Comparing work values of students within the general education system to those of students within the special education system: A Review of the differences

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Comparing work values of students within the general education system to those of students within the special education system: A review of the differences

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May 18th, 2010

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

*General Overview and Background*

Work values of high school and college-aged students are essential to study as these ideals directly influence subsequent career satisfaction as adults. Work values manifest throughout formal education and students must be aware of these personal standards in order to appropriately determine the rewards they seek through an occupation. Without an appropriate development of this understanding, research suggests that one’s overall occupational success may be hindered (Porfeli, 2007). Students often choose an occupation and/or major in college resulting from their value orientations concerning work related goals and rewards. Adolescents generally hold high expectations concerning future rewards derived through work, which is directly related to personal fulfillment and consent as adults. To avoid disappointment and career uncertainty, it is essential to understand the values one holds and the rewards they desire to obtain through their occupational choice (Johnson, 2002).

Although current literature addresses the importance of work values, few examine the impact they superimpose throughout the course of one’s career. Even less research exists concerning work values of students with disabilities. It is essential to recognize differences in the manifestation of work values across students with and without disabilities, as occupational choice is a decision that impacts the entirety of one’s life. This study examines the differences individuals maintain concerning work values across two age groups: high school students and college-aged emerging adults. Furthermore, it compares the work values developed during high school for students enrolled in the general education system to those in the special education system, or students with an identified disability. This study also compares how work values
Comparing work values change during the transition from adolescence into emerging adulthood. Work values manifested in emerging adults attending a private, technical university who were enrolled in general education during high school are compared to work values of those students who were enrolled in special education during high school. Work values are first defined, followed by a literature review discussing work values, gender differences, and career trajectories across both high school students and those within the emerging adulthood transition.

Definition of Terms

Work Values: Enduring personal beliefs individuals develop that influence work behavior. These serve as the foundation underlying career choice and guide work conduct. These values are met through the rewards one obtains in the course of his or her occupation. The rewards, for the purposes of this study, include: intrinsic, altruistic, social, security, influence, and leisure.

General Education: Students in the general education setting who are not classified as having an educational disability.

Special Education: Students in the general education setting who are classified under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 2004 or Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973.

Delimitations of the Study

The body of literature and opportunity for further research is vast as it pertains to work value development in adolescents. Delimitation exists as all current information available to relay regarding work values is beyond the scope of the present study. Since work plays a large role for the majority of society, it is a highly researched construct. The research obtainable is vast and highly variable concerning this topic. As a result, the information presented in the
current study was sculpted to reveal the purpose of the present research at hand in regard to work values. A further delimitation of this study is that participants were taken from a sample of convenience. Participants were voluntary and there was no control for socioeconomic status, gender, or geographical location. Moreover, the college students with a disability in the emerging adult population that participated were self–identified as having an Autism Spectrum Disorder. This limits the results being generalized across the emerging adult population of students with an identified disability. Furthermore, it is acknowledged that the sample of participants for this study was small and cannot be considered a random selection of the entire population of interest as it consists only of those individuals who volunteered to participate. The findings of this study may not be able to be generalized beyond these parameters and the purpose for which this study was intended.
CHAPTER TWO

Review of the Literature

The significance one places on his or her career individually differs according to the work values he or she has developed. Occupations are often chosen resulting from individual goals and the rewards derived (Johnson, 2002). In the course of schooling, students encounter a variety of potential career choices and occupational paths. A professional course is often chosen as students advance through formal education and subsequently develop into young, working adults. Choices made during this development concerning work values and occupational decisions exert influence throughout the entirety of one’s life. Research suggests that inconsistent work values lead to unfulfilling careers. An essential milestone in the progression of occupational maturity is the development of a comprehensive, firm value system. Stability in this system leads to occupational satisfaction as goals are attainable and values are consistent (Lindsey & Knox, 1984; Porfeli, 2007). A consistent change in careers impedes one’s overall occupational success and satisfaction. When one maintains an understanding of his or her work values, a career consistent with his or her values is more likely to result, which therefore leads one to accomplish desired outcomes relating to his or her career (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007a; Johnson). It is, as a result, essential to research work values and the influence these ideals maintain across one’s occupational progression.

The effects gender maintains on work values across men and women are well established in current literature (Beutel & Marini, 1995; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007a; Herzog, 1982; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Rottinghaus & Zytowski, 2006; Skorikov & Vondracek, 1997). As a result, the construct of gender and the influence it asserts is essential to understand. Due to the differences gender maintains, it is theorized that a variety of individual differences experienced through
formal education may also present as a significant variable when assessing work values. One such individual difference may be the curriculum taken. More specifically, students in the special education curriculum, regardless of gender, may differ from those in the general educational curriculum. Variables that effect the development and maintenance of work values must be examined to determine which are significant and, therefore, which exert consequences that influence an individual to choose particular career paths.

The differences in how work values impact individuals with and without disabilities are essential to study. Individuals with disabilities experience significantly lower employment rates than those without disabilities. In 2006, an estimated 22,382,000 of the 172,961,000 individuals in the United States within working age reported at least one disability. This suggests that as a whole, 12.9 percent of all individuals between 21 and 64 years of age have one or more disabilities. This is a significant portion of American citizens. However, of all American’s with a disability, only 36.9 percent are actively employed in full–time jobs. In comparison, the United States employment rate for individuals without disabilities is 79.7 percent (Houtenville, 2006). The noteworthy gap between these two populations suggests the need for additional research on individuals with disabilities and characteristics relating to employment. Work values are therefore important to examine, as they assist individuals with the appropriate exploration of occupational paths.

Work Values and the General Education System

Work values serve as a base for choosing a career (Judge & Bretz, 1992). These values influence the work force by providing a standard to judge activities to participate in and goals to work toward (Davis, 1999). Individuals maintain differences by adhering and connecting to work values with varying degrees. Research explains that individuals who perceive the chance
to achieve and satisfy personal work values through their occupation prescribe increased importance to their job and, as a result, perform required duties with increased accuracy (Sverko, 1989). Furthermore, it is understood that values individuals maintain prior to entering the workforce influence the satisfaction they will search for and derive as employees. As individuals seek out career opportunities, work values inspire and motivate them to make occupational decisions (Johnson, 2002). Work values shape career paths and provide direction and motivation when assessing career opportunities. As a whole, work values serve as the foundation for individuals choosing a career: a decision that will ultimately impact and maintain influence upon their future.

