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David Merkuratsuk

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Going Beyond Traditional Career Development Theories: Individualizing Counseling Using Cognitive Stage and Experiential Learning Theories

Dr. Elizabeth Fisher Turesky and Dr. Leigh Gronich Mundhenk
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Abstract

William Perry's cognitive stage development and David Kolb's experiential learning theories provide complementary theoretical frameworks, that when used with traditional career development theories, provide a holistic approach to career counseling. In this article the authors explain how these theories can be used to better understand their clients' developmental needs in order to individualize the career development process.

Going Beyond Traditional Career Development Theories: Individualizing Counseling Using Cognitive Stage and Experiential Learning Theories

During the many years that we have been doing career development work, we have asked ourselves why some clients seem to be highly engaged and self-directed in their work, while others look to us for direction and answers. Why do some manage the ambiguity of the career development process well, while others find the lack of clarity and ambiguity unbearable? Why do some genuinely enjoy engaging in the journey of self-discovery, while others seem to resist new ideas and ways of understanding themselves in the world of work? Why do some relish the possibilities of ideas, but have difficulty making decisions, while some want to jump right into the decision-making process without careful reflection? These responses seem to occur unrelated to age, gender, and socioeconomic level. These situations that challenge our clients reflect cognitive attributes that may cause them to experience stress and anxiety when engaged in career counseling.

We have looked to existing career development theories, particularly those that deal with vocational personality and environment (Holland, 1976), development (Super, 1953), and social learning (Krumboltz, 1979) to explain these differences. These founding, well-respected theories have informed career development practice for many years, but they are based on thinking from the modern industrial era and, as such, focus primarily on the career development needs of white middle class men in traditional organizational systems (Savickas, 2003). Our inability to fully understand our clients through traditional theory alone has led us to explore the use of both cognitive stage development and experiential learning theories to help inform our career counseling, advising and teaching. To that end we have found that Perry's cognitive stage development theory and Kolb's experiential learning theory complement these existing theories and provide additional insights and perspectives into how our diverse clients acquire and integrate career information.

Cognitive Stage Development Theory

Among the best known adult cognitive development models are Kohlberg's, Loevenger's and Perry's (1969, 1966, 1999). In our work, we have found Perry's (1999) theory to be highly useful because of its focus on adult stage development. Cognitive stage development theory posits that people advance through stages of cognitive development sequentially, developmentally and predictably. Depending on the clients' levels, there are qualitative differences in the way they approach and make sense of their world. To that end, career development professionals should take a client's level of cognitive stage development into account when counseling or advising (Knefelkamp & Sleptiza, 1976).

William Perry, who studied the cognitive development of college students at Harvard in the 1950's and 1960's, found that students go through four stages (with nine overlapping positions), of intellectual and ethical development, initially seeing knowledge as simplistic and dualistic, and progressing to a level where their view of the world and themselves is highly complex and contextual and where they see knowledge as actively constructed by themselves based on their existing cognitive structures. He called these stages Dualism, Multiplicity, Relativism and Commitment (Perry, 1999) as illustrated in Figure 1.

Although one might justifiably question the generalizability of Perry's model to the work we do with adult clients of both genders, researchers such as Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) studied women with a wide range of ages and socioeconomic levels and found similar developmental stages. Knefelkamp & Sleptiza (1976),
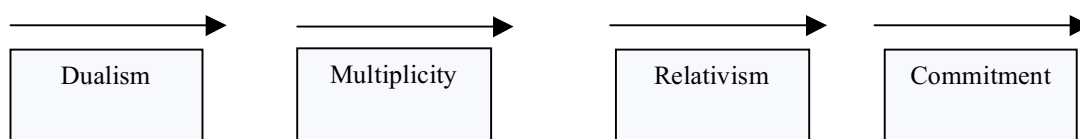

Figure 1.

students of Perry's, adapted his stages and positions to provide a model that could be used in career development.

Use of Perry's Theory in Career Development

In the *Dualism Stage* clients sees the world in "right and wrong" terms. Believing there is only one "right" career path for them, they rely on authorities to provide the "right" answers. In our role as career counselors, we are often asked by clients in this stage to tell them which career path they ought to follow.

Position 1: Clients rely completely on an external authority to answer their question, "What is the right career for me?" and then expect the authority to provide the "right" answer to their question. The decision is unexamined; there is no self- processing.

Position 2: Clients begin to believe that there can be right and wrong career decisions, which causes them to have anxiety. Dissonance ensues, which causes the client to question the counselor as the right authority. Still engaging in dichotomous thinking, the client has little understanding of how to make decisions.

Clients' thinking in the *Multiplicity Stage* is more cognitively complex and they begin to realize the possibility of making right and wrong decisions, causing considerable dissonance for them, fearing that they will make the wrong decision. To minimize this risk clients rely on the counselor for help in using the appropriate decision making process.

Position 3: Clients come to believe that there is an increased possibility that they can make right or wrong career decisions and that the process of making good decisions is quite complex. This creates anxiety for them. While they have seen others find satisfying careers and hope they can too, they have also seen others make decisions that have led to unsatisfying ones and believe this can happen to them as well. They have confidence that the correct decision making process will lead them to the right career. This process consists of many ele-

ments, including examination of their own identity. Thus, they begin to see career decision making as a process involving both external authorities and knowledge of self.

Position 4: Clients believe there are several possible good choices and use a decision making process that weighs the factors, hoping prioritization will lead them to the right choice. They begin to understand the role of self in decision-making but view the role of external influences such as the counselor, family, the job market, and even what their assessment tests suggest as more important.

In the *Relativism* Stage, clients move from an external to internal locus of control (Rotter, 1966). The counselor is no longer the authority to provide the right answer, but rather becomes a resource. Clients see many legitimate career possibilities and use an objective and analytical process that meets their needs in making a decision, for which they take responsibility.

Position 5: Clients in this stage begin exploring, using a process they create for themselves with the guidance of a counselor. They begin to use their analysis of self to systematically examine various career possibilities. They take ownership for the decisions they make that result from this careful analysis.

Position 6: Clients begin to experience chaos from examining all the alternatives and realize that in order to eliminate this chaos they must choose, even though they do not see themselves as ready to do so. Knefelkamp and Sleptiza (1976) describe this as a reflective stage where people consider the consequences of making a decision and confront the responsibility that goes with doing so.

In the *Commitment* Stage, clients take greater responsibility for the career decision making process, analyzing and synthesizing complex information. They begin to see career choice as a commitment of self, moving initially from fear of narrowing their choices to viewing the decision as one that allows them to join a new world. They begin to inte-

grate career choice as part of their self-identity.

Position 7: Early in this position clients fear being defined by the role they have chosen. Later, however, they come to understand that they themselves define their own role and affirm their decision.

Position 8: Clients examine the consequences, both pleasant and unpleasant, of the commitment they have made in their career choice. They are challenged to reconsider that which has led to the choice, such as their values, to reconfirm their self identity- who they are, what their beliefs are, and what they will do with their lives.

Position 9: Clients in this position have clear knowledge of who they are. They reach out to the outer world, seeking out challenges in order to widen their knowledge and learn new things in an effort to attain their full potential.

We have found knowledge of our clients' stages and positions allows us to customize our counseling approach to allow for differences in intellectual processing and meaning making, thus allowing for more developmentally appropriate counseling approaches.

Experiential Learning Theory

In our work with clients and students we have also seen significant differences in how they learn from their experiences. Because career development is a learning process, we examined how differing learning styles affect the counseling process.

Perry (1999), Piaget (1969), Friere (1970), Dewey (1958) and Lewin (1951) stressed that the heart of all learning lies in the way we process experience, in particular, our critical reflection of experience. To that end, we have found experiential learning theory, as developed by David Kolb, complementary to cognitive stage development and helpful in informing our career development work. Kolb's experiential learning theory is consistent with Perry's model of how people learn, grow and develop; both believe the ability to learn from experience is a highly important life long skill. Experiential learning theory posits that learning is a

holistic process of adaptation to the world "whereby knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience" (Kolb, p. 41). The process of experiential learning depicts two dialectical modes for grasping experience; Concrete Experience (CE) and Abstract Conceptualization (AE), and two dialectical modes for transforming experience; Reflective Observation (RO) and Active Experimentation (AE). Experiential learning theory portrays a continuous cycle involving these four distinctive learning modes for processing experience as depicted in figure 2. Present tangible experiences are the basis for thoughtful reflections; in turn, these are assimilated into essential meaning as expressed in abstracted concepts. From this derived meaning new implications for action can be drawn and intentionally experimented with in the shaping of new experiences. For holistic learning to occur, it is necessary to go through all of the phases of Kolb's learning cycle. Learning thus proceeds as a result of the utilization of the four adaptive modes.

To be effective, learners require all four different abilities depicted in the experiential learning cycle model. A learner will choose the appropriate learning abilities needed depending upon the specific situation. *Concrete Experience* is the mode in which experi-

ences are grasped through reliance on the tangible, felt sensing qualities of immediate experience, such as that coming from an informational interview or the first day on a new job. Others perceive new information through *Abstract Conceptualization,* relying on conceptual understanding, symbolic representation, and analysis of ideas such as analyzing and synthesizing one's skills, interests and values. Similarly, in transforming dialectical modes some of us tend to reflect on our actions and carefully watch others in the process while seeking to understand and derive meaning from the experience from different perspectives in *Reflective Observation*. A client asking for feedback about one's abilities or clarifying one's values and priorities in life are examples of this reflective mode. Others choose *Active Experimentation* where they are action oriented and initiate or involve themselves in activities such as scheduling meetings for informational interviews or doing an internship. While each of these dimensions is an independent mode of grasping experience, in combination their emphasis on the development of learning produces the highest level of learning (Kolb, 1984).

Truly effective learners are able to rely flexibly on the four learning modes in whatever combination the situation requires of the individual. Having de-

veloped skills in each area, a client can call on any one of them as needed. While this may be the ideal, Kolb (1976, 1984) theorized that while every individual utilizes each mode to some extent, each has a preferred mode of learning resulting from the tendency to either learn through Concrete Experience, Abstract Conceptualization, Reflective Observation or Active Experimentation.

We believe that experiential learning theory works well in conjunction with cognitive stage development theory and concur with William Perry's (1999) belief that multiple theories are needed to explain the complexity of human learning and meaning making. Indeed Kolb (1984) himself felt that experiential learning theory complements Perry's theory of cognitive stage development.

Early theories of cognitive development, including those developed by Piaget, Kohlberg, Loevenger and Perry presented development as a linear, sequential process. We believe one of the major shortcomings of these theories is that they do not explain the process of moving from one stage to the next. While Perry reports his findings about college students' experience as moving from stages of "dualism" to "commitment", experiential learning theory frames the developmental process by

CONCRETE EXPERIENCE
"Feeling"

ACTIVE EXPERIMENTATION
"Doing"

REFLECTIVE OBSERVATION
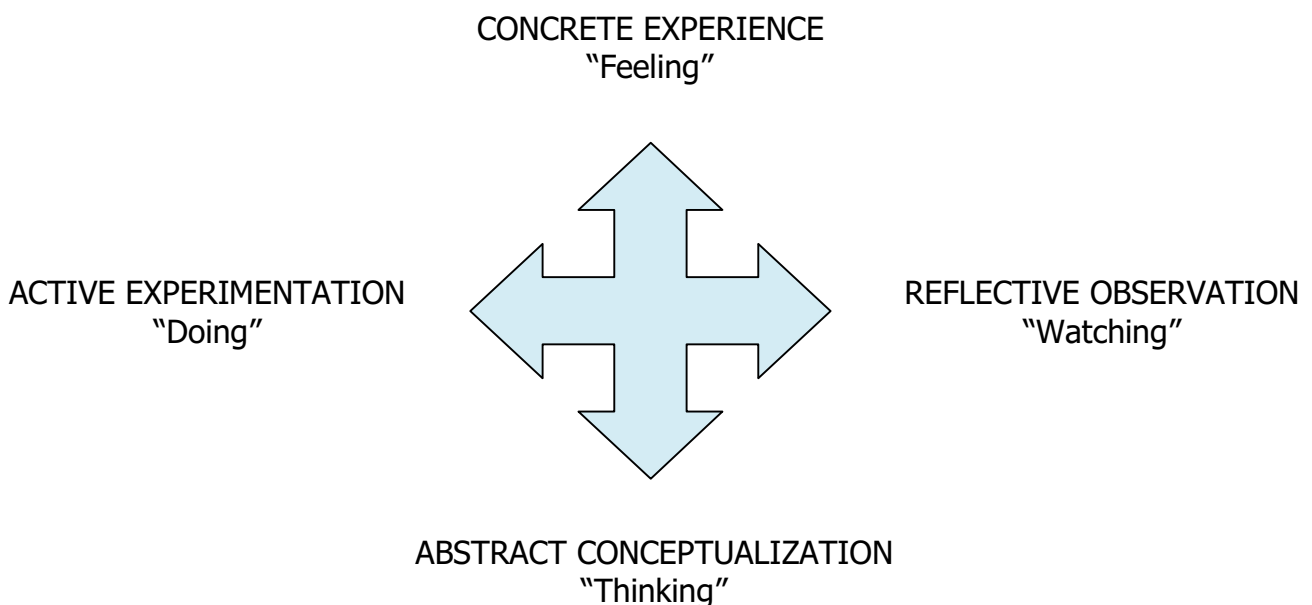"Watching"

ABSTRACT CONCEPTUALIZATION
"Thinking"

Figure 2.

which one moves to increasingly complex stages.

Kolb's cyclical model enriches Perry's linear theory by integrating the experiential learning process as a means of understanding cognitive growth and development. Kolb describes learning as a dynamic process, allowing for a more holistic way of understanding and working with individuals as they move through their stages of development. Kolb's model is not an alternative to Perry's, but rather a complementary framework that addresses cognition, experience, perception, and behavior, thereby embellishing our understanding of personal development; used together they provide a more powerful and useful guide to the understanding of individual growth and development than can either alone. While Perry's theory moves us through increasingly complex stages of intellectual development, Kolb's theory provides a way to understand the deeper level learning necessary to prepare one to enter subsequent stages of cognitive development (see figure 3). In this way the client incorporates earlier learning from experience into a new, higher level of cognitive functioning, much the way we might envision a helix.

Use of Kolb's Theory in Career Development

When one or more of the four learning abilities are underdeveloped or overlooked, holistic learning may be blocked. And, since career development entails a learning process, the inability to use all of these dimensions may well impede client successes in achieving goals. Over utilization of a preferred mode, or under development of another, can lead to incomplete learning in the career development process. Career de-

velopment professionals who understand clients' experiential learning preferences can capitalize on them, while encouraging the strengthening of underdeveloped modes of learning.

When Reflection predominates over Abstract Conceptualization, clients may enjoy gathering a considerable amount of information, but find it challenging to analyze it and make a decision. Clients who are strongest in Abstract Conceptualization may find it rewarding to assimilate disparate facts gathered into a solid plan for action and yet they may have difficulty carrying through with their good intentions because they fear taking risks. Another pitfall of relying on the Abstract Conceptualization mode is that clients may embark on a career without regard for how well it fits their personal values and individual needs.

Others may find it challenging to immerse themselves in an experience, but have difficulty reflecting upon its meaning and significance. For example, one client might rush into an opportunity to act on a career decision without gaining adequate information or reflecting upon the personal value of that information. When Reflective Observation predominates at the expense of other modes for learning from experience, clients may have a flood of ideas, but be unable to make a decision to move forward with a plan of action. When Active Experimentation predominates in the extreme, clients may have a history of making the same mistakes over and over again, neglecting reflection upon the experience as part of a learning process to transform their experience. We so often see clients who participate in numerous interviews without a resulting job offer; this may be attributed to failure to reflect on the effectiveness of their interviewing skills and

demeanor. Or consider clients who fail to recognize their need for working in a collaborative environment and who have a succession of jobs that consistently isolate them from others. In these and similar other situations, a counselor's intervention could guide clients to greater integration of experience by encouraging reflection, thus aiding their development towards a higher level of cognitive functioning. In this regard, feedback processes from a counselor would seek to counter an imbalance between observation and action, either from a tendency for an individual to emphasize decision and action at the expense of information gathering, or from a tendency to become bogged down by data collection and analysis at the expense of risk taking. Ultimately, a holistic learning process seeks to counter ineffective tendencies by promoting higher-order purposeful action to achieve personally directed goals.

