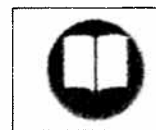




Access this Journal Online @ <http://www.contactpoint.ca/cjcd>

Subscription to this journal includes online access
through the Contact Point Website.



PRINT



INTERNET

Canadian Journal of Career Development/Revue canadienne de développement de carrière

Robert Shea, Editor/Rédacteur

Lisa Russell, Associate Editor/Rédacteur adjoint

The Canadian Journal of Career Development is published by Memorial University of Newfoundland. It has a mandate to present articles in areas of career research and practice that are of interest to career development practitioners.

The journal is published with grant support from the Canadian Education and Research Institute for Counselling (CERIC). The opinions expressed are strictly those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the opinions of the Canadian Journal of Career Development, Memorial University of Newfoundland or CERIC officers, directors, or employees.

The Canadian Journal of Career Development is published twice annually. Subscription rates: This edition is provided free of charge on line at www.contactpoint.ca/cjcd. Orders and correspondence regarding subscriptions, advertisements, change of address, purchase of back issues, and permission to reprint should be sent to: Robert Shea, Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL A1B 3X8 or cjcd@contactpoint.ca.

Manuscripts should be submitted in MS Word. Authors are requested to follow APA Style. For full length articles, an abstract of approximately 100 words is required.

Following final acceptance of an article for publication, all authors will be required to submit a copy in MS Word for production purposes.

For further details see inside back cover.

La revue canadienne de développement de carrière est publiée par l'université Memorial de Terre-Neuve; son mandat est de présenter des articles d'intérêt général pour tous les psychologues, dans les domaines de la théorie, de la recherche et de la pratique.

La revue est publiée avec l'aide financière du Canadian Education and Research Institute for Counselling (CERIC). Les opinions exprimées sont strictement celles des auteurs et ne reflètent pas nécessairement les opinions de la revue canadienne de l'orientation et du développement professionnels, ses représentants, directeurs-trices, ou employé-e-s.

Revue canadienne de développement de carrière est une revue annuelle. Abonnement: L'édition est disponible gratuitement en ligne à www.contactpoint.ca/cjcd. Veuillez adresser toute commande et correspondance au sujet des abonnements, de la publicité, des changements d'adresse, de l'achat de parutions antérieures et des droits de reproduction à: Robert Shea, Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL A1B 3X8 au cjcd@contactpoint.ca.

Les manuscrits doivent être soumis en MS Word. Les auteurs doivent suivre les directives du manuel de publication de l'APA. Un résumé en français d'environ 100 mots doit être joint à chacun des articles.

Tous les articles acceptés pour publication doivent être présentés en MS Word.

Adresser les manuscrits au rédacteur en chef:

Canadian Journal of Career Development/ Revue canadienne de développement de carrière

Robert Shea, Founding Editor
Faculty of Education
Memorial University of Newfoundland
G. A. Hickman Building, E-5036
St. John's, NL
A1B 3X8
Phone: (709) 737-6926
FAX: (709) 737-2345
E-Mail: rshea@mun.ca

Lisa Russell, Associate Editor
Career Development and Experiential Learning
Memorial University of Newfoundland
Smallwood Centre, UC-4012
St. John's, NL
A1C 5S7
Phone: (709) 737-8819
Fax: (709) 737-8960
E-Mail: lisar@mun.ca

Front Cover Art Design created by David Merkuratsuk. David is from Nain, Labrador and remembers his love of art going back to grade 2.

The Inukshuk... *"These magnificent Stone Cairns show that you should always have hope in where to go because they are the leaders that lead the way to safety which brings food, shelter, and life. All the years that I have been traveling through the barrens, I have always been amazed how these Inukshuks can bring you to your destination and they ask nothing in return."*

David Merkuratsuk

© 2001 Canadian Journal of Career Development/Revue canadienne de développement de carrière. All rights reserved/tous droits réservés.

ISSN 1499-1845 (Print)/ISSN 1499-1853 (Online)

Printed in Canada/Imprimé au Canada

Volume 7, Number 1, 2008

Number 1

EDITORIAL

ARTICLES

The Relationship between Negative Career Thoughts and Emotional Intelligence

A. Dennis Dahl, R. Kirk Austin, Bruce D. Wagner, and Andrew Lukas 4

Under the Magnifying Glass: Perception of Contextual Factors Influencing the Career Decision Making Process for Indo-Canadian Young Women Entering Science

Priya S. Mani 11

Délibérations sur l'avenir de l'enseignement en développement de carrière au Canada

Rebecca Burwell and Sharon Kalbfleisch 19

Despite the Barriers Men Nurses are Satisfied with Career Choice

J. Creina Twomey and R. J. Meadus 30

The Tentacles of Bullying: The Impact of Negative Childhood Peer Relationships on Adult Professional and Educational Choices

Ginette D. Roberge 35

The Impact of Mentoring on the Careers of African Americans

Glenn A. Palmer and Juanita Johnson-Bailey 45

Editorial

With this volume we have reached a pinnacle in the history of the Canadian Journal of Career Development. With over 2,100 individual subscribers and significant interest in publishing articles in the journal we are quickly becoming the preeminent authority for the dissemination of career related peer reviewed academic research and best practices in Canada and around the world.

One indication of this is our need to publish two issues a year. We have piloted this over the past two years and now believe we can sustain double the amount of publishing given the increased level of interest and submissions. I would like to inform our readers and authors that we will be publishing two issues a year with publication occurring in April and September each year. This will allow for a more focused and consistent approach to publication and timely dissemination of the fantastic research occurring in Canada and around the world.

The work that has been included in the past 6 volumes and in this current issue indicates a growing interest in career related research. This issue includes an article by A. Dennis Dahl, R. Kirk Austin, Bruce D. Wagner, and Andrew Lukas entitled - *The relationship between negative career thoughts and emotional intelligence*. In this article the authors uncover the relationship between overall emotional intelligence as measured by the Bar-On EQI and negative career thoughts as measured by the Career Thoughts Inventory. A second article included in this issue is the work of Priya Mani entitled - *Under the magnifying glass: Perceptions of contextual factors influencing the career decision making process for Indo-Canadian young women entering the sciences*. This study examined the various contextual factors that influence the career decision making process for Indo-Canadian young women. We have also included the French version of the recent national research conducted by Rebecca Burwell and Sharon Kalbfleisch - *Délibérations sur l'avenir de l'enseignement en développement de carrière au Canada*. Our fourth article included in this issue is authored by J. Creina Twomey, and R. J. Meadus titled - *Despite the Barriers Men Nurses Are Satisfied with Career Choice*. This article is both timely and informative as it provides an opportunity for reflection on how we recruit and retain individuals in the nursing profession. Our fifth article - *The tentacles of bullying: The impact of negative childhood peer relationships on adult professional and educational choices* by Ginette D. Roberge will provide you with insight into how the factors which occur in our childhood impact on our eventual career choice. The final article that is included in this issue is entitled *The Impact of Mentoring on the Careers of African Americans* by Glenn Palmer and Juanita Johnson-Bailey. As you may have already ascertained this issue of the journal is a wonderful cross section of the multi sectoral work occurring around the world on career research. I thank each and every one of the authors for their commitment to career research and their willingness to share it with our national and international audience.

I would like to personally thank each of these authors for their commitment to conducting and writing career related research which allows us to understand our clients career challenges and choices a little better. The creation of new knowledge is a wonderful talent and I believe each of these authors has endeavoured to do just that. Thank you!

As the Journal enjoys a period of growth I want to assure you that we will endeavour to remain true to our roots. We will endeavour to continue to publish research that is multi sectoral. We will endeavour to include articles that are cutting edge and reflective of the career work occurring in the community, in corporations, in government agencies and the various educational sectors. We will continue to publish research that focuses on the many and varied aspects of career development. Thank you for your support and encouragement.

All the best!

Rob

Robert Shea
Founding Editor
Canadian Journal of Career Development



Inukshuk International Award For Creativity in Career Development

Why develop this award?

The award is developed to support and celebrate creative best practices in community career development throughout the world.

- To celebrate those best practices in community career development which do not necessarily get the recognition they deserve.
- To encourage others to share their best practices.
- To respond to the many requests by our readers for the dissemination of creative community best practices.

What programs can be nominated?

- Programs must have as their central core the provision of career services in the community sector.
- Programs cannot be national programs or micro components of larger national programs.
- Community Career development programs from around the world can be nominated.
- Programs should have been established for no less than 3 years.
- Programs should have had a formal evaluation on the programs impact.

How to nominate a program?

- All nominations must be accompanied by an overview of the program – program name, nature of program, program impact, clients served (Include as much detail as possible).
- Three letters of reference from individuals who can attest to the programs impact.
- All other information that might assist the independent committee that will adjudicate nominations.
- Any individual can nominate a program.

Who will adjudicate?

- An independent international committee comprised of career development practioners.

What is awarded?

- A specially commissioned statue of an Inukshuk. The statue was designed specifically for this award and will be presented in person wherever possible.
- Each program selected for the Inukshuk award will have their program published in the Canadian Journal of Career Development as part of the Journal's ongoing promotion of international best practices in community career development.

Why the Inukshuk statue?

The Inukshuk has been chosen for it's significance to the career development field as it has become the symbol of the Canadian Journal of Career Development. Their role as sign posts in northern climates are well known throughout Canada.

As David Merkuratsuk, a post secondary student from Nain, Labrador writes...

"These magnificent stone cairns show that you should always have hope in where to go because they are the leaders that lead the way to safety which brings food, shelter, and life. All the years that I have been travelling through the barrens, I have always been amazed how these Inukshuks can bring you to your destination and they ask nothing in return."

How often is the award presented?

The award will be presented on a less than annual basis or as nominations dictate.

Nominations should be sent to:

**Selection Committee, Inukshuk Award
Canadian Journal of Career Development
Faculty of Education
G. A. Hickman Building, Room E-5036
St. John's, NL
A1B 3X8**

The Relationship between Negative Career Thoughts & Emotional Intelligence

A. Dennis Dahl, R. Kirk Austin, Bruce D. Wagner, and Andrew Lukas

Abstract

Relationships between overall emotional intelligence (EI) as measured by the Bar-On EQi and negative career thoughts as measured by the Career Thoughts Inventory were investigated in a population of career undecided non-student adults. More specifically, the factors of EI most related to negative career thinking were examined, as were the type of negative career thoughts most associated with EI. Findings revealed a significant inverse relationship between total EI and negative career thought scores. Adaptability and Intrapersonal factors were the subscales accounting for most of the variation in the career thoughts/EI relationship. Decision making-confusion was most negatively correlated with EI scores. The results suggest that assessment of a client's EI levels is important in career decision-making counseling.

