobs in 2001 is higher than in 1995 and 1988.

The second variable associated with job satisfaction in this study was counselors’ intent to remain in the current position. It is probable that workers who like their jobs are more likely to remain in them. Counselors may intend to stay in their current jobs because they believe there are fewer job opportunities available. As with the educational degree status variable, the influence of intent to remain in the current position on job satisfaction is difficult to isolate from the effects of other variables. Job tenure is a factor that has been linked with job satisfaction outcomes (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Hulin & Smith, 1965; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Schuh, 1967). Hulin and Smith (1965) observed that the longer workers are in their jobs, the better equipped they are to adjust their expectations of what the work can provide. Based on the median age of

counselors in this study, many have probably been in their positions for several years and are reaching retirement age.

Results of the present study reflected other demographic changes and trends. The majority of elementary school counselors in Virginia are older, Caucasian females. Counselors' median age has increased from 41.0 in the 1988 study to 45.0 in the 1995 study and to 50.0 in the 2001 study. Age and job satisfaction are consistently linked, and the present study supported this connection. Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell (1957) suggested there was a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction beginning during workers 30s. The level of job satisfaction and age appears to be stronger than other variables such as gender (Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1968; Maynard, 1986). Clark, Oswald, and Warr (1996) concluded that older workers are more satisfied with their jobs because they receive better rewards and are less concerned with comparisons. The number of female counselors across all three studies has increased. This percentage increased by 2.03% from the 1995 study and 7.51% from the 1988 study.

There was an increase in the number of counselors who are very dissatisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs in 2001 from the 1995 and 1988 studies. The increased dissatisfaction many reflect the fact that counselors are now working under conditions that are very different from the times of Murray and Kirk's studies. Counselors in the present study expressed feeling stress from a number of sources. In 1995 the percent of counselors very dissatisfied and dissatisfied with their jobs was 3.7%, and in 1988 it was 6.6%. The percentage of counselors who expressed feeling very dissatisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs in 2001 was 9.1%.

In response to the question of whether the lack of a state mandate for the elementary school counseling program affected counselors' level of job satisfaction, the largest percent of respondents said their sense of job security felt threatened. The next largest percent stated that they did not feel valued personally or that others, either on the local or state level, believed their positions were important. Needs theories have often been applied by researchers attempting to explain reasons for workers' job satisfaction. One of the oldest needs theories is Maslow's (1954) five-stage hierarchy which posits that until lower order needs such as security are met, higher order needs will not be fulfilled. Fournet, Distefano, and Pryer (1969) stated that "security is counted by many investigators as the most important variable in job satisfaction" p. 173. In the 1991 Gallup survey, Hugick and Leonard (1991) reported that since 1989 among a host of factors the area of job security had dropped the greatest percentage points.

Counselors' responses to whether passage of the state required Standards of Learning assessments has changed the way they feel about their jobs indicate that a large percentage now feel more stress and pressure. It appears that the increased stress and pressure is related to having more non-counseling testing duties and difficulty in scheduling individual and group sessions because of teachers' reluctance to release students from class. Since there is a discrepancy between what counselors expect to do and what many are actually doing, it is not surprising that they would be feeling role conflict. In the 2001, 1995, and 1988 studies, the opportunity to be of service to others as measured by the MSQ was the area that provided the most satisfaction. Counselors could be experiencing stress as a result of conflicting role demands.

Counselors in this study also indicated that their role had changed as a result of the increased awareness of school violence. The largest majority of those responding to this question said that they were providing more help to students in resolving conflicts and learning how to deal with anger. Some counselors said that they had more discipline referrals and often were involved in student issues that were too “therapeutic”.

Counselors have always been a flexible group of individuals who are responsive to the ever-changing needs of students and the society in which they live. To meet the changing and diverse needs of students effectively, though, counselors must be adequately trained and equipped. It is possible that elementary school counselors who are trained primarily to deliver services from a developmental perspective now feel less secure or adequately prepared as their roles have broadened. Sandhu (2000) noted that as school counselors increasingly are being called upon to provide leadership in violence prevention, they must also increase their own expertise.