Information about clients' preferred modes of learning can inform career counselors in designing an individualized strategy and methodology that enhances their learning and facilitates growth in cognitive development. For example, clients whose strengths are in concrete experience will have a preference for learning through job shadowing and internships, feedback and discussion, and career coaching. On the other hand, clients whose learning strengths are abstract conceptualization will learn best by conducting their own research about their career options and welcome guidance by a counselor who has knowledge about occupations and asks thought provoking questions.

It is important for us to recognize, however, that the comfort with which clients engage in typical career development activities will depend on their
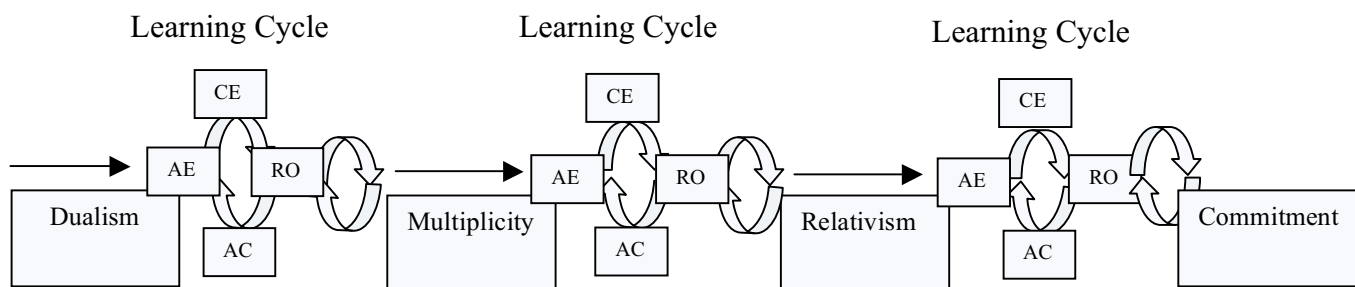
Learning Cycle   **Learning Cycle**   **Learning Cycle**

Figure 3.

stage of cognitive development. Thus, clients in the early stages of cognitive development whose dominant mode of learning is abstract conceptualization will not eagerly pursue a higher order activity such as conducting research until they have developed the sense of personal agency found in later stages.

Conclusion

As we learn more about cognitive stage development and experiential learning theory, it becomes increasingly apparent to us that our clients enter career counseling at many different developmental levels and with different strengths and styles of learning. We believe that a comprehensive career development approach will enable them to engage in a career development process that takes their stages of cognitive development and their experiential learning preferences into consideration. We believe Perry's cognitive stage development and Kolb's experiential learning theories when used together, and in conjunction with traditional career development theories, provide career counselors with a holistic, integrative, individualized approach to career counseling that can successfully be used with traditional career development theories. Thus, experiential learning theory and cognitive stage development theory provide additional lenses through which we may understand our clients. However, conducting research using the Learning Styles Inventory (Kolb, 1999) and the Learning Environment Preferences (LEP) (Moore, 1987) would provide empirical data about the usefulness of these theories in practice. Nonetheless, we believe using these theories in counseling not only maximizes the likelihood of successful career outcomes, but perhaps as importantly engages clients in a developmental experience that promotes a higher level of cognitive functioning.

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Patterns of Workplace Supervisory Roles: Experiences of Canadian Workers

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Abstract

This paper explores the incidence of four supervisory duties and several factors influencing the likelihood of having experience with such responsibilities in the workplace. Supervisory experiences of working Canadians are investigated through secondary analysis of longitudinal panel data from the *Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics* (SLID) over a six-year time frame (1996 to 2001). Over this period, a majority reported at least some workplace experience with supervisory roles, with male workers, university-educated workers, and those from management and certain professional occupational sectors exhibiting markedly higher profiles of supervisory duty experience over time. Two trivariate interactions (university education by occupational sector by supervisory experience, and sex by occupational sector by supervisory experience) are identified as important through multivariate log-linear modelling, and examined further through percentage tables. The strengths of associations between education and supervisory experience, and gender and supervisory experience were mediated to some degree by occupational sector of employment.

Patterns of Workplace Supervisory Roles: Experiences of Canadian Workers

Recent transformations across a wide range of contemporary work organizations are evident in flattened hierarchies with fewer levels of graded authority, reduced ranks of middle managers and smaller core workforces (Foot and Venne, 1990; Leicht, 1998; McBrier and Wilson, 2004). Given such transformations, it is reasonable to expect an increasing proportion of regular full-time workers to assume supervisory roles in the workplace, as evolving organizational demography dictates revised divisions of labour with many such responsibilities being assigned to non-managers. Accordingly, the specific form/content and span of control of supervisory responsibilities will likely become even more important for the career development and progress of large numbers of workers. This paper investigates four dimensions of supervisory duties as experienced by Canadian workers over a six-year period, through the secondary analysis of longitudinal panel data from the *Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics* (SLID, Panel 2, covering 1996 to 2001 inclusive). An analysis of specific dimensions of supervisory duties is essential since position or job titles may not accurately reflect the actual supervisory roles of workers (Pergamit and Veum, 1999; Rosenfeld, Van Buren and Kalleberg, 1998; Rothstein, 2001). Beyond this, the four dimensions were combined into a basic supervisory duty experience scale to distinguish broad levels of experience (from none to high). Log-linear modelling techniques were applied to explore the interactive effects of sex of worker, university education and occupational sector for first-reported job (at the beginning of the longitudinal panel) upon supervisory duty experience. Significant bivariate and trivariate interaction effects were also explored through percentage tables to reveal the complexity of these associations.

Supervisory Roles in the Contemporary Workplace

Previous empirical research has documented considerable numbers and proportions of workers assuming supervisory roles in the workplace, especially in terms of supervising the work of others (Jacobs, 1992; Rothstein, 2001; Pergamit and Veum, 1999, Rosenfeld, Van Buren and Kalleberg, 1998, Maume, 2006). While employee-oriented supervision may represent only one of many possible skill dimensions associated with management work (Schippman, Prien and Hughes, 1991), supervising other workers represents a common and important dimension of supervisory responsibilities in the modern workplace. Yet this form of duty is often distinct from managerial or true decision-making authority within the workplace (Rosenfeld, Van Buren and Kalleberg, 1998; Rothstein, 2001; Smith, 2002). To illustrate, drawing on US *General Social Survey* data, Rothstein (2001:666) found large percentages of workers reported supervising the work of others, but much lower proportions of these same workers indicated that they had full responsibility for setting pay or determining promotions of subordinate workers, leading him to conclude that control over pay and promotions likely represents "… a higher grade of responsibility than control over their job tasks, and may be associated with a higher rung on the job ladder." Beyond supervising other workers, the present research explored three other supervisory duty dimensions captured in Canadian SLID data, including influencing budget and staffing, influencing pay and promotions, and deciding work for others. Together, these four dimensions of supervisory responsibility represent useful indicators of the scope of supervisory experiences of workers in the modern workplace.

Given recent transformations within work organizations, supervisory roles in the workplace are expected to assume even greater importance for worker careers paths and progression over time. Accepting one or more supervisory duties in the workplace may potentially reduce negative consequences for workers associated with "career blockage" (Foot and Venne, 1990, Rothman, 1998), or may reduce the risk of reaching a "professional plateau" in the course of a career (Lee, 2002), as new

responsibilities would help workers to develop additional skills to remain employable, marketable and current in their occupations or professions. Assuming supervisory roles in the workplace is consistent with the emergence of the "boundaryless career" (Arthur, Khapova and Wilderom, 2005), which highlights individual worker accountability for career development and progress in an era of downsized organizations and flattened hierarchies. It is also consistent with emerging "spiral career trajectories" (entailing multiple lateral changes and fewer upward moves within flattened work organizations – Foot and Venne, 1990), supplanting traditional linear career paths of upward status mobility via formal promotions in the workplace. Assuming supervisory responsibilities may alter workers' subjective assessment of "career plateau" reflected in their perceived prospects for advancement within an organization (Nachbagauer and Riedl, 2002). Further, taking on supervisory duties in the workplace may reduce the destruction of individual worker "human capital" (experience within a given occupation or industry) ensuing from high levels of occupational / industrial mobility (Kambourov and Manovskii, 2004), and may reduce the negative economic consequences associated with high external mobility over time (Dwyer, 2004; le Grand and Tåhlin, 2002; Kambourov and Manovskii, 2004).

Factors Influencing Supervisory Responsibility Experiences

This analysis focused on three important factors expected to influence the supervisory responsibility experiences of Canadian workers – gender, attainment of university-level education, and initial occupational sector of employment (for the first-reported job of workers at the beginning of the survey panel in 1996). Beginning with gender effects, previous research has documented that female workers are less likely to assume supervisory duties relative to their male counterparts (Jacobs, 1992; Smith, 2002; Rosenfeld, Van Buren and Kalleberg, 1998, Maume, 2006), and also less likely to attain higher levels of supervisory responsibility (Smith, 2002; Rothstein, 2001). Despite the trend of

growing female employment in a range of traditional male-dominated professional and managerial occupations (Hughes, 1995; Jacobs, 1992; Cooke-Reynolds and Zukewich, 2004), there remains a high degree of gender occupational segregation in post-industrial labour markets which limit career advancement opportunities for females to positions of authority in the workplace. "Glass ceiling" effects continue to limit female workers' success in terms of workplace authority level, with relatively few women attaining senior management positions (Jacobs, 1992; Smith, 2002). Smith (2002:532) identified gender differences in workplace authority as a significant source of gender inequality, arguing that "The relative location of men and women within the structure of the economy, and their proportional representation within such structures, account for more of the gender gap in authority than the human capital attributes of workers". For the present research, it was hypothesized that female workers would be more likely to report no supervisory duty experience in the workplace over the six-year period relative to their male counterparts. Conversely, male workers were hypothesized to exhibit 'high' levels of supervisory duty experience (signified by at least some experience on all four duty dimensions over time), relative to female workers.

The human capital model is a useful perspective for interpreting and understanding supervisory responsibility experiences of workers over time. Personal investments in human capital (such as university education) impact employment outcomes (such as occupational sector), which in turn can influence the likelihood of attaining supervisory roles in the workplace. Canary and Canary (2006) found that within personal career narratives of supervisors, most interviewees identified individual-level determinants of education and training as contributing to their career development and impacting one or more career moves over time. Previous research has demonstrated that personal investments in different forms of human capital (including education, training and development, career tenure, and hours of work) enhances prospects for attaining supervisory authority in the

workplace (Smith, 2002; Metz and Tharenou, 2001). For the present research, it was hypothesized that workers with any university-level education would be more likely to report 'high' levels of supervisory duty experience, while those without any university education would be more likely to have no supervisory duty experience over the six-year period.

Occupational sector of employment was used in this analysis as a basic indicator of occupational status within the labour force, broadly distinguishing management, professional, white collar and blue collar occupations. Previous empirical research has not specifically explored the relationship between occupational sector and supervisory duty experience in the workplace, although hypotheses were articulated drawing on an understanding of the content of each of these broad sectors. For the present research, it was hypothesized that workers initially employed in the management occupational sector would be most likely to exhibit 'high' levels of supervisory duty experience over time, given the obvious linkage between managerial authority and supervisory roles in the workplace. Second, workers initially employed in professional occupational sectors (such as natural and applied sciences, social sciences and related, and health occupations sectors) were hypothesized to be more likely to report 'high' levels of supervisory duty experience. Third, workers from white collar (sales and service) and blue collar occupational sectors were hypothesized to be most likely to have no supervisory duty experience over time.

While there are many other factors which may influence or impact supervisory responsibility experiences over time, the present research concentrated on these three variables investigating interactions with the dependent variable of level of supervisory duty experience of workers. Beyond testing hypothesized relationships between each of these three influencing factors (gender, university education and occupational sector) and the level of supervisory duty experience of workers over time, trivariate interactions involving pairs of factors and the dependent variable of supervisory duty experience were also explored. Although formal hypotheses

were not specified for trivariate interactions, it was generally expected that the nature and strength of associations between gender and supervisory duties, and university education and supervisory duties, would be mediated by occupational sector. Multivariate log-linear modelling techniques were applied to statistically prioritize relationships, accompanied with interpretation of specific associations found within both bivariate and trivariate percentage tables.

Research Methods

The research methodology employed was secondary analysis of longitudinal survey data from the *Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics* (SLID, Panel 2, 1996-2001). This is a national survey collected by Statistics Canada, designed and stratified to be broadly representative of the Canadian labour force (excluding residents of the northern territories, residents of institutions and persons living on Indian reserves). Each SLID longitudinal panel is comprised of approximately 30,000 individual Canadians with multiple interviews conducted with the same survey respondents over a six-year time period. As noted by Giles (2001:365), "In SLID, the focus extends from static measures to the whole range of transitions, durations and repeat occurrences of people's financial and work situations." The scope, breadth of content and large sample size of SLID, along with its longitudinal design made it ideal for exploring the dynamic nature of experiences of Canadian workers with respect to supervisory roles in the workplace. Four distinct supervisory duties were recorded in SLID for employment positions held at the end of each year of the panel (1996 to 2001 inclusive). Only Canadian workers with a valid occupation code for all six years of the SLID panel (signifying employment in all years) were included in this secondary data analysis. Data presented in tables below were weighted to produce estimates of the Canadian working population, in accordance with SLID data release guidelines.

The four facets of supervisory duties captured in SLID data include influencing budget and staffing, influencing pay and promotions, deciding work for others, and supervising others. For each of these four dimensions, end-of-year states were binary coded to indicate either not having or having the supervisory role (coded '0' or '1' respectively). These binary variables were then aggregated across all panel years to capture the 64 possible permutations of binary outcomes across the six years (2^6), ranging from '000000' signifying no supervisory experience on a given dimension, to '111111' denoting continuous experience with that duty. Given sample size limitations, it was not practical to examine each of the 64 distinct permutations representing stability and mobility in supervisory duty experiences, so permutations were collapsed into a smaller set of logically-coherent categories reflecting broader patterns. The collapsed supervisory experience scales were anchored by two stable end categories of no experience and continuous experience over time. Intermediate scale categories represented different forms of mobility including being promoted to the duty, demoted from the duty, and a residual category for various forms of irregular or mixed mobility. The constructed supervisory duty experience scale represents a continuum of the form and extent of supervisory experience on each of these four dimensions, depicting both stability and mobility in experience, and trends over time (promotion, demotion and irregular patterns).

The supervisory duty experience scales are presented in Table 1 for each of the four duty dimensions. About two-thirds of Canadian workers had no duty experience over the six-year period with influencing budget and staffing or pay and promotions, while less than half had no experience with deciding work for others and supervising others. Conversely, only about a third of the population had experience with influencing budget and staffing or pay and promotions, duties which are typically associated with more senior managerial occupations. At the other end of the continuum, continuous supervisory experience over the six-year period ranged from about one in 31 workers influencing budget and staffing, to about one in ten workers supervising others. These two end categories of no experience and continuous experience represent true stability on these supervisory duty di-

mensions (no change over time). In total, these two categories accounted for between half of workers (51.8 percent) for supervising others, to over two-thirds (71.1 percent) for influencing pay and promotions. Conversely, between 28.9 and 48.2 percent of all workers exhibited at least some degree of mobility or change over time across these four dimensions of supervisory duties.

There is a relatively tight range in promotion percentages, from almost one in thirteen for influencing pay and promotions, to one in nine for supervising others. 'Promoted to duty' signified that workers did not hold the duty at the beginning of the survey panel (1996), but assumed the role sometime after and continued to hold the duty to 2001. Demotions from duties ranged from about one in 24 workers for influencing pay and promotions, to about one in twelve for supervising others. 'Demoted from duty' indicated that workers held the duty initially in 1996, but dropped the role some time after that, and did not resume the duty. Unfortunately, demotions could not be broken down further to distinguish voluntary or involuntary demotions – whether the decision to give up a supervisory role was that of the worker, or his/her employer. Canadian workers were more likely to be promoted to than demoted from a given duty, with a difference of about three percentage points across the four dimensions. This implies a net gain or increase in experience on each of these duty dimensions over time.