Introduction

Career decidedness is a dynamic and interactive problem space (Savickas, 1995) that has been the subject of ongoing research. Originally considered a unidimensional continuum, current research has posited a more multidimensional domain (Gordon, 1998; Sampson, Reardon, Peterson & Lenz, 2004). As part of that domain, career indecision is the inability to specify a career choice within a career decision making milieu (Stewart, 1995).

Career indecision has demonstrated empirical relationships with other factors in the literature. In particular, emotional factors such as low self esteem (Chartrand, Martin, Robbins, McCauliffe, Pickerelle & Calliotte, 1994; Resnick, Faubles & Osipow, 1970; Stead, Graham & Foxcroft, 1993), neuroticism (Lounsbury Tatum, Owens & Gibson, 1999) and anxiety (Fuqua, Blum & Hartman, 1988; Holland & Holland, 1977; Larson, Piersel, Imao & Allen, 1990; Ohare & Tamburri 1986;

Serling & Betz, 1990; Skorupa & Agresti 1998; Stead Graham & Foxcroft, 1993) have contributed to career indecision.

Moreover, cognitive factors such as external decision-making style (Osipow & Reed, 1985) low problem solving confidence (Larson & Heppner, 1985; Larson, Heppner, Ham & Dugan, 1988), external appraisal of control (Fuqua, Blum & Hartman, 1988; Larson, Piersel, Imao & Allen, 1990; Taylor, 1982), and greater self appraised pressure and barriers (Larson, Heppner, Ham & Dugan, 1988) also impair career decision-making. Career indecision has also demonstrated a significant relationship to self defeating beliefs (Sweeney & Shill, 1998), lower career decision-making self-efficacy beliefs (Taylor & Betz, 1983), irrational thinking (Enright, 1996; Skorupa & Agresti, 1998; Stead, Graham & Foxcroft 1993), poor career beliefs (Enright, 1996), and negative career thoughts (Saunders, Peterson, Sampson, & Reardon, 2000).

Most career indecision research has largely been studied with student populations (Gordon, 1998; McWhirtner, Rasheed & Crothers, 2000), leaving the majority of adults outside of this domain of research (Weinstein, Healy & Ender, 2002). Many adults do not make career choices in college or university settings (Desruisseaux, 1998; Perry, 2003) but rather in the midst of life and work transitions such as unemployment (Amundson & Borgan, 1996; Osipow, 1999; Phillips & Blustein, 1994). Similarly, older adults make career choices under the influence of distinct developmental, cognitive and emotional factors different than their younger student counterparts (Patton & Creed, 2001; Super, 1983; Super, Savickas & Super, 1996). For these reasons the career decision making of non-student adults was explored.

The concept of emotional intelligence has become increasingly popular and hotly debated over the last decade,

and a number of instruments designed to measure this ability have appeared (Bar-On, 1997; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002; Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998). As with many new constructs, the exact definition of emotional intelligence varies with the test designer, but all have common core features: awareness of, understanding, expressing, controlling, and managing emotions in oneself and in others (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000). Bar-On, for example, defines emotional intelligence as "effectively managing personal, social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation, solving problems, and making decisions" (Bar-On, 2005).

The application of emotional intelligence in predicting outcomes has been researched in a variety of domains, but the main focus has been in the area of human resources management (Salovey, et.al, 2004). The role of emotional intelligence has been investigated with respect to leadership style (Coetzee & Schaap, 2003), managerial decision-making (Sayaeigh, Anthony, & Perrewew, 2004), training competence in financial advisors (Luskin, Aberman, & DeLorenzo, 2005), and worker performance and effectiveness (Bar-On, Handley, & Fund, 2006; Boyatzis, 2006).

Whereas negative career thoughts have related to various factors within career development research, it has only recently been researched within the realm of positive psychology (Lustig & Strauser, 2002). Emotional intelligence has been noted as a significant positive psychological construct (Salovey, Mayer & Caruso, 2002; Salovey, Mayer, Caruso & Lopes, 2004) with career related implications. Research exploring the relationship between emotional intelligence and career thoughts is limited. A study by Brown, George-Curran and Smith (2003) focused on emotional in-

telligence and career decision-making in a college student sample. Analysis of the data suggested that the emotional intelligence factors of Empathy, Utilization of feelings, Handling relationships, and Self control related positively to career decision-making self-efficacy, and that Utilization of feelings and Self control were inversely related with vocational exploration and commitment. Among the conclusions to their research, authors suggested that further research with emotional intelligence and career development be considered. Moreover, research with non-student adults was suggested.

The present research focused on three questions: First, what is the relationship between overall dysfunctional career thinking and emotional intelligence? Based on our reading of the literature we hypothesized that individuals with higher emotional intelligence scores would display lower levels of negative career thoughts. Second, we were interested in discovering what aspects of emotional intelligence as defined by Bar-On are most associated with negative career thinking? Third, what aspects of negative career thoughts are most associated with total emotional intelligence?

Method

Participants

The sample was 394 (160 male & 234 female) adults enrolled in a community based career decision making program funded by the Government of Canada. All participants were unemployed, career undecided and non-student at the time of research. Research participants ranged in age from 16-64 with a mean age of 37 years. Participation in the research was voluntary.

Instruments

Career Thoughts Inventory (Sampson, Peterson, Lenz, Reardon & Saunders, 1996). The CTI measures dysfunctional thinking, related to assumptions, attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, feelings, plans or strategies related to career choice, that inhibits effective career decision-making. The 48 item CTI total score measures a global factor of dysfunctional thinking pertaining to career problem solving and decision-making.

Three subscales measure decision making confusion (dmc), commitment anxiety (ca) and external conflict (ec). Decision-making confusion (14 items) refers to the "inability to initiate or sustain decision-making as a result of disabling emotions and/or a lack of understanding about decision-making itself" (Sampson et al., p.28). The Commitment Anxiety (10 items) scale reflects the "inability to make a commitment to a specific career choice, accompanied by generalized anxiety about the outcome of decision-making. This anxiety perpetuates indecision" (Sampson et al., p.28). The External Conflict (5 items) scale reflects the "inability to balance the importance of one's own self-perceptions with the importance of input from significant others, resulting in a reluctance to assume responsibility for decision-making" (Sampson et al., p.28). All factors negatively impact career decision making. Respondents select one of four item responses ranging from 0 (strongly disagree) to 3 (strongly agree). Examples of items are "No field of study or occupation interests me" (dmc), "I can't be satisfied unless I can find the perfect occupation for me" (ca) and "I need to choose a field of study or occupation that will please the important people in my life" (ec).

The internal consistency (alpha) coefficients for the CTI Total score ranged from 0.97 to 0.93 for student and adults norm groups. However, for the adult group in particular the alpha coefficient was 0.97. Alpha coefficients for the construct scales ranged from 0.94 (dmc), 0.91(ca) and 0.81 (ec) for the adult group alone (Sampson, Peterson, Lenz, Reardon & Saunders, 1996). Convergent validity of the CTI was determined against My Vocational Situation, Career Decision Scale, Career Decision Profile and Revised NEO Personality Inventory. Principal component analysis supports the three CTI sub-factors.

Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQi) (Bar-On, 1997). The EQi measures competencies in emotional, personal and social components of general intelligence. It is a self-report instrument consisting of 133 items for which a client provides a response ranging from "not true of me" (1) to "true of me" (5). In addition to a general EQi

score, competencies are measured through five main composite scales: Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Adaptability, Stress management and General mood. The Intrapersonal composite score reflects the inner self. As such it reflects the individual's self regard, emotional self awareness, assertiveness, independence and self actualization. The Interpersonal composite scale represents interpersonal functioning. As such it reflects an individual's empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationships. The Adaptability composite scale represents one's ability to cope with environmental demands. It reflects an individual's reality testing, flexibility and problem solving. The Stress management composite subscale represents an individual's tolerance towards stress and impulse control. The General mood composite scale reflects an individual's optimism and happiness. Examples of scale items are "I'm in touch with my emotions" (Intrapersonal), "I'm unable to show affection" (Interpersonal), "It's difficult to begin new things" (Adaptability), "I'm impulsive" (Stress management) and "I generally hope for the best" (General mood).

The Bar-On EQi manual reports an internal consistency alpha of .79 and test-retest have been reported as .85 and .75 at one month and four month intervals respectively. Factor analysis has strongly supported the total EQi structure and five composite factors.

The EQi includes three validity scales which measure the test-taker's degree of inconsistency in responding to similar items, negative impression – i.e. overly pessimistic responses, and positive impression – i.e. overly optimistic responses. The validity scales provide information as to whether the individual's responses are probably valid, possibly invalid, or probably invalid, and adjusts scores accordingly for the possibly invalid scores. For this study, any profiles classed as "probably invalid" were excluded from the data base.

Procedure

Subjects were attending a community based career decision making intervention. Assessments ascertaining negative career thoughts and emotional intelligence were administered as part of the intervention.

Results

Table 1

Descriptive statistics for CTI total and subscales and EQi total and subscales.

	CTI Total	dmc	ca	ec	EQi Total	Intra	Inter	Adapt	Stress	Mood
Mean	57.5	57.5	59.8	57.0	93.6	92.1	98.9	96.3	96.9	92.8
St. dev.	8.0	9.5	8.0	11.7	14.3	15.8	15.8	13.5	13.4	14.5

N= 392.

Note: Higher scores on CTI mean more negative career thoughts

Table 2

Correlations of Negative Career Thoughts (CTI) and Emotional Intelligence (EQi)

	EQi total	Intra	Inter	Adapt	Stress	Mood
CTI total	-.457**	-.426**	-.223**	-.433**	-.303**	-.385**
dmc	-.494**	-.471**	-.257**	-.438**	-.315**	-.442**
ca	-.319**	-.308**	-.136*	-.265**	-.263**	-.263**
ec	-.257**	-.233**	-.151*	-.232**	-.165*	-.221**

* $p < .01$ ** $p < .001$

Pearson product-moment correlations were computed for all pairs of scores for EQi total, the five EQi composite scales, total CTI, and three CTI subscales. The correlation matrix for re-

lationships between EQi and CTI variables are shown in Table 1. As can be seen, a significant inverse relationship exists between all EQi and CTI variables. According to Cohen's criteria

(Cohen, 1992), the relationship between total EQi and total CTI scores reflected a medium to large effect size ($r = -.46$, $p < .001$, $n = 392$).