When counselors were asked if there were significant impediments in the ways they would prefer to carry out their role and functions, over half of the respondents to this question said they were experiencing barriers. The largest number of counselors stated that they were taking on more roles that detracted from their counseling with students. Studies have shown that counseling programs that are most effective focus on providing direct counseling to students (Borders & Drury, 1992; Hardesty & Dillard, 1994b; Miller, 1988; Wiggins & Mickle-Askin, 1980). Other studies have shown that counselors are more satisfied with their jobs when they are performing their preferred activities (Gade & Houdek, 1993; Hansen, 1967; Miller, 1989; Morse & Russell, 1988). Most of the other comments that counselors made centered around their frustrations with being unable to

meet students' needs because of added non-counseling duties and activities. Gysbers, Lapan, and Blair (1999) found that when counselors were operating within a comprehensive approach, non-guidance tasks were reduced which allowed counselors to perform the duties and activities they preferred. Elementary school counselors in the present study identified as non-counseling duties such things as serving as attendance keeper, school test coordinator, child-study chairperson, gifted coordinator, substitute teacher, and clerical worker. It appears that elementary school counselors in this study feel they are performing too many duties that are not counseling related and are in conflict with the American School Counselor Association's (1999) recommendation that at least 70% of counselors' time should be in direct services to students. Another common theme among this sample of counselors was concern over high counselor-to-student ratios. These findings may be affecting the job satisfaction level of Virginia's elementary school counselors in 2001.

Results of the current study show there has been a slight decrease in the percentage of counselors who are devoting 100% of their time to the position compared to Murray and Kirk's studies. It appears that some counselors in 2001 are holding positions as art teacher, librarian, and assistant principal along with serving as counselor. More counselors in 2001 indicate they are serving one school than in 1995 and 1998, and the percentage indicating they are the only elementary school counselor in the school decreased. Without the state mandated counselor-to-student ratio, it is possible that these counselors are serving a larger student population. If counselors believe they are unable to adequately serve their students because of the high ratios, it is likely they will feel frustrated and dissatisfied.

Recommendations for Counselors and Counselor Educators

1. Counselors need to become more proactive at the local and state level to advocate for a comprehensive K-12 school counseling program.
2. Counselors need to educate their principals and local school board members about the role of the school counselor and the effectiveness of their programs in serving all students.
3. Counselors need to advocate with their principals for reducing their non-counseling and administrative duties to allow them to focus on roles identified by the profession and national leadership associations as priority roles.
4. Counselors should take a leadership role within their schools to demonstrate their effectiveness in helping to provide safe schools that are conducive to learning.
5. Counselors need to continue their professional development by participating in workshops and taking courses that will equip them to meet the needs of their students.
6. Counselors should seek supervision from qualified professionals as part of their ongoing professional development.
7. Counselor educators should include in their programs required courses that teach trainees skills in changing and stopping aggressive behaviors in youth. Findings from this study showed that 75% of counselors who responded to the question about how their role had changed as a result of the increased awareness of school violence reported using more antiviolence interventions. The interventions being used focused on conflict resolution and peace-making skills.

8. Counselor educators should continue to emphasize courses and counseling techniques that equip counselors to work with students with different cultural backgrounds and worldviews.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. Replication of this study in six or seven years is recommended to assess changes to the elementary school counseling program and to suggest recommendations for improvement.
2. Research on the job satisfaction of all elementary school counselors in the state and not just members of professional organizations should be conducted and compared with the present study.
3. Research that investigates counselors' role in facilitating school environments that are conducive to students' personal, social, and academic development would be useful.
4. Research on reasons counselors have moved from non-school counseling jobs to school counseling positions should be explored.
5. Research that investigates the working conditions of counselors in different geographic areas throughout the state should be undertaken.

Summary

This chapter discussed the results of the study and significant findings. The purpose of the study was to examine the job satisfaction level of elementary school counselors in Virginia who are members of the Virginia School Counselor Association and compare it to counselors surveyed in 1995 and 1988. Findings showed counselors' overall job satisfaction level as measured by the MSQ in 2001, 1995, and 1988 were

similar. The majority of respondents in all three years indicated they were satisfied with their jobs. In the 2001 and 1995 studies counselors were satisfied with 19 out of 20 areas measured by the MSQ, while in 1988 they were satisfied with all 20 areas. Based on the results of the current study, recommendations were made for counselors, counselor educators, and future research.