When Canadian workers are mobile with respect to these supervisory duties, they are less likely to follow a standard path (either promotion or demotion), and more likely to exhibit an irregular form of mobility. Mixed mobility refers very broadly to all forms of irregular mobility in relation to given roles, and in total exceeds the combined percentages for the more pure forms of mobility – promoted to and demoted from duty. Between about one in six and over one-quarter of workers exhibited mixed mobility across these four dimensions. Within the residual mixed mobility category (not shown in Table 1), the most common occurrence was short-term limited experience (Out-In-Out) with each of these four roles. Canadian workers were more likely to test or try out a

Table 1
Supervisory Experience Scale for Four Supervisory Duties
for Canadian Working Population (1996-2001)

Supervisory Duty	No Experience	Demoted from Duty[1]	Mixed Mobility[2]	Promoted to Duty[3]	Continuous Experience	Canadian Working Population[4]
Influence Budget and Staffing	65.1%	4.4	19.3	8.0	3.2	8,691,400
Influence Pay and Promotions	66.9%	4.2	17.2	7.5	4.2	8,691,400
Decide Work for Others	47.8%	7.0	27.2	10.9	7.2	8,691,400
Supervise Others	41.9%	8.1	28.6	11.5	9.9	8,691,400

*   Data from Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) Panel 2 (1996-2001)

1   Held duty in 1996, but was demoted from duty sometime after 1996 and did not assume duty again.

2   All irregular patterns of mobility, of both promotion to and demotion from supervisory duty during 6-year time frame.

3   Promoted to supervisory duty sometime after 1996 and continued to perform duty up to 2001

4   Includes only Canadian workers reporting an occupation in each of the SLID survey years – 1996 to 2001 inclusive.

Out pattern), than to have a temporary interruption from a given duty (the reverse In-Out-In path). All other irregular mobility (involving multiple promotions to and demotions from a given duty over six years) accounted for about one in ten workers at most. Data in Table 1 revealed both stability and mobility, and complex patterns of experience with respect to these four supervisory duty dimensions.

Data Analysis

Having introduced supervisory duty experience on these four dimensions in an aggregate profile, the focus of subsequent analysis is on a collapsed, basic scale reflecting the degree of experience across all four duties, with categories of 'none' (no experience with any of the four duties between 1996 and 2001), 'some' (indicating experience with at least one of the four duties over time), and 'high' (at least some experience on all four of these duties). The effects of gender, university education and occupational sector for first reported jobs of Canadian workers upon the collapsed supervisory experience scale are explored initially using bivariate percentage tables (Tables 2 and 3). Log linear modelling is then applied as a heuristic technique to statistically prioritize relationships or interactions between the three independent variables and the dependent variable of supervisory duty experience (Table 4). This leads to the identification of two important trivariate

gated more closely through trivariate percentage tables (Tables 5 and 6).

In aggregate terms (first panel of Table 2), over a third of all Canadian workers had no supervisory duty experience, while about two in five exhibited some experience, and less than a quarter of the population reported 'high' supervisory duty experience. In terms of gender effects, over a quarter of male workers exhibited 'high' supervisory duty experience compared to about one in six female workers (8.9 percentage point difference). Conversely, female workers were much more likely to report no supervisory duty experience relative to male workers (12.1 percentage point difference). Hence at the bivariate level, there is a clear gender distinction in supervisory duty experience in favour of male workers. This is entirely consistent with gender differences in supervisory roles reported in previous empirical research. With respect to university education, there is a stronger association with supervisory duty experience at the bivariate level. Over a third of Canadian workers with at least some university exhibited 'high' supervisory duty experience compared to less than one in five without any university education (16.2 percentage point difference). Conversely, two in five workers without any university education had no supervisory duty experience over time compared to about one-quarter of workers with some university education (14.8 percentage point difference). Hence, education does

education has a markedly positive impact on the likelihood of assuming supervisory roles in the workplace.

The third determinant of supervisory duty experience explored in this paper is occupational sector of employment, reflected in the classification of the first reported job of Canadian workers in 1996, as coded using the 1991 Standard Occupational Classification or SOC (Statistics Canada, 2005). Although SLID survey data revealed significant occupational mobility over the course of the six-year panel period, the focus for this analysis is on the first reported occupation in 1996 since this would represent a starting or reference point and serve as a potential springboard for subsequent supervisory duty experiences over time. Table 3 profiles the collapsed supervisory experience scale for ten broad occupational sectors of employment. There are substantial differences in supervisory duty experiences across the ten occupational sectors profiled, with management occupations being the most obviously distinct sector. About three in five workers in management occupations exhibited high supervisory duty experience, and over 90 percent reported at least some experience over time. This is an expected finding since authority and control associated with managerial positions generally entails direct supervisory responsibilities such as those captured in the SLID survey. The next highest supervisory duty experience profile was

Table 2
Summary Supervisory Experience Scale (1996-2001)
By Sex and Education of Canadian Worker*

Supervisory Duty Variable / Category	None[1]	Some	High[2]	Working Population[3]
Working Population	37.4%	40.4	22.2	8,691,400
Sex of Worker				
Female	44.2%	38.6	17.2	3,812,000
Male	32.1%	41.8	26.1	4,879,400
Education of Worker				
No University Education	40.9%	40.7	18.5	6,678,300
Yes, Some University	26.1%	39.3	34.7	2,013,200

*Data from Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) PANEL 2 (1996-2001)

1   No experience on any of four supervisory dimensions between 1996 and 2001.
2   Experience on all four supervisory dimensions for at least some time between 1996 and 2001
3   SLID sample data weighted to produce working population estimates.

found for the natural and applied sciences occupational sector (which would include engineers, architects, and related professional and technical occupations). About a third exhibited 'high' supervisory duty experience, and fully three-quarters of workers from this sector reported at least some experience over time. Other professional-oriented sectors also had high supervisory experience profiles including social sciences and related occupations, as well as art, culture, recreation and sport occupations.

Workers from traditional blue collar occupational sectors (the last three sectors in Table 3) exhibited the lowest profiles of supervisory duty experiences with the highest percentages of no supervisory experience, along with those from the white collar sales and services occupational sector. Conversely, workers starting out in managerial or professional occupational sectors exhibited much stronger profiles of experience, and were generally less likely to report no supervisory duty experience. One

Table 3
Summary Supervisory Experience Scale (1996-2001)
By Occupational Sector in 1996 (First Reported Job)*

Supervisory Duty SOC Sector in 1996	None	Some	High	Working Population
Management Occupations	7.1%	31.9	61.1	843,000
Business, Finance and Administrative Occupations	38.6%	40.0	21.3	1,600,700
Natural and Applied Science and Related Occupations	23.9%	44.1	32.0	449,000
Health Occupations	40.2%	46.7	13.1	461,500
Occup. in Social Science, Education, Government Service and Religion	33.6%	44.1	22.3	585,800
Occup. In Art, Culture, Recreation and Sport	34.9%	39.2	25.9	238,800
Sales and Service Occup.	41.9%	41.0	17.1	2,101,000
Trades, Transport and Equipment Operator Occup.	45.6%	40.3	14.1	1,302,900
Occupations Unique to Primary Industry	42.9%	44.6	12.5	432,700
Occup. Unique to Process, Manufacturing and Utilities	50.8%	37.2	12.0	676,000
Working Population	37.4%	40.4	22.2	8,691,400

*Data from Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) PANEL 2 (1996-2001)

notable exception to this pattern was seen for the health occupations sector with a high percentage for no duty experience and a very low percentage for 'high' supervisory duty experience. The content of this sector (ranging from high status professional positions to highly-skilled technical to less-skilled assisting occupations) along with the relative in-dependent and often autonomous nature of work of many health care practition-ers may partially explain the lower su-pervisory duty experience profile found for this occupational sector. As well, workers from the business, finance and administrative occupations sector exhib-ited an average supervisory experience profile which is not surprising given the wide diversity of occupations within this sector, ranging from clerks and sec-retaries to professional accountants and auditors.

A wide variation was found across the occupational sectors for the 'high' supervisory duty experience category, ranging from a low of 12.0 percent for workers in blue collar processing, man-ufacturing and utilities occupations to the high of 61.1 percent for workers in management occupations (49.1 percent-age point difference). The same is true for the other end of the scale, with no

supervisory duty experience ranging from as low as 7.1 percent for workers starting in management occupations to 50.8 percent for workers in the same blue collar sector (43.7 percentage point difference). Even excluding the obvi-ously distinct management occupations sector from consideration, there are still substantial percentage differences for these two scale categories ('none' and 'high') across the remaining nine occu-pational sectors. Hence, the strength of this bivariate association is not uniquely attributable to differences between workers initially employed in manage-ment and non-management occupations. Despite large magnitude differences across these ten occupational sectors, it warrants noting that workers *throughout* the Canadian labour force (covering managerial, professional, white-collar and blue-collar occupational sectors) have supervisory opportunities – across all ten occupational sectors, half or more of workers exhibited at least some supervisory duty experience over the six-year time frame.

Log-linear modelling was applied to the four-variable data array (sex by university education by occupational sector by collapsed supervisory experi-ence scale, producing a 120-cell table)

as a heuristic device to statistically pri-oritise both bivariate and trivariate inter-action terms (all involving the dependent variable of level of supervi-sory duty experience), leading to selec-tion of an optimal model. All data were weighted to incorporate SLID survey design effects, and then re-weighted to produce the original sample size for cor-rect sample-based statistical contrasts using log-linear modelling. A forward hierarchical inclusion design was ap-plied to the data array beginning with the model of structural independence (assuming no relationships between in-dependent and dependent variables), and progressively testing each possible interaction term and selecting the best term at each stage for inclusion in the final model. At each stage of model test-ing, a single interaction term is selected for inclusion in the optimal model – the term which maximizes the reduction in the maximum likelihood estimate (L^2 statistic). Only interaction terms which include the dependent variable of super-visory duty experience are tested since this is the primary variable of interest.

Table 4 reports all tested log-linear model contrasts for supervisory duty ex-perience data ordered from simplest to most complex model. Given the large

Table 4
Log-Linear Model Contrasts for Supervisory Duty Data
Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) Panel 2 (1996-2001)

Model Specification - see variable legend below	D.F.	L^2	$\ddot{A}L^2$	R^2	$\ddot{A}R^2$
(S)(U)(O)(D)	78	1712.12	---	---	---
(S)(U)(O)(D), (S*D)	76	1519.27			
(S)(U)(O)(D), (U*D)	76	1407.14			
(S)(U)(O)(D), (O*D)	60	564.31	1147.81	.670	.670
(S)(U)(O)(D), (O*D)(U*D)	58	402.86			
(S)(U)(O)(D), (O*D)(S*D)	58	294.59	269.72	.828	.158
* (S)(U)(O)(D), (O*D)(S*D)(U*D)	56	160.07	134.52	.907	.079
(S)(U)(O)(D), (O*D)(U*D)(S*D), (S*U*D)	54	146.37			
(S)(U)(O)(D), (O*D)(U*D)(S*D), (S*O*D)	38	125.17			
(S)(U)(O)(D), (O*D)(U*D)(S*D), (U*O*D)	38	105.79	54.28	.938	.031
(S)(U)(O)(D), (O*D)(U*D)(S*D), (U*O*D)(S*U*D)	36	92.02			
** (S)(U)(O)(D), (O*D)(U*D)(S*D), (U*O*D)(S*O*D)	20	66.32	39.47	.961	.023
(S)(U)(O)(D), (O*D)(U*D)(S*D), (U*O*D)(S*O*D)(S*U*D)	18	50.35	15.97	.971	.010

S : Sex of Worker   U : University Education   O : Occupational Sector   D : Supervisory Duty Experience
    *   Optimal bivariate model   **   Optimal trivariate model

sample size drawn from SLID Panel 2 for analysis, virtually any statistical contrast of maximum likelihood estimates (simply comparing L^2 statistics) would be deemed statistically significant at conventional alpha criteria levels. To avoid this complication in statistical contrasts, the unique effect of each interactive term inclusion at each stage is assessed using an R^2 analog statistic (so named because it takes on the properties of a multiple R^2 with values ranging from zero for no improvement in fit, to 1.0 for a perfect fit, attained only with the saturated log-linear model containing all possible interaction terms involving the dependent variable). Model building continues until the inclusion of additional interaction terms yields modest reductions to maximum likelihood estimates reflected in negligible change to R^2 analog values.

Moving beyond the model of structural independence (first block of Table 4), the most significant bivariate interaction term is occupational sector by supervisory duty experience (O*D – the last row of block 2), which reduces the maximum likelihood statistic by 67 percent (as revealed by the R^2 analog statistic). The next stage of model building (block 3) tests the remaining two bivariate interaction terms, and identifies sex by supervisory duty experience (S*D) as a highly significant term, resulting in a further 15.8 percent reduction in maximum likelihood estimate, above and beyond that contributed by the interaction of occupational sector by supervisory duty experience – this is shown as $ÄR^2$ which quantifies statistical improvement between the optimal models at block 2 and 3 stages. Beyond this, the university education by supervisory duty experience interaction term (U*D) yields a smaller reduction to maximum likelihood estimates, with a $ÄR^2$ of only 7.9 percent, above and beyond the previous model. The block 4 log-linear model (including all possible bivariate interaction terms involving the dependent variable) is selected as the optimal bivariate model to serve as a baseline for subsequent testing of trivariate interaction terms.

Trivariate interaction terms are tested in subsequent blocks presented in Table 4 to determine if more complex terms should be included to define the optimal model. Inclusion of the trivariate interaction term of university education by occupational sector by supervisory duty experience (U*O*D) results in the greatest reduction in maximum likelihood estimates, with a $ÄR^2$ of 3.1 percent above and beyond the best bivariate interaction model. The addition of the interaction term of sex by occupational sector by supervisory duty experience (S*O*D) results in another 2.3 percent improvement, and this log-linear model is selected as optimal for explaining relationships between this set of variables. The final block shown in Table 4 tests the last of the three trivariate interaction terms of sex by university education by supervisory responsibility (S*U*D) with negligible improvement of 1.0 percent.

Previous tables (2 and 3) profiled bivariate relationships with the dependent variable corresponding to each of the three bivariate interaction terms included in the optimal log-linear model. The two trivariate interaction terms contained in the optimal model are profiled in percentage form in Tables 5 and 6 below. Beginning with the interaction between education, occupation and supervisory duty experience, Table 5 reveals that Canadian workers with some university education consistently had higher supervisory duty experience profiles across all ten of the SOC occupational sectors. However, the education effect varied markedly in magnitude across these ten sectors. Differences between workers with and without university education in 'high' supervisory experience percentages ranged across the sectors from 2.9 to 33.3 percentage points for workers from social sciences and related occupations, and those from processing, manufacturing and utilities occupations sectors, respectively. Percentage differences between workers with and without university education with no supervisory duty experience ranged from 6.1 to 29.5 percentage points for workers from these same two occupational sectors, respectively. However, caution should be exercised with the interpretation of results for the blue collar processing, manufacturing and utilities occupational sector, given the relatively small number (both in unweighted sample size and working population estimate) of workers in this

sector with any university education. Beyond this, the largest percentage point differences between workers with and without university education were found for natural and applied sciences, and health occupations sectors, with 'high' supervisory duty experience differences in the order of 19 percentage points.

For workers without any university education, levels of 'high' supervisory duty experience ranged from as low as one in ten workers (10.8 percent for workers in the processing, manufacturing and utilities occupations sector) to over half (56.0 percent for workers in management occupations). Levels of high supervisory duty experience were markedly higher for workers with some university education, ranging from about one in five (20.1 percent for workers in primary industry occupations) to almost three-quarters (70.7 percent for workers in management occupations). Once again, workers starting out in management occupations were distinct from workers from all other occupational sectors with a markedly higher profile of supervisory duty experience. For the 'high' supervisory experience category, the percentage of workers from management occupations is 26.6 to 31.4 percentage points greater than the second highest occupational sector, for workers with and without university education, respectively. This confirms that workers starting out in management occupations – with or without university education – are much more likely to have had experience involving all four of the supervisory duties examined over the six-year time frame.