Seven key domains serve to define and assesses work values for the purposes of this study; extrinsic, intrinsic, altruistic, social, security, influence, and leisure. These domains for evaluating occupational ideals are documented and utilized in empirical research studies that directly assess and measure work values (Herzog, 1982; Johnson, 2002; Marini, Fan, Finley, & Beutel, 1996). To accurately recognize the construct of work values and how they influence occupational choice, a more thorough understanding must be developed for these seven key domains. Extrinsic work values refer to influential resources that are obtained through rote performance of work demands. They promote reaching goals through status attainment and social recognition. Salary and income, prestige and power, as well as advancement and respect all represent rewards within the extrinsic domain (Herzog; Johnson). Intrinsic work values are self-challenging and embedded in completing the actual work assigned. They describe one’s interest in the meaning of work and concern for the nature of it. Rewards are derived from using one’s skills and abilities, seeing and observing results, learning new things, and being creative (Johnson; Marini et al.). Altruistic work values focus on selfless qualities including helping
Comparing work values

others and performing tasks that are meaningful and beneficial for society. Rewards are derived from directly servicing others. Social work values are interpersonally based and originate from personal contact with others in the community, as well as making friends through work tasks. Through working with others, rewards are obtained and goals are met (Johnson). Security refers to those work values that provide a predictable future and geographic stability. Rewards are acquired by the comfort these values provide to the employee. Influence as a work value suggests that an individual is able to participate in decision making and problem solving. Being challenged on the job, as well as respected when judgments must be made, provide rewarding consequences. Work values associated with leisure indicate the amount of time one’s job demands to perform, as well as the pace required to complete it. Rewards occur through vacation allotted, time left spent to perform non-work related activities, and self supervision (Herzog; Johnson).

Work values help to explain the varying career trajectories and goals individuals maintain. It is important to be aware of and recognize differences between individual work values and the impact they exert when one is choosing an occupation.

*High school students*

The work value system is often discussed as a theoretical model that involves a dynamic relationship among values. An individual who develops a consistent and reliable value system during vocational development will experience increased ease with making career choices in comparison to those who have not. This value system will serve as a guide concerning present-oriented and future-oriented functioning and behavior (Boldero & Francis, 2002). Overall, a value system consists of existing standard oriented values, or present orientation, and goal oriented values, or future orientation. When discrepancies exist between these two values,
individual dissatisfaction prompts value modifications. Individuals who act consistently and set
goals to reach a desired state within their occupational development portray well-developed
value systems (Porfeli, 2007).

As students enter high school this value system has begun to develop. Eric J. Porfeli
(2007) explains that even prior to high school a work values system has commenced. It is
necessary to decrease discrepancies between values before one is able to effectively unify them,
which ideally occurs throughout high school. It is proposed that students who develop this value
system during high school are more likely to maintain similar values across their life spans and
experience increased satisfaction when deriving rewards from work, as they are aligned with
their existing work values (Porfeli).

Most often this stable system of work values begin to emerge as adolescents experience
the work force through part–time jobs held after school and on weekends. More than half of all
adolescent students, ninth grade through twelfth grade, have substantial work experience defined
as between 10 and 20 hours of work per week (Mortimer, Pimentel, Ryu, Nash, & Lee, 1996;
Skorikov & Vondracek, 1997). Work experience does appear to influence career ideals,
particularly intrinsic and extrinsic work values (Mortimer et al.). When working adolescents are
compared to their non–working counterparts, it is indicated that work values for the working
adolescents are rated more important and are more stable across time. Early part–time
experience in the work force also facilitates adolescents’ movement into occupational adulthood
by the “development of a more self-centered, realistic, performance–oriented system of values”
(Skorikov & Vondracek, p. 231). Although many benefits exist from experience with part–time
work while in high school, it is important to note that hours worked must be limited to provide
social and extracurricular opportunities adolescents require. Nonetheless, the competence model
of part–time jobs is supported throughout research. These jobs provide opportunities for adolescents’ to attain beliefs, make lifestyle changes, and acquire knowledge that improves their experiences as adult employees (Mortimer et al.). Adolescents are able to explore work related interests and values through part–time early work experience (Johnson, 2002).

Industrialized societies often observe a relative over-ambition of youth, such as adolescent’s maintaining aspirations that are unrealistic in nature. Work goals are rated highly and work rewards are deemed extremely important, which directly impact career values in the entered workforce. According to Johnson (2002), youth may experience lower levels of general well being when they attain jobs that are less attractive than they predicted they would achieve. This implies that work values are dynamic and changing as students mature throughout school and, therefore, need to be addressed. Maintaining appropriate work values as students’ enter the work force is essential (Johnson). Research suggests that large gaps exist between students setting priorities for work and actually attaining them once they enter into their careers, especially concerning implicit and explicit work rewards and priorities (Cochran, 1983).

Although early decisions during high school impact a student’s career choice, it cannot be assumed that what an individual states is important will actually play a part in choosing a career. Students require direction in this important decision making progress and must be aware of the significance early decisions have on later occupational consequences. It is essential for research to be conducted in this field in order to assure understanding of the impact work values maintain on later success and overall content within an individual’s place of employment (Cochran; Johnson; Porfeli, 2007).

A variety of variables affect the work values that youth maintain, from when the system begins to develop, to part–time work experience during high school, to one’s relative level of
ambition and drive during this period of life (Johnson, 2002; Mortimer et al., 1996; Porfeli, 2007). Johnson conducted a study to identify adolescent work values and the source that these values are derived from specifically concerning social origin and experience. The results suggest that adolescents attach immense importance to work rewards, which may be explained from youth’s tendency to hold high expectations and ambitions for themselves during the teenage years. Overall, when assessed as high school seniors, participants in this study rated intrinsic work rewards the most important. This implies that when choosing a career individuals desire a position where results are visible, the employee uses self-developed skills and abilities, and new skills and expertise are acquired on the job.

Furthermore, participants valued a job that was not only interesting, but allowed for the employee to use creativity. Next, the participants valued security, or predictability of a career, and altruism, or helping others and completing work that is meaningful to society (Herzog, 1982; Johnson, 2002; Marini et al., 1996). Social rewards, or interpersonal opportunities, and extrinsic rewards, or salary and power, were rated next in importance (Johnson, 2002). These findings suggest that previous literature conclusions that report adolescents highly value this extrinsic, influential aspect of work may not adequately describe the current value trajectories individuals in the teenage years are experiencing (Cochran, 1983; Herzog; McNearney & Coleman, 1998). Values rated as least important by high school seniors include influence, or decision making, and lastly leisure, or the time a job demands from an individual (Johnson). In essence, the work values of high school seniors are well supported throughout current literature in the field.

*Emerging adults*

As students transition from high school to the world of work, experience often causes career values to change significantly (Johnson, 2002). This period of development, emerging
adulthood, is characterized by career exploration through education, similar to high school, as well as by experience in one’s desired field of work through the acquisition of a full–time job, internship, or career related activity. Through surveying adults it was found that the vast majority name events during this time period that had the most impact on their entire lives (Martin & Smyer, 1990). Life choices made during this period of development have lasting implications and therefore this age group is essential to research concerning work values.