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APPENDIX A
SURVEY LETTERS

April 25, 2001

Dear Virginia Elementary School Counselor:

In a few days you will receive survey materials from Doris DeMato who is a doctoral candidate at Virginia Tech. Doris is conducting a study to determine what relationship exists between the job satisfaction level of elementary school counselors in Virginia and a number of other variables. I would like to encourage you to participate in this important study.

Information from her study will generate data that I believe will enhance the elementary school counseling program in Virginia. I hope that you will assist her by taking 15-20 minutes to complete and return the survey materials. Your individual responses will be kept in strict confidence, and only group data will be used in the analysis.

Thank you for your help with this important study.

Sincerely,



Dr. Claire Cole Vaught
Professor and Dissertation Director

520 Wellington Drive
Forest, VA 24551
April 30,2001

Dear Virginia Elementary School Counselor:

I am very interested in studying the current level of job satisfaction among elementary school counselors in our state and comparing the results with two other studies that were conducted in 1988 and 1995. Data from this study will provide important information about Virginia's elementary school counseling program and counselors' degree of job satisfaction.

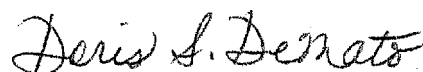
With this letter you will find enclosed an Individual Information Form and a modified Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire relating to your job satisfaction. Both items will require a total of 15 to 20 minutes of your time. Of course, the information you provide will be considered confidential at all times. The questionnaires are numbered to assist with follow-up and tracking. I alone will have access to the master file linking numbers to schools. Only group scores will be reported.

Will you please complete and return the survey materials to me in the enclosed envelope by May 14?

Information from this study will be available to you upon request. You may contact me at the above address for a copy of the results. It is your kind assistance that will contribute to the success of this study and the continued growth of elementary school counseling.

So, please take a few minutes to sit back, relax, enjoy the enclosed coffee, and help me with this research that is so important to allelementary school counselors in Virginia. Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,



Doris S.

Enclosures

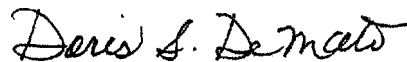
May 9, 2001

Dear Virginia Elementary School Counselor:

Survey materials relating to my study of job satisfaction among Virginia elementary school counselors were sent to you about a week ago. If you have mailed them back, you have my sincere appreciation. If you have not yet received a survey packet, please call me collect at 804-525-1553 and I will mail you another one immediately.

This study would not be possible without your assistance. Thank you again for **your** timely help.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Doris S. Demato".

Doris S.

520 Wellington Drive
Forest, VA 245 51
May 15, 2001

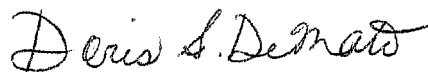
Dear Virginia Elementary School Counselor:

A few weeks ago I sent you survey materials to help me investigate the current level of job satisfaction among Virginia's elementary school counselors. At this time, almost half of your colleagues have completed this very important survey.

My records indicate that your survey has not been returned. I know that this is an extremely busy time for you, but would you take a few minutes to complete the information and return the survey to me? Just in case you did not receive the original survey, I am enclosing another one for you. I believe the results of this study will provide valuable information that will help the elementary school counseling program here in our state.

Your individual response is essential to the success of this study. The validity of the results depends on the largest possible response rate. Won't you please respond by May 23? I look forward to hearing from you.

With IGnd Regards,



Doris S.

Enclosures

May 29, 2001

Dear Virginia Elementary School Counselor:

In April, Virginia elementary school counselors who are members of the Virginia Counselors Association were asked to participate in a study that was being conducted by Doris DeMato. Approximately 70% have completed and returned the survey materials.

Doris' records show that she has not received your survey at this time. Because your responses are essential to her findings, I am urging you to return your survey as soon as possible. Information from your survey will be strictly confidential, and only group data will be used to report the results.

A duplicate set of the survey materials is being enclosed. Won't you please take a few minutes to complete the survey and return it to Dons? Important information about the job satisfaction of elementary school counselors in Virginia will be provided from her study.