Turning to the interaction between sex, occupation and supervisory duty experience, Table 6 shows that male workers had higher supervisory duty experience profiles relative to female workers across all ten SOC occupational sectors. Male workers consistently exhibited higher percentages in the 'high' supervisory experience category, while female workers consistently had greater percentages in the 'none' category. However, beyond this general pattern there was marked variation in the magnitude of gender differences across the ten occupational sectors. Differences between male and female workers in

Table 5
Summary Supervisory Experience Scale (1996-2001)
By Occupational Sector in 1996 (First Reported Job) By Education of Worker *

Any University Education		No	Univ.		Some	Univ.	
Supervisory Responsibility SOC Occupational Sector (1996)	None	Some	High	Canadian Working Population	None	Some	High	Canadian Working Population
Management Occupations	9.3%	34.6	56.0	555,200	2.7%	26.6	70.7	287,900
Business, Finance, Admin. Occup.	42.6%	39.3	18.1	1,240,400	24.9%	42.6	32.5	360,300
Natural & Applied Science Occup.	27.5%	48.8	23.7	253,800	19.3%	38.0	42.7	195,300
Health Occupations	44.1%	50.1	5.8	282,400	34.0%	41.4	24.7	179,100
Soc.Sci., Educ., Govt. Serv., Relig.	38.3%	37.1	24.6	131,100	32.2%	46.1	21.7	454,800
Art, Culture, Recreation, Sport Occ.	38.8%	39.1	22.0	136,000	29.8%	39.2	31.0	102,800
Sales & Service Occupations	42.9%	42.1	15.1	1,777,000	36.5%	35.5	28.0	324,000
Trades, Transport, Equipment Oper.	46.2%	40.0	13.8	1,255,600	32.0%	47.2	20.8	47,300
Primary Industry Occupations	43.6%	44.6	11.8	395,900	34.9%	45.0	20.1	36,800
Processing, Mfg., Utilities Occup.	51.9%	37.3	10.8	651,100	22.4%	33.5	44.1	25,000
Working Population	40.9%	40.7	18.5	6,678,300	26.1%	39.3	34.7	2,013,200

*   Data from Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) Panel 2 (1996-2001)

'high' supervisory experience percentages ranged from 1.5 to 18.6 percentage points for workers from primary industry occupations, and those from social sciences and related occupations sectors, respectively. Percentage differences between male and female workers with no supervisory duty experience ranged from 2.1 to 23.4 percentage points for workers from health occupations, and those from social science and related occupational sectors, respectively. Male workers from social science and related occupations, and from business, finance and administrative occupations were much more likely to exhibit 'high' supervisory duty experience relative to female workers from these same occupational sectors, with differences of 18.6 and 17.6 percentage points, respectively. Conversely, female workers from social science and related occupations, and processing, manufacturing and utilities occupations were much more likely to have no supervisory duty experience relative to male workers, with differences of 23.4 and 22.3 percentage points, respectively.

For male workers, levels of 'high' supervisory duty experience ranged from about one in eight workers (12.9 percent for workers from primary industry occupations) to almost two-thirds (65.1 percent for workers from management occupations). For female workers, 'high' supervisory experience levels ranged from as low as one in 16 workers (6.2 percent for workers from processing, manufacturing and utilities

Table 6
Summary Supervisory Experience Scale (1996-2001)
By Occupational Sector in 1996 (First Reported Job) By Sex of Worker *

Sex of Worker		Female	Worker		Male	Worker	
Supervisory Responsibility SOC Occupational Sector (1996)	None	Some	High	Canadian Working Population	None	Some	High	Canadian Working Population
Management Occupations	10.3%	37.0	52.7	273,700	5.5%	29.4	65.1	569,300
Business, Finance, Admin. Occup.	44.1%	39.8	16.1	1,124,500	25.8%	40.6	33.7	476,200
Natural & Applied Science Occup.	28.2%	44.5	27.4	84,600	23.0%	44.0	33.0	364,400
Health Occupations	40.6%	47.2	12.3	376,500	38.5%	44.8	16.7	85,000
Soc.Sci., Educ., Govt. Serv., Relig.	43.0%	42.2	14.8	350,200	19.6%	47.0	33.4	235,700
Art, Culture, Recreation, Sport Occ.	42.0%	33.6	24.4	129,700	26.5%	45.8	27.7	109,100
Sales & Service Occupations	50.4%	36.4	13.2	1,141,200	31.8%	46.6	21.7	959,800
Trades, Transport, Equipment Oper.	62.9%	29.3	7.8	67,500	44.7%	40.9	14.4	1,235,400
Primary Industry Occupations	51.7%	36.9	11.4	96,200	40.4%	46.8	12.9	336,500
Processing, Mfg., Utilities Occup.	67.6%	26.1	6.2	168,100	45.3%	40.8	13.9	507,900
Working Population	44.2%	38.6	17.2	3,812,000	32.1%	41.8	26.1	4,879,400

*   Data from Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) Panel 2 (1996-2001)

occupations) to just over half (52.7 percent for workers from management occupations). Consistent with previous findings, both male and female workers starting out in management occupations exhibited markedly greater supervisory duty experience relative to workers from the remaining nine occupational sectors. The percentage of workers with 'high' supervisory duty experience for workers from management occupations is 25.3 and 31.4 percent greater than that found for the second highest occupational sector for female and male workers, respectively. While significant gender differences remain, both male and female workers starting out in management occupations were much more likely to report experience with all four supervisory duty dimensions over time.

Discussion and Conclusions

Over three in five Canadian workers reported at least some supervisory duty experience between 1996 and 2001, with more than half deciding work for, and supervising other workers, and about a third influencing budget and staffing, and pay and promotions in the workplace. Beyond the prevalence of supervisory responsibilities revealed by the aggregate profile, the multivariate log-linear modelling results and analysis of percentage tables provided support for each of the bivariate hypotheses stated above. Specifically, male workers, workers with any university education, and workers from management (especially) and certain professional occupational sectors exhibited markedly higher profiles of supervisory duty experience over the six-year time frame. Conversely, female workers, those without any university education, and workers from both blue and white collar occupational sectors were more likely to report no supervisory duty experience over time. Based on the cumulative R^2 analog statistic from the optimal bivariate stage model (Table 4), log-linear modelling confirmed that approximately 90 percent of variation found in the 120-cell, four-variable data array could be accounted for through the inclusion of these three bivariate interaction terms (of gender, university education and occupational sector, each by supervisory duty experience of workers).

Log-linear modelling also identi-

fied two trivariate interactions (university education by occupational sector by supervisory experience, and sex by occupational sector by supervisory experience) as statistically important, accounting for an additional five percent of explained variation within the data array, yielding a cumulative total R^2 analog value of 96.1 percent (Table 4). Closer inspection of the percentage tables for these two trivariate interaction terms (Tables 5 and 6) revealed that associations between university education and supervisory experience, and sex and supervisory experience were mediated to some degree by occupational sector of employment. The strengths of the bivariate associations were clearly impacted by the occupational sector where workers were initially employed at the beginning of the survey panel.

In terms of notable interactive combinations, male workers from management occupations were the most likely to report experience on all four supervisory duty dimensions over time (70.7 percent), followed by university-educated workers from the same occupational sector (65.1 percent). University-educated workers from natural sciences and related occupations also exhibited a 'high' supervisory experience profile (42.7 percent), along with male workers from business, finance and administrative occupations, and social sciences and related occupations sectors (33.7 and 33.4 percent, respectively). Conversely, workers without any university education from the health occupations sector were the least likely to report a 'high' level of supervisory experience over time (5.8 percent), as well as female workers from blue collar occupational sectors (ranging from 6.2 to 11.4 percent across the three sectors). From the other end of the scale, female workers from each of the three blue collar occupational sectors were most likely to report no supervisory duty experience (ranging from 51.7 to 67.6 percent across sectors), along with female workers from white collar sales and services occupations (50.4 percent). As well, workers without university education from blue collar sectors of processing, manufacturing and utilities occupations, and trades, transport and equipment operator occupations were most likely to have no supervisory duty

experience over time (at 51.9 and 46.2 percent, respectively).

This analysis focused on four distinct dimensions of supervisory responsibilities in the workplace (influencing budget and staffing, pay and promotions, deciding work for others, and supervising others), as captured in SLID longitudinal panel data, and subsequently reduced to a basic supervisory duty experience scale. While these four dimensions are clearly important in defining workplace supervisory roles, they are certainly not exhaustive. There are other facets of supervisory responsibilities in the workplace – these would include the number of subordinates supervised, relative position within the organizational hierarchy, the scope or extent of decision-making responsibilities within organizations, and whether decision-making authority is exclusive or shared. These facets were not captured through SLID and accordingly could not be investigated. Future research could explore these and other dimensions of workplace supervisory roles to better appreciate the full scope and context of such duties.

The temporal design of the SLID longitudinal panel (covering a six-year period between 1996 and 2001) restricted the analysis of supervisory duty experiences to a relatively short time span. Given typical career durations of thirty or more years, the panel design covers only a small segment of total career experiences of workers. If feasible, future research could broaden the scope of investigating supervisory experiences and career outcomes either through the use of more extended longitudinal panel surveys, or through survey methodologies which gather more retrospective data encompassing a broader time frame. For research on the many and varied forms of job mobility, Rosenfeld (1992) highlighted the importance of examining complete work histories, which would go well beyond the limited time frame afforded by SLID longitudinal data. Ideally, future research could address the full career histories of workers, from the school-to-work transition to currently-held positions. Despite the aforementioned limitations to the measurement of supervisory duty experiences, these SLID data did reflect the prevalence of such experiences among

Canadian workers, and also exposed the dynamic and evolving nature of such duties over even a relatively brief time span in the careers of workers.

While log-linear modelling techniques applied in this paper were very useful for identifying and statistically prioritizing both bivariate and trivariate interaction effects involving the dependent scale of supervisory duty experience, this analysis was clearly restricted in terms of the number of factors or determinants which could feasibly be included in the model. Even working with the large-scale national sample captured in SLID, higher dimension data arrays (more than the four-variable/120-cell array explored here) would produce serious statistical complications with unacceptable numbers of 'sampling zero cells' and associated inflated sampling errors. Other multivariate techniques (such as multinomial logistic regression to investigate a three-category ordinal dependent variable) could certainly accommodate greater numbers of independent variables in a given model, but are far less suited to exploring complex interaction effects among determinants or factors within the model. The primary purpose of this analysis was to explore complex interactive effects with supervisory duty experience. This was accomplished through the application of log-linear modelling techniques to a limited set of variables, supplemented by assessing and interpreting identified interaction effects within percentage tables.

Future research could explore other factors or determinants which may influence or impact supervisory responsibility experiences over time, going beyond the gender, university education and occupational sector effects investigated here. Differences in work time arrangements (employment status, working hours, weeks worked) between male and female workers may impact supervisory duty experiences in the workplace, with consequences for career progression and mobility. Among workers with some post-secondary education, the field or discipline of study, or possession of specific educational credentials may directly influence subsequent supervisory responsibility experiences in the workplace. Other career-related factors such as tenure with a given organization, occupational and industrial mobility, as well as career interruptions may alter supervisory duty experiences. As well, individual-level socio-demographic attributes such as age, race or ethnicity (and gender interactions with these characteristics) may also have some bearing on the likelihood of assuming supervisory duties in the workplace. Future research investigating these and other factors or determinants is important given the prevalence of supervisory roles among workers, and the consequences for longer-term career development and progress for workers.

Acknowledgements

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Women Survivors' Experiences of the Intersection of Abuse and Work[1]

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Abstract

Abuse creates barriers that effect women's ability to enter the paid work force: barriers that persist long after initial supports have been exhausted. The present paper examines the questions: how do women make meaning of the ways in which they have experienced the intersection of abuse and work after they have been away from abusive experiences for a period? Five women volunteered for extensive one-on-one interviews employing a narrative methodology. The long-term affects of abuse experiences resulting in loss of mental and physical health, educational and work experiences, self-esteem and self-efficacy, voice and emotional support, and loss of a sense of safety in the world was a major across participant theme. Additional themes included readiness for change, housing issues, and working for change with other women. Implications for career counselling practice, from the perspective of a social constructivist career theory, emphasize counselling in the context of women's whole lives, the importance of hearing women's stories of abuse, understanding the nature of complex trauma and the need for long-term targeted support in employment programs.

Career counsellors working with women who have had a history of abuse realize that many individual and social realities affect women's ability to enter the paid work force. Several authors contend that relational issues are a dominant theme for women in the ways in which they approach work situations (Flum, 2001; Josselson, 1992; Schultheiss, 2003). If primary relationships have been disrupted by abuse experiences, it is likely that issues and problems within a work context will also emerge (Flum, 2001). Components of physical, emotional, intellectual, and psychological well-being influence a woman's ability to work (Elliot & Reitsma-Street, 2003) and work becomes very important for women who are trying to rebuild their lives after experiencing various forms of abuse (Chronister & McWhirter, 2003).

Immediate support for women as they leave abusive situations is very important. Yet the effects of abuse create barriers that persist long after initial supports have been exhausted. Women who have experienced abuse encounter a number of specific life situations that often interact, overlap, and connect to create barriers to work. Experiences of assault by an intimate male partner and historical abuse combined with poverty, and current health conditions contribute to potential barriers when women seek to find and hold employment (Wells, 1994). How are women giving meaning to the intersection of their abuse experiences and their work histories in light of the fact that problems may persist for them when it comes to finding and maintaining employment? How would they go about telling these stories? The present paper explores these questions.

Survivors and Work

Career choice and career development unfolds in particular ways for women; options and opportunities are influenced by a social context that includes balancing work and family, dealing with career interruptions, and diverse career patterns (Schreiber, 1998). Lent, Brown and Hackett (2000) describe Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) as providing an important theoretical perspective from which to view women's situations in terms of work. An emphasis on variables such as self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and goals, as well as environmental variables that include family, friends, financial conditions, and the larger societal context allows this theory to be especially useful when examining how career unfolds for women.

Chronister and McWhirter (2003) have applied the SCCT model specifically to women who have been the target of domestic violence. Learning experiences were limited; opportunities to succeed in education and career related activities were low; and fear, anxiety, and depression influenced self-efficacy and future expectations. In the face of harassment in the workplace by abusers, absenteeism, impaired work performance, and lack of advancement, it was not hard to understand that women held negative outcome expectations.

Little attention has been paid to the long-term effects of domestic violence on employability (Chronister & McWhirter, 2003). Women who reported domestic violence were more likely to have had more jobs but a lower personal income with their socio-economic status dropping over time (Lloyd, 1997). Studies confirm that these women do seek employment but are unable to maintain it (Raphael & Tolman, 1997). Women who have experienced histories of abuse experience a complex set of circumstances and behaviours that may present multiple barriers to employment (Elliot & Reitsma-Street, 2003).

Psychological trauma contributes to hyper-arousal tendencies (Herman, 1997). Job interviews can create panic; women survivors may experience extreme levels of fear over appearing uneducated, being asked personal questions that are uncomfortable to answer, or having to explain problematic job histories (Chronister & McWhirter, 2003). Elevated levels of fear and anxiety can accompany job evaluation or testing situations (Gianakos, 1999). Stress related illnesses can result in time lost from work, education, or training and women often quit jobs or are fired due to their absences (Wells, 1994). Raphael and Tolman (1997) found rates as high as 56% of women reporting that they had missed school or training due to abuse. Abuse has robbed women of control over their lives and their bodies at a very deep level and this leads to feeling powerless (Chronister & McWhirter,

2003). Powerlessness can result in an inability to make choices about employment options, a lack of awareness that one can be assertive, the tendency to relinquish power, and difficulties with authority figures (Wells, 1994).

Gianakas (1999) writes that women who have unresolved issues resulting from abuse may behave inappropriately with male supervisors in work situations. Interpersonal conflicts with co-workers and supervisors can emerge in training and work settings (Prigoff, 2000) because of this inability to maintain healthy boundaries. Many studies indicate links between domestic violence, childhood abuse and substance misuse (Bala et al., 1998; Raphael & Tolman, 1997; Reitsma-Street, Schofield, Lund, & Kasting, 2001; Ullman & Brecklen, 2003; Wells, 1994). Women experience difficulty accessing treatment due to pressures related to obtaining childcare, lack of funds, and transportation problems (Schober & Annis, 1996).

Hall (2000) interviewed 20 urban, low-income women who had suffered multiple forms of childhood abuse and were in recovery treatment due to substance abuse. She analyzed the women's stories as they related to learning and work difficulties and found four domains of interest: a) problems with school because abuse in the home environment had compromised school as a source of learning and as an arena of peer socialization, b) a lack of adult skills related to relationship competency, money management, life planning, and parenting, c) problems around academic and health literacy, and d) problems related to alcohol and drug addiction. These four issues represented barriers to success in the job market for these women.

The above authors have raised questions about the ways in which women with abuse histories move past the initial supports offered to them to negotiate the world of work. The focus of the present study was to explore survivors' stories of the intersection of abuse and work experiences in a relational context.

Methodology

The research question, situated within an overarching framework of so-cial constructionism, assumes an approach to career and work that is relational. Blustein, Schultheiss, and Flum (2004) argue that this point of view leads to a particular leverage in understanding how people comprehend, construct, and act in relation to the challenges and opportunities of their working experience. Relationship and relational frameworks, woven through the stories these women constructed about career and the work process, provide many important points of interest for career counsellors working with women who have a history of abuse, as well as with women who have experienced other relational difficulties.