The major change that occurs during the development into emerging adults is related to the motivational shift in reasons for working. Adolescents work primarily to make money to enjoy leisure pursuits, whereas emerging adults must work to build a base for a future. However, it is important to note that although monetary benefits are the primary reason why adolescents work during their teenage years, it does not correspond to the career values they maintain concerning occupational choice in the future (Porfeli, 2007). This transition primarily occurs due to character qualities related to the need to be financially independent, responsible, and self sufficient, which are largely due to demographic variables concerning finishing school, starting a career and maintaining a stable residence (Arnett, 2002). Emerging adulthood is a time of distinct career exploration separate from both adolescence and young adulthood.

Characteristics within a job reinforce previously existing values and have a profound impact on an employee’s occupational assessment as a whole. Work values maintain significant power on decision making for those emerging adults just entering into college. University freshman ranked the most important work value being intrinsic, followed by income and extrinsic rewards, and then contributions to society (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007b). As emerging adults obtain increased levels of education, measured through courses taken at an institution of higher learning, the intrinsic rewards associated with work begin to develop into stronger values
Comparing work values  

in comparison to individuals who work directly out of high school. This phenomenon may be explained through the theory that people with increased educational levels tend to obtain jobs with more self direction and ideational content (Lindsay & Knox, 1984). This may also be associated with prestige, as increased education is positively correlated with values concerning opportunities for advancement and overall respect from society (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007a).

The overall rating of extrinsic work rewards decreases as educational attainment advances, which implies that university students value extrinsic rewards less as they attain the skills and abilities to obtain an occupation during college. However, as one obtains more education, the chances for greater rewards concerning both extrinsic and intrinsic ideals increases. Although emerging adults with increased levels of education begin to value intrinsic rewards more, extrinsic rewards often naturally follow. This implies that although extrinsic rewards are rated less important, it may be a result of the decreased attention they gain as they are acquired without active pursuit (Lindsay & Knox, 1984). Nonetheless, research suggests students may place increased emphasis on intrinsic rewards and overall independence and less on making money and being employed in a field commonly known as prestigious. As trends were examined across time, an inverse relationship emerged: as intrinsic rewards became more important, extrinsic rewards became less important. A consistent trend emerged as participants emphasized the importance in working at a job that coincides with their interests and provides the opportunity to serve others, and significantly de–emphasized the importance of salary and acquired prestige (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007b).

As emerging adults enter the work force, work values continue to influence decisions one makes about accepting a proposed job offer. Nonetheless, it is important to note that work values are individually specific and the combination of the importance of each work value varies
Comparing work values

across each employee. Characteristics that appear to influence job choice the most include the opportunity for achievement, a concern for others, and an honest and fair work environment. These characteristics significantly correspond to intrinsic work values. Pay and the chance for promotion, essentially extrinsic work rewards, also influenced job choice decisions, however, to a lesser degree. Work values best predict if an emerging adult will accept a proposed job offer, which implies that individuals continue to seek careers that closely match individual work values (Judge & Bretz, 1992).

Longitudinal comparison of emerging adult’s work values, in contrast to values developed during adolescence, display that important standards jobs maintain do continue to change over time. A relative instability in occupational expectations as individuals transition out of high school is prevalent, as only a minority of individuals accurately are able to anticipate the occupation and career principles they hold after several years in the job market (Rindfuss, Cooksey, & Sutterlin, 1999). Although intrinsic value formation appears to remain relatively stable, the importance of security within a career significantly increases. Furthermore, the influence one maintains within a job becomes increasingly important during the transition from adolescence to emerging adulthood. As individuals mature and become self-sufficient, the concept of predictability and opportunity for growth within a job becomes increasingly important. Extrinsic rewards, however, experience a significant decrease in rated importance, as well as altruistic rewards and social opportunities (Johnson, 2002). These results suggest that career values continue to change from adolescence to adulthood. It is essential to continue studying work values during this prominent period of development, as career satisfaction depends on a stable manifestation of occupational ideals. Making the transition from college student to employee is a significant change experienced throughout one’s life (Rindfuss et al.).
Gender Effects on Work Values

High school students

A longitudinal study, beginning in the early 1970’s and continuing into the early 1990’s, displays fundamental differences in value orientation across adolescent males and females. Overall, adolescent females demonstrate increased compassion for others. They value finding purpose and meaning in the activities that they participate in more than do adolescent males. On the other hand, material items and general competition are valued highly by males. Interestingly, as a whole, social support is equally important to both genders (Beutel & Marini, 1995). These values significantly impact the value system that adolescents attach to work aspirations and morals.

Women and men historically have worked in different types of occupations. Women were most prevalent in clerical positions, sales, service, and some professional jobs such as nursing, social work, and teaching. Men were commonly established in occupations such as an owner/manager of a business operation, a craftsman, or a professional job requiring an advanced degree (Herzog, 1982). This research suggested that men and women essentially chose jobs to satisfy needs that were gender specific and, therefore, the difference in occupational preference emerged (Woodworth, 1981 as cited in Herzog). Not only differences in the nature of work completed across genders existed, but a gap concerning equal compensation and equal access to jobs was evident. As more women entered the workplace during this time the trend appeared to decrease, however, significant differences in these essential occupational components continued to exist throughout the later 1970’s into the early 1980’s (Herzog). Developing occupational values and meeting those needs through one’s career was emerging as an essential component in meeting life goals maintained by both men and women at that time in history (Lueptow, 1980).
Comparing work values

Research suggests that before adolescents entered the work force, they maintained different self expectations solely dependent upon gender. Significant differences existed between women’s expectations of career positions in comparison to men’s expectations. Furthermore, gender effects regarding occupational values were prominent. Women displayed strong values concerning interpersonal and altruistic rewards, as they presented a need to work with and help others through their career (Herzog, 1982). Women were apt to choose a career where not only the work was stimulating, but an opportunity for creativity and self actualization existed (Lueptow, 1980). Men appeared to value the material, extrinsic rewards a job offered, as well as the amount of leisure time that was available. They desired independent supervision, an aspiration to maintain a position of leadership, and the opportunity for adventure throughout their career. Overall different priorities existed for both men and women when choosing an occupation (Herzog; Lueptow).

Gender continues to influence career values and occupational choice in current research; however, significant changes in value orientation continue to emerge. In comparison to literature documented throughout history, males today are valuing intrinsic rewards more, in comparison to extrinsic values in which they are tending to place less emphasis upon (Marini et al., 1996; Skorikov & Vondracek, 1997). Nonetheless, the opportunity to be independent, extrinsic rewards, such as income, and creativity are most important to males (Rottinghaus & Zytowski, 2006). Money and extrinsic rewards are continued to be valued as slightly more important by males; however, the perceived gap is notably decreasing as the gender differences are no longer significantly discrepant. Overall, females tend to value more of the similar aspects of occupational ideals that males maintain, such as extrinsic rewards and the desire to maintain an imperative, influential occupational position. It is important to note, however, that male’s values
Comparing work values

Concerning work are not converging to become more similar to females; instead female’s values are unifying to become more analogous to males (Marini et al.).