To determine which aspects of

Table 3

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Negative Career Thinking

Predictor variables	R	R ²	Change in R ²
Adaptability	.433	.188	.188**
Intrapersonal	.468	.219	.032**
Stress management	.468	.219	.000
General Mood	.471	.222	.003
Interpersonal	.472	.223	.001

* $p < .01$ ** $p < .001$

Table 4

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Emotional Intelligence

Predictor variables	R	R ²	Change in R ²
Decision Making Confusion	.494	.244	.244**
Commitment Anxiety	.495	.245	.001
External Conflict	.496	.246	.001

* $p < .01$ ** $p < .001$

emotional intelligence were most associated with negative career thinking, a stepwise multiple regression was conducted using the CTI total score as dependent variable and the five EQi scores as predictors. Results of this analysis, shown in Table 2, revealed the Adaptability and Intrapersonal composite abilities to account significantly for most of the variation in the relationship. Adaptability accounted for about 19% of the variation and Intrapersonal for 3%.

Table 3 shows the results of the multiple regression computed to determine which aspects of negative career thinking were most associated with overall emotional intelligence. Total EQi score was used as the dependent variable and the three CTI subscales as predictors. Decision-Making Confusion accounted for about 24% of the variance; Commitment Anxiety and External Conflict did not figure significantly into the relationship.

DISCUSSION

Question 1:

As expected, individuals in our study who showed higher overall emotional intelligence scores displayed less dysfunctional career thinking. This implies that those involved in career decision-making are likely better able to cope with that process if they possess more emotional intelligence. Professionals involved in career counseling would therefore likely benefit from information regarding a client's emotional functioning and modify the counseling process accordingly. It is probable that many clients will require more time to complete what others with higher emotional intelligence complete relatively quickly.

Question 2:

Results also indicated that of the five composite EQi scales Adaptability accounted for 19% of the variation in total CTI scores while Intrapersonal functioning accounted for 3%. If Adaptability reflects one's ability to cope with environmental demands in terms of reality testing, flexibility, and problem solving, it seems reasonable that a deficit in this salient aspect of EI would negatively affect one's career thinking. It is possible that someone

with good Adaptability would be better able to handle career-related changes such as new work duties, geographic moves, or changes in co-worker composition. This type of person may also have a better ability to cope with mood fluctuations that result in potentially career-inhibiting feelings of anxiety, depression, frustration, or unsettledness. High Adaptability may also indicate that someone is better able to draw on their pre-existing resources as a method of coping with career-related change. All of these coping factors may play a role in mitigating against problematic career thinking.

Adaptability, as it relates to career thinking, involves reality testing. It might be that people with high Adaptability scores are more active in analyzing their career-related problems. This could involve both their ability to recognize that there is a problem and their ability to focus on the specific issues that need attention. It is also likely that they maintain rationality as they identify and address career-related problems and have the ability to focus on what is also going well, rather than only focusing on what might not be going well.

Adaptability reflects flexibility in that people with high Adaptability may see more options that they could pursue and that they find it easier to imagine themselves doing well at other things, rather than merely focusing on their areas of weakness. They may also have a better ability to identify their resources and to apply those resources in new ways. This may enable them to minimize negative career thought and to maintain an optimistic outlook because they believe they have resources to draw upon.

Finally, Adaptability reflects a problem solving ability. People with high Adaptability may experience less dysfunctional career thinking because they are able to build upon their pre-existing abilities and build upon those abilities rather than thinking they need to start from scratch. This may indicate an ability to keep negative career thoughts minimized so that more strategic meta-cognitions can be developed. It might also be that high Adaptability involves problem solving abilities that help people find ways around or through their realistic career difficulties.

In like manner, it seems logical that a dearth in Intrapersonal functioning, which reflects the individual's self regard, self awareness, assertiveness, independence and self actualization, would result in an increase in negative career thoughts. Low Intrapersonal functioning may trigger self-defeating thinking patterns that limit rational career decision-making. These thoughts could lead to mood fluctuations that make career-coping more difficult. However, a wealth of Intrapersonal functioning may indicate a greater awareness of emotions that may enable one to compartmentalize and analyze negative thoughts more rationally. This could have the effect of maintaining a sense of optimism and balance in career thinking for these individuals.

Question 3:

Research found that decision-making confusion significantly predicted lower overall emotional intelligence. One reason for this finding may relate to the common domain shared by these two factors. In particular, decision-making confusion pertains to an individual's decision-making impairment resulting from dysfunctional emotions or lack of understanding regarding choice-making. General emotional intelligence reflects a global emotional domain whereby an individual is not only aware of emotional states but also maintains the ability to manage those emotions toward effective decisions. Though the direction of influence remains unclear it is posited that one's general emotional intelligence would contribute to one's level of functioning at a task specific level. In essence poor awareness, expression and control of one's emotions would affect, and potentially impair, career choice behavior. This supposition has yet to be tested.

Researchers were surprised by the non-significant predictive relationships between commitment anxiety and external conflict with generalized emotional intelligence. It is posited that since a non-student adult sample was studied (average age 37), external conflicts common to younger students (parental pressure, educational system, peers, etc) would not be germane. Findings indicating Commitment Anxiety being lower in older persons reflects normative data

collected by Sampson, Peterson, Lenz, Reardon and Saunders 1996. This may be due to competing roles (spouse, parent, etc...), responsibilities (mortgages, car payments, etc...), resources (working partners, real estate holdings, savings etc...), lack of options, life experience, and wisdom. Research using discrete age cohorts may assist in clarifying the developmental issues related to emotional intelligence and career thinking.

Limitations

Both tests utilized in this study are self-report instruments, and as a result scores may well be contaminated with self-perception distortions such as social desirability factors, deception, and impression management (Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001). The difficulties with using a subjective assessment to determine one's emotional functioning have been a concern (Matthews, Roberts, & Zeidner, 2004; Schaie, 2001). It could be expected that exaggerations and misperceptions of one's negative career thoughts and emotional functioning are present in scores obtained from both instruments. Use of a more objective, ability-based measure of emotional intelligence would address at least part of this issue.

The significant relationship between emotional intelligence and negative career thinking does not infer causality – i.e. it cannot be determined from this research whether lower EI contributes directly to dysfunctional career thoughts or vice-versa. Probably they interact with each other – a relationship which needs to be further explored.

Conclusion

Brown, George-Curran, and Smith, (2003) state that “perhaps...the role of emotion is worthy of consideration when attempting to understand one's self-efficacy for career decision-making tasks” (pg.386). The current study would confirm that this is the case. Healthy emotional functioning, even when assessed by self-report, does appear to relate to fewer negative career thoughts which can only expedite the career decision-making process.

References

- Amundson, N. & Borgan, W. (1996). *At the controls: Charting your course through unemployment*. Scarborough: Nelson Canada.
- Austin, R.K., Dahl, D., & Wagner, B. (2003). Reducing Negative Career Thoughts in Adults, *International Journal of Disability Community and Rehabilitation*, 2 (2)
- Bar-On, R. (1997). *The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQi): Technical Manual*. Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R., Handley, R. & Fund, S. (2006). The impact of emotional intelligence on performance. In V. Druskat, F. Sala, & G. Mount (Eds.), *Linking Emotional Intelligence and Performance at Work* (pp. 81-95) New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Boyatzis, R. (2006). Core competencies in coaching others to overcome dysfunctional behaviour. In V. Druskat, F. Sala, & G. Mount (Eds.), *Linking Emotional Intelligence and Performance at Work* (pp. 81-95) New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Brown, C., George-Curran, R., & Smith, M. (2003). The role of emotional intelligence in the career commitment and decision-making process. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 11(4), pp. 379-392.
- Chartrand, J. Martin, W., Robbins, S., McAuliffe, G., Pickering J. & Galliotte, J. (1994). Testing a level versus an interaction view of career indecision. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 2, 55-69.
- Ciarrochi, J., Chan, A., & Caputi, P. (2000). A critical evaluation of the emotional intelligence construct. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28, pp. 539-561.
- Coetzee, C. & Schaap, P. (2003). The relationship between leadership styles and emotional intelligence. Paper presented at the 6th annual conference of the Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology, Johannesburg, S.A.
- Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer, *Psychological Bulletin*, 112(1), pp. 155-159.
- Desruisseaux, P. (1998). US trails 22 nations in high school completion. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, December, 4, A45.
- Enright, M.S. (1996). The relationship between disability status, career beliefs, and career indecision. *Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin*, 40(2). 134-153.
- Fuqua, D.R., Blum, D.R. & Hartman, B.W. (1988). Empirical support for the differential diagnosis of career indecision. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 36, 364-373.
- Gordon, V. N. (1998). Career decidedness types: A literature review. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 46(4), 386-403.
- Holland, J.L. & Holland, J.E. (1977). Vocational indecision: More evidence and speculation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 24, 404-415.
- Larson, L., & Heppner, P. P. (1985). The relationship of problem solving appraisal to career decision and indecision. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 26(1), 55-65.
- Larson, L. M., Heppner, P. P., Ham, T. & Dugan, K. (1988). Investigating multiple subtypes of career indecision through cluster analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 35(4), 439-446.
- Larson, L.M., Piersel, W.C., Imao, R.A.K. & Allen, S.J. (1990). Significant predictors of problem solving appraisal. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 37(4), 482-490.
- Lounsbury, J.W., Tatum, H.E., Chambers, W., Owens, K.S. & Gibson, L.W. (1999). An investigation of career decidedness in relation to ‘Big Five’ personality constructs and life satisfaction. *College Student Journal*, 33(4), 646-652.
- Luskin, F., Aberman, R., & DeLorenzo, A. (2005). The training of emotional competence in financial advisors.
- Lustig, D.C. & Strauser, D.R. (2002). The relationship between sense of coherence and career thoughts. *Career Development Quarterly*, 51, 2-11.
- Matthews, G., Roberts, R. & Zeidner, M. (2004). Seven myths about emotional intelligence. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(3), pp. 179-196.