Narrative methodology honours and allows the unique voice and story of each participant to emerge. Bluestein, Kenna, Murphy, Devoy, and DeWine (2005) write that, "Narrative analyses are particularly informative to the psychology of work for individuals who have been outside of the mainstream of career development discourse" (p. 359). Career narratives in particular have the ability to identify aspects of the social realm that have enabled or constrained individuals (Cohen, Duberly, & Mallon, 2004).

Five women, recruited from a local employment program created for women with abuse histories participated in a 90 minute audio-taped one-on-one interview with the author. The women were asked to speak of how their past experiences of abuse had intersected with their abilities to find and maintain employment. As each woman sat down for the interview, she was asked, "When you heard me say that this research was about work and your experiences of abuse and I asked if you thought you might have a story to tell about that – what did you start to think about? What stories came to mind for you?" Work was defined in a broad sense as the carrier of meaning in their lives, not just paid work outside the home. During the interview, each woman was offered the opportunity to create a time line drawing in which she could illustrate the times in her life when abuse experiences intersected with her choice of work, her ability to obtain or retain work.

Frank (2000) writes of the ethical and intellectual responsibility to enter into relationship with the stories we elicit as researchers. The analysis of the women's narratives became an entering into the relational space created between the participant and the interviewer. This entailed working amidst several layers of interpretation – field notes taken throughout the process, tape recorded interviews, verbatim transcripts, time line drawings, and concept maps created to illustrate major themes.

Results

Becky[2]

Becky described verbal abuse from her father as a starting point that made her vulnerable to sexual abuse as a teen that then precipitated her slide into prostitution and criminality. Living within this belief system led to missed opportunities. Becky spoke of the people she had known and the type of work she had done as blinding her to any reality outside of criminality for a large portion of her life. "Most of my life has been spent in a different world and if it had been spent working at MacDonald's and going to Burger King and having a paper route it would be a whole different reality . . . If I hadn't had to put so much time into surviving the mental abuse and I hadn't put so much time into abusing myself, I wonder how much differently my life would be and I would be . . . I bet I'd be walking out proud of my resume and being comfortable with getting a job."

The four themes identified in Becky's story include: a fragmented sense of self, loss of opportunities, a lack of "job getting skills", and a desire to work for change with other women. Becky described issues related to a lack of support to become the self she might have been and a distorted sense of self worth due to her experiences. She describes her experience of assault at the hands of an intimate male partner as being her lowest point, "When I first got out of the situation, my sense of self, there was no sense of self, and I remember just describing it as 'I fragmented'." Loss of opportunity connected to her belief that she was living a life script that she did not have a hand in writing. Becky spoke of how her life was on a certain path she had no control over.

Becky struggled with not being able to visualize herself in the world of work and her lack of experience with

any of the "getting a job skills" that most people begin to experience at a much younger age. She shared that she had never had to go on an interview, or sit across from someone who was judging her as capable to do a certain job; ". . . you don't have to apply to be a prostitute and they don't ask you to fill out a job application to be a drug dealer." When speaking about the world of work, Becky's story was filled with expressions of unfamiliarity, lack of vision, and fear. What Becky lacked was the recognition that many of the job skills she had acquired in her life were in fact transferable and she could draw on them now as she moved into a different type of work world.

A prominent theme in Becky's story was her desire to work to educate and help other women. She believed that her experiences of domestic violence have made her sensitive to this issue. She shared her desire to work in the field of social work and how experiences with other women had shown her that she was able to do that type of work. "I do have the ability, I know that. I am able to give people hope and I think that is a gift."

Jeannie

When Jeannie first began to recover from the shock of a break-up with a long-term, abusive partner, she spoke of waking up in the morning and thinking, "What am I going to do for myself today. Not for my son, or for anybody else, but for me." She spoke of not really knowing how to think about herself. She had been looking after her partner and her son for so long, that had constituted her work. Jeannie was amazed by the notion of being by herself and learning how to do things for herself. "I had to keep reminding myself, you know, that there was no one to tell me what to do." The realization that she was on her own was scary. "I was scared thinking how I would have to go out and look after myself and make money."

Four significant themes identified in Jeannie's story included: doing things just for herself, being taken by surprise and not being heard, feeling silenced in the face of abuse, and questions related to being ready to move forward with her life. As Jeannie told her story, she repeated a theme related to the number of times she was caught off guard by what was happening to her. She entered into a relationship after leaving her abusive partner only to find herself in another abusive relationship and it was a shock. "He started hitting me and doing things and saying things I never expected." Jeannie also described speaking and not being heard. She told her abusive partner to leave and yet he remained, she broke off a subsequent abusive relationship only to find the man back in her apartment as if she had never spoken of ending their relationship. In not knowing and not being heard, Jeannie did not seem to be an active agent in her own life.

Jeannie spoke of being uncomfortable with talking about being a victim of the abuse. "I was so ashamed of what was happening to me and I didn't want anybody else to know about it . . . I didn't think it was a good feeling to have other people know these things." She worried about being part of an employment program for women with abuse histories because she knew she would have to talk about things that had happened to her.

Parts of Jeannie's story relate to her lack of readiness to move forward with her life. While doing the time-line drawing, Jeannie spoke about not remembering her childhood at all. These gaps in her memory and experience limit her ability to understand and move forward. When speaking of her long-term relationship with an abusive partner, Jeannie says, "I had a good life" and minimized how he had abused her. Jeannie did not seem ready to completely face these experiences and she shared a sense of limitation in her ability to be an active agent in her life and move forward.

Betty

Before the age of fourteen, when she ran away from home to live on the street, Betty had already undergone intense trauma. She became vulnerable to alcohol abuse. "I started drinking heavily when I was around that age. Cause I discovered that even through it tasted awful, it made everything okay." She was vulnerable to men in the workplace and ultimately she was vulnerable to a relationship with an abusive husband. When Betty finally got away from this violent and abusive marriage, barely with her life, her emotional and physical health was severely compromised. She fell into a pattern of addiction and depression that made work impossible. Betty spoke of surviving two major breakdowns and a serious suicide attempt. It took her a long time to begin to find her way out of the darkness.

The three themes identified in Betty's story: low self-esteem, ability to work, and lost opportunities, were not discrete units. These themes merged and overlapped. Long-range affects of abuse set Betty up to be vulnerable to other incidents of abuse, to addiction issues, and to the extreme distress she has lived with most of her life. The long-range affects of abuse overlap with the other themes and create intersections with her work experiences:

Betty' physical weakness and her drinking compromised jobs she was able to obtain after getting away from her abusive husband. She was unable to cope with a job she had in a truck factory where men harassed her. "I was still quite afraid of men at that point . . . I was trying to be tough, to prove to myself I could be around men . . . I just started getting more and more stressed . . . I still had the physical problems from the abuse in my back and legs . . . I would be on Demerol for the pain and still trying to work. I was drinking pretty heavily then." In subsequent attempts to obtain employment, Betty shared that her abuse affected her. "I don't have the confidence to apply for a job and when I did work at a job I couldn't handle the stress, physically or mentally, and I would need to go on sick leave."

When Betty was homeless and living on the street after losing her job at the truck factory, she ran into a friend who was able to connect her with a woman who let Betty stay at her house until she could qualify for social assistance. Betty shared that she was amazed this woman would open her home to her. She saw herself as the "scum of the streets" and wondered why anyone would let her live in their home. The state of Betty's self-esteem seriously impeded her ability to see herself as capable or able to work.

Melanie

For much of her life, Melanie had defined herself in terms of her past abuse experiences. She alluded to the many implications: her lifelong eating disorder, relationship issues, questionable choices with work, and a sense of fear. Speaking of her work experiences, "I think that one of the major ways my abuse has affected work is in how I feel about myself and then how that translates to the type of work I have chosen and how that reinforces those feelings." She chose cleaning work, being around other people's dirty things, seeing herself as an observer, standing on the outside of life looking in. "That explains a lot of my life and it comes from the sexual abuse and never feeling like I could really participate in my own life."

The four themes that connected Melanie's experiences of abuse and her work history included: being defined by her abuse experiences, her perceptions of being unsafe in the world of work, paths not taken and opportunities lost, and how healing became her work.

Melanie defined her work life as having been guided by her strong attraction to unsafe work experiences that served to reinforce what she already felt about herself: that her purpose in life was to be used by others. Many of her work experiences are seen through this lens: out delivering papers all by herself or working at a summer resort out in the middle of nowhere. "Now I see that I was choosing things that weren't necessarily safe."

Melanie named many opportunities she missed because of her abuse. She felt regrets about missed opportunities in her relationship with her husband because of the sexual abuse issues she was dealing with. "I wish I could have allowed him to be my ally." Opportunities missed in the world of work figure largely in Melanie's story. "If I hadn't had this idea that work was where I would get used and feeling like that was all I was good for . . . maybe I could have chosen a different path with work." She also reflected that dealing with sexual abuse meant she could not work full time and have access to the money necessary to pursue certain paths. ". . . maybe I could have just kept working somewhere and had the money to do some training – maybe then some

of those other paths would have been possible."

Very early in her interview Melanie made a telling statement, "When I think about the question of abuse and work, in some ways I have started to perceive that my healing from the abuse is a big part of my work." For a number of years she had been in counselling and had been part of many healing programs and experiences. Melanie's healing work became full-time work. "I couldn't have got to where I am now without having gone through the blackness and the searching and the healing. It was worthwhile, all of it."

Cinnamon

A dominant theme that emerged from Cinnamon's story was her struggle to understand and deal with an unhealthy relationship with her mother. Cinnamon spoke of always trying to please her mother and this had an impact on work and intimate relationships over her life span. She described the traditional mindset her mother held, "It's the whole religious thing, you know . . . my background and my mom's was very traditional . . . my mom wouldn't have even had a way to get what was happening to me." These early experiences and family values created vulnerability for Cinnamon that she connected with unhealthy choices in the work environment and an abusive marriage.

Cinnamon's story generated four themes that connected her experiences of abuse with her experiences of work: family of origin issues, how these issues influenced both work and relationships, loss of confidence and belief in herself, and current feelings about work. Living out a script of trying to please her mother was transferred to her work life. "I was always trying to please the owner . . .it all got overwhelming, I had a breakdown, everything fell apart." Cinnamon shared that when she met her husband she transferred all the control and people pleasing to him and, " . . . just went on doing the same thing . . . " She talked about the links between what she went through in her marriage and what she went through in her childhood with her mother, "I guess you could say I married my mom."

Cinnamon's experiences of abuse in her marriage reached out to influence

what she could envision for herself in the future. She described a marriage in which she was isolated; her husband did not like her to have friends or speak to her family on the phone or to work outside of the home. "I'm still in isolation in some ways . . . years of living like that takes a toll on you . . ."

What Cinnamon had gone through was characterized by what she had lost. When she previously worked in management, she speaks of having confidence. She could attack problems and find solutions, now decision making is difficult. "I don't have confidence in my abilities anymore . . . confidence is a big challenge right now."

Cinnamon's relationship with the world of work is fraught with fear, reluctance, and distrust. She is afraid to go back to work, ". . . going back to work, I'm just not ready. That is why I'm choosing school right now. . . " The pressure to get out and find work made her feel as though she had moved from one controlling environment, her marriage, to another. "I still feel like I don't have a say. I have a bit more control but I'm still not calling the shots on my life and it's frustrating."

Discussion

The five women in this study experienced barriers in terms of being able to find and maintain employment, a prerequisite for forging a work identity that is capable of providing an ongoing sense of agency. Isaacson and Brown (2000) state that work is the means of relating to society and it can provide status, recognition, and affiliation. Though work may come to serve these functions for some of these women, they did not speak of work in this way when they told their stories. Work was going to be something to figure out (Becky), something never done before, but now necessary (Jeannie), something not likely to be done again (Betty), something to be envisioned as many different paths even though the way is blocked (Melanie), or something that is feared (Cinnamon). Their experiences of abuse continue to effect their views of and participation in the world of work.

Women who have experienced violence and abuse are at risk for mental or physical health problems (Elliot & Re-

itsma-Street, 2003). This was clear in Betty's story: she had not had a paying job in twelve years; and it seemed unlikely, in view of her fragile state, that employment would be part of her future. Betty's struggle to deal with her pain, both physical and emotional, by self-medicating with alcohol relates to studies that have linked childhood abuse, domestic violence, and addiction issues (Bala et. al., 1998; Raphael & Tolman, 1997; Reitsma-Street et. al., 2001; Ullman &Brecklen, 2003; Wells, 1994) fit with

Melanie spoke of spending the past eight years working full-time on her own healing. Though she had many dreams of what she might do in terms of work in the future she also reported feeling very stuck and unable to move on. The emotional affects of her abuse experiences still had a powerful hold on her. Melanie continued to experience a number of stress reactions which create further barriers to employment (Gianakos, 1999).

Loss of valuable educational and work experiences played a large role in blocking potential work opportunities and options. Women who have abuse histories have often experienced limitations in learning experiences. Opportunities to succeed in education and career can be few; fear, anxiety, and depression influence future expectations (Chronister & McWhirter, 2003). Becky spoke of school as difficult for her due to abuse at home and the way in which her future expectations were skewed based on negative messages of verbal abuse she was taking in from her father. Betty ran away from home at a very early age, ending up homeless and on the street; her educational options seriously compromised. Melanie spoke of not being able to pursue educational opportunities because of her abuse. Cinnamon left home before graduating and had to finish Grade twelve through night school classes.

Three of the women spoke of lost opportunities related to work. Becky had many work experiences but she did not have work experiences she felt she could put on a resume. Chronister and McWhirter (2003) report that job interview situations can create panic for women who have experienced abuse, this may relate to having to answer per-

sonal questions that are uncomfortable or having to explain problematic job histories.

Jeannie had simply never needed to work outside the home. Her partner had always gone out and made the money; she just assumed her life would continue on that path. Women with abuse histories often come from backgrounds that are characterized by rigid gender stereotypes about work-role attitudes (Brown, Reedy, Fountain, Johnson, & Dischiser, 2000). Jeannie simply never envisioned a time when she would have to look after herself financially and this was a scary thought for her now.

Melanie lost significant opportunities to pursue work that might have better suited her because, in her opinion, she did not receive the support to look at other options. She also relates the ways in which abuse experiences blocked educational opportunities. Her sense of herself as "garbage" and her pattern of choosing only work that would reaffirm this belief blocked many other work experiences. She also speaks about the time involved in healing and how this has meant lost chances to sustain employment over time and save money that could have gone toward education.

Loss of self-esteem and self-efficacy was another common theme in the women's stories. Abuse and trauma experiences have an affect on self-esteem and one's basic sense of self-worth (Rosenbloom & Williams, 1999). Brown et al. (2000) contend that low self-esteem is the most significant barrier to employability and the barrier that contributes the most to lower levels of self-efficacy. Employment success is related to high levels of self-efficacy (Chronister & McWhirter, 2003; Gianakos, 1999) and the literature indicates that abuse lowers these levels (Chronister & McWhirter, 2003; Brown, et al., 2000). Sustaining a healthy self-concept under the circumstances of abuse is almost impossible (Ibrahim & Herr, 1997). Becky shared her distorted sense of self-worth due to her experiences in the sex-trade. Betty spoke, quite poignantly, of how she had no self-worth; she thought she was the "scum of the streets." Cinnamon compares her confidence levels now with how she saw herself in the past and

feels she has lost so much. Melanie described the ways in which abuse destroyed her sense of herself as capable of following certain employment paths in her life. Jeannie's reference to "doing things just for herself, for the first time" and the struggle that has been indicates a lack of a clear sense of self-efficacy in the world.

Abuse compromises interpersonal choices. Schultheiss (2003) writes about the need to take an in-depth look at the role of relationship in one's life in order to determine how these influence one's work experiences. Townsend and McWhirter (2005) suggest that connectedness is often seen as a central organizing principle and a critical theme for women. When connections have been disrupted because of relational violence, work relationships are also affected. Betty reflects that she would not have chosen her "crazy" husband if she had not experienced early childhood abuse. Cinnamon spoke of having ended up with her abusive husband because of a life long habit of people pleasing rooted in her childhood experiences. Becky believed she was targeted for sexual abuse in high school due to her earlier abuse experiences. The cumulative affects of these abuse experiences have direct impacts on work ability and choices.

Loss of voice and isolation was a further theme expressed across participants. Phillips and Daniluk (2004) write that women who have experienced childhood sexual abuse report feeling different, alone, and invisible. Jeannie spoke of feeling voiceless; Betty's severely abusive husband separated her from all relationships, both work and social; and Cinnamon's husband separated her from her friends, creating a long-term problem in terms of trusting people and making new contacts. Melanie's struggle within the actual interview to find words to describe her experiences seemed an aspect of silencing; her sense of being different and isolated is clear in her depiction of various work experiences.