Intrinsic, altruistic, and social rewards are focused on more predominately by females where as males have much more of an emphasis on leisure time. Women tend to value achievement, the overall environment of the work place, interactions and social relationships with co–workers, as well as prestige more than males in an occupational field (Marini et al., 1996). This is discrepant from earlier literature in which males valued status attainment and reputation more importantly than females (Herzog, 1982; Lueptow, 1980). Recent literature suggests that women tend to rank occupations with a communication base as the most desired position, whereas men display the most interest in either mechanical positions or jobs associated with the outdoors and nature. Furthermore, women rank jobs concerning business operations and social/personal services higher than males do; however, males maintain a prominent interest in sales and/or management, as well as science and technical occupations (Rottinghaus & Zytowski, 2006).

Overall, it is apparent that girls develop increasingly complex career values and ideals at an earlier age than boys, which is a primary explanation for gender differences manifested at the high school level. This, however, does not account for the entirety of differences that exist. Therefore, it is assumed that gender plays a significant role in the assessment and development of career values (Rottinghaus & Zytowski, 2006). As a whole, women tend to experience increased job dissatisfaction as they enter the work place due to their tendency to place augmented general and personal value on work than males. It may at times be difficult for females to meet all of their work value needs through their occupation (Marini et al., 1996). As a whole the differences in gender and occupational values across time have become stable.
characteristics that adolescents encounter when choosing a career path to pursue (Mortimer et al., 1996; Rottinghaus & Zytowski).

*Emerging adults*

Similar to the adolescent population, gender is a significant influence that impacts job choice decisions and values among the emerging adulthood population. Males continue to value the extrinsic rewards of work. Nonetheless, research documents that as women within the emerging adulthood transition enter the work place, extrinsic job rewards tend to increase slightly. Therefore, this begins to lessen the gap between gender differences and monetary rewards desired. Furthermore, advanced education is a significant variable that impacts individuals within this population. Although males are more likely to obtain educationally more advanced degrees relating to occupation, throughout time the trend continues to decrease as the gap between educational attainment and gender declines (Lindsay & Knox, 1984). Overall, women display more advanced social values and derive the need to meet these ideals through their occupation. It is proposed that women are socialized more to enter careers that contribute to the greater population and include working with others more than males. Furthermore, men may be socialized to place increased emphasis on earnings and extrinsic goals and, as a result, tend to value these ideals more (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007a). Nonetheless, males and females within the emerging adult population, as similar to the adolescent population, value and rank intrinsic rewards most importantly across both gender (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007b). An interesting difference between gender remains that men are more likely to accept a proposed career offer, which supports evidence that men tend not to look toward their occupation to meet their needs and overall developed work values (Judge & Bretz, 1992).
Comparing work values

The aforementioned gender differences that maintain influence over work values and career choice suggest the need to study variables that may impact essential components adolescents and emerging adults interact with when choosing an occupation. As a result, the current study addresses the differences in educational experience individuals encounter throughout high school. Work values of adolescent students enrolled in special education tracts are compared to the current known literature concerning high school education students and work values. Furthermore, work values of emerging adults attending a four–year public university are compared to determine the effects of enrollment in general education and special education during high school.

Legal Aspects Concerning Students in Special Education and Transition Plans

The gender effects of differences in work values suggest that extraneous variables continue to maintain their effects on the development of occupational ideals. It is suggested, as a result, that the variable of enrollment in either the general education system or the special education system will have significant impacts on the development of work values. The Education of All Handicapped Children Act (Public Law 94-142) was passed in 1975, which entitled every child with a disability “Free and Appropriate Public Education (FAPE)” within the “Least Restrictive Environment (LRE)” (Blau, 2007, p.2). In 1990, this Act was amended and cited as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (Public Law 101-476). On June 4th, 1997, The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Amendments were signed into law. This law served to manage special education through “funding streams, assessment and instructional practices, regulations, eligibility criteria, development of student individualized education programs (IEP), and due process” (Levine & Wagner, 2007a, p. 243). This enhanced the academic expectations and accountability for children with disabilities in the United States. The
act was designed to “bridge the gap” between special and general education requirements and curriculum (The Individuals, 1997, para. 2). On December 3rd, 2004 the reauthorized Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA) was signed into law by President George W. Bush. Under Part B of the IDEIA, children and youth (ages 3–21) receive special education and related services. This ensures that children with disabilities throughout the nation receive appropriate assistance. IDEIA ensures that practitioners focus on student achievement and design interventions based on empirically based evidence. Furthermore, the Act mandates that students with disabilities are included in general education to the maximum extent appropriate and possible (United States Department of Education, n.d.). Moreover, protections for students with disabilities exist under Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. Amendments to this Act were written into law in 1992. This Act states that individuals with disabilities in the United States will not be “excluded from, denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under” programs that receive compensation from the federal government (United States Department of Justice, 2005).

Under IDEIA regulations for secondary transitions are mandated for all students with a disability. School systems are required to write Individualized Education Plan (IEP’s) for each child classified with a disability under the Act. This Plan must be developed by a team of individuals including; the child’s teacher(s), the child’s parent(s) and/or legal guardian(s), the child if appropriate, and an agency representative. Transition services must be provided in a student’s IEP “beginning not later than the first IEP to be in effect when the student is age 15 (and at a younger age, if determined appropriate)” (The New York State, 2007, p.42). These transition services must be updated annually and include:
Comparing work values

(a) “a statement of the student’s needs, taking into account the student’s strengths, preferences and interests, as they relate to transition from school to post–school activities
(b) appropriate measurable postsecondary goals based upon age appropriate transition assessments relating to training, education, employment, and where appropriate, independent living skills
(c) a statement of the transition service needs of the student that focuses on the student’s course of study
(d) needed activities to facilitate the student’s movement from school to post-school activities
(e) a statement of the responsibilities of the school district … for the provision of such services and activities that promote movement from school to post-school opportunities, or both, before the student leaves the school setting” (The New York State, 2007, p. 42).

As students transition from secondary and post-secondary education into the world of work, Title I of the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 provide protections for individuals with disabilities from discrimination against “qualified individuals with disabilities in job application procedures, hiring, firing, advancement, compensation, job training, and other terms, conditions, and privileges of employment” (Department of Justice, 2005, para. 3). On September 25th, 2008, President George W. Bush signed into law, effective January 1st, 2009, the Americans with Disabilities Act Amendments Act of 2008. This Act changes the way in which the term disability must be interpreted and “emphasizes that the definition of disability should be interpreted broadly” (The U.S. Equal Employment, 2008, para. 7).

Work Values and the Special Education System

High school students and emerging adults

Students enrolled in special education continue to demonstrate decreased rates of high school graduation, attendance in post–secondary education, and subsequently college gradation (Leyser & Greenberger, 2008; Madaus, Gerber, & Price, 2008; Rojewski, 1999; Stacey, 2001). A slightly higher rate of obtaining a high–school diploma, or equivalent, exists when comparing men with and men without learning disabilities: an estimated 90 percent of men without learning
disabilities complete high school, whereas 81 percent of men with learning disabilities complete high school. A significant difference exists when comparing women with and women without learning disabilities: nearly 92 percent of women without learning disabilities complete high school, whereas only 68 percent of women with a learning disability complete high school.