- Mayer, J., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2002). *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MS-CEIT) user's manual*. Toronto, Ontario: MHS Publishers.
- McWhirtner, E. H., Rasheed, S., & Crothers, M. (2000). Effects of high school career education on social cognitive variables. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 47*(3), 330-341.
- O'Hare, M.M. & Tamburri, E. (1986). Coping as a moderator of the relation between anxiety and career decision-making. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 33*, 255-264.
- Osipow, S. H. & Reed, R. (1985). Decision-making style and career indecision in college students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 27*(3), 368-373.
- Osipow, S. (1999). Assessing career indecision. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 55*(3), 147-154.
- Osborn, D. S. (1998). The relationships among perfectionism, dysfunctional career thoughts, and career indecision. (Doctoral dissertation, Florida State University, 1998). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 59*(10), 3746A.
- Patton, W. & Creed, P.A. (2001). Developmental issues in career maturity and career decision status. *Career Development Quarterly, 49*, 336-351.
- Perry, R.P. (2003). Perceived (academic) control and causal thinking in achievement settings. *Canadian Psychology, 44*(4), 312-331.
- Peterson, G. W., Sampson, J. P., Jr., & Reardon, R. C. (1991). *Career development and services: A cognitive approach*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Phillips, S.D. & Blustein, D.L. (1994). Readiness for career choices: Planning, exploring and deciding. *The Career Development Quarterly, 43*, 63-67.
- Reed, C. A., Lenz, J. G., Reardon, R. C., & Leierer, S. J. (2000). *Reducing negative career thoughts with a career course: (technical report No. 25)*. Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University, Center for the Study of Technology in Counseling and Career Development [On-line]. Available: <http://www.career.fsu.edu/techcenter/Tr25.html>
- Resnick, H., Fauble, M. & Osipow, S. (1970). Vocational crystallization and self esteem in college students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 17*, 465-467.
- Roberts, R., Zeidner, M., & Matthews, G. (2001). Does emotional intelligence meet traditional standards for an intelligence? Some new data and conclusions. *Emotion, 1*(3), pp. 196-231.
- Salovey, P., Mayer, J., & Caruso, D. (2002). The positive psychology of emotional intelligence. In C.R. Synder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *The handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 159-171). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Salovey, P., Mayer, J., Caruso, D. & Lopes, P. (2004). Measuring emotional intelligence as a set of abilities with the MSCEIT. In S.J. Lopez & C.R. Synder (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology assessment*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Sampson, J. P., Jr., Peterson, G. W., Lenz, J. G., Reardon, R. C., & Saunders, D. E. (1996). *Career Thoughts Inventory*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.
- Sampson, J. P., Jr., Peterson, G. W., Lenz, J. G., Reardon, R. C., & Saunders, D. E. (1996). *Career Thoughts Inventory: Professional manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.
- Sampson, J. P., Reardon, R. C., Jr., Peterson, G. W. & Lenz, J. G. (2004). *Career Counseling & Services*. Toronto, Canada: Brooks/Cole.
- Saunders, D.E., Peterson, G.W., Sampson, J.P. & Reardon, R.C. (2000). The contribution of depression and dysfunctional career thinking to career indecision. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 56*, 288-298
- Sayaegh, L., Anthony, W. & Perrewe, P. (2004). Managerial decision-making under crisis: The role of emotion in an intuitive decision process. *Human Resource Management Review, 14*, pp. 179-199.
- Schaie, K.W. (2001). Emotional intelligence: Psychometric status and developmental characteristics – comment on Roberts, Zeidner, and Matthews. *Emotion, 1*(3), pp. 243-248.
- Schutte, N., Malouff, J., Hall, L., Haggerty, D., Cooper, J., Golden, C., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences, 25*, 167-177.
- Serling, D.A. & Betz, N.E. (1990). Development and evaluation of a measure of fear of commitment. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 37*(1), 91-97.
- Skorupa, J. & Agresti, A.A. (1998). Career indecision in adult children of alcoholics. *Journal of College Counseling, 1*(1), 54-66.
- Stead, G.B., Graham, Watson, M.B. & Foxcroft, C. (1993). The relationship between career indecision and irrational beliefs among university students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 42*(2), 155-169.
- Stewart, John. (1995). Counselling individuals who experience career decision-making difficulties. *Guidance and Counselling, 10*(4), 52-56.
- Super, D.E. (1983). Assessment in career guidance: Toward a truly developmental counselling. *The Personnel and Guidance Journal, May*, 555-562.
- Super, D.E., Savickas, M. L. & Super, C.M. (1996). The life span, life-space approach to careers. In D. Brown & L. Brooks, & Associates (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (3rd ed., pp. 121-178). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Sweeney, M.L. & Schill, T.R. (1998). The association between self-defeating personality characteristics, career indecision and vocational identity. *Journal of Career Assessment, 6*(1), 69-81.
- Taylor, K. M. (1982). An investigation of vocational indecision in college students: Correlates and moderators. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 21*, (3), 318-329.
- Taylor, K.M. & Betz, N. (1983). Applications of self-efficacy theory to the understanding and treatment of career indecision. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 22*, 63-81.

Weinstein, F.M., Healy, C.C. & Ender, P.B. (2002). Career choice anxiety, coping and perceived control. *Career Development Quarterly*, 50(4), 339-350.

About the authors:

A. Dennis Dahl, M.Ed
Learning Specialist- Kwantlen University College. He is a partner as well as education consultant to Lifework Design Group. He can be reached at dennisparc@telus.net or at 604-733-8942.

R. Kirk Austin, MA
Adjunct Faculty- Trinity Western University- ACTS

Bruce D. Wagner, MC
Adjunct Faculty- Trinity Western University- ACTS

Andrew Lukas, MC
Research Assistant

- NOTES -

Under the Magnifying Glass: Perception of Contextual Factors Influencing the Career Decision-Making Process for Indo-Canadian Young Women Entering the Sciences

Priya S. Mani
University of Manitoba

Abstract

This study uses the Social Cognitive Career Theory (Lent, Brown, Hackett, 1994) as the theoretical framework to examine the various contextual factors that influence the career decision-making process for Indo-Canadian young women entering the sciences at the post-secondary level. Yin's (2003) qualitative descriptive case study approach was used to explore the various contexts that influenced their career plans. Results indicated that perception of contexts such as family, peers, and the ethnic community influenced self-efficacy beliefs. Implications for career counsellors are discussed.

While education, training and employment are prominent concerns in Canada, very little research focuses on the future career roles of children of immigrants (children who were born and brought up in their parents' host country) although they form an increasingly important segment of Canadian society (Betz, 2001; Maxwell, Maxwell, & Krugly-Smolka, 1996; Rumbaut, 1994). In particular, understanding the experience of South Asian children of immigrants, has not received a lot of attention in terms of life-career development research. These youth face intergenerational conflict, limited South Asian role models in various fields, and more traditional gender role socialization which could have an impact on their life-career development (Foner, 1997; Ghuman, 1994; Hanada, 2003; Toohey, Kishor, & Beynon, 1998).

Intergenerational Conflict in Families: A Clash of Values

According to the Statistics Canada classification, South Asian includes students who identify themselves as having

a Sikh, Muslim, or Hindu cultural background (Statistics Canada, 2001). Since many South Asians have settled in Canada, the experience of raising their children in a culture that does not represent their own base of experience has posed these families with some challenges. Researchers consider the challenges described by parents and children of immigrants, as intergenerational conflict (O'Connell, 2000; Ghuman, 1997; Khan, 1979; Segal, 1991; Wakil, Siddique, & Wakil, 1981). The researchers conceptualized the problem as an adolescent experience of a clash of values between home and mainstream culture and exposure to two sets of competing cultural practices (Goodnow, Miller, & Kessel, 1995). Culture conflict is experienced by children of immigrants when they are caught between the cultural expectations of their parents, and the social expectations of the mainstream culture (Watson, 1977). It is important to examine whether South Asian children of immigrants consider intergenerational conflict as a potential barrier to career decision-making, and, if so, how they manage tensions and arrive at making decisions.

Acculturation: Process of Ethnic Identity Formation

An alternative perspective presented in the literature suggests that children of immigrants manage the tensions of living between two different cultures through a process of acculturation (Goodnow, Miller, & Kessel, 1995). Acculturation is based on the premise that new cultural traits that are adopted by the individual represent a new combination of two different value systems (Porter & Wahsington, 1993). Feminist collections, such as *Our feet Walk the*

Sky (Women of South East Asian Descent Collective, 1993), depicts children of immigrants living between two cultures and value systems as a difficult and multifaceted experience. It is important to understand the process of socialization and the cultural variation of values that exist within different families and how children of immigrants manage any dissonance that they might experience in career decision making (Das Gupta, 1997; Handa, 2003; Hedge, 1998; Phinney, 2006; Sue, Ivey & Pederson, 1996).

Socialization Practices in South Asian Families

The literature on career counseling suggests that parents have a strong influence on the career choices of their children. Research indicates that South Asian adolescent girls negotiated educational and career options within the family context and did not view the process as an individual process (Bassit, 1996; Siann & Knox, 1992; Gibson, 1998). Segal's (1991) study outlined the issues faced by both the parents and their adolescent children in the family context. The study demonstrated that for South Asian students, career choices reflected their parents' cultural model of success, internalized as part of the South Asian students' own career identity (Schneider & Lee, 1990). The cultural model of success was perceived by the students' as a psychological burden characterized by guilt and frustration if they were unable to meet parental expectations (Saran, 1985). South Asian students may experience unique external performance pressure in various contexts of development which may also hinder their perception of career choices available (Cheryan & Boden-

hausen, 2000). The above challenges contribute to a complex set of factors influencing the career-life plans made by children of immigrants in South Asian families. In addition, consideration of gender role expectations in the family is deserving of particular attention, even though there is limited research available.

Gender Role Expectations in South Asian Families

South Asian immigrant parental gender expectations regarding children's choice of occupation was studied by Agarwal (1991). She concluded that South Asian parents for over half her sample wanted their children, both male and female, to be physicians. Agarwal also noted that the parent-child relationship is far more authoritarian in South Asian families than in American families. These parental expectations have many implications for children of these immigrants, particularly women. As she interviewed second-generation young women, concerns became apparent regarding the management of dual role expectations of being a dutiful daughter in the family as well as an assertive and excellent student within the educational context. Exploring gender role expectations within the family is an important step to understanding the educational experiences of Indo-Canadian young women. This study seeks to describe the experiences of South Asian young women who are children of immigrants and how they formulate their career life-plans to enter the sciences. The primary researcher was especially interested in their experiences with different contexts of learning (family, school, and peers) and their perceptions of self-efficacy as they approached career decision making.

