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Career Assessment and the Values Scale

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The Values Scale (VS; Super & Nevill, 1985b) was developed as part of the multinational Work Importance Study (WIS), a project supported by researchers in countries world-wide. The purpose of the WIS was to simultaneously develop career assessment instruments in several languages to facilitate the cross-cultural study of career development. The VS was one of two instruments developed by the WIS, and its purpose is to assess the general values a person seeks to satisfy through various life roles. The VS was designed to provide important information about a client's values for use in the Career Development Assessment and Counseling model (C-DAC; Super, 1983). A client's values are objectives sought in behavior. If these values cannot be satisfied through one particular career role, then the client must consider through what other life roles those values can be satisfied to ensure career satisfaction. The application of the VS to research is also discussed.

Values

Values are long-standing beliefs that certain ways of acting are more personally or socially desirable than other ways. Personal values represent what an individual wants or considers to be good or important. Examples of values include the opportunity to use one's abilities, to be creative, to be self-directive, to have economic security, or to work with pleasant coworkers.

Traditionally, values have been divided into two categories: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic values are those inherent in the activity itself. Extrinsic values are those that are the result of the activity. Values such as ability utilization, aesthetics, autonomy, creativity, and personal development are generally considered intrinsic values, whereas advancement, economic rewards, working conditions, and job security are viewed as extrinsic values.

An individual's values tend to be developed by about the age of 18 and to remain relatively stable. However, values can be influenced by factors such as age, the work environment, or divorce.

Career Assessment and Values

Our behavior is guided by the values we hold. Because our values reflect what is important to us, they help us judge the appropriateness of a

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particular job and influence us at every step in the career decision process. In general, we seek work environments that allow us to realize our values. If there is a good match between the values we hold and the values we can realize in a particular job, we will feel better satisfied with our jobs, stay in them longer, and have better psychological health than if there is less congruence between us and our work environments (Rounds, 1990).

Our values also influence the relative importance we place on work in relation to other roles in life, such as home and family or leisure activities. Values can be realized in many different life roles. Because values play such an important role in our career decisions and job satisfaction, it is essential that we have a good understanding of our own sets of values. To aid us in assessing our values, several inventories have been developed. In general, they fall into two categories . The first category consists of work value inventories that measure values associated with job success and satisfaction. Work value inventories provide information to use in career exploration and help us determine what type of career will best meet our particular needs. Examples of work value inventories include the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ; Weiss, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1971) and the Work Values Inventory (WVI; Super, 1970). The second category consists of general value inventories, which measure a broad range of values associated with all aspects of life. General value inventories give us a good idea of what we want out of life and help us decide whether our values can be met through the worker role alone. The classic general values assessment instrument is the Study of Values (Allport, Vernon, & Lindzey, 1960). The VS is also a general value inventory.

Relationships Among Needs, Values, and Interests

Theories of needs, values, and interests have a long history in philosophy and have been the subject of research in psychology for decades. However, many theorists tend to use these terms interchangeably, resulting in considerable confusion in the literature. Donald E. Super (Super, 1995) developed a model distinguishing these separate concepts and specifying the relationships among them. Super (1995) offered the following definitions:

- *Needs* are wants, manifestations of physiological conditions such as hunger, and they are related to survival...
- *Values* are the result of further refinement through interaction with the environment, both natural and human...The need *for* help thus becomes love, and the need *to* help becomes altruism.
- *Interests* are the activities within which people expect to attain their values and thus satisfy their needs. (p. 54)

According to Super's theory, understanding a person's needs helps us understand why and how that person pursues certain activities but provides little information about what that person is likely to do. In other words, assessing needs helps us understand a person, but it does not help us predict specifically what that person will do. To answer this question we need to assess values and interests, which provide insight into the activities by

which a person seeks to satisfy his or her needs. The distinction between values and interests is also significant and points to the usefulness of the VS over other career assessment instruments that focus only on interests. In particular, values are more general than interests but more specific than needs. It is this level of specificity that is important in career counseling to help the client seek occupations that provide an opportunity to attain important values or seek attainment of these values through other life roles (e.g., homemaker, leisurite, citizen).