Concerning attendance in post–secondary education, approximately 30 percent of men with learning disabilities are enrolled, whereas over 50 percent of men without learning disabilities are enrolled. Women without learning disabilities are twice as likely to attend college in comparison to women with learning disabilities (Rojewski, 1999). Moreover, unemployment rates of individuals with disabilities continue to exceed the amount of unemployment rates of individuals without disabilities (Goldberg, 1989; Rojewski; Stacey, 2001). Men without learning disabilities are four times more likely to be employed two years following the completion of high school than men with learning disabilities. Unemployment for women with learning disabilities is four times greater than unemployment for women without learning disabilities. Furthermore, women with learning disabilities are almost six times as likely to be unemployed than their male peers with learning disabilities (Rojewski). It is, as a result, vital to plan for the transition of students with disabilities for either employment following graduation or post–secondary schooling. This will assist in closing the gap concerning under employment and decreased high school and college graduations of students with learning disabilities. However, to successfully plan for the transition of students with disabilities, an understanding of work values must be developed. Research examining work values of students with disabilities is limited and, therefore, additional studies must be conducted to examine this vital feature.
Foremost, individuals with disabilities must maintain realistic goals and an understanding of how their disability will continue to impact their lives as they develop work values and vocational plans. Adolescents with disabilities tend to overestimate their abilities and therefore misjudge their skills with performing a job–related task. This suggests that adolescents may not have developed an understanding of how their disability may impact them while in an occupational field (Goldberg, 1989). If an individual with a disability does not reveal this in the workplace, he or she is not entitled to any protection against discrimination or accommodations provided by the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (Madaus et al., 2008). As a result, during high school, it is vital for students with disabilities to receive formal education and training with exhibiting independence in transitioning to the world of work. It is important to address self–determination skills, or the control over choices made concerning life decisions. Students must take responsibility for their future and plan for the transition from either high school to work, or from high school to secondary education, with guided assistance. Through this students will be taught to appropriately advocate for themselves, state their opinions and desires, make individual decisions, and motivate themselves to progress (Levine & Wagner, 2007b).

Throughout high school students with learning disabilities are supported academically by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act. Teachers are often aware of the student’s disability, primarily through an individual’s Section 504 Plan or Individualized Education Plan (IEP), and are sensitive to their needs and requests. However, when students enter the work force, Section 504 Plans and IEP’s are not available to communicate the supports necessary for them to be successful. As a result, students must have the skills necessary to self–advocate for themselves and clearly explain and ask for appropriate accommodations. This is facilitated by
the Americans with Disabilities Act. However, transitioning from high school to the work place for students with learning disabilities continues to be a struggle for many. Exhibited by these transitions, students with disabilities manifest various concerns when performing in an occupational field including: communicating, relying on verbal and/or math skills to complete a task, advocating their needs, and managing stress. However, when students entered a career that was appropriate to their work morals and personal skills, success resulted (Stacey, 2001). This suggests the relative importance of understanding work values before entering the field of employment. By being aware of and appreciating one’s personal work values, transitioning into an occupation is met with increased ease and acceptance. This further augments the need for research studies concerning work values and students with disabilities.

Of all college students in the United States, it is estimated that between six and nine percent have a classified disability (Leyser & Greenberger, 2008). Vital to enhancing students’ experiences at the university level is faculty understanding of students with disabilities and accommodations that must be offered. One study suggested that as more students with disabilities request accommodations, faculty becomes less willing to provide modifications (Bourke, Strehorn, & Silver, 2000). However, with the increasing number of students with disabilities attending college, accommodations must be made to enhance their experiences. Evidence suggests that faculty are eager to provide accommodations for students with disabilities at post–secondary institutions regardless of the number of requests by students with disabilities for accommodations (Leyser & Greenberger). In general, faculty at the university level must develop an understanding of students with disabilities in order to appropriately accommodate their needs in order to enhance their educational experience. An awareness of the disability laws and the campus support available must exist for professors to make appropriate decisions
Comparing work values

Concerning accommodations. As a result, students will be more prepared when entering the field of work (Bourke et al.).

Seventy-three percent of college graduates with learning disabilities reported that their disability affected their work in some way, either positive or negative. Primarily, this was due to writing and reading abilities, rate of processing, and general organizational skills. However, although nearly two thirds reported this, just over half of the sample disclosed their learning disability to their employers. Nearly 20 percent of the participants reported that they did not report their disability due to concerns about the security of their jobs. Furthermore, nearly 60 percent reported not disclosing due to the perceived negative impact their disability may have on their relationship with their supervisor and/or their co–workers. As a result, individuals with disabilities in the work place set individual goals, in addition to going into work early and staying late rather than requesting accommodations (Madaus, 2008). This study may suggest that as a whole, individuals with disabilities develop work values that tend be used to compensate for their disability. Extrinsic values are developed through goal setting and social values are enhanced by positively interacting with co–workers within the work environment (Herzog, 1982). Individuals with disabilities hide, or cover–up, their limitations in order to develop a sense of security and maintain influence by sustaining an equal playing field to their counter–parts on the job (Johnson, 2002).

Work values developed within the special education population of high school students and emerging adults must be researched to provide evidence of the manifestation of work values prior to job entry. Current research does not address work values in those high school students or emerging adults with disabilities and, therefore, research must be conducted in this area. Furthermore, the values developed by those within the special education setting must be
compared to those developed by individuals within the general education setting. This will determine if significant differences in work value development exists. The addressed research will influence practicing career transition specialists and school psychologists in providing appropriate education and assistance to those students graduating from high school with disabilities.

**Rationale of the Present Study**

Individuals with disabilities continue to demonstrate under employment throughout the nation when compared to individuals without disabilities. By expanding the literature in the field of work values concerning individuals with disabilities, increased understanding of the rewards those with disabilities seek through careers will result. The following study researches the difference in work values between high school students in special education and compares the results to current research documenting the work values of high school students in general education (Boldero & Francis, 2002; Johnson, 2002; Porfeli, 2007). Furthermore, information is obtained from students enrolled in a technical institute located in the north-eastern United States, which explains work values in the emerging adult population of individuals both with and without disabilities. Students with disabilities will be compared to students without disabilities to determine if significant differences exist concerning work values. The current study addresses the following research questions:

- How do work values in high school adolescents with disabilities compare to work values of college aged students with disabilities?
- How do work values in high school adolescents with disabilities differ from work values of those high school students without disabilities?
How do adolescents with disabilities who transition to college compare to those adolescents without disabilities who transition to college?