Methodology

Theoretical Framework Selected for Guiding the Research: Social Cognitive Career Theory (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994)

Due to cultural differences in perception of one's environment, researchers have recognized the importance of applying theoretical frameworks that account for context with different cultural groups (Mau & Bikos, 2000; McWhirter, 1997). More

recently, Lent, Brown, and Hackett (2000) have proposed a social cognitive career theory (SCCT) based on Bandura's (1986) work that incorporated an understanding of the person, context, and behaviour to understand career development for different minority groups. The goal of SCCT was to explicate the mechanism through which academic and career interests develop, how people make career choices, and how personal agency affects career outcomes. Lent, Brown, & Hackett (2000) stipulated propositions in relation to SCCT that provide future researchers with the opportunity to engage in theory building efforts (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). As such, the SCCT was used to examine Indo-Canadian women's career decision-making process to enter academic fields in the sciences at the post-secondary level. This qualitative study will explore five propositions stipulated within the SCCT, in relation to Indo-Canadian women's experience in choosing a career in the sciences, which will be discussed further in the results section.

Qualitative Method Selected: Descriptive Case Study Approach

Yin (2003) developed a qualitative descriptive case study approach, which was selected and used for the purpose of this study, to examine what factors contribute to the career decision-making process among Indo-Canadian young women entering science programs at the post-secondary level. A descriptive case study requires the researcher to begin with a theory in the literature that has established propositions. The social cognitive career theory (SCCT) had established a set of propositions (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994) that could be derived which covers the scope of the proposed study and was selected as the conceptual theoretical framework. The descriptive theoretic patterns of the study can then be cross compared to the propositions embedded within SCCT. The purpose of this methodology is to see if the patterns that emerge within the data set fit the SCCT theoretical propositions under consideration, and to explore the usefulness of the theory to understand the career life-planning process of an ethnic minority group (Yin, 2003).

Central Research Questions

The central research questions that guided the research were:

1. What role does socialization in the dominant society, family, ethnic community, and educational settings play in formulating educational and career interests in the sciences for Indo-Canadian young women?
2. How does self-efficacy contribute to their vocational interest development in science?
3. How does viewing role models in relevant educational and career activities contribute to their experience of self-efficacy in selecting a career in science?

Selection of Participants

Twelve Indo-Canadian young women who were children of immigrants, from a large metropolitan area in Manitoba, constituted the sample for this study. It has been suggested that the ideal range of participants for a qualitative study would be between 8 to 15 participants (Juntunen, Barraclough, Bronek, Seibel, Winrow, & Morin, 2001; Kvale, 1996). A criterion case selection strategy was used in the selection of the twelve participants and refers to choosing cases because of their similarity to central characteristics of interest to the researcher (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999). The criteria established in the selection of participants to create a relatively homogenous sample included the following:

1. The participant self-identified as being Indo-Canadian which included having a Sikh, Muslim, or a Hindu cultural background.
2. Each Indo-Canadian young woman would have completed her kindergarten to grade 12 schooling in Canada, which would identify the individual as being a second-generation Indo-Canadian (Zhou, 1997).
3. The participants resided in Manitoba and seven were pursuing undergraduate programs in science. An additional five participants were enrolled in professional programs in science such as pharmacy, dentistry, and medicine.
4. Participants were between twenty and twenty-five years of age, which

is considered young adulthood (Arnett, 2000).

Training Research Assistants

The research team was multi-disciplinary and consisted of three female research assistants who were all trained to be independent coders of the data. All three research assistants were trained by the primary researcher and were exposed to reading material on a range of qualitative research methods, and in particular, the descriptive case study approach. Topics covered with all assistants included: ethics and standards of qualitative research with minority groups, qualitative data analysis techniques and how to be an independent coder of data, issues related to entering the field, and data analysis strategies such as the creation of concept maps. The researcher would meet with the assistants on a regular basis to allow time to debrief how they felt after reading a transcript, to review concept maps, and review coding of transcripts.

Use of a Concept Map with Research Assistants: Mid Point Analysis

A concept map encouraged the research assistants to start with a nucleus idea of the participants experiences on the centre of the page, and radiating outward from the centre, key experiences within the transcript that influenced the career development of the participant would be documented (Amundson, 2002). The creation of a concept map for each transcript served as a mid point of analysis for the research assistants to explore the participants career decision-making process from the participants perspective, and to recognize when their own interpretations of the participants experiences would complement or diverge in the analysis of the data. New meanings created in the analysis by the research assistants were identified and debriefed with the primary researcher.

Data Collection

The research was conducted in a five-phase process: (1) participants were given a non-standardized qualitative questionnaire which was a modified version of Julien's questionnaire (1997) entitled *The Search for Career-Related Information by Adolescents*. (2) Partici-

pants engaged in a one and a half hour to two hour semi structured interview. The interview questions were open-ended and explored participants' thoughts and reactions in the following areas: (a) perception of vocational interest development, (b) self-efficacy appraisals of making career decisions, (c) perception of various social contexts that impact on career choice such as family, school, and friendships, and (d) view of role models in the field. At the end of the interview, the researcher invited open-ended descriptions of issues pertinent to the participant that might not have been covered in the interview. (3) Transcription of the first interview and a cross comparison between questionnaire and the transcript were conducted by the primary researcher to identify gaps. Systematic case study notes were maintained by the researcher documenting observations after each interview. (4) Transcription of the first interview was sent to the participant to review the accuracy of statements. (5) A second 30-45 minute interview was scheduled with the participant to clarify ideas that arose from reviewing the initial transcript which was also audio taped, transcribed, and reviewed by participants.

Data Analysis

Data analysis of the interviews consisted of four phases: In the first phase, the primary researcher created a list of domains of analysis which were based on the predefined concepts found within the social cognitive career theory (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2000), and consisted of: a) contextual affordance, b) structure of opportunity, c) learning experiences, d) self-efficacy beliefs, e) outcome expectations, f) interest development, g) choice goals, and h) choice actions. In the second phase, the primary researcher and research assistants independently did a line-by-line analysis of each transcript which consisted of categorizing all interview statements into particular domains and created a concept map. In the third phase, the primary researcher did a cross comparison of transcripts to assess percentage of agreement between the interview statements that were sorted into the most appropriate domain (Kvale, 1996). Percentage of agreement ranged from

80% to 89% for the analysis of each transcript. The final phase consisted of a cross-case analysis examining the concept maps, data within a particular domain across participants, and representing the patterns found across cases in written form. The participants requested that the quotes selected would be used by more than one participant in order to protect their identity. Consequently, the depiction of their experiences provided of the young women's interview statements was limited.

Validity and Reliability Procedures

Validity of the data is based on Yin's (2003) three criteria. First, *internal validity* was achieved through triangulation of different sources of data, having a selective sample, and having the participants check the accuracy of their interview statements. Second, *reliability* was attained through consistent data analysis procedures, comparison of concept maps of each interview, and by establishing two inter rater reliability checks per participant interview. Third, *external validity* was established through analytical generalization of the results of multiple cases to theory (Yin, 2003). As such, within the results section, further discussion of selected propositions of the social cognitive career theory will be examined in relation to the research findings.

Results

Proposition #1 An individual's occupational or academic interests are reflective of his or her concurrent self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations (Lent et al., 1994; 2000).

For ten participants, interest in science formulated when individuals were exposed to the health field at an early age (needing braces, glasses, inhaler, or exposure to a doctor in a hospital setting due to a childhood injury) or to the health concerns of their immediate family members. In all cases, the participants early interest and academic strength in science were reinforced actively by parents and ethnic community members. The data for all participants also support Lent's sub-proposition that interests will stabilize for an individual by late adolescence or early adulthood. By completion of high school all partici-

pants recognized that they “wanted” to be in the sciences. Five participants had a crystallized career choice goal within the professional field that they were clearly aiming towards while they were in high school. The other participants discovered their specific career choice in science in the first three years of university.

The participants anticipated positive academic outcomes and had future expectations of creating balance of life roles through their career role verses opportunistic motives for pursuing careers in the science. In all cases, the young women developed future expectations that viewed their career as “separate” from other domains of their lives that could bring satisfaction, status, and a degree of balance of future life roles based on the employment options available for women in various scientific fields. They discussed how they hoped they could find balance between work, marriage, future parenting roles, and the ability to incorporate outside interests back into their lives that needed to be “put on hold” as they pursued their science degree (such as engagement in travel, art, or creative writing), but were not specific in how they would do so.

The perception held by eleven participants was that there were a limited number of career options to consider in the sciences and that each option (dentistry, pharmacy, optometry, and medicine) was highly competitive and difficult to gain admission into. Six of the young women had their first preference of a program that they wished to pursue, but also had “back up plans” in case their first choice did not come through. These individuals reflected a “wait and see” approach to dealing with a competitive field and maintained self-confidence in their academic pursuits by increasing the amount of options available to them and attributed entry into a program based on “fate”. In the other six cases, participants with crystallized goals, focused on one professional program to apply for and decided to “take their chances” and let “fate” determine the end result. These participants found that by concentrating on one goal they were able to establish more “focus” and maintain their level of self-confidence. *Proposition #2 An individual's occupational interests also are influenced by*

his or her occupationally relevant abilities, but this relation is mediated by one's self-efficacy beliefs (Lent et al., 1994; 2000)

Eight of the young women defined themselves in high school as being a relatively “strong” student in both the arts and science/mathematics courses. Despite having the ability to persist in the arts, they chose not to do so, as they had limited exposure to the various careers that they could pursue with an Arts degree and were unsure of their future prospects. For these eight participants, “exploration and discovery” of new interest areas was an important factor within their high school experiences and was affiliated with “establishing their own identity”. They felt that the teachers that they also encountered within various courses during the high school level became important individuals that they still maintained contact with. These teachers exposed them to different ways of viewing the world and provided them with various opportunities within the school context to develop their self-confidence. Two out the eight participants decided to pursue a degree in arts in university, but decided to switch to the sciences in their second year of their program due to viewing the field as limited in terms of career options. After a time delay, these participants found that when they started to repeatedly do well academically with scientific courses, they were able to generate a new interest in the sciences, which sustained their motivation to continue with their academic program in the sciences. The participants who were academically strong in the arts and sciences, felt confident that they could find ways to complement their science degrees with integrating various aspects of the arts within their program. For example, dentistry and optometry were perceived as being a good “mix of the arts and science” as it not only required a scientific background but also required an “eye for detail, the ability to see beauty in various tasks, and the use of fine motor skills”. Many participants also felt that by taking an undergraduate degree with a major or minor in psychology, was a manner in which they could “mix the science with the arts”. Even though the university program defined psychology as a scientific discipline, the participants

still perceived psychology as being more affiliated with the arts. Consequently, they felt that an option was provided for them to “combine science and arts” within their pursuit of a science degree. Also, for participants interested in pharmacy, dentistry, and medicine, it was perceived as a good “mix of the sciences with meaningful relationships with patients” as the value for creating supportive relationships would need to be enacted in any of those career roles.