Measurement of Values

Several instruments have been developed to assess values, and four basic measurement strategies have emerged: ratings, self-report, pair-comparisons, and the Repertory Grid. Each strategy yields slightly different information (Zytowski, 1994).

With a rating instrument, several statements of each value are rated using a Likert-type scale ranging from *very important* to *not important*. These ratings are then summed and compared to normed data to control for the generally higher rating of certain values within a given population. The VS is classified as a rating measure and can be interpreted using both normed (how the counselor's ratings compare to the population norms) and ranked or ipsative interpretations (the rank order of the counselor's ratings). The self-report strategy asks the respondent to identify which values (detailed definitions are provided) are most important or essential. Self-report is a simple strategy, but the information identified is neither detailed nor complete. The pair-comparison method requires the respondent to compare each value to every other value to obtain a rank ordering of the respondent's value structure, similar to a ranking interpretation of the rating data. The last strategy, the Repertory Grid, derives from George Kelly's Role Construct Repertory Test (1955). (For a detailed description of this technique see Tyler, 1978). This method produces the most ideographic data regarding the respondent's value structure, but meaningful comparisons with other clients cannot be made. Overall, the rating strategy produces the most useful data, including both rank ordering of the respondent's ratings and a comparison of the respondent's ratings to the general population.

Development of the Values Scale

Description

The VS, which consists of 106 items, takes approximately 30 to 45 minutes to administer. The VS is scored for 21 values: Ability Utilization, Achievement, Advancement, Aesthetics, Altruism, Authority, Autonomy, Creativity, Economic Rewards, Life Style, Personal Development, Physical Activity, Prestige, Risk, Social Interaction, Social Relations, Variety, Working Conditions, Cultural Identity, Physical Prowess, and Economic Security. The last 3 values, which were listed out of alphabetical order, were not adopted by all countries participating in the WIS. The VS can be scored for either national comparisons or cross-national studies in which foreign versions of the WIS, VS are used. Detailed scoring information can be found in the manual (Nevill & Super, 1989).

The VS includes both intrinsic and extrinsic values. Intrinsic values are inherent in the activity itself, whereas extrinsic values are the latter concomitants or outcomes of the activity. Ability Utilization, Aesthetics, Autonomy, Creativity, and Personal Development were judged to be intrinsic values by a panel of independent judges. Values judged to be extrinsic include Advancement, Cultural Identity, Economic Rewards, and Prestige. Agreement among judges was insufficient to permit labeling of the other values on the VS as either intrinsic or extrinsic (Nevill & Super, 1989).

Relationship to the Work Importance Study

The VS was developed as part of the WIS, an informal, international consortium of autonomous research teams (Ferreira-Marques & Miranda, 1995). The WIS was initiated by Donald Super in the late 1970s and was developed as a network of national projects headed by a national project director, with international coordination assured by Super. Funding problems and personnel changes forced some of the initial teams to withdraw from the WIS, and other countries joined later. Teams from 11 countries completed their projects: Belgian Flanders, Canada, Croatia, Israel, Italy, Japan, Poland, Portugal, South Africa, and the United States.

The goals of the WIS were two-fold. First, the researchers wanted to assess the relative importance of the worker role compared to other life roles. A second goal was to assess the values individuals seek though their work and other roles. The first step for each national team was to review the career literature from its own country. This information was synthesized and shared by the Anglo-American team in Cambridge, England. This international literature review uncovered significant limitations in the available values assessment instruments: Some significant values were not covered, and some of the instruments were psychometrically questionable.

It was therefore decided that the WIS would develop a new instrument that would measure values and would be truly cross-cultural, with autonomous national teams working collaboratively to develop equivalent instruments for their own countries and languages. Each version of the VS would be useful for national and cross-national research and service projects.

The first step in writing the VS was to define each value. This was done by assigning specific values to working groups of three or four members from different national teams. These definitions were reviewed and revised until they were unanimously adopted at plenary sessions. It is the cultural diversity (religion, economic system, traditions, and language) of these working groups and the WIS member teams that make the VS a truly unique cross-cultural instrument.