Sincerely,



Dr. Claire Cole
Professor and Dissertation Director

Enclosures

APPENDIX B
INDIVIDUAL INFORMATION FORM

Individual Information Form

1. Please list your age: _____
2. Please indicate your gender:
 - _____ Male
 - _____ Female
3. Please indicate your race:
 - _____ European-American (Caucasian)
 - _____ African-American
 - _____ Hispanic-American
 - _____ Asian-American
 - _____ Other (specify) _____
4. Please indicate your marital status:
 - _____ Single
 - _____ Married
 - _____ Divorced
 - _____ Widowed
 - _____ Other (living with someone)
5. Are you a parent?
 - _____ Yes
 - _____ No
 If yes, how many children? _____
6. Please indicate your current degree status:
 - _____ Bachelors
 - _____ Masters
 - _____ Educational Specialist/CAGS
 - _____ Doctorate
7. Please list all licenses or certifications your presently hold:

8. If you are presently licensed as an elementary school counselor, please indicate the type of elementary guidance license you hold:
 - _____ Postgraduate Professional
 - _____ Collegiate Professional
 - _____ Pupil Personnel Services
 - _____ Not certified
 - _____ Other (specify) _____
9. At which institution did you receive your elementary school counseling training?

College or University _____

Year _____

CACREP approved when you graduated? _____ Yes _____ No

10. If you are currently in a counselor education program, what year do you anticipate you will finish?

11. What is your primary job title?
 _____ Elementary school counselor
 _____ Supervisor/administrator of elementary guidance program
 _____ Other (please specify) _____

12. How many years have you been employed as an elementary school counselor?

13. Please list any years of classroom teaching experience you have.
 Number of years _____
 Grade level or subject _____

14. Please list any years of other counseling (non-school) experience you have.
 Number of years _____
 Type _____

15. What percentage of time are you employed as an elementary school counselor?

If less than 100%, please indicate your other assigned responsibility (e.g., teaching, middle school guidance, etc.) and the percentage of time spent each week in that activity.

<u>Activity</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

16. What is your current work address?

17. What is your contract length?
 _____ 9 months
 _____ 10 months
 _____ 11 months
 _____ 12 months

18. Please indicate your annual salary:
 _____ \$15,000 or less
 _____ \$15,000 to \$25,000
 _____ \$25,000 to \$35,000
 _____ \$35,000 to \$45,000
 _____ Over \$45,001

19. How many schools do you serve in your school division?

20. Are you the only elementary school counselor in your school?
____ Yes
____ No
21. How many students are you assigned to work with?

22. How many elementary school counselors are there in your school division?

23. How would you describe the community in which your school is located?
____ Rural (community with population of less than 2,500)
____ Suburban (population of 2,500 to 50,000)
____ Urban (population of more than 50,000)
24. What percentage of your school population receives free or reduced lunch?

25. Do you plan to remain in your current position in this school?
____ Yes
____ No: Why not? _____
26. Do you plan to remain in the profession of elementary school counseling?
____ Yes
____ No: Why not? _____
27. Do you receive clinical supervision in your position?
____ Yes
____ No
If yes, from whom? (specify position of clinical supervisor, e.g., Director of Guidance, School Guidance Coordinator, etc.) _____
28. Do you provide clinical supervision in your position?
____ Yes
____ No
If yes, to whom? (specify) _____
29. Are you interested in changing to an administrative position?
____ Yes
____ No
If yes, please specify. _____

30. Does the lack of a state mandate for the elementary school counseling program affect the satisfaction you feel with your job?
- Yes
 No
If yes, please specify. _____
31. Has passage of the Standards of Learning assessments affected the way you feel about your job?
- Yes
 No
If yes, please specify. _____
32. Has your role as a school counselor changed as a result of the increased awareness of school violence?
- Yes
 No
If yes, in what way(s). _____
33. Do you feel there are significant impediments to the preferred role and function of your job?
- Yes
 No
If yes, please specify. _____
34. If you had it to do over again, how would you say you feel about going into the same profession?
- Very dissatisfied
 Dissatisfied
 Satisfied
 Very satisfied
35. When you think about what it is like most of the time on your job, would you say that you generally are:
- Very dissatisfied
 Dissatisfied
 Satisfied
 Very satisfied
36. In general, how would you say you feel about working here:
- Very dissatisfied
 Dissatisfied
 Satisfied
 Very satisfied
37. Overall, how satisfied are you with your present position?
- Very dissatisfied
 Dissatisfied
 Satisfied
 Very satisfied

APPENDIX C

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Twin Cities Campus

*Department of Psychology
College of Liberal Arts*

*Elliott Hall
75 East River Road
Minneapolis, MN 55455-4344
612-625-2818
Fax: 612-626-2079*