Proposition #3 Self-efficacy beliefs derive from performance accomplishments, vicarious learning, social persuasion, and physiological reactions (emotional arousal) in relation to particular educational and occupationally relevant activities (Lent et al., 1994; 2000).

Success achieved under conditions of challenge appears to be more strongly related to self-efficacy than success achieved under limited difficulty (Lent, 2000). The young women who felt that the sciences and mathematics were their strongest subjects derived enjoyment in the problem solving process of dealing with challenging academic scientific material. In university, all participants communicated that at one phase of their university education they desired to take easier courses to help increase their grade point average, but that it was not personally fulfilling. It became apparent that participants eventually desired taking “challenging and meaningful” courses as it helped them to sustain interest in the field. In regard to their ability to know that they would do well in the professional field, all participants believed that they had the capacity to do so, based on objective assessment of their grades. For five participants who were already enrolled in professional programs in the sciences, their sense of accomplishment was derived from striving to be a “good” professional in their field and was no longer based on grade attainment.

In regard to social persuasion, similar to Lent's sub-proposition that individuals value their own self appraisals over other direct feedback, all participants stated that they valued “encouragement and feedback” regarding their performance from people who were working in the field as a complement to

supporting their own self-appraisals. If feedback was given that was contrary to how they perceived themselves, they would make their own assessment and consider their stage of professional development, commitment of the supervisor to their learning, and quality of supervision in relation to meeting academic objectives.

In relation to task performance, the sense of self-efficacy was enhanced for all the participants when they felt "focused" and could set "realistic measures" for themselves regarding how to assess their academic performance in the field. They were able to maintain their sense of personal "endurance" when they could acknowledge their own sense of accomplishment attained under difficult academic conditions. The difficult conditions of their academic program in the sciences consisted of having to contend with long days, and the physical stamina needed to accomplish studying, attending courses along with the completion of labs, within their academic program. The young women tended to stay motivated and persist in science when they could see that what they were studying was relevant to their personal values which included: helping and improving the health conditions of others, accomplishing challenging tasks, wanting to understand how things work, appreciating the art to be found in science, making personal use of their abilities, being admired and respected for their academic selection by their family members and peers, and feeling that their degree would make them more employable.

Proposition #4 Outcome expectations are generated through direct and vicarious experiences with educational and occupationally relevant activities (Lent et al., 1994; 2000).

Lent proposed that being exposed to role models and learning vicariously through them would have an impact on one's sense of self-efficacy. Six participants defined role models by referring to their older siblings who were pursuing a career in the sciences. Academic advice would be given by their siblings as to how to structure their academic program and strengthen their academic profile. Older siblings would also provide emotional support and help them

manage dealing with a competitive educational climate. For the remaining six participants who were the eldest in their family, felt they needed to "set an example" and be a role model to their younger siblings. These participants sought out support and learned vicariously from peers who were a year or two senior to them and who were aiming to enter or had already gained admission into professional programs in the sciences, to help them with academic advice.

Proposition #5 Contextual affordance would indirectly affect a person's career decision-making process and choice of occupation (Lent et al., 2000).

Contextual affordance consists of the participants indirect perception of social forces and determines if they have a positive, neutral, or a negative influence over the individual (Lent et al., 2000). All the young women demonstrated what Lent proposes in his theory. Those aspects that they defined as social forces that indirectly influenced their career development, are discussed below.

All the young women perceived that certain values embedded within Canadian society would be reflected in the workplace. Since they lived in a multicultural society, the young women believed that "respect for diversity" and "equality for women" would be reflected in the world of work. They felt that they would be considered more employable due to their gender as they recognized that there was a need for more women in various scientific professions. Three participants reported that they anticipated experiencing difficulty due to their gender in working in a male dominated field based on hearing their older siblings share their experiences. The remaining nine participants did not feel that they would encounter difficulty in the workplace based on gender differences or ethnicity and believed that the policies in the workplace protected them from discriminatory practices.

The family structure served as a socializing force in the participants lives. First, parents emphasized the value of "being educated" and encouraged their daughters to establish themselves within society, which the young women also valued. Parents also had "strong prefer-

ences" and thought that it was more valuable for women to enter male dominated careers in science than to enter the arts, because science represented a more "stable" career choice and held more "prestige". The young women adopted these values by their parents and were also intrinsically motivated to take more science courses as they "wanted to be in the sciences". In all cases, what they desired for themselves took precedence over what was expected of them by their family members.

The young women felt that their fathers were a strong influence and encouraged them to enter the sciences and held the same level of expectations for their sons or other daughters in the family unit. Fathers were perceived as instrumentally supportive and would help the young women make career plans and consider financial aspects of education. Participants whose parents did not have a university background would eventually trust their daughters in making their own educational and career decisions as they could see that their daughters were committed to "completing what they had started" in the sciences. The participants internalized their parents belief that they had the capacity to accomplish their goals.

Mothers were seen by the majority of the participants as primarily emotionally supportive. They would provide participants with knowledge as to how to approach interpersonal difficulties in relation with peers and provide encouragement to participants when they would question their own ability to gain admission into challenging professional programs. The participants also emphasized that their mothers were supportive of their career choice and wanted their daughters to be in a position in which they were "independent". However, the young women also acknowledged that their mothers were concerned about ensuring that they would get married by their late 20's.

The ethnic community was a socializing force as it held certain norms in common with parents. For example, male dominated fields were encouraged for women to pursue because they were deemed more "stable" and "prestigious". The general view was that reasons for women to pursue a career had less to do with fulfilling personal satis-

faction and more to do with not needing to “rely” on a partner. Marriage was still considered a primary goal upon completion of a degree. However, if the individual wanted to pursue a professional science program, the delay in marriage was perceived as acceptable because it would represent attaining a more stable position in society and would make them more “marketable”. The young women mirrored the concerns of the ethnic community and the values of their parents for meeting the “timeline” of entry into a professional program. They questioned whether they would be able to meet their “timeline” and felt pressured to sort out how and when to integrate marriage, entry and completion of a professional academic program, and potentially having children within a timely manner as they were concerned with being established by their late twenties.

The educational environment acted as a socialization force. As they progressed from senior high, to college and university, the participants obtained a clearer conception of their role as a student and what it means to study within a “competitive environment”. The young women all developed their own personal code of ethics as to how they would interact with peers who they would be potentially competing with. They devised strategies such as not discussing grades with peers or extended family members to avoid the “social comparison” that could ensue and learned how to keep things “separate” between socializing with peers and discussion of academic competition. However, academic support would be given to close friends and was seen as an enactment of their personal values to “help others in need”. Academic help and advice was generally sought out and given with peers who were not directly within their own cohort to avoid a conflict of interest. Peer relationships that did develop within the same cohort were characterized as an emotional support, as participants would study alongside their peers and provide motivation to one another. The participants also mentioned that they would try to “block out” the difficulties that peers would have trying to gain entry into a professional program and concentrate on the successful stories of their peers and their own personal

goals. Values enacted within the family for academic planning within a “timely” manner were enacted by their peer group and strategies were passed on from one cohort to the next. Within their peer group, they valued and maintained long term relationships and defined their friendships as the context in which they personally “grew”. The participants also agreed that by knowing other Indo-Canadian peers within the university context that it enabled them to understand more about their cultural identity, and that it was helpful to see the variety of Indo-Canadian family relationships that could exist and felt “fortunate” for having parents that were supportive of them. It was also noted in their educational experiences that their peers held the belief that if a person was strong in the sciences that it was “inevitable” that one would enter the field and that discussion and questioning of personal satisfaction of a life-style choice would be attributed to delayed gratification after becoming established in ones profession. Peers also held the belief that women needed to “establish” themselves in a career and that women could enter any field in the sciences and no barriers existed.

Careers in the sciences were determined by social messages based within the world of work. Many young women expressed an interest in dentistry, pharmacy, and optometry as these fields would not require as much time to complete and would not require as much on call work as would be expected in the medical field. Being able to achieve balance in future life roles became an important aspect of their career decision-making process. Three participants were deeply committed to viewing medicine as a career choice, fully understanding the life style implications of entering the field, and felt confident that they could manage the professional obligations and personal life roles connected to marriage and having children. However, specific strategies as to how to create the balance were not identified. Non-traditional careers within the sciences were considered by two participants and included aiming to be a professor and engaging in scientific research. However, support for their career choice by family members was limited because few individuals within

the ethnic community pursued this route and there was a lack of information of future career prospects.

The perception of teachers, professors and practicum supervisors were internalized by the participants and acted as a strong socializing force if the individual giving the feedback demonstrated concern for their well being and had known the participant over a long period of time. The participants who maintained long term relationships with their teachers appreciated the supportive messages but recognized that the social messages differed from what they experienced within their family unit. Central messages from teachers included “enjoy the journey”, “take your time”, “keep yourself open to new experiences” and “try new things” which were diametrically opposed to messages found within the family unit which focused on the avoidance of “wasting time”, importance of “completing what you start”, and “work hard now and the reward will follow”. Encouragement and feedback from peers, family, and valued teachers helped participants sustain their level of interest and sense of self-efficacy in career related endeavors. At times, participants felt that the social messages were at odds to one another, but sought out feedback from each social world to meet their individual needs at different times of their career decision-making process.

DISCUSSION

Lent’s social cognitive career theory (SCCT) (2000) views a person’s life-context as having a strong influence in shaping understanding of career interest development and self-efficacy beliefs about work and lifestyle. The overall findings regarding the applicability of using Lent’s SCCT (2000) to understand contextual factors in relation to Indo-Canadian young women and their career decision-making process were well supported, while a few areas still need to be explored further.

Salient findings of the study in support of Lent’s social cognitive career theory were: (1) Early exposure to science during childhood and adolescence within the family, school, and other settings determined self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations, which contributed to formation of interest devel-

opment during late adolescence or early adulthood. (2) The young women demonstrated self-confidence in finding a match between their ability in science and blending it with their additional interest in the arts. They did not view their decision as having to compromise on their personal values within their career choice. In actuality, the participants viewed the *compromise process* in itself as an enactment of their personal values and felt confident with their ability to make decisions. (3) exposure to role models based within the family and learning vicariously through peers had an impact on their sense of self-efficacy. (4) Contextual affordance remained in the background of their experiences. The participants lived within the norms established within each social context. They were still active organizers of their experiences and each participant felt that they could maintain their sense of integrity within each context of development through the enactment of their personal values.