Once the WIS members agreed on the definitions, similar working groups were assigned to write sample items for each value. These sample items were refined and revised by at least two national research teams and later reviewed, and occasionally revised, in plenary sessions. Up to this point, the definitions of values and sample items were drafted in English by multilingual, multinational working groups. Once the definitions and

sample items were endorsed by all WIS member teams, it became the job of each team to translate the sample items into its own language. This was a carefully monitored process by which each team had colleagues with a sound knowledge of the English language, as well as members of other national teams familiar with the native language, review the translation. These translations were then pilot-tested on small samples. Consequently, the final products are not translations of any one national instrument, but are truly international instruments developed by each national team in its own language.

The national project directors field tested the VS in their own countries with groups of secondary school and adult populations. The VS was revised accordingly, with some scales dropped and others combined. During the mid 1980s each country published its own instrument and gathered normative data. The United States version of the VS (Super & Nevill, 1985a) was published by Consulting Psychologists Press of Palo Alto, California. A manual followed shortly (Nevill & Super, 1986) and was subsequently revised (Nevill & Super, 1989). National and cross-national norms for all high school grades became available in 1987, for all college levels in 1988, and for adults of all Holland codes (Holland, 1992) in 1989 (Nevill, 1995).

Psychometrics

Reliability of the U.S. version of the VS was computed using both internal consistency (alpha coefficients) and test-retest stability over a two- to four-week interval. Internal consistency was calculated for high school, university, and adult samples. Test-retest reliabilities were computed only for university samples. The results of the internal consistency analysis demonstrate more than adequate reliability for the VS. Only four scales (Life Style, Personal Development, Variety, and Working Conditions) produced alpha coefficients lower than .65, and no scale failed to reach this level for all three populations. Test-retest correlations of .65 or more were found in at least one of two samples. Ability Utilization, Life Style, and Personal Development failed to reach reliabilities of .70 on both internal consistency and stability measures. Therefore, these are less coherent scales than the others and should be interpreted with more caution (Nevill & Super, 1989).

Validity has been assured by the methods of development described earlier and by the expected gender, educational level, curriculum, and socioeconomic status differences (Nevill, 1995). In addition, item-factor analyses and interscale correlations support the essential validity of the VS (Nevill & Super, 1989).

Additional studies have shown the expected correlations with other instruments. Shears (1982, July) administered the Australian VS and the Work Aspect Preference Scale (WAPS; Pryor, 1983) to 400 high school students in Melbourne, Australia. Although the scales on the two instruments are not exactly the same, the overlapping scales showed the expected correlations. Shears also found a clear and theoretically correct interrelationship between the Australian VS and Taylor's (1975) Work Quiz.

Macnab and Fitzsimmons (1987) compared the Canadian VS, the MIQ (1971), the WVI, and the WAPS. The authors found that these instruments measured highly similar constructs. Further evidence of the VS's validity can be inferred from its use in a wide variety of research projects described later, including studies of career development at different ages and in different cultural groups.

Research

The VS was developed to be useful to both the researcher and the counselor. As a research instrument, the VS has been used in studies dealing with the hierarchy of values (including individuals and cultural groups), occupational studies (including life stages and occupational differences), and research areas that require the assessment of values to validate models and hypotheses outside the career assessment domain. Examples of the use of the VS in these divergent areas are given later.

Hierarchy of Values

Value hierarchies have been a productive area of research for the VS. This is particularly true because the ability of the VS to distinguish between different individuals and groups, based on expected differences in their value hierarchies, also serves to confirm the construct validity of the VS. Two important areas of analysis are cultural differences and gender differences. The applicability of the VS for studying cultural value differences is unparalleled, because it is the only instrument of its kind that was written and developed by multinational research teams and that is available in seven languages.

One early study by Ferreira-Marques (1983, April) compared 231 twelfth-grade Portuguese students from Lisbon secondary schools with 196 eleventh and twelfth graders from New Jersey public schools. Ferreira-Marques concluded that American students held more materialistic and active values (i.e., Advancement, Authority, Economics, Prestige, and Physical Activity), whereas the Portuguese students held more personal and socially oriented values (i.e., Ability Utilization, Achievement, Creativity, Life Style, Personal Development, and Social Relations).