Are there mean differences between the work values rated by high school female students with disabilities and high school male students with disabilities?
CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

Participants

In order to investigate the work values of high school students with disabilities, a group of high school age students (grades 9\textsuperscript{th}-12\textsuperscript{th}) who participated in career assessments were utilized. These career assessments focused on school to work and/or high school to college transitions. A total of 20 high school students enrolled in one of either two public suburban high schools in upstate New York participated in this study. These 20 participants ranged in age from 16 to 18 years old. All students were classified under either IDEA 2004 or Section 504 and volunteered to participate in the career assessments. Work values of high school students enrolled in general education were obtained from current published norms.

In order to investigate the work values of college students with and without disabilities, archival data of college aged students enrolled in one private technical university in upstate New York was utilized. These students all ranged in age from 18 to 23 years. Archival data of 10 students with disabilities was used, which was obtained as part of career assessments that were completed under an Autism Spectrum Support Pilot Grant. A total of 30 college students without reported disabilities also completed career assessments as part of another study. This archival data was used to describe work values of college students without disabilities. All students volunteered to participate in the career assessments.

Measures

Work Values. Seven work value domains were measured using an established survey utilized in research by M. K. Johnson (2002). The 22-item questionnaire was based on a Likert Scale of 1 (not important) to 4 (very important). The seven dimensions of the assessed items
Comparing work values were as follows: Extrinsic rewards, Intrinsic rewards, Altruistic rewards, Social rewards, Security, Influence, and Leisure. The structure of the questions asked concerning work values have been supported by “exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses and has demonstrated structural invariance over time” (Johnson). A Measurement of Work Values Score Sheet was designed to determine the average rank of importance concerning the work value each question addressed. The total score for each question concerning each work value was added and then divided by the overall number of questions asked concerning a particular value.

Procedures

Archival data was collected for this project. Work value questionnaires were administered individually to those students with a disability as part of a career assessment grant and an Autism Support Pilot Grant. Those students in the college-aged students without disabilities were administered the Work Value survey in a group format as part of another study. To compensate this voluntary group for their time, a free coupon was administered that awarded each respondent with a free ice cream cone from a local creamery.

Data Collection and Analysis

After the completion of all of the measures administered, the results of the surveys were coded anonymously. This anonymous data was then compiled and SPSS version 14.0 was used to analyze it. Descriptive statistics were run to compare differences between work values of the high school students with disabilities and the emerging adult sample of student with and without disabilities. In addition, Independent Two Sample T-tests were conducted to compare rated work value means of high school students and college-aged students with disabilities, college-aged students with and without disabilities, and high school female students and high school male students with disabilities. Furthermore, Pearson Product Moment Correlations were
computed to examine the relationships among the rated work values in high school students with disabilities.
CHAPTER FOUR

Results

An Independent Two Sample T-Test was utilized to compare high school students with disabilities to college-aged students with disabilities across the seven work value scales. Shown in Table 1 are the means and standard deviations for the seven work value scales for the two groups. No significant mean differences were obtained across any of the seven work value categories: Influence t (31) = -1.76, p ≥ 0.05, Altruistic Rewards t (30) = -0.90, p ≥ 0.05, Social Rewards t (30) = -0.08, p ≥ 0.05, Intrinsic Rewards t (30) = -1.56, p ≥ 0.05, Extrinsic Rewards t (31) = -1.76, p ≥ 0.05, Security t (31) = -0.14, p ≥ 0.05, and Leisure t (30) = -0.06, p ≥ 0.05.

Table 2 illustrates the rank order of all seven work values across both high school students with disabilities and college-aged students with disabilities. The rank order is relatively similar. In fact, Intrinsic Rewards, Security, Extrinsic Rewards, and Altruistic Rewards all ranked identically as the top four most important work values by both groups. Slight deviations regarding the order of the remaining three work values are observed.

College-aged students with disabilities were then compared to college-aged students without disabilities. Displayed in Table 3 are the means and standard deviations of the work values of college-aged students with disabilities compared to college-aged students without disabilities. Significant mean differences were obtained on Altruistic Rewards t (42) = 2.68, p ≥ 0.05; corresponding effect size is d = 0.97, Social Rewards t (42) = 2.38, p ≥ 0.05; corresponding effect size is d = 0.86, and Influence t (45) = 2.55, p ≥ 0.05; corresponding effect size is d = 0.92. This indicates that on the Work Value survey, college-aged students without disabilities rated Altruistic Rewards as significantly more important than college-aged students with disabilities. College aged students without disabilities also rated Social Rewards and Influence as
Comparing work values

significantly more important than college-aged students with disabilities. It is important to note that college-aged students without disabilities tended to rate all work values as more important than college-aged students with disabilities. Significant mean differences were not obtained across the remaining four work value categories. Table 4 depicts the rank order of work values of college-aged students with disabilities and college-aged students without disabilities. Both groups ranked Intrinsic Rewards most importantly. However, security is rated as more important to college-aged students with disabilities than to college-aged students without disabilities. Altruistic Rewards are rate rated as more important to college-aged students without disabilities.

High school male students with disabilities were then compared to high school female students with disabilities. Table 5 displays the means and standard deviations for each of the seven work values rated by high school male and female students with disabilities. One significant mean difference was obtained concerning Intrinsic Rewards, t (20) = -3.29, p ≥ 0.05; corresponding effect size is d = -1.08. This indicates that on the Work Value survey, high school female students with disabilities rated Intrinsic Rewards as significantly more important than high school male students with disabilities did. Table 6 depicts the rank order of work values of high school female students with disabilities and high school male students with disabilities. The rankings of these work values indicate more stability than the variability that occurred when comparing students with and without disabilities. Both high school female and male students with disabilities ranked Intrinsic Rewards most importantly, followed by Security, Extrinsic Rewards, and Altruistic Rewards. High school male students with disabilities rated Influence as more important than high school female students with disabilities. However, high school female students ranked leisure as more important than high school male students with disabilities.
In addition, Table 7 displays the Pearson Correlation between work values rated by high school male and female students with disabilities. Analysis using Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was conducted to determine the quantitative index of relationship between two independent variables. The results indicate that Extrinsic Rewards and Security, \( r (n=35, 34) = 0.61, p \geq 0.05 \), demonstrate no linear relationship. However, a strong positive correlation is indicated. Influence and Intrinsic rewards also demonstrate a strong positive correlation \( r (n=35, 32) = .53, p \geq 0.05 \). Additional strong positive correlations are noted between: Altruistic Rewards and Intrinsic Rewards \( r (n=32, 32) = 0.51, p \geq 0.05 \), and Social Rewards and Intrinsic Rewards \( r (n=32, 32) = 0.52, p \geq 0.05 \).
CHAPTER FIVE
Discussion

An understanding of one’s work values is an essential component to work satisfaction. When one develops this understanding, research indicates more fulfilling careers emerge, that boast attainable goals and consistent, stable values (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007a; Johnson, 2002; Lindsey & Knox, 1984; Porfeli, 2007). Current literature demonstrates well established trends in work values across males and females (Beutel & Marini, 1995; Duffy & Sedlacek; Herzog, 1982; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Rottinghaus & Zytowski, 2006; Skorikov & Vondracek, 1997). After fully understanding the impact the construct of gender maintains on the development of work values, it is theorized that additional constructs may also exert influence on the development of work values in high school and college-aged students. This study addressed the differences in work value development as a result of the curriculum taken in high school. More specifically, it was hypothesized that the work values of students enrolled in the special education curriculum significantly differ from those in the general educational curriculum.