Abuse experiences resulted in a serious loss of a sense of safety. In Judith Herman's (1992) recovery from trauma model, re-establishing a sense of being safe in the world is the first stage of recovery. A dominant theme in both Melanie and Cinnamon's stories is their

fear and the way in which they no longer feel safe in the world, including the world of work. Chronister and McWhirter (2003) describe what happens to a woman when abuse has robbed her of control of her life and her body; she becomes quite powerless to move about in the world with confidence. Powerlessness can lead to an inability to make employment choices, a lack of ability to be assertive, and a tendency to relinquish power (Wells, 1994).

A social constructivist approach to career that emphasizes the whole person in the ever changing context of their life (Peavy, 1995; Savickas, 1995) provides an appropriate theoretical framework for understanding the five women interviewed for this research. It is not hard to visualize the ways in which their life context had influenced how they understood work. Their stories illustrate the interaction of the many factors involved in approaching, making, and maintaining work choices. Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) (Lent, et al., 2000) fits particularly well with the stories of the participants in this research. In each of their stories it was obvious that they brought many issues related to cognitive and personal variables (i.e. past performances, emotionality, vicarious learning, and verbal persuasions) from the past, most of which had affected their sense of self-efficacy, into their present reality of having to negotiate the world of work. SCCT also emphasizes contextual and environmental factors. An upbringing that emphasized traditional sex-role stereotypes (Cinnamon), an identity formed through adolescence by a verbally abusive father (Becky), and a sense that work was an arena in which you were used like a piece of garbage (Melanie), create very real and specific contexts for the women who are living with these past experiences. An emphasis on context also allows counsellors to focus on issues surrounding relationship.

Three of the women interviewed had gone through long waiting periods in order to obtain safe housing. Low income women experience major difficulties meeting basic housing needs and there is a serious lack of supportive housing for women who have been victims of various forms of abuse (Re-

itsma-Street et. al., 2001). Abused women consistently rate issues regarding housing, affordable childcare, and transportation as their priorities (Elliot & Reitsma-Street, 2003).

In all of the participant's stories, the issue of being ready for various experiences emerged. Becky spoke of many fears but ended on a note of hope and readiness to move forward. Jeannie was at a stage of envisioning possibilities for herself but her story seemed to indicate a need for more time and support before she would be able to move forward with a sense of self-efficacy. Betty's story indicated a readiness to enter the employment program; she was able to take advantage of counselling opportunities in relation to her abuse experiences. Melanie had accessed many support and healing programs but her story indicates that she was still not ready to move forward. Cinnamon admits that the employment program came too soon for her, she was not ready to re-enter the world of work.

Herman (1992) writes that the final stage of recovery from abuse and trauma is the desire to reconnect. This desire is in fact the core of recovery. Some women may adopt what Herman describes as a survivor mission. They feel called upon to engage in changing the wider world in some way. They focus their energy on helping others who have experienced similar abuse as a possible means of transcending their own experience and gaining personal power.   All five of the participants spoke directly of their desire to work for change in the world, specifically with other women and children. For Becky this has to do with social work and helping other women get out of abusive situations. Jeannie had managed, through everything that happened to her, to maintain a volunteer position working with single moms and she experienced this to be a safe and beneficial place for her. Betty shared a very well-thought out plan to create a soup kitchen once a month for women and children. Experiences of feeling unsafe in such situations have created a desire to provide other women and children with a safe place to be together. Melanie spoke of her desire to carry on with her education and pursue a career in counselling. Cinnamon spoke quite passionately of the

need for schools to begin teaching children conflict resolution skills and how to stand up for themselves in an effective manner. This was in direct response to her reflections on her own lifelong struggle to find her voice and stand up for herself.

Implications for Career Counselling Practice and Policy

Counselling women about career and work choices is counselling in the context of their whole lives, for work is rooted in life. Bluestein et. al.'s (2005) contention that work is embedded in complex layers of social, cultural, and political factors points to a need for career counsellors to consider how these layers and contexts have affected all areas of a woman's life. The social constructivist career model makes it clear that life-context matters (Peavy, 1995). Women who have experienced abuse bring that specific context to the career counselling setting.

Aspects of trauma counselling highlight the importance of hearing women's stories, but also the ways in which these stories interact with everything else that is happening in women's lives. A constructivist framework for career counselling is well suited to helping counsellors recognize how experiences of abuse have influenced other important areas of a woman's life. Mahoney (2003) writes that a constructivist therapist experiences clients as intentional agents in their own lives; as active in their own meaning-making process. The constructivist counsellor works to collaborate and facilitate the client as an agent in her own life, holds affirmation and hope for the client at times when she may not be able to, and comes to understand and know the client from within her own belief system.

Constructivist counselling also conceptualizes human experience as complex, a lifelong experiment in which the client is neither a prisoner of the past nor totally free to choose any future path (Mahoney, 2003). Themes in the participant's stories link to some of the newest research on complex trauma (Briere & Scott, 2006). All five of the women interviewed described life situations that involved ongoing experiences of abuse. Briere and Scott (2006) describe complex trauma as severe, pro-

longed, and repeated trauma that takes on a chronic, developmental etiology: the result of a wide range of outcomes that vary from person to person as a function of their unique trauma exposure; for example, age of first trauma experience, issues related to disrupted attachment, and subsequent revictimization. Childhood abuse issues can lead to maladaptive adolescent behaviour (substance abuse, inappropriate sexual behaviour, ongoing emotional or mental health issues) which in turn result in vulnerability to additional victimization, which leads to further responses and behaviours leading in turn further risk.

When working with this population it is important that career counsellors have an understanding of the complex nature of trauma, especially as it may relate to early childhood exposure to traumatic experiences. Although Betty's story was severe in terms of the cumulative nature of her trauma experiences and the ways in which they made her vulnerable to further victimization, her story is in no way unusual. The types of cumulative abuse that many of the participants shared form a life context that influenced all areas of their lives, including their ability to work. By recognizing that career counselling is counselling for life, counsellors realize that to facilitate readiness for work many issues need to be addressed.

Women who have experienced abuse need opportunities to learn about themselves, the world of work, and the options they might have for their future (Gianakos, 1999). Simply learning skills is not enough for this population of women (Wells, 1994). Understanding the context of their abuse and how it has influenced their decision-making is also important (Belknap, 1999). Elliot and Reitsma-Street (2003) argue against programs that pressure vulnerable women to take any job that comes along without addressing the significant stresses and barriers they face. Being ready to access specific support experiences is crucial for the success of these endeavours. As is seen in these women's stories, when recovering from abuse experiences, readiness is a complex process

The literature and the individual women's stories support the need for long-term targeted support for women who have experienced abuse and are now moving toward re-entering the world of work. Although the targeted employment program all five women took part in was a positive experience, fourteen weeks was not long enough. Programs also need to address the multiple issues these women face: the need for vocational training, education, employment coaching and support, housing, childcare, legal advice, assistance with welfare, and skills training for independent living (Moe & Bell, 2004).

Programs need to be holistic in the ways they view women. Models of empowerment, such as the one suggested by Chronister and McWhirter (2003) emphasize: (a) collaboration between facilitators and clients, (b) paying attention to context which includes educational levels, attitudes to work, affects of abuse, family demands, culture, economics, and access to community supports, (c) an active process of recognizing the skills and resources the woman already has, (d) helping women become critical thinkers about their own life situations and move toward exercising more personal agency, and (e) connecting women with the wider community.

There is a particular need to pay close attention to factors of *readiness* for change in a woman's life. If employment programs are offered before women are ready, they may not be able to take advantage of the opportunities for education and skill development being offered. This readiness is related to a process of recovery from abuse experiences that is hard to place on a specific timeline. Lock-step programs that focus on one particular model of career preparation or readiness may not work for this population of women. Appropriate assessment and programs designed to meet individual women's needs would seem to make the most sense. The stories of the five participants in this study indicate different profiles of readiness that is unrelated to the time away from abusive experiences. Some women would benefit from supportive employment internship programs, others are still in need of counselling to deal with the long-term affects of abuse, and yet others may need to enter into the world of employment and concentrate on the healing personal work involved in abuse recovery later.

Policy makers must also pay attention to the critical issue of access to safe and affordable housing for women who are attempting to rebuild their lives. Ensuring that women can find housing is an essential component of their safety and the safety of their dependent children (Moe & Bell, 2004). In extensive research directed at housing issues and policy options for women living in urban poverty in three Canadian cities, Reitsma-Street, et. al. (2001) found that there is a serious lack of supportive housing for women who have been the victims of domestic violence. This was echoed by participants in this study.

The five women who narrated the ways in which abuse intersected with their experiences of work spoke of many barriers in their lives. At the same time, their stories shone with light and hope. They were determined to move beyond abuse experiences and though they were at various points in the process of doing that, their individual courage and determination to not be defined solely by these experiences was clear. Many of them reflected on how far they had come on their individual journeys of recovery and all had hopes and dreams for the future. Betty's words speak of this hope when she talks of why she is telling her story, ". . . maybe it will give some woman hope that you can still have quality of life even after being devastated, you know . . . you can still follow your dreams."

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[2] Pseudonyms were chosen by participants

Profiling Career Choice: The case of Business Management Technicians from State-run Technical Institutes in The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, West Indies

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Abstract

This present paper delineates the characteristics of prospective individuals who wish to choose their careers by use of empirical evidence drawn from a comprehensive study of how Business Management Technicians (BMTs) from State-run Technical Institutes (SRTIs) in The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, West Indies fared on the Labour Market. BMTs (500) from a population of 1170 were surveyed using semi-structured interviews, opinionnairs, academic records and a questionnaire to examine 11 key areas representing both worker and job characteristics. Females from five year high schools who opted for the business studies subject group at Cambridge General Certificate of Education (GCE) ordinary level or Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) basic or general proficiency level examinations were found to be the most suitable candidates for prospective BMTs. On-the-job training experience appeared important and work in the business and other sectors especially for the 20-29, 40-49, > 49 age cohorts was found to be an asset. An instructive career profile should address certain fundamental variables like resourcefulness, dedication, resilience, patience, management, personality orientation, critical thinking, assertive communication, divergent thinking, autonomy, independence, ethics, optimism, flexibility, planfulness, reliability, dependability, commitment to continuous learning, responsibility, high self esteem and self-efficacy, self-discipline and self -reliance. Evidenced-based knowledge of career profiles can facilitate students in their future choices.

Introduction

In the present information age where myriad opportunities abound, for the average individual, making the right career choice can be difficult. Globalization and mobility have caused job stability to be increasingly illusive, paving the path for informed career management (purposeful management of learning, training and work throughout life). There are many questions that surface in the minds of students preparing for the job market; such as: What does the current job market want from a prospective employee? How can I know if I am suited for the job of my fancy? Is there evidence–based research that could help me to decide on a career? An evidence-based career profile allows the prospective employee to assess his/her abilities, interests, and personality type to link him/her with appropriate career options. Information about these careers such as the growth rate, salary, training required, where to go to school and many other important characteristics can be useful in assisting the individual in making the most appropriate career choice. Hence, the purpose of this present paper is to provide empirical evidence that delineate the characteristics of prospective individuals who wish to choose a career in business management in The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago.

Further, while career profiling is routinely studied in developed economies, there is a paucity of research in this area in smaller and more remote regions. It appears reasonable to regard vocational education and training as performing similar functional roles of linking employment to career profiling in The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, as it does in other parts of the world. All stakeholders like employers, recruitment agencies, outplacement organizations, schools, colleges, universities, career management professionals, psychologists, industry associations, executive coaches and aspiring professionals can benefit from the findings of this present study.

The present study is significant because it argues that evidenced-based knowledge of career profiles can facilitate students in their future choices. Consequently, with information before the fact, employers would have fewer mis-matches in their workplaces and employees would enjoy their work experiences. Hopefully, there would be a corresponding overall improvement in worker production that would have far reaching consequences on the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the country. For the purposes of this present study, career profiling was defined as an eclectic approach that develops a behavioral pattern of an individual who is interested in pursuing a particular career. Valuables of interest in career profiling include resourcefulness, dedication, resilience, patience, management, personality orientation, critical thinking, assertive communication, divergent thinking, autonomy, independence, ethics, optimism, flexibility, planfulness, reliability, dependability, commitment to continuous learning, responsibility, high self esteem and self-efficacy, self-discipline and self –reliance.

Literautre Review

Apart from professional guides, like the Osu-okmulgee assessment center (http://www.osu-okmulgee.edu/assessment.shtml) who can lead individuals through the job matching process and help them to tap into the resources that are critical in helping them select an appropriate career, readily available career profiles can help take

the guesswork out of one of one of the most important decisions that an individual would make. Pelsma and Arnett (2002) explain how all individuals may be equipped with the knowledge, skills and desire for lifelong learning. They use the analogy of a chair to discuss four strategies to assist clients in maintaining balance as they cope with uncertainty and change. Meanwhile, Scott (2002) affirms that information taught in graduate level career development courses may be successfully used by counsellors with a diversity of clients ranging from 16-year old to those in their sixties, making major career transitions.

When developing a career profile some important variables that must be considered include resourcefulness, dedication, resilience, patience, management, personality orientation, critical thinking, assertive communication, divergent thinking, autonomy, independence, ethics, optimism, flexibility, planfulness, reliability, dependability, commitment to continuous learning, responsibility, high self esteem and self-efficacy, self-discipline and self-reliance. Stufflebeam's (2000) CIPP (context, input, process, and product) model may be used to verify the suitability of a useful career profile. Interestingly, Cohen (2003) postulated a four-stage model of career decision-making based on existential themes such as freedom, responsibility, meaning, and authenticity occurring across an individual's life span. For him, career satisfaction and stability are obtained when the meaning and opportunities for *'authentic existence'* that the vocation provides corresponds to the vocation. He posits that a failure to acquire opportunities for meaning and *'authentic existence'* in an individual's occupations may result in an *'existential vacuum'* and *'existential guilt'*, respectively. For individuals making mid-career changes, the conceptualization of career decision-making from this perspective may be particularly useful. By determining the client preference about the structure and approach to group career counseling, Penney and Cahill (2002) proposed that intervention methods providing clients with either an action-oriented or self-reflective approach could be useful in assisting them. They developed an

assessment tool that included work personality and learning style to determine the individual's preference for career counseling.

But having decided on career counseling, the question of career success surfaces. Neault (2002) in her research on career management (preferred to the term career development) found that optimism and flexibility predicted career success more accurately than other given variables like planfulness and continuous learning. Optimism, continuous learning and planfulness predicted job satisfaction more accurately than other variables like flexibility. The low variances accounted for planfulness and continuous learning (12%, 19% respectively) suggest that other variables may be responsible for the unexplained variance. Such variables included differences among individual work teams (conflict with immediate supervisors and peers) and other interpersonal variables like management style, and contextual variables like personal crisis (e.g. illness or death in a family). Correct choices could greatly improve an individual's chances of educational success and the potential for a career that is rewarding. Using research findings available from studies of this type, several assessment centers use the most advanced technology available, with specifically designed networked systems to streamline and simplify the experience and provide profiling needs customized to meet the specific requirements of the individual.

Job satisfaction with career opportunities by definition (as given on the questionnaire) indicated the respondents' perceived contentment with the career opportunities at their present job. Respondents were requested to rate on a four point Likert scale (highly, moderately, slightly or not at all satisfied) their perceptions regarding job satisfaction with career opportunities. For statistical analysis nominal values from one to four were used ranging from 'highly satisfied' to 'not at all satisfied'. Satisfaction with career opportunities offered at their workplaces may reasonably be regarded as a fairly given 'normal' circumstance. Clearly, there is an assumption here that the extent to which an individual is satisfied with career opportunities at his/her workplace is in some

measure related to the math of his/her career choice profile. Whilst this may not necessarily be the situation this present study accepts this as one of its assumptions and limitations with respect to the generalizations that may be inferred. Lofquist and Dawis (1984) reported that 'the majority of problems presented to counselors stem from "discorrespondences" between the client and his or her environment'. They found that while the individual brings unique abilities to the given environment, s/he in turn has certain needs mandatory for success in that setting. Their Person-Environment-Correspondence (P-E-C) Theory equips the counselor with the tools necessary to assist the client in making changes that lead to "correspondence" between the client and the specific situation. Both 'objective fit" (does the client have the ability to do a specific job?) and "subjective fit" (is the client's perception of the situation accurate?) are factored in. Clearly, career profiling would provide useful information for determining both objective and subjective fit.