In another early study, Casserly (1983, April) used the VS to study cultural differences within Canadian society, which is made up of essentially two dominant cultures: Anglophones, who speak English, and Francophones, who speak French. Casserly administered the English form of the VS to approximately 2,000 subjects and the French form of the VS to an additional 1,000 subjects. The sample included Canadians from high school age through mature adulthood. Casserly found that Anglophones, who traditionally occupy the higher levels of business and government, valued the organizational values of Prestige, Autonomy, and Authority. The Francophones, on the other hand, stressed more family oriented and social values including Social Interaction, Altruism, Life Style, Aesthetics, and Cultural Identity.

The largest study of cross-cultural values involved data gathered in 10 different countries. Branimir Sverko (1995) completed an analysis of the

cross-national VS data, including factor analysis, normative interpretation of value hierarchies, and cluster analysis.

His first question addressed the validity of the generally assumed universality of the factor structure of values. The first step in addressing this concept was to pool all samples for which the original scores from all eight cross-national values scales were available (N = 18,318). Five factors (which explained 59.4% of the total variance) were extracted using the principal components method followed by varimax rotation. Additional factor analysis of 19 samples from seven countries using five-factor solutions confirmed the essential similarity between the factor structure of the individual samples and the factors extracted from the pooled data. Five similar factors were found in results from all of the countries:

1. Utilitarian Orientation (Economics, Advancement, Prestige, Authority, Achievement)
2. Orientation Toward Self-Actualization (Ability, Personal Development, Altruism)
3. Individualistic Orientation (Life Style, Autonomy)
4. Social Orientation (Social Interaction, Social Relations)
5. Adventurous Orientation (Risk)

Sverko concluded that the results support the assumed universality of the factor structure of values.

Sverko next compared the value hierarchies (the rank ordering of the 18 values) of the 10 countries to determine whether there were cross-national differences in the relative importance of different values. The analysis revealed that Personality Development, Ability Utilization, and Achievement were ranked highest in most samples, whereas Risk and Authority were ranked lowest in almost all samples. However, significant differences were found between different countries. In fact, further analysis revealed significant cross-national differences on all 18 values. Sverko (1995) concluded that the data strongly indicated that "each country tends to create a pattern of values with a somewhat unique emphasis on what is important in life" (p. 234).

The final step in the study was to investigate whether it is possible to identify relatively homogeneous clusters of national samples that share similar patterns of values. To answer this question, Sverko completed a cluster analysis of all samples from the 10 countries, which revealed the presence of three geocultural clusters labeled the New World cluster (combining 12 samples, including all samples from Canada, the United States, and South Africa and one Australian sample), the European Countries cluster (combining 14 samples, including all samples from Belgium, Croatia, Italy, Poland, and Portugal and two Australian samples), and the Japanese cluster (which included only the 3 Japanese samples). Computing mean values hierarchies for the three clusters revealed some basic similarities as well as important differences between the three clusters, with the New World cluster valuing Achievement, Economics, and Advancement; the European cluster valuing Social Relations, Life Style, and Autonomy; and the Japanese cluster placing the strongest emphasis on

Aesthetics and Creativity. Sverko concluded that these results provide strong support for the assumed universality of the factor structure of values, the uniqueness of individual country value patterns, and the geocultural similarities consistent with the relationship between the countries involved.

Given Sverko's findings, Trentini and Muzio (1995) examined the same data not only for cross-national differences, but also for differences in gender, educational level, and age. Gender failed to produce meaningful differences in values for the cross-national samples. However, minor differences were found in the clustering of the samples when they were grouped by educational level. These results were interpreted as supporting the findings of Sverko (1995).

In addition to the cross-national findings outlined, a number of studies have investigated gender differences in value hierarchies. For instance, Ferreira-Marques (1983, April), in his cross-national study of Portuguese and American high school students, found that for Portuguese 12th graders, girls valued Altruism and Personal Development more than boys, who valued Authority and Physical Activity more than girls. For American youths, girls valued Achievement and Aesthetics more, whereas boys placed more significance on Risk. Shears (1982, July) found similar differences among Australian 10th graders. She found that boys endorsed stereotypically masculine values including Risk, Physical Activity, and Authority, whereas girls valued Altruism, Aesthetics, and Social Relations more than did boys.