The findings that would need further exploration in relation to Lent's social cognitive career theory were that individual self-efficacy appraisals meant more to an individual than feedback gained from others regarding career performance (Lent et al., 2000). In all cases, evidence supports this proposition. However, it must also be noted that feedback was deemed valuable based on the *quality* of relationship that the participant had with the person. Lent also considered that self-efficacy beliefs derive from performance accomplishments, which was supported by all the participants of this study (Lent et al., 2000). However, it must also be noted that how participants defined a successful accomplishment changed depending on their educational stage of development. Moreover, balancing future life-roles were defined as a future performance accomplishment goal that the participants were striving for.

The research findings have implications for career counsellors when working with Indo-Canadian young women. First, it is important for counsellors to understand the norms of the various contexts that the participant is affiliated with. Second, identifying what constitutes a supportive relationship, and/or role models within each context, would

be important to explore as it may also have implications for how the counseling relationship unfolds. Third, a counsellor needs to illuminate any differences between norms within different social contexts and inquire how clients contend with competing messages. Fourth, counsellors need to inquire if the client has a future timeline that they may be contending with and if they feel capable of creating a balance of future life-roles for themselves. Fifth, understanding the worldview of the client including perception of fate, enactment of personal values, and development of personal code of ethics within different contexts in relation to self-efficacy beliefs may be important to identify. Finally, exploring the perception of self-efficacy in relation to creating a match between their abilities in science and other interests might help create more options to consider in the sciences and view engagement in the field as meeting their needs on multiple levels.

Certain limitations need to be considered that affect generalizability. The sampling procedure produced a specific group of young women who had strong levels of self-efficacy in the sciences. It is unknown if similar experiences are held by individuals who vary in their sense of self-efficacy appraisals and enrolled in the sciences. The results still have important implications for practice. Indo-Canadian young women require opportunities for self-reflection and career exploration to make informed career decisions at different stages of their education. As students learn about careers within academic domains, they need to be encouraged to envision themselves in the future. Discussion of how career choice impacts on family, peers, and ethnic communities need to be explored with Indo-Canadian young women so that careers are not eliminated based on lack of information or stereotypes of particular fields. Future research could benefit from examining if role models solidify predetermined career plans or if they can also serve to prematurely foreclose consideration of career options. Exploring the various influences that affect how career decisions are made for Indo-Canadian young women will increase understanding of how career counsellors

can facilitate engagement in life-career planning with clients.

Acknowledgements:

This research is supported by the Social Sciences Humanities Research Council of Canada Strategic Research Initiative: Multiculturalism Issues in Canada Program (Grant # 853-2003-0007) entitled "Perception of supports and barriers for Indo-Canadian youth entering the sciences: Implications for career counsellors".

References

- Agarwal, P. (1991). *Passage from India: Post 1965 Indian immigrants and their children*. Palos Verdes: Yuvati Publications.
- Amundson, Norman E. (2002). Active engagement. *Adult career development: Concepts, issues and practices (3rd ed.)*. (pp. 139-156). Columbus, OH, US: National Career Development Association.
- Arnett, J.J. (2000). Emerging adulthood: A theory of development from the late teens through the 20's. *American Psychologist*, 55 (5), 469-480.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Basit, T. N. (1996). I'd hate to be just a housewife: Career aspirations of British Muslim girls. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 24, 227-242.
- Betz, N. (2001). Perspectives on future directions in vocational psychology. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol 59(2), 275-283.
- Cheryan, S. & Bodenhausen, G. V. (2000). When positive stereotypes threaten intellectual performance: The psychological hazards of "model minority" status. *Psychological Science*. Vol 11(5), 399-402.
- Das Gupta, M. (1997). What is Indian about you?: Gendered transnational approach to ethnicity. *Gender and Society*, 11(5), 572-596.
- Foner, N. (1997). The immigrant family: Cultural legacies and cultural changes. *International Migration Review*, 31(4), 961-974.
- Ghuman, P. (1997). Assimilation of integration? A study of Asian adoles-

- cents. *Educational Research*, 39(1), 23-35.
- Gibson, M. A. (1988). *Accommodation without assimilation: Sikh immigrants in an American school*. Ithaca, London: Cornell University Press.
- Goodnow, J. J., Miller, P. J., & Kessel, F. (1995). *Cultural practices as contexts for development*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Hanada, (2003). *Of silk saris and miniskirts: South-Asian girls walk the tightrope of Culture*. Toronto: Womens Press.
- Hedge, R. S. (1998). Swinging the trapeze: The negotiation of identity among Asian Indian immigrant women in the United States. In D. V. Tanno & A. Gonzalez (Eds.), *Communication and identity across cultures* (pp. 34-55). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Julien, H. E. (1997). *How does information help? The search for career-related information by adolescents*. London, ON: University of Western Ontario.
- Juntunen, C. L., Barraclough, D. J., Bronneck, C. L., Seibel, Gennea, A., Winrow, S. A., & Morin, P. M. (2001). American Indian perspectives on the career journey. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, Vol 48(3), 274-285.
- Khan, V. S. (1979). *Minority families in Britain: Support and stress*. London: Macmillan
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Inter views: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- LeCompte, M. D., & Schensul, J. J. (1999). *Analyzing and interpreting ethnographic data*. Walnut Creek, CA: Alta Mira Press.
- Lent, R., Brown, D., & Hackett, G. (1994). Toward a unifying social cognitive theory of career and academic interest, choice, and performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 45(1), 79-122.
- Lent, R., Brown, D., & Hackett, G. (2000). Contextual supports and barriers to career choice: A social cognitive analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 47(1), 36-49.
- Mau, Wei-Cheng & Bikos, L. H. (2000). Educational and vocational aspirations of minority and female students: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, Vol 78(2), 186-194.
- Maxwell, M. P., Maxwell, J. D., & Krugly-Smolka, E. (1996). Ethnicity, gender, and occupational choice in two Toronto schools. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 24(3), 257-279.
- McWhirter, E. H. (1997). Perceived barriers to education and career: Ethnic and gender differences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 50, 124-140.
- O'Connell, J. T. (2000). Sikh religion-ethnic experience in Canada. In H. Coward, J. R. Hinnells, & R. B. Williams (Eds.), *The South Asian diaspora in Britain, Canada, and the United States* (pp. 190-209). Albany: State of University New York Press.
- Phinney, Jean S. (2006). Ethnic Identity Exploration in Emerging Adulthood. In J.J. Arnett, & J.L. Tanner (Eds). *Emerging adults in America: Coming of age in the 21st century* (pp. 117-134). Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association.
- Porter, J. R., & Washington, R. E. (1993). Minority identity and self-esteem. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 19, 139-161.
- Rumbaut, R. (1994). The crucible within: Ethnic identity, self-esteem and segmented assimilation among children of immigrants. *International Migration Review*, 4, 748-794.
- Saran, P. (1985). *The Asian Indian experience in the United States*. Cambridge, MA: Schenkman.
- Schneider, B., & Lee, Y. (1990). A model for academic success: The school and home environment of East Asian students. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 21, 358-377.
- Segal, U. A. (1991). Cultural variables in Asian Indian families. *The Journal of Contemporary Human Services*, 72, 233-242.
- Siann, G., & Knox, A. (1992). Influences on career choice: The responses of ethnic-minority and ethnic-majority girls. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 20, 193-204.
- Statistics Canada (2001). *Census Dictionary 2001*. Retrieved March, 17, 2006, from, <http://www12.statcan.ca/english/census01/Products/Reference/dict/appendices/92-378-XIE02002.pdf>.
- Sue, W.D., Ivey, E.A., & Pederson, P.B. (1996). *A theory of multicultural counseling and Therapy*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Toohey, K., Kishor, N., & Beynon, J. (1998). Do visible minority students of Chinese and South Asian ancestry want teaching as a career? Perceptions of some secondary school students in Vancouver, B.C. *Canadian Ethnic Studies*, 30(2), 50-72.
- Wakil, S. P., Siddique, C. M., & Wakil, F. A. (1981). Between two cultures: A study in socialization of children of immigrants. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 42, 929-940.
- Watson, J. L. (1977). Introduction: Immigration, ethnicity and class in Britain. In J. L. Watson (Ed.), *Between two cultures: Migrants and minorities in Britain* (pp. 1-121). Oxford: Western Printing Services.
- Women of South Asian Descent Collective (1993). *Our Feet Walk the Sky*. San Francisco, CA: Aunt Lute Books.
- Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Zhou, M. (1997). Segmented assimilation issues, controversies and recent research in the new second generation. *International Migration Review*, 31, 975-1008.

About the author

Priya S. Mani is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Educational Administration, Foundation, and Psychology, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba, R3T 2N2. Her current research interests include career development and issues pertaining to cultural diversity. Address correspondence to Priya S. Mani, Room 211, Faculty of Education, Department of Educational Administration, Foundations, and Psychology, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba, R3T 2N2. Phone: 204-474-6979. Fax: 204-474-7564. Email: manips@ms.umanitoba.ca.

Délibérations sur l'avenir de l'enseignement en développement de carrière au Canada

Rebecca Burwell
Sharon Kalbfleisch

Résumé

Un groupe de réflexion, auquel ont pris part des enseignants en développement de carrière venus de tout le Canada, s'est réuni en octobre 2006 pour engager une discussion de fond sur l'enseignement en développement de carrière au Canada. Les participants ont abordé la question du niveau de formation requis pour les intervenants en orientation professionnelle, du contenu des programmes de formation et, enfin, de l'image professionnelle du secteur. Ce document présente le résumé de ces discussions et propose un aperçu des travaux de recherche pertinents. Il pose des questions pour la poursuite de la réflexion.

Introduction

Serait-il possible de développer un modèle pour l'enseignement en développement de carrière qui soit en mesure de déterminer la formation requise pour les différents types de services proposés par les intervenants du secteur? Quelles améliorations pourraient être apportées au contenu des programmes d'enseignement en développement de carrière pour garantir que les intervenants soient en mesure de répondre aux besoins actuels des clients? La formation peut-elle jouer un rôle dans l'amélioration de l'image professionnelle du secteur? Voilà quelques-unes des questions auxquelles ont tenté de répondre les participants au groupe de réflexion « Promotion de la formation des conseillers d'orientation professionnelle au Canada », qui s'est réuni en octobre 2006.