Career profiling must also take into consideration personality orientation. Holland's Theory of Modal Personality Orientation (1997) makes a theoretical connection between personality and environment that facilitates the use of the RIASEC classification system for both persons and fields of study or occupations. The RIASEC theory says that if a person and an environment have the same or similar codes, e.g., investigative person in an investigative environment, then that person will likely be satisfied and persist in that environment (Holland, 1997). In such an environment, satisfied individuals and other individuals who have the same or similar personality traits would be able to express their personality in an environment that is supportive. Holland notes that people or environments are combinations of all six types (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising or Conventional) and not exclusively one type. Essentially, their dominant type appears to be an approximation of an ideal, modal type. Like many inventories and career assessment tools that use the Holland typology to enable individuals to categorize their interests and personal characteristics in terms of combinations

of the six types, career profiling appreciates the significance of the interest/personal characteristics nexus.

Additionally, career profiling needs to be cognisant of several sociological factors of work, in particular Human Capital Theory relative to supply and demand in the marketplace. Because the supply of skilled labor is generally less than the supply for unskilled labor, then one may expect higher wages for skilled workers. However, a number of exceptions can and do occur. For example, when unskilled work is disagreeable, risky, or unsatisfying, the supply of these unskilled workers will likely be reduced and higher wages may be necessary to command an adequate work force. In a similar manner, when monopolistic controls prevent entry into less-skilled jobs, wages again may be higher than those of skilled workers. Additionally, when the supply of skilled workers is high relative to the demand for a particular occupation, monetary wages may not be significantly (if indeed it is) higher for highly educated workers. Despite this, generally one may typically assume that skilled workers should receive a positive return on their investments that they make in their human capital (http://faculty.washington.edu/jacoby/BLS345/%20HCtutorial.html).

To fully appreciate the context in which this present study was conducted it is important to note the introduction of newer educational policies in The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago. Originally education was available for the privileged few. However, with the advent of a national government, the policy was changed to give all children who completed their primary education three years of basic secondary education in the junior secondary schools and give a certain percentage of those leaving junior secondary schools at least two years at the senior secondary level (senior comprehensive schools). The senior secondary level was originally intended to include three types of schools, but as the plan was being implemented, several types of secondary schools could be identified in the public secondary school system. Among them were senior comprehensives, seven year, five year, private and 'other' schools. Private schools were run by organizations other than the

government. 'Other' schools refer to those schools other than state-run or private schools, like trade schools or individuals who were on their own.

With a population of approximately 1.3 million, vocational education and training in the twin small island states of The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago was originally provided by two state-run technical institutes (Table 2). Technical and further education is viewed as a means of upward social and job mobility. Blaug (1970) posited that the economic wealth of developing countries depended on post secondary education particularly of the type offered by the state-run technical institutes under study. The business management technician program became popular in The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago in the post oil boom period (1983-1993) as world oil prices plummeted. The business management technician program attempts to offer hands-on, practical simulations of real life job situations through exposure to workshops, seminars, roundtable discussions, plenary sessions, lectures, tutorials and site visits on office management, finance, accounting, business management, information technology and communication.

As explained earlier, the focus of this present study is to present evidence-based information of career profiles, obtained from the comprehensive study that would assist prospective students in their future career choices. Making the correct career choice based on accurate information could make the big difference to an individual's happiness and his/her usefulness on the job market. More productive workers will inevitably have positive consequences on the GDP of any country and its ability to sustain a reasonable standard of life for all its citizens. In essence, a career profile should address certain fundamental important variables that include resourcefulness, dedication, resilience, patience, management, personality orientation, critical thinking, assertive communication, divergent thinking, autonomy, independence, ethics, optimism, flexibility, planfulness, reliability, dependability, commitment to continuous learning, responsibility, high self esteem and self-efficacy, self-discipline and self-reliance.

Method

From the population of those who were in the BMT program at the time of conduct of this present study, this researcher obtained a random sample of 500 by use of a random number generator. The random sample, representing 43% of that population, was drawn from Business Management Technicians (BMTs) of state-run technical institutes (SRTIs) in The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago (Table 2). Participation was voluntary and every effort was made to ensure confidentiality. This researcher administered a self-designed four-page questionnaire (available upon request from the author) that surveyed demographic details, academic background and the details of present employment (Table 3). Respondents were also asked to detail their career aspirations. This researcher assigned a three digit number beginning from 001 to each questionnaire. Information obtained from the completed questionnaires was coded and the data recorded. All responses were taken into consideration when demarcating categories. This researcher used an SPSS computer software package (Norusis, 2000-2005) for data analysis.

This researcher formulated a one page simple letter of transmittal to respondents explaining the purpose of the research, guaranteeing anonymity of respondents. Specific objectives to be achieved by the questionnaire were outlined. After research specialists thoroughly checked the questionnaire using the instruments the researcher formulated, the questionnaire was piloted on a sample of 200 subjects from a variety of departments of both SRTIs. This researcher made several changes using the feedback received. The final questionnaire therefore contained questions that were both of the closed form (only permitting certain responses) and also of the open form (responses made in the own words of the respondents). To minimise the perceived amount of work to be done by respondents in completing the questionnaire, the researcher ensured that as many questions as possible were structured in a manner that required ticked (√) responses. In addition to providing half of the last page of the questionnaire for 'Additional Information', the researcher provided ample

spaces within the body of the questionnaire for immediate comment to minimise omission of vital information. The specific question on the comprehensive questionnaire relating to this present paper was, 'How long (in months) did it take you to get your present job?'

Apparent repetition of requested information, for example 'courses pursued at institutions attended, diplomas received on graduation and the specific area of training at Technical Institute' served as a means of double checking the truth/validity of given information (Table 1). Sequencing of events, for example dates of attendance at secondary schools/SRTIs and date of assumption of present job also served the same purpose of double checking the truth/validity of information given. Comparison of answers to responses to questions for example, Status at State-run Technical Institute (full time/part time) and the date of assumption of present job were used for further validation (Table 1). Apparent request for details for example home/job telephone numbers served to check the validity of home/work addresses as well as to allow this researcher to call for further information in the event of omissions on the questionnaire. Finally, the researcher made instructions as clear and concise as possible.

This researcher thought it important to ensure that any instruments used were validated prior to administration by a carefully chosen group of research specialists. Ten such persons were selected on the basis of their proven track record in educational qualifications, research publications, teaching techniques, interest in the work, dependability and reliability. The selected persons represented a wide range of subject disciplines including English, Social Studies, Science, Modern Languages, Mathematics and Information Technology. Every attempt was made to ensure that instructions were clear, items were properly constructed and the length of the questionnaire was reasonably short. The level of internal consistency or stability of the instrument over time was measured. This researcher felt that the instrument should have a high reliability since only small differences between target and comparable groups on several variables measured by the in-

strument were anticipated. In particular, the coefficient of stability was investigated because it was felt that it was inadvisable to administer alternative forms of the same instrument. It must however be pointed out that initially the researcher designed several alternative forms of the instrument and allowed research specialists to critique them. All comments were carefully considered and used as input for the formulation of

the final instrument ready for pilot testing.

In investigating the coefficient of stability (test-retest reliability), the researcher administered the pilot instrument to a sample of individuals. This was again done to the same sample of individuals after a delay of two weeks. This researcher used a random sample to ensure adequate account was taken of all possible variables for example mood,

Table 1
Reliability Checks on Questionnaire

Reliability Estimates	Reliability Check		Records/Questionnaire check	
Dependent/Ind. Variable Name	Pg	Qu.No.	Pg/Reference	Qu.No
Name	1	1	Aca. Records	Employer
Age	1	2	1	6
Sex	1	3	Aca. Records	Name type
Abode	1	4	1	5
Academic Background	1	6	2	9
Status at SRTI	2	7	Aca. Records	Comments
Area of Training	2	8	Aca. Records	Comments
Graduation Status	1	6	2	9
On-the-Job Training	2	10	1	6
Present Employer	2	11,12	2	13
Present Job	2	14,16	2	11,15
Previous Employer	3	16,18	1	6
Job Relatedness	3	20	Definitions	Comments
Job Preparedness	4	21	Definitions	Comments
Job Satisfaction	4	22	Definitions	Comments
Job Stability	5	23	Definitions	Comments
Remuneration	5	24,25	Definitions	Comments
Fringe Benefits/Perks	5	26	Similar jobs	Comments
Recommendations	5	27	Similar jobs	Comments
Academic Aspirations	5	28	Similar jobs	Comments
Fellow Graduates	6	30	6, Aca. Rec.	Comments

level of fatigue and attitude toward the instrument.

As indicated earlier, this researcher incorporated several validity checks into the body of the questionnaire in an attempt to minimise inaccuracies on the part of the respondents. Discrepancies in responses could be easily recognised and verified by the researcher. These are summarised in Table 1. Repeats within the questionnaire allowed for correlation of information given by respondents on their first response with information given on subsequent responses. Variables used as checks included secondary school attended and year of graduation.

This researcher and assistant performed several validity checks to guarantee a reasonable instrument (Table 1). Acquiescence was minimized by arranging the questions in such a manner that respondents were forced to provide a given answer from choices presented. Some of the instructions that the researcher gave to respondents included reading carefully the entire questionnaire before attempting to complete it, following the written instructions given on the questionnaire, answering as honestly as possible the questions posed and checking over answers before handing in the completed questionnaire.

Calculations showed that twenty percent of the responses arose from returns of mailed questionnaires, 10% from questionnaires completed through visits to private homes of respondents, 2% of responses came from visits to meetings of professional associations/social gatherings and the remaining 68% from questionnaires completed at the workplaces of the respondents. Several semi-structured interviews (available upon request) and opinionnaires provided relevant information that allowed this researcher to contextualize the data obtained. With permission, over a two month period, this researcher cross checked academic records from the SRTIs to verify that information provided by respondents was accurately recorded. In fact, respondents, especially those who had left the SRTIs for several years prior to the conduct of the study encouraged this researcher to check with the SRTIs for verification of the information they provided.

Results

Pertinent background information of the respondents is summarily presented in Table 3.

This researcher found that more five year high schools than any other school type provided students for entry into SRTIs, suggesting that a general rather than a specialized education at the early stage provided a sound foundation for future study (Table 3). Never-theless, the business subject group was an excellent indicator of future academic performance for prospective BMTs since they obtained higher grades at SRTIs than their peers who had concentrated on other areas of study like sciences or modern languages prior to entry at the SRTI. Respondents with higher qualifications (advanced level subjects) obtained higher grades at SRTIs than their lesser qualified counterparts who had Cambridge General Certificate of Education (GCE) ordinary level or basic or general proficiency level Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) subjects only. More than half of the present BMTs were temporarily employed. Business and 'Other' (safety, security and administration) were the work areas of specialization found to be most popular for BMT workers. From results of semi-structured interviews, opinionnaires and confidential records checked, the business subject group area appeared to be a more accurate predictor for entry into the BM program, indicating the value of proper career guidance. Higher grades obtained by more highly qualified entrants of SRTIs in BM programs may indicate better ability, superior study skills and perhaps a more positive attitude.

Most industrial sub-sectors readily absorbed their BMT workers with on-the-job training (OJT) experience in their organizations. One compelling reason has to do with the challenge to recruit and retain workers for maximum efficiency of operations especially during a period of economic recession. OJT programs are extremely useful in affording persons practical experience and benchmarking skills needed for performing well at their jobs. The highest percentage of BMTs reported having their OJT experience in the petroleum industrial sub-sector, indicating that the petroleum industrial sub-sector in The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, West Indies was a major employer for individuals from BMT programs.

One may conclude that in keeping with the economic hardships experienced during the post oil boom period, referred to as the 'business studies boom' period, employers were trying to obtain as much as possible for as little as possible from their employees. Accordingly, it was significant that more

Table 2
Entrants by sex (M/F) by status (Full Time/Part Time) at SRTIs

YEAR	SRTIA				SRTIB			
	FULL TIME		PART TIME		FULL TIME		PART TIME	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1983	10	15	06	04	22	33	19	38
1984	08	05	05	09	06	14	11	37
1985	05	09	04	10	15	34	29	31
1986	05	09	04	21	03	24	31	30
1987	00	00	02	08	06	23	24	38
1988	11	05	01	08	11	19	11	15
1989	11	05	01	08	10	18	12	24
1990	07	12	09	15	14	14	19	10
1991	46	01	11	22	08	08	08	22
1992	03	11	08	05	09	17	28	00
1993	12	12	06	08	10	14	10	14

Source: Registries of SRTIA and SRTIB.

Table 3

Demographic characteristics of the random sample

Demographic		Number	Percentage	Cumulative %
Gender : Male		100	20	20
Female		400	80	100
Age Cohort/yr: Under 20		20	4.0	4.0
	20-29	211	42.2	46.2
	30-39	171	34.2	80.4
	40-49	82	16.4	96.8
	Over 49	6	1.2	98.8
Geographic Area: Tobago		41	8.2	8.2
	North East Trinidad	132	26.4	34.6
	North West Trinidad	58	11.6	46.2
	Central Trinidad	66	13.2	59.4
	South Trinidad	191	38.2	97.6
	Abroad	10	2.0	99.6
High School Type: Senior Comprehensive		109	21.8	21.8
	Five Year	134	26.8	48.6
	Seven Year	132	26.4	75.0
	Private	69	13.8	88.8
	Other	35	7.0	100.0
O Level Subject Group: Business		110	22.0	22.0
	Science	189	37.8	59.8
	Other	109	21.8	81.6
A Level Subject Group: Business		28	5.0	5.0
	Science	17	3.4	8.4
	Other	10	3.8	12.2
SRTI : John S. Donaldson Tech		193	38.6	38.6
San Fernando Tech		307	61.4	100.0
Status at SRTI: Full Time		311	62.2	62.2
Part Time		189	34.6	100.0
Industrial Sub-sector of On-the-Job Training		7	1.4	61.8
Experience: Agriculture				
	Communication	14	2.8	64.6
	Construction	36	7.2	71.8
	Finance	16	3.2	75.0
	Government	21	4.2	79.2
	Manufacturing	36	7.2	86.4
	Petroleum	56	11.2	97.6
	Other	11	2.2	99.8
	Self			
Industrial Sub-Sector of Present Job:		4	0.8	0.8
Agriculture				
		53	10.6	11.4
Communication				
		46	9.2	21.6
Construction				
Finance		30	6.0	27.6
		62	12.4	40.0
Government				
		62	12.4	52.4
Manufacturing				
Petroleum		122	24.4	76.8
Other		82	16.4	94.2
Self		17	3.4	97.6
Present Job Status: Temporary		266	53.2	53.2
	Permanent	234	46.8	100.0

than half of the BMTs on the labor market served on a temporary rather than a permanent basis at their jobs. Business and 'Other' (safety, security and administration) were the two work areas of specialization for BMTs. The category 'Other' was also favoured by those of the 20-29 age cohort and by persons in the 40-49 or >49 age cohort, indicating that there may be competition for space or a change of experience. Choice of employees based on interviews prior to employment led one to conclude that employers in the area of business management preferred females to males. This information has to be interpreted guardedly since there were many more (4:1) females than males in the comprehensive study.

Generally, graduates who successfully completed their BMT program were favoured over those respondents who did not successfully complete their BMT program for their first time employment, if little were known about the employee's job experience. The favoring of graduates who successfully completed their BMT program over those who did not successfully complete their BMT program for first time employment indicated employers' desire for educated persons for the labor market. Despite this, those respondents who did not successfully complete their BMT

program who pursued part-time courses were not discriminated against in favour of graduates who successfully completed their BMT program where remuneration was concerned. These findings indicate some measure of customer satisfaction with the BM programs offered at SRTIs. Younger (20-29 age cohort) female BMTs were more readily chosen over other age cohorts, as evidenced by results from semi-structured interviews and opinionnaires with employers, suggesting employers' desire for staff trainability.

Full time attendance at the SRTIs did not appear to be of concern for placement officers at SRTIs in the procurement of employment. Employees accepted part time attendance at SRTIs to be sufficient evidence of exposure to the required skills and competencies needed to perform satisfactorily at the workplace. This perhaps explained why, on completion of the BMT program, many part time BMTs reported taking zero months to obtain their jobs.

Most industrial sub-sectors offering on-the-job training experience readily absorbed the workers in their organizations, confirming the fact that employers considered the possession of the on-the-job training experience important. The majority (77.0 %) of respondents felt that their training received at the SRTIs was moderately to highly related to their present jobs. Career aspirations for BMTs included 'managerial posts, owners of private businesses, accountants and for many (58%) 'any job that pays well'.