As a whole, the work values of high school students with disabilities and the work values of college-aged students with disabilities are not significantly different. This indicates that when students are enrolled in analogous curricula, work values remain fairly similar. In addition, the transition from high school to college does not significantly change student’s ratings of work values. High school and college-aged students with disabilities rate Intrinsic Rewards as the most important work value. Both high school and college-aged students with disabilities desire most to be personally challenged by their occupational position. They want to use their skills to directly observe successful outcomes, while learning novel things (Johnson, 2002; Marini et al., 1996). This conclusion is supported by past research, which also found that high school students
rated Intrinsic Rewards as most important. The construct of a disability was not controlled for in these past research studies. This suggests that high school students, both with and without disabilities, continue to rate Intrinsic Rewards as the most important value to consider when choosing a career. As a result, it is hypothesized that individuals who choose careers that offer the opportunity to use self-developed skills and acquire expertise on the job may be more satisfied by their career choice (Herzog, 1982; Johnson; Marini et al.). The ratings of the following work values assessed by the current study were similarly ranked: Security, Extrinsic Rewards, and Altruistic Rewards. Past research results specify that high school seniors also highly value careers that are predictable, or secure and stable. However, the ability to help others and contribute to society was rated more importantly in past literature than in the current research study (Johnson; Marini et al.). In addition, although the current research study indicates that Extrinsic Rewards are rated relatively important, recent literature supports the theory that the importance of Extrinsic Rewards are changing and do not maintain the influence that past research suggests. It is essential to continue studying the impact Extrinsic Rewards maintain across high school and college-aged students in order to best understand this changing value’s power (Cochran, 1983; Herzog; McNearney & Coleman, 1998).

College-aged students with disabilities rated Leisure as more important than high school students with disabilities. In addition, both college-aged and high school students rated Leisure as more important than high school students in past research. This suggests that the construct of college maintains an impact on the development of one’s appreciation for allotted vacation and self supervision on the job. In addition, students with disabilities may value Leisure more than students without disabilities (Herzog, 1982; Johnson, 2002). However, the least important work value for high school students with disabilities in the current research study was Social Rewards.
Influence was rated as slightly more important for high school students than college-aged students with disabilities, yet was still a value that was not rated with high significance.

In addition, the results indicate that high school students with disabilities value Influence more than college-aged students with disabilities. It may be more moderately more important for high school students with disabilities to have the opportunity to achieve respect and positions of authority on the job than their college-aged counterparts (Herzog, 1982; Johnson, 2002). In addition, Altruistic Rewards were ranked more importantly for high school students with disabilities. This suggests that high school students with disabilities value directly servicing others moderately more than college-aged students with disabilities (Johnson). However, it is important to note that no statistically significant differences in work values resulted when high school students with disabilities were compared with college-aged students with disabilities.

Nonetheless, significant differences in rated work value importance were obtained when comparing college-aged students with disabilities to college-aged students without disabilities. This suggests that the overall curriculum taken does exert significant impact on the development of work values. Rewards that focus on selfless qualities, or Altruistic Rewards, were rated as significantly more important for college-aged students without disabilities than for college-aged students with disabilities. As a result, college-aged students without disabilities may be more likely to be employed in positions that focus on helping others and bettering society, such as a position in the field of public service (Johnson, 2002). In addition, college-aged students without disabilities indicate that it is important to be in an occupation that allows them to work and develop interpersonal relationships with others. Students without disabilities may have a higher tendency to be employed in people-orientated jobs, such as social work, medicine, education, and personnel work. Jobs with a lower demand in people-oriented values include the natural
Comparing work values

sciences, engineering, farming, and architecture. College-aged students without disabilities also indicate that it is significantly important to be employed in a job that demands problem solving and decision making. Examples of these occupational professions include hotel management, sales-promotion, finance, and general business positions (Rosenberg, 1957). It is important to note that college-aged students without disabilities tended to rate all of the measured work values as more important than college-aged students with disabilities. This indicates that college-aged students with disabilities may not be exposed to curriculum that encourages and enhances the development of their individual work values. College-aged students with disabilities may also not have developed as high of an appreciation for work values and may not be as confident when answering questions related to work values as a direct result of their personal insecurity with their work value development.

It is also vital for additional research to investigate the work value development and maintenance of students with disabilities and the effects that gender differences may exert. High school female students with disabilities rated Intrinsic work values as significantly more important than high school male students with disabilities. Females are more likely to derive rewards from work that is highly interesting and requires the use of their own individual talents. It is also important for them to see the results of the work that they do (Johnson, 2002; Marini et al., 1996). However, although high school males with disabilities did not rate Intrinsic Rewards as important as females did, Intrinsic Rewards were still the most important work value to consider when compared to the other measured values. This indicates that it is important for high school students, both with and without disabilities, to feel accomplished and personally satisfied by the work they complete on the job.
As a whole, the ranking of work values by high school male and female students with disabilities do not substantially differ. It is equally as important for them to feel secure and comfortable with the future of their career. In addition, high school male and female students desire to be employed in a position that provides economic stability, prestige, power, and the opportunity for professional development and advancement. Next, high school male and female students with disabilities rated Influence and Altruistic rewards similarly. This indicates that it is more important for them to be in a secure position that offers economic stability, then in a career that directly services others and allows for the opportunity to be highly respected and involved in decision making (Herzog, 1982; Johnson, 2002).

It is important to note that high school male students differed from high school female students in their rankings of Leisure and Social Rewards. These rewards are the least important when compared to the rankings of the other work values. However, it is more important for high school male students to be employed in positions that allow for opportunities to work with others and develop interpersonal relationships within their field of work. High school female students with disabilities rated Leisure as more important then Social Rewards, which indicates that females would prefer a career that allows them to complete work at a rate that is comfortable. In addition, female students with disabilities may value vacation time and the opportunity to have more time away from their career to begin family planning. Starting a family may be one reason why gender differences in work values differ; however, this cannot be substantiated by this research’s current data. Vacation time and the opportunities to perform non-work related activities may be slightly more important to female employees with disabilities than the opportunities to make friends in the workplace (Herzog, 1982; Johnson, 2002). As a whole, these results support current research, which indicates that work values in males and females are
becoming more similar than different. Work values that were historically rated as important by males are beginning to be rated as more important by their female counterparts. Females are becoming more interested in the Extrinsic Rewards available through their field of work, whereas males are rating Intrinsic and Altruistic Rewards as more important than in the past (Marini et al., 1996).