March 20, 2001

Doris S. DeMato
520 Wellington Drive
Forest, VA 24551

Dear Doris **S.** DeMato:

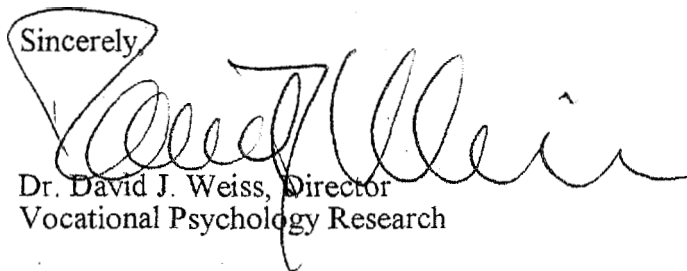
We are pleased to grant you permission to use the modified version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire 1977 long form in the reformat that you requested for your research. Enclosed is an invoice for the 600 requested.

Please note that each copy that you make must include the following copyright statement:

Copyright 1977, Vocational Psychology Research
University of Minnesota. Reproduced by permission.

Vocational Psychology Research is currently in the process of revising the MSQ manual and it is very important that we receive copies of your research study results in order to construct new norm tables. Therefore, we would appreciate receiving a copy of your results including 1) Demographic data of respondents, including age, education level, occupation and job tenure; and 2) response statistics including, scale means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and standard errors of measurement.

Your providing this information will be an important and valuable contribution to the new MSQ manual. If you have any questions concerning this request, please feel to call us at 612-625-1367.

Sincerely,

Dr. David J. Weiss, Director
Vocational Psychology Research

MODIFIED MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE*

Questionnaire Instructions

The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you a chance to tell how you feel about your present job, what things you are satisfied with and what things you are not satisfied with.

On the basis of your answers and those of other elementary school counselors throughout Virginia, we hope to get a better understanding of the things individuals like and dislike about their jobs.

On the following pages you will find statements about your present job.

Read each statement carefully.

Decide how satisfied you feel about the aspect of your job described by the statement.

Keeping the statement in mind:

- If you feel that your job gives you more than you expected, check the blank under “VS” (Very Satisfied);
- If you feel that your job gives you what you expected, check the blank under “S” (Satisfied);
- If you feel that your job gives less than you expected, check the blank under “DS” (Dissatisfied);
- If you feel that your job gives you much less than you expected, check the blank under “VDS” (Very Dissatisfied).

Remember: Keep the statements in mind when deciding how satisfied you feel about that aspect of your job. Do this for all statements. Please answer every item. Be frank and honest. Give a true picture of your feelings about your present job.

.....
PLEASE CONTINUE
.....

*Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire supplied for research purposes and reproduced by permission of Vocational Psychology Research. University of Minnesota, Copyright, 1977.

Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?

VS means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.

S means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.

DS means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

VDS means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about...	VDS	DS	S	VS
1. The chance to be of service to others.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. The chance to try out some of my own ideas.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Being able to do the job without feeling it is morally wrong.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. The chance to work by myself.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. The variety in my work.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. The chance to have others look to me for direction.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. The chance to do the kind of work that I do best.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. The social position in the community that goes with the job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. The policies and practices toward employees of this school system...	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. The way my supervisor and I understand each other.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. My job security.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. The amount of pay for the work I do.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
13. The physical working conditions (heating, lighting, etc.) in the position.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
14. The opportunities for advancement in this position.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
15. The technical "know-how" of my supervisor.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
16. The spirit of cooperation among my co-workers.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
17. The chance to be responsible for planning my work.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
18. The way I am noticed when I do a good job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
19. Being able to see the results of the work I do.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
20. The chance to be active much of the time.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
21. The chance to be of service to people.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
22. The chance to do new and original things on my own.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
23. Being able to do things that don't go against my religious beliefs...	_____	_____	_____	_____
24. The chance to work alone on the job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
25. The chance to do different things from time to time.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
26. The chance to tell other staff members how to do things.....	_____	_____	_____	_____

PLEASE CONTINUE ON BACK

Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?

VS means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.

S means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.