Other studies examining gender differences in adults have also found significant differences, not always consistent with stereotypes. In his study of military personnel, Yates (1985) found that adult women placed significantly greater importance on the values of Aesthetics, Personal Development, Working Conditions, and Altruism than did men. Men valued Risk and Physical Prowess more than did women. However, the genders had almost identical rankings for the seven most important values: Economic Security, Achievement, Ability Utilization, Personal Development, Advancement, Economic Rewards, and Life Style. Nevill (1988, January), in a national study comparing psychologists who had the Investigative and Social Holland code types (Holland, 1992), found that female psychologists scored higher than male psychologists on Ability Utilization, Achievement, Working Conditions, and Personal Development, which is consistent with previous research. However, in contrast to the Yates study, this group of highly achieving and committed women also valued Risk more than did males.

In a survey of Canadian occupational therapists, Taylor, Madill, and Macnab (1990) found that men endorsed Risk and Advancement at a higher level than did their female peers, but that women endorsed Social Relationships more strongly than did their male cohorts. Freeman (1990) found that gender and marital status also influenced intrinsic and extrinsic work values. Separated or divorced women valued extrinsic rewards (Economics and Working Conditions) more highly than married women and more highly than separated or divorced men. In addition, little difference was found between separated or divorced men and women on intrinsic values (Autonomy and Creativity).

This research clearly indicates the utility of the VS for research comparing the values hierarchies of different groups, particularly in cross-national and gender studies. In addition, these findings serve to bolster the construct validity of the VS in as much as they support the expected relationships among these groups. However, the utility of the VS is not limited to this line of research. The VS has been used in many studies investigating the relationship of values to vocational behavior, including career choice, career development, life stages, and work importance.

Occupational Studies

A number of studies have been completed to investigate occupational differences in values hierarchies. Yates (1985), in his national study of military personnel, tried to determine whether value differences could be found for the six Holland code types (Holland, 1992). The results of this study revealed some predictable relationships, such as Realistic types valuing Physical Prowess significantly more than Enterprising types. However, other findings were quite surprising, such as Social types placing more value on Economic Security than did Realistic types.

Nevill (1988, January) focused her study on two Holland (1992) types: Investigative and Social. For her sample she chose experimental psychologists to represent the Investigative type and clinical and counseling psychologists to represent the Social type. Many of the expected differences were found. Ability Utilization, Achievement, Creativity, Life Style, and Prestige were more important to the Investigative types than to the Social types. Altruism, Social Interaction, Social Relations, and Cultural Identity were more important to the Social types than to the Investigative types.

Zook (1988) also investigated value differences among psychologists, in this case focusing on differences between clinical and counseling psychologists, including theoretical orientation (behavioral, psychodynamic, and humanistic) and primary work setting (private practice, academia, and agencies). No value differences were found between clinical and counseling psychologists, but behavioral psychologists valued Advancement more than did psychodynamically oriented psychologists, and psychologists with a humanistic orientation valued Working Conditions more than did those with a psychodynamic orientation. The most important finding related to the psychologists' primary work setting. Private practitioners not surprisingly valued Autonomy more than did psychologists in other work settings. Private practitioners also valued Personal Development and Physical Activity more than those in academia. Psychologists working in agencies placed more emphasis on Social Relations and Interaction than those in other settings. Additional findings supported value differences between psychologists and population norms.

Other studies have used the VS to test changing values over the life span. Yates (1985), in his national study of military personnel, found significant value differences by age, which mirror changing developmental tasks (Super, 1980). Duarte (1995) found similar results using the VS with a large sample of male Portuguese workers who were employed in an industrial cement factory.