Table 4 indicates that generally, respondents were moderately satisfied (42.8 %) with career opportunities offered at their present jobs (Mode = 2). Less than a quarter of respondents reported no satisfaction at all (19%).

The frequency distribution was slightly positively skewed with more cases lying towards the right end of the distribution (Skew = 0.18, Standard Error Skew = 0.11). Compared to the normal distribution, fewer cases fell into the tails of this distribution (Kurtosis = 0.68, Standard Error Kurtosis = 0.22). Job satisfaction with career opportunities appeared to be most highly related to job satisfaction with the kind of work done (r (499) = 0.58, p < 0.01, significant for a two tailed test).

Table 4
Frequency distribution of responses on job satisfaction with career opportunities

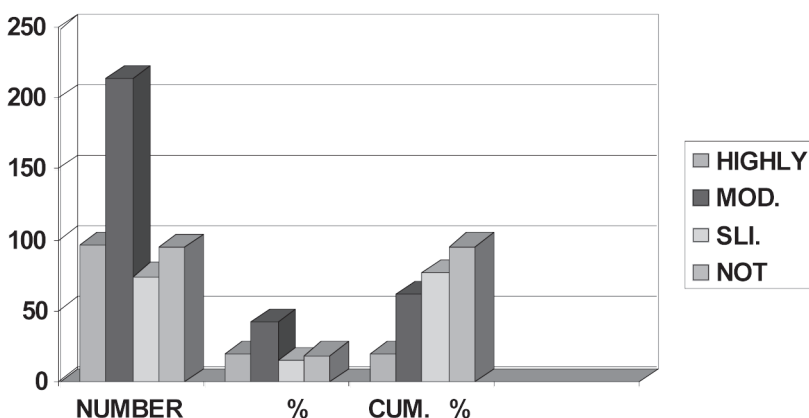| Job satisfaction with career opportunities	Number	%	Cum %
Highly	097	19.4	19.4
Moderately	214	42.8	62.2
Slightly	075	15.0	77.2
Not At All	095	19.0	96.2

Note. 3.8 % of the sample gave no response.

For the random sample of 500 respondents satisfaction with career opportunities was graphically represented in Figure 1. Approximately half of the respondents claimed that they were moderately satisfied with the career opportunities offered at their workplaces. An equal number of respondents reported being highly satisfied or not at all satisfied with the career opportunities offered at their workplaces (Figure 1).

Whilst Henderson (2000) claimed that career happiness was more important than job satisfaction, in this present study job satisfaction with career opportunities was linked to both age and sex (Table 5). The age cohort < 20 years recorded the highest percentage (67%) of respondents claiming that they were not satisfied with their career opportunities compared with 44 % in the age cohort 40-49 years. The age cohort 20-29 years recorded the least (20%) number of respondents claiming that they were not at all satisfied with their career opportunities and the most (30%) respondents claiming that they were highly satisfied with their career opportunities. The highest percentage of 20-29 year old BMTs (32.4 %) reported a moderate level of job satisfaction with career opportunities at their present jobs compared to 55.9 % of 30-39 year old BMTs. Weak and negative associations of job satisfaction with career opportunities and age cohort were recorded for all age cohorts except the 20-29 age cohort.

Perceptions regarding job satisfaction with career opportunities appeared heavily biased by sex. Being not at all satisfied with career opportunities at their present jobs was 14.2 % more female than male BMTs (Table 5). There was evidence of a significant difference between male and female BMTs with respect to their perception of job satisfaction with career opportunities (chi-square (4) = 500) = 25.4, p < 0.01).

However, 19% of those respondents who completed their programs reported being highly satisfied with their career opportunities compared to 26% of non-completers (Table 5). Over one third of the respondents who completed their programs (43.9 %) from SRTIs considered themselves moderately satisfied with career opportunities at their present jobs whilst 44.2% of non-completers expressed the same sentiments. Only 20.8 % of respondents who completed their programs were not at all satisfied (Table 5). Statistical significance of these resultsare summarized as follows: age: chi-square (9) = 105.4, p<0.001; sex: chi-square (3) = 34.3, p<0.001; course completion: chi-square (3) = 3.41, n.s.).

The majority of 20-29 year old female BMTs (31.3%) recorded being highly satisfied with the career opportunities offered at their present jobs compared to 9.4 % of 30-39 year old female BMTs (Table 6). Whilst over one quarter of 20-29 year old female BMTs (29.0 %) reported being moderately satisfied with career opportunities at their present jobs 100 % of under 20 year old BMTs reported the same (Table 6).

The highest percentage of BMTs (54.4 %) working in the petroleum industrial sub-sector reported moderate satisfaction with career opportunities at their present workplaces compared to 100 % respondents working in the agricultural industrial sub-sector and 9.7 % respondents working in the government industrial sub-sector (Table 7).

More than one third of the temporary BMTs (39.2%) reported a moderate level of job satisfaction with career opportunities at their present jobs compared to 51.9 % of temporary BMTs (Table 8). Whilst there was a weak positive relationship of job satisfaction with career opportunities and present job status (Gamma = 0.19), the relationship of

Figure 1
Frequency distribution of responses of sample to job satisfaction with career opportunities

Table 5

Respondents' satisfaction with career opportunities

Independent Factors	N	Highly satisfied	Moderately satisfied	Slightly satisfied	Not at all satisfied
Age					
<20 years	20	-	33	-	67
20-29	211	30	32	18	20
30-39	171	6	56	12	26
40-49	82	22	33	-	44
Gender					
Male	100	18	61	4	18
Female	400	21	31	16	32
Graduation status					
Completers	391	19	44	17	21
Non-completers	86	26	44	11	20

Note: N may not total 500 due to missing responses. All percentages rounded.

Table 6

Job satisfaction with career opportunities by age cohort by sex

Ag/yrs	<20 years		20-29 years		30-39 years		40-49 years		>49 years	
Job Satisfaction	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Highly satisfied	-	-	23.9	31.3	02.8	09.4	44.4	-	-	-
Moderately satisfied	20.1	100	47.3	29.0	77.9	31.2	55.6	11.1	-	-
Slightly satisfied	-	-	14.4	18.2	-	25.0	-	-	-	-
Not At all satisfied	79.9	-	14.4	21.5	19.3	34.4	-	88.9	-	-

Note. 12.1 % of responses yielded no valid answers.

Table 7

Job satisfaction with career opportunities by industrial sub-sector of present workplace

Job Satisfaction	Agric.	Comm.	Const.	Finance	Gov.	Mfg.	Petroleum	Other sub-sectors	Self employed
Highly satisfied	-	20.8	17.4	06.7	30.6	25.8	11.2	30.0	11.8
Moderately satisfied	100	49.1	39.1	63.3	09.7	41.9	54.4	45.0	47.1
Slightly satisfied	-	11.3	32.6	26.7	29.1	12.9	10.3	07.5	05.8
Not At all satisfied	-	18.8	10.9	03.3	30.6	19.4	24.1	17.5	05.8

Note. 17 % of responses gave no valid answers.

Table 8

Job satisfaction with career opportunities by present job status and by present work area of specialization

Job Satisfaction	Temporary	Permanent	Business Management	Other Areas
Highly satisfied	24.3	14.6	40.0	18.4
Moderately satisfied	39.2	51.9	46.7	45.3
Slightly satisfied	19.0	10.2	02.2	17.4
Not At all satisfied	17.5	23.3	11.1	18.9

Note: 6.2% of respondents gave no valid answers for present job status, 6.8% of respondents gave no valid answers for present work are of specialization.

Table 9

Job satisfaction with career opportunities by on-the-job-training

Job Satisfaction	Agric.	Comm.	Const.	Finance	Gov.	Mfg.	Petroleum	Other sub-sectors	Self employed
Highly satisfied	-	35.7	16.7	50.0	61.9	13.9	14.3	54.5	-
Moderately satisfied	67.1	50.0	38.9	-	23.8	50.0	62.5	27.3	-
Slightly satisfied	42.9	14.5	22.2	43.8	09.5	25.0	17.9	09.1	-
Not At all satisfied	-	-	22.2	06.2	04.8	11.1	05.3	09.1	100

Note. 60.4 % of respondents gave no answers.

job satisfaction (career opportunities) to sex appeared strongest at the slight level of satisfaction (Gamma = 0.47) and weakest at the moderate level (Gamma = -0.11). There was no evidence of a significant difference between temporary and permanent BMTs with respect to their perception of job satisfaction with career opportunities at all levels (Cramer's V = Highly: 0.23, Moderately: 0.12, Slightly: 0.27, Not At All: 0.38).

The highest percentage of BMTs (45.3 %) currently working in the area designated 'Other' reported being 'moderately satisfied' with the career opportunities at their present jobs (Table 8). A slightly higher percentage of BMTs (46.7 %) currently working in the area of business management reported a similar view. The association of job satisfaction with career opportunities to

present job done appeared positive (Gamma = 0.34, r (499) = 0.34, p < 0.01). There was a 19 % certainty that an individual working in a particular area of specialisation would hold a given perception regarding job satisfaction with career opportunities (Kendall's Tau C = 0.19, p < 0.01). Two way prediction was found to be 23 % (Somer's D (symmetric) = 0.23).

Almost a third (62.5%) of the BMTs who had their On-the-Job Training experience in the petroleum industrial sub-sector reported being moderately satisfied with the career opportunities at their present jobs (Table 9). Only 5.3% of BMTs reported being not at all satisfied with the career opportunities offered.

Discussion and Conclusions

Whilst it may be argued that this present study appears to be country specific, the method may be replicated in different countries and states in order to provide more relevant information. Having used a sample of 43% of the BMT population (Table 2), with demographic characteristics as all inclusive as possible (Table 3), and having used reliable and valid instruments (Table1), this researcher is convinced that the conclusions formulated are 'grounded' in empirical evidence, worthy of careful consideration. The results of the present study could serve to provide the readers with invaluable information about the current labor market patterns in small developing countries in the Caribbean or West Indies. Being the first of its kind in the region, the present study arose

from a more comprehensive study that was done to evaluate the business management technician program offered at the tertiary level without a university degree.

Stufflebeam's (2000) CIPP (context, input, process, and product) model served to provide direction for an in-house evaluation of the business management technician program. The present study was conceived at a time when adults were convinced of the need for higher credentials as a means of job retention so it became necessary to investigate the career aspirations of the business management technicians. Respondents reported that the business management technician program was a fit for their purpose and allowed them to be collaboratively involved in learning thereby empowering them to self actualization and self-determination. They reported the training relevant for performance at their workplaces. Further, the training received had wider impacts on the respondents' perceptions of their careers and the learning they were undertaking.

In the broader study evaluating the business management technician program, a number of variables like time to obtain present job, job relatedness, job preparedness, job satisfaction, job stability and fringe benefits/perks were considered. Job satisfaction was examined with respect to physical environment, actual work done, salary received and career opportunities. Information about job satisfaction with career opportunities from that broader study was used for this present paper with the assumption that it was indicative of the accuracy of an accurate career choice profile. The majority (42.8%) of BMTs reported being moderately satisfied with career opportunities at their workplaces (Table 4, Figure 1). Whilst the majority of respondents who reported being highly satisfied with career opportunities at their workplaces arose from the 20-29 age cohort, the minority of respondents reporting being highly satisfied with career opportunities came from the 30-39 age cohort (Tables 5, 6). This observation may well be a reflection of changing policies by employers to retain a fairly stable workforce in the interest of maximizing profits, by creating additional attractive career opportu-

nities. It may also be a reflection on the part of respondents of their honing of qualities like resourcefulness, dedication, resilience, dedication, patience, management, personality orientation, critical thinking, assertive communication, divergent thinking, autonomy, independence, ethics, optimism, flexibility, planfulness, reliability, dependability, commitment to continuous learning, responsibility, high self esteem and self-efficacy, self-discipline and self-reliance.

It seems that as the plateau levels off and employers in the 30-39 age cohort spend more of their time possibly concentrating on moving on while they are in a position to do so, they appear to think that career opportunities offered are only moderately satisfying to them. It is interesting to note that for older employees (40-49 age cohort) who may be preoccupied with raising a family and leaving an inheritance for their next generation, 22% reported being highly satisfied with career opportunities. For younger employees (< 20 years old), many of whom may have joined the workforce for the first time in their lives, whilst some appeared to be taking a cautious stance, (33%: moderate satisfaction), allowing themselves the privilege of more exposure, others (67%: not at all satisfied) may well be out of touch with reality (Tables 5, 6).

The interrelatedness of labor markets in the present information age, marked by globalization has mandated that world economies be cognizant of current events in countries outside their own borders. The geographical location of The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, between North and South America, is significant in terms of the kinds of inferences that may be drawn from a population that has been known to service job markets outside the region. Recognizing the career profile identified for a BMT from a SRTI in The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, West Indies, an individual who is contemplating choosing a course in business management or a career change may benchmark his/her gender, age, geographic area, high school type, entry qualifications, on-the-job training experience, industrial sub-sector of present job and present job status, with the findings from this present research report. This paper proposes

that such comparison could provide the prospective BMTs with sufficient data to make an informed career choice in The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, West Indies. For instance, judging from the data of Tables 7 and 8, it may be worthwhile for prospective BMTs to secure jobs in the petroleum or government sub-sectors or perhaps in areas like administration or even security where attributes like resourcefulness, dedication, resilience, dedication, patience, management, personality orientation, critical thinking, assertive communication, divergent thinking, autonomy, independence, ethics, optimism, flexibility, planfulness, reliability, dependability, commitment to continuous learning, responsibility, high self esteem and self-efficacy, self-discipline and self-reliance appear to be greatly needed for success.

In a broader context, a myriad of factors have caused individuals from across the world to seek employment in countries other than their places of birth. With nations coming together in trade blocks and those in the Caribbean region currently deciding their status in the proposed Caricom Single Market And Economy, career profiling allows individuals from different countries to benchmark their skills, competencies and experience and compete fairly for the jobs available in the Caribbean region and indeed the world. Given different physical environments in different countries, person environment correspondence and modal personality orientation would provide the theoretical backdrop that could determine an individual's suitability for employment in any given country. The researcher is cognizant of this since she continues to have the opportunity of successfully working in the area of measurement and evaluation in several different countries. With an extensive experience and exposure, this researcher has found minimal difficulty in adjusting to the different protocols of different organizations in different countries. Instead of being an obstacle, supply and demand of human capital in the marketplace has become an opportunity. Clearly, those attributes characterizing career profiling appear to be internationally accepted: resourcefulness, dedication, resilience, dedication, patience, management, personality ori-

entation, critical thinking, assertive communication, divergent thinking, autonomy, independence, ethics, optimism, flexibility, planfulness, reliability, dependability, commitment to continuous learning, responsibility, high self esteem and self-efficacy, self-discipline and self -reliance.

One limitation of this present study is that it did not comprehensively investigate the interaction between factors (for instance age and sex may interact). The findings are limited by the fact that the cohort that is examined is one of the many groups from the tertiary institutions, and as often happens, students may exit the course without fully completing the program and yet are employable. Accordingly, the present findings do not allow for generalizations to other courses or to groups of individuals. Nonetheless, the present findings support the continual need for accreditation and upgrading of vocational programs especially in small countries that are heavily influenced by and are dependent on neighboring super powers. It should be noted that career profiling in The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago is often related to political and sociocultural issues that is a reflection of the current situation in other areas of the world, particularly the United States of America. A useful focus for future research would be to compare the career profiles of BMTs from different countries, especially because globalization has mandated the easy flow of capital and labor around countries.

In summary, making correct career choices using current research-based information could positively influence an individual's future well being in terms of his/her overall happiness and his/her usefulness on the job market. Undoubtedly, more productive workers will have more positive contributions to the gross domestic product of any country that would have a ripple effect on workers' standard of living and that country's ability for sustainability in a world of increasingly scarce resources. Drawing data from a nationwide comprehensive study- the first of its kind-this present study aimed to provide evidence-based information of BMTs career profiles that would be useful in assisting prospective BMT students in their future career choices. With evidence out-side the scope of this present paper, information on job satisfaction with career opportunities appears to be linked with certain variables. Consequently, an instructive career profile should address certain fundamental characteristics like resourcefulness, dedication, resilience, dedication, patience, management, personality orientation, critical thinking, assertive communication, divergent thinking, autonomy, independence, ethics, optimism, flexibility, planfulness, reliability, dependability, commitment to continuous learning, responsibility, high self esteem and self-efficacy, self-discipline and self -reliance. It is hoped that the theme of this work would provide valuable information about Caribbean or West Indian BMT programs and offer a diverse cultural perspective of what is happening in other parts of the planet.

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