DS means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

VDS means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about...	VDS	DS	S	VS
27. The chance to do work that is well-suited to my abilities.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
28. The chance to be “somebody” in the community.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
29. School system policies and the way in which they are administered..	_____	_____	_____	_____
30. The way my supervisor handles employees.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
31. The way my job provides for a secure future.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
32. The chance to make as much money a my friends.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
33. The physical surroundings where I work.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
34. The chance for getting ahead in this position.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
35. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
36. The chance to develop close friendships with my co-workers.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
37. The chance to make decisions on my own.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
38. The way I get full credit for the work I do.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
39. Being able to take pride in a job well done.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
40. Being able to do something much of the time.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
41. The chance to help others.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
42. The chance to try something different.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
43. Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
44. The chance to be alone on the job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
45. The routine in my work.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
46. The chance to supervise other people.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
47. The chance to make use of my best abilities.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
48. The chance to “rub elbows” with important people.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
49. The way employees are informed about school system policies.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
50. The way my supervisor backs employees up with the administration.....	_____	_____	_____	_____

PLEASE CONTINUE ON BACK

Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?

- VS means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.
- S means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.
- DS means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.
- VDS means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about...	VDS	DS	S	VS
51. The way my job provides for steady employment.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
52. How my pay compares with that for similar positions in other School systems.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
53. The pleasantness of the working conditions.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
54. The way promotions are given out in this position.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
55. The way my supervisor delegates work to staff members.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
56. The friendliness of my co-workers.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
57. The chance to be responsible for the work of others.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
58. The recognition I get for the work I do.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
59. Being able to do something worthwhile.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
60. Being able to stay busy.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
61. The chance to do things for other people.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
62. The chance to develop new and better ways to do the job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
63. The chance to do things that don't harm other people.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
64. The chance to work independently of others.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
65. The chance to do something different every day.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
66. The chance to tell people what to do.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
67. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
68. The chance to be important in the eyes of others.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
69. The way school system policies are put into practice.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
70. The way my supervisor takes care of complaints brought up by employees.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
71. How steady my job is.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
72. My pay and the amount of work I do.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
73. The physical working conditions of the job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
74. The chances for advancement in this position.....	_____	_____	_____	_____

PLEASE CONTINUE ON BACK

Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?

VS means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.

S means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.

DS means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

VDS means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about...		VDS	DS	S	VS
75.	The way my supervisor provides help on hard problems.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
76.	The way my co-workers are easy to make friends with.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
77.	The freedom to use my own judgement.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
78.	The way they usually tell me when I do my job well.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
79.	The chance to do my best at all times.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
80.	The chance to be “on the go” all the time.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
81.	The chance to be of some small service to other people.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
82.	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
83.	The chance to do the job without feeling I am cheating anyone.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
84.	The chance to do work away from others.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
85.	The chance to do many different things on the job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
86.	The chance to tell others what to do.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
87.	The chance to make use of my abilities and skills.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
88.	The chance to have a definite place in the community.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
89.	The way the school system treats its employees.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
90.	The personal relationship between any supervisor and his/her employees.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
91.	The way layoffs and transfers are avoided in my job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
92.	How my pay compares with that of other school counselors.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
93.	The working conditions.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
94.	My chances for advancement.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
95.	The way my supervisor trains employees.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
96.	The way my co-workers get along with each other.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
97.	The responsibility of my job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
98.	The praise I get for doing a good job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
99.	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
100.	Being able to keep busy all the time.....	_____	_____	_____	_____

VITA

Doris Skeen DeMato is a life-long native of Virginia. She currently lives in Forest, Virginia. In addition to working as a full-time elementary school counselor, she works as a counselor in private practice a few evenings during the week.

She received a B. S. degree from the University of Virginia's College at Wise in 1977. She received a M. S. degree from Radford University in 1980 and a M. Ed. degree from Lynchburg College in 1991. Since completing her undergraduate degree, she has worked in the public schools as both a counselor and teacher for 21 years.

In addition to holding a Postgraduate Professional License, she is a Licensed Professional Counselor, a Licensed Marriage and Family Therapist, and a National Certified Counselor. She was selected for a Chi Sigma Iota fellowship in 1993 and voted Educator of the Year at her school in 1998. Additionally, she was selected as Educator of the Year by the local Chamber of Commerce in 1999.

She is a member of various national, state, and local associations. Among those are the American Counseling Association, American School Counselor Association, Virginia Counselors Association, Virginia School Counselor Association, and Lynchburg Area Counselors Association.