Sverko (1989) used the VS to test a proposed model of the origin of individual differences in the importance attached to work. Sverko's model states that the importance of work is principally determined by the individual's perception of the likelihood that his or her most salient values can be attained in the worker role. Sverko's initial study, although limited, produced consistent support for his model. If further research continues to verify the accuracy of this model, the assessment of work values will become indispensable to the career counseling process. In particular, if a client does not find the worker role particularly salient, the counselor will need to know specifically which values the client is seeking to attain through the worker role and assist the client in developing strategies to attain these values in other life roles. However, if the client is misperceiving the opportunities for attainment of values through the worker role, then a different approach is needed to assist the client in discovering the opportunities for value attainment in the world of work.

Other Studies

Because the VS is not limited to work values, but encompasses a broad spectrum of values, including intrinsic and extrinsic ones, the VS has been used in a wide variety of research areas. Some areas of interest include the development of value hierarchies within the individual, values as a component of a personality profile, and testing models outside the career domain, which may or may not have direct implications for value hierarchies.

Using the VS, Krau has made substantial contributions to our understanding of the crystallization of values in adolescence (1987) and the transition of work value preferences and life activity salience during the critical period between junior high school and adult employment (Krau, 1989). In his 1987 study, Krau used the VS with 913 ninth and twelfth graders drawn from Jewish, Arab, and Catholic monastic schools in Israel to test the hypothesis that the source of work values is the social group of affiliation, including socioeconomic and cultural characteristics. This hypothesis is based on the conception of values as resulting more from enculturation than from development of individual needs. Krau interpreted the results of this study as supporting a value enculturation explanation. In particular, value hierarchies were more similar when based on educational and socioeconomic characteristics than on age. In other words, the values of 12th graders from Catholic monastic schools were more similar to those of 9th graders from the same school than to those of 12th graders from other school environments. Similar relationships were found for socioeconomic level.

In Krau's 1989 study, values were again assumed to be strongly influenced by the social group of affiliation. Krau hypothesized that changes in role salience and value hierarchies were the result of the influences of different agents of socialization, which achieve and lose dominance during this transition period. In this study, Krau found that value profiles of cohorts at different points of vocational development appear as indicators of paths of social mobility in a given society.

The VS has also been used to measure values as a dimension of personality and personality development. Drummond, Hansford, and Shapiro (1992) compared Black unwed teen mothers to their nonparenting peers, using measures of self-concept, psychosocial development, locus of control, and values. The scores of Black unwed teen mothers significantly differed from their nonparenting peers on 12 of the 21 VS scales, but on only the Physical Prowess scale were the scores of the unwed mothers significantly higher than their nonparenting peers. In fact, except for the Physical Prowess and Authority scales, these unwed teen mothers rated values as less important than did their peers, indicating that the value structures of these unwed teen mothers were less crystallized than those of their peers.

The VS has also been used to evaluate theories and models outside the area of career theory. One such study by Carter, Gushue, and Weitzman (1994) used the VS to test the validity of Helms's (1990) White racial identity development model. An analysis of the stages of this model allows the clear prediction of which values should be most important at each stage. Carter et al. found that the VS data confirmed the predictions of the White racial identity development model.

Finally, Paese and Kinnaly (1991) used 10 subscales of the VS to study the effects of role assignment and verbal interaction on accuracy and overconfidence in interpersonal judgment. Paese and Kinnaly hypothesized that subjects' accuracy in interpersonal judgments would decrease, and their overconfidence about those judgments would increase, when they were assigned to an expert role and when they were allowed to verbally interact with the target. In this study the VS served as the interpersonal judgment task in which the subjects were instructed to estimate the responses of the target to the VS questions and rate the confidence of their judgments. The results were consistent with the hypothesis.

Career Development Assessment and Counseling Model

The Career Development Assessment and Counseling (C-DAC) model proposed by Super (1983) provides a theoretical model for the implementation of data from the VS in a career counseling context. The C-DAC model involves a truly developmental career assessment process and pays close attention to the psychological characteristics of career development including: the centrality of values sought in work (Super, 1970), the relative importance of the worker role (Super, 1983), the level of career maturity (Super, 1955; Super & Thompson, 1979), and self-concepts (Holland, 1992; Super, Starishevsky, Matlin, & Jordaan, 1963) such as a sense of autonomy and self-esteem (Korman, 1969).