To further investigate the differences in rated work values in high school students with disabilities, correlations were computed to investigate the relation between the seven individual values. Students that rated Extrinsic Rewards more importantly also tended to rate Security as important. Careers that offer geographic and economic stability may provide an employee with rewards through salary and prestige, as well as the reassurance that their job will not ask them to alter their routine and move their families. Money, an extrinsic reward, often provides employees with a sense of security, which is hypothesized to be why this relationship emerged in the current research study (Herzog, 1982; Johnson 2002).

In addition, strong positive associations were discovered concerning Intrinsic Rewards with Influence, Altruistic Rewards, and Social Rewards. This indicates that the rate importance of Intrinsic Rewards by high school students with disabilities significantly impact additional work values. Students who prefer to be self-challenged and use their own talents to complete a job assignment, also may tend to appreciate being able to be part of making decisions and respected as a result of the judgments made (Herzog, 1982; Johnson, 2002; Marini et al., 1996). Furthermore, students who rate Intrinsic Rewards as important, also tend to rate Altruistic Rewards as important. Not only do these students desire to reach their own career goals, but they want to directly service others and perform meaning tasks for society. A hypothesis is that students with disabilities may tend to find and derive meaning from work that directly assists and
helps others. In addition, students who rate Intrinsic Rewards as increasingly important may also tend to value making friends in the workplace and have the opportunity to interpersonally interact with others (Johnson; Marini et al.).

Limitations

There are a number of limitations to the current research study. First, the sample of participants who volunteered to complete the work value survey was taken from a sample of convenience for the college-aged students. There was no control for socio-economic status, gender, or geographical location. In addition, this research study included a small number of participants, particularly for the college-aged sample. If a larger sample size were available, the results may have produced greater statistical significance. Furthermore, the survey was administered to the high school and college-aged students without the presence of the investigator. As a result, there is no way to control for individual interpretation or questions that arose during the completion of the work value survey. In addition, a cause and effect relationship between the classification of a student with a disability and the differing work values could not be established. Moreover, college-aged students with and without disabilities could not be compared for gender effects since the data for college-aged students without disabilities was not coded to gender.

Future Research

Replicating the present research study with a larger participant sample may produce more statistically significant results. In addition, this research could be expanded to include middle school students, with and without disabilities. A longitudinal study would be interesting to conduct, to compare work value stability across students with and without disabilities, utilizing samples from middle school, high school, and college. In addition, future research may further
investigate the impacts of Extrinsic and Intrinsic Rewards across high school and college-aged students in order to best understand the impact these values maintain on work choice. Furthermore, it would be interesting to gauge how these two values have changed, and continue to change, over time. Future studies should be directed toward the development and maintenance of work values across students with disabilities. In addition, future research should investigate the relative importance of work value development in students with disabilities. Perhaps students with disabilities are not encouraged to develop, explore, and discuss their values in regard to occupational positions, which would estimate why students with disabilities tended to rate overall work values as less important, when compared to college-aged students without disabilities. It is also vital for additional research to investigate the work value development and maintenance of students with disabilities and the effects that gender differences may exert. Finally, it would be interesting to study the curriculum differences in students with and without disabilities, as well as any differences in final career choice and the influence of work values on this decision.
Comparing work values

References


Comparing work values


Appendix A

MEASUREMENT OF WORK VALUES

Instructions: Listed below are 22 work values. Rate each item on a scale of 1 (not important) to 4 (very important).

1. A job where the chances for advancement and promotion are good
   1 2 3 4

2. A job which provides you with a chance to earn a good deal of money
   1 2 3 4

3. A job that most people look up to and respect
   1 2 3 4

4. A job that have high status and prestige
   1 2 3 4

5. A job that offers a reasonably predictable, secure future
   1 2 3 4

6. A job which allows you to establish roots in a community and not have to move from place to place
   1 2 3 4

7. A job where you get a chance to participate in decision making
   1 2 3 4

8. A job where most problems are quite difficult and challenging
   1 2 3 4

9. A job which is interesting to do
   1 2 3 4

10. A job which uses your skills and abilities – lets you do things you can do best
    1 2 3 4

11. A job where you can see the results of what you do
    1 2 3 4

12. A job where the skills you learn will not go out of date
    1 2 3 4

13. A job where you can learn new things, learn new skills
    1 2 3 4
14. A job where you have the chance to be creative
   1       2       3       4

15. A job that gives you an opportunity to be directly helpful to others
   1       2       3       4

16. A job that is worthwhile to society
   1       2       3       4

17. A job that gives you a chance to make friends
   1       2       3       4

18. A job that permits contact with a lot of people
   1       2       3       4

19. A job which leaves you a lot of time for other things in your life
   1       2       3       4

20. A job which leaves you mostly free of supervision by others
   1       2       3       4

21. A job where you have more than two weeks’ vacation
   1       2       3       4

22. A job with an easy pace that let you work slowly
   1       2       3       4
Tables

Table 1

*Mean Differences between High School Students with Disabilities and College-Aged Students with Disabilities on the administered Work Value Survey*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Value Scales</th>
<th>High School Students with Disabilities</th>
<th>College-Aged Students with Disabilities</th>
<th>MDiff.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Rewards</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.11</td>
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<td>Security</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.75</td>
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<tr>
<td>Influence</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.64</td>
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<td>Intrinsic Rewards</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.56</td>
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<td>Altruistic Rewards</td>
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<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Rewards</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
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</table>

*indicates p ≤ .05
Table 2

*Rank Order of Work Values of High School Students with Disabilities and College-Aged Students with Disabilities based upon the administered Work Value Survey*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Value Scales</th>
<th>High School Students with Disabilities</th>
<th>College-Aged Students with Disabilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>Rank Order</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Rewards</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Rewards</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic Rewards</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Rewards</td>
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<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Table 3

*Mean Differences between College-Aged Students with Disabilities and College-Aged Students without Disabilities on the administered Work Value Survey*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Value Scales</th>
<th>College-Aged Students with Disabilities</th>
<th>College-Aged Students without Disabilities</th>
<th>MDiff.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Rewards</td>
<td>10</td>
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*indicates p ≤. 05
Table 4

*Rank Order of Work Values of College-Aged with Disabilities and College-Aged Students without Disabilities based upon the administered Work Value Survey*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Value Scales</th>
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<th>Rank Order</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Rank Order</th>
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<td>7</td>
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Table 5

*Mean Differences between Work Values rated by High School Females with Disabilities and High School Males with Disabilities*

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<th>Work Value Scales</th>
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</table>

*indicates p ≤ .05
Table 6

*Rank Order of Work Values of High School Females with Disabilities and High School Males with Disabilities based upon the administered Work Value Survey*

<table>
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### Table 7

**Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Work Values of High School Students with Disabilities**

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*indicates p ≤ .05