Le projet de recherche intitulé « Promotion de la formation des conseillers d'orientation professionnelle au Canada » a été mis sur pied afin d'entamer un processus destiné à définir le type de formation, nécessaire selon les membres de la profession, pour entrer et évoluer dans le secteur. La

première phase du projet a été consacrée à la compilation d'un *Répertoire des programmes de formation en orientation professionnelle et en développement de carrière au Canada*, qu'on peut télécharger (en anglais) à l'adresse suivante :

http://www.contactpoint.ca/resources/Directory_of_Education_Programs_2006.pdf

La seconde phase a consisté à mener une étude sur les consultants canadiens en orientation professionnelle pour mieux évaluer le parcours professionnel et le niveau de formation des intervenants actuels. Plus de 1 100 intervenants ont répondu à l'enquête (ces résultats sont d'ailleurs publiés dans ce numéro de *Revue canadienne de développement de carrière*). La troisième et dernière phase du projet, c'est-à-dire le groupe de réflexion, a rassemblé des enseignants en développement de carrière en provenance des universités, collèges et maisons d'enseignement privées du Canada entier, afin d'engager une discussion de fond sur les programmes de formation en développement de carrière au Canada (voir la liste des participants à l'annexe A). Cet article fait le résumé de ces discussions et présente les travaux de recherche qui s'y rapportent. Nous espérons vivement que ces discussions, ainsi que le projet dans son ensemble, vont appuyer le renforcement du secteur du développement de carrière au Canada et amélioreront la qualité des prestations en développement de carrière, et ce, pour le plus grand bien de tous les Canadiens.

Un modèle pour l'enseignement en développement de carrière au Canada

De l'importance d'établir un modèle éducationnel

Dans la plupart des professions, on sait généralement quel est le type de formation nécessaire pour pouvoir exercer une fonction particulière. Prenons par exemple les soins infirmiers : une infirmière praticienne est autorisée à prodiguer un large éventail de soins de façon indépendante et possède, en plus de son diplôme d'infirmière, une ou deux années de formation supplémentaire. En comparaison, une infirmière auxiliaire travaille sous la supervision d'une infirmière autorisée ou d'un médecin et possède une ou deux années de formation postsecondaire. Cette clarté en matière de formation et de vie professionnelle n'a pas cours dans le secteur du développement de carrière au Canada. Il existe actuellement une grande diversité de formations et de compétences chez les intervenants; qui plus est, les programmes d'enseignement en place ne conduisent généralement pas à des attributions professionnelles précises.

L'absence de lignes directrices comparables explique que des gens sans formation spécialisée en orientation professionnelle aient pu, parfois très facilement, entamer une pratique. Sans un programme d'enseignement spécialisé,

de nombreux praticiens de l'orientation professionnelle ne reçoivent pas d'enseignement approfondi dans les théories de base de l'orientation professionnelle, ils sont rarement systématiquement mis en contact avec les contextes socio-économiques et les finalités de cette orientation et ne bénéficient pas d'une formation appliquée systématique dans les techniques

qui constituent la base de la pratique (Organisation de coopération et de développement économiques, 2004, p.106).

Un modèle éducationnel pourrait mettre en lumière l'importance d'une formation spécialisée en développement de carrière et, à terme, faire rehausser le niveau de formation requis pour les intervenants.

Contrairement à d'autres pays, le Canada n'est pas confronté à un manque de programmes de formation pour les intervenants en développement de carrière – on compte actuellement 37 programmes de formation répartis dans 18 maisons d'enseignement, qui sont soit spécialisés dans le développement de carrière ou qui y font une place importante. Plusieurs de ces programmes sont offerts en ligne et sont donc très accessibles. Mais ce qui en revanche pose problème, c'est que ces programmes présentent entre eux de grandes différences en termes de conditions d'admission, durée, contenu, heures de stages, type de diplôme délivré (certificat, diplôme universitaire, etc.). On continue donc à se questionner : quel parcours académique faut-il suivre pour entrer dans la profession? Quelles sont les tâches que peut exercer un intervenant débutant? Quel est le type de formation nécessaire pour avancer dans le secteur du développement de carrière et, enfin, en quoi le rôle des intervenants expérimentés diffère-t-il de celui des débutants? Le développement d'un modèle éducationnel permet de répondre à ces questions.

Nos clients auraient également tout intérêt à ce qu'un tel modèle soit mis en place. L'éventail des intitulés de postes et des compétences qu'on rencontre actuellement dans le secteur fait qu'il est très difficile pour le consommateur de savoir où aller et à quoi il doit s'attendre quand il entreprend une démarche d'orientation professionnelle. Dans une étude destinée à déterminer dans quelle mesure les théories en développement de carrière et la recherche viennent soutenir le travail des intervenants, peu importe leurs compétences, Brown a noté que

bien que de nombreux clients se présentent avec des attentes et des besoins bien définis, le type de

prestations proposées et la nature même de l'orientation vont dépendre largement du niveau de formation de l'intervenant. C'est pourquoi une description et une définition plus claire du rôle des prestataires et du type de services proposés sont essentielles pour aider le consommateur à identifier et atteindre ses objectifs (2002, p. 125).

La mise en place d'un modèle pourrait aussi être utile pour améliorer l'image professionnelle du secteur. Sunny Hansen, dans une analyse récente sur les forces, les faiblesses, les perspectives d'avenir et les menaces associées à la profession de conseiller d'orientation professionnelle, déclare que

l'une des menaces importantes à mes yeux est ce que j'appelle la « déprofessionnalisation » de l'orientation professionnelle. Il semble que de plus en plus, dans certains secteurs, ce soit devenu une profession « que tout le monde peut faire », une façon de voir qui, de fait, rabaisse la profession (2003, p. 47).

Un modèle éducationnel aiderait certainement à rassurer le public et les intervenants sur le fait que le secteur du développement de carrière est une affaire sérieuse qui exige une formation et une préparation spécialisées.

Un modèle éducationnel déterminant les grandes lignes de la pratique professionnelle à tous les échelons permettrait aux intervenants d'être conscients et d'adhérer aux limites fixées par leur niveau de formation. Un des points essentiels est de savoir dans quelle mesure un intervenant peut ou doit proposer des services de counselling individuel à ses clients. Le fait que les « consultants soient fréquemment confrontés à un dilemme professionnel qui repose sur un ensemble de préoccupations et de facteurs liés à la vie personnelle de leurs clients » (Chen, 2001, p. 524) a été bien étudié et est une prémisses acceptée au sein de la profession. Plusieurs s'entendent cependant pour dire que le counselling individuel exige une formation plus poussée que celle proposée à l'heure actuelle par certains programmes (il faudrait au minimum un diplôme de maîtrise). Ce n'est pourtant

pas ce qu'on remarque dans la profession. Dans l'étude de Brown, les psychologues de même que les conseillers, autorisés ou non, ont indiqué qu'ils prenaient effectivement en compte tant les enjeux personnels que professionnels des clients venus pour une orientation professionnelle (2002). Cette pratique est problématique dans la mesure où certains intervenants n'ont pas le niveau de formation requis pour aborder avec leurs clients des questions personnelles. C'est pourquoi un modèle qui déterminerait les rôles associés à chaque niveau de formation serait utile pour clarifier les limites et aiderait les intervenants à déterminer jusqu'où ils peuvent aller avec le client et quand vient le moment de les référer à un autre professionnel.

Le développement d'un tel modèle permettra également d'examiner le lien entre les différents programmes de formation. On aura ainsi la possibilité d'établir des ponts entre les différents programmes d'enseignement (certificats, diplômes, enseignements de premier et deuxième cycle universitaire). Cela va clarifier la façon dont les intervenants peuvent progresser dans la profession. Comme il est plus probable qu'il y aura à long terme des programmes d'enseignement collégial et universitaire dans le domaine, un modèle éducationnel nous permettra de commencer à établir des liens significatifs entre les programmes. Ce modèle à venir sera profitable à tous les nouveaux programmes de formation qui seront mis sur pied, en ce sens qu'il permettra de mieux comprendre comment ils peuvent s'intégrer au schéma actuel.

Un modèle éducationnel permettrait enfin de préparer le terrain en ce qui touche l'accréditation. Bien qu'il ne soit pas ici question de discuter des avantages et des inconvénients de l'accréditation, il semble cependant évident qu'un modèle clairement articulé pourrait apporter son appui aux processus d'accréditation qui commencent à être mis en place dans plusieurs provinces.

De l'importance d'établir un modèle éducationnel

Établir un modèle éducationnel suffisamment large pour qu'il puisse

intégrer les différences importantes qui existent actuellement au Canada dans l'enseignement en développement de carrière ne sera pas chose facile. En effet, bien que le secteur n'en soit qu'à ses débuts, on compte plus de 37 programmes d'enseignement offrant un cursus entier ou substantiel en développement de carrière. Nous l'avons mentionné plus tôt, ces programmes d'enseignement présentent de grandes différences entre eux; il n'y a pas moins de 7 types de diplômes différents parmi les 37 programmes : attestation, certificat, diplôme, baccalauréat, maîtrise, doctorat et diplôme d'études approfondies. Si la plupart de ces programmes sont valables en soi et proposent un cursus intéressant, c'est le manque de similarité entre eux qui fait qu'il est difficile de les intégrer à un modèle.

Les différences régionales dans l'enseignement en développement de carrière représentent une deuxième difficulté au développement d'un modèle. Les différences entre le Québec et le reste du Canada complexifient la donne, en ce sens que le Québec est la seule province à réglementer la profession :

Pour obtenir d'elle l'autorisation de porter le titre de conseiller d'orientation, les candidats doivent répondre aux exigences établies dans les règlements adoptés en vertu du Code des professions du Québec, lequel stipule qu'il faut avoir une maîtrise en orientation professionnelle (Turcotte, 2005, p. 7).

Il faut noter cependant que ce ne sont pas tous les services en développement de carrière qui sont réglementés au Québec : « Les deux autres principales professions dans le domaine du développement de carrière sont celles de conseiller (conseillère) à l'emploi et de spécialiste en information sur les carrières. Ces deux professions ne sont ni rattachées à des exigences professionnelles ou de formation, ni réglementées » (Turcotte, 2005, p. 7). Il s'agit là en tout cas d'une différence importante par rapport au reste du Canada et, encore une fois