The C-DAC model includes four steps: (a) preview, (b) depth-view, (c) assessment of all data, and (d) counseling. During the preview step the counselor reviews the client's records and completes a preliminary interview. This information is used to make a tentative plan for the direction the counseling will take.

Unlike other models, which move prematurely into assessing abilities and interests, the C-DAC model begins by trying to determine: (a) the values the client hopes to realize through the worker role,(b) the relative importance

of work to the client, and (c) the client's readiness to assess abilities and interests and to make self and occupational matching decisions. The depth-view step focuses on answering these questions. The VS was developed specifically to address the first question of the values sought through the worker role. Although the VS is a general values assessment instrument, the data generated provide important information about career values. For instance, if a client values economic rewards, altruism, and physical activity, finding a job that will satisfy all three might be difficult. However, the client might seek to fulfill these values in different life roles, such as using the worker role to provide economic rewards, volunteer work to satisfy altruism, and amateur sports to fulfill physical activity. Therefore, assessing values using the VS is an important component of choosing a career in which the client can find long-term satisfaction. The second question regarding the salience of the worker role is also an important component of career counseling. An individual for whom the worker role has been unnecessary or undesired is likely to benefit little from scores on vocational interest inventories (Super, 1976). In cases such as these, counseling might focus first on arousing the client's awareness of and interest in work or shift the focus to choosing and preparing for other roles such as leisurite, homemaker, or community service volunteer (Super, 1984). The Salience Inventory (Super & Nevill, 1985a) might be used at this stage. Career maturity may be assessed by using an appropriate instrument such as the Career Development Inventory (Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Jordaan, & Myers, 1979, 1981) and the Adult Career Concerns Inventory (Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Myers, & Jordaan, 1986). It is also appropriate at this time to assess occupational and self-concepts, which may aid in assessing realism. Vocational interest and ability assessment are also important components of the depth-view step. It is only by assessing all these interrelated areas that a complete picture of the client's current needs and level of career development can be obtained.

In the assessment-of-all-data step, the focus is on the client's understanding of the implications of the material. In joint review sessions, the full meaning of all the data and the relationship among the components is considered.

In the counseling step, the emphasis is on understanding the implications of the assessment data. Clients need to both understand that career decision-making is a developmental process and have a clear view of their current career status and its associated tasks. Counselors should help orient clients to the attitudes, knowledge, competencies, and decisions that are appropriate for their levels of development and provide some orientation to what the next stage holds. Of particular importance is helping clients see how their own values fit into the life roles of worker, student, homemaker, citizen, and leisurite.

The VS makes an important contribution to the C-DAC model by providing data regarding the client's values that are being sought through the worker and other life roles. So comprehensive is the C-DAC model that the Career Planning and Placement Center at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro used this model in developing an entire curriculum for training

career educators, counselors, and researchers (Osborne & Usher, 1994). In response to the need for a systematic way to address the career planning needs of undergraduates, the Career Planning and Placement Center developed an undergraduate course that not only teaches students about career and life planning, but also includes a hands-on participation component in which the students complete the necessary instruments, including the VS, and receive direct career counseling using the C-DAC model. This counseling is provided by master's level students as a practicum component of a career counseling course. These master's level students are in turn supervised by doctoral level students taking an advanced career counseling course. According to Osborne and Usher, Super's C-DAC model provided the theoretical foundation for the integration of the many services that make the program a resounding success for everyone involved.

Conclusions

The VS measures the values or satisfactions that most people seek in life. Its use is essential in any type of developmental career assessment or counseling. In his review of the VS, Drummond (1988) concluded that "values testing becomes an important component in any framework for counseling" (p. 138). Harmon (1988) adds that "One of the major contributions of this model is that it points out that values can be realized in several life roles, not just in work roles" (p. 157). The instrument is also useful for group assessment, career development workshops, and career counseling courses. Research using the instrument covers areas as diverse as values hierarchies and life stage and occupational differences. The VS is a unique and proven instrument for cross-cultural research (Harmon, 1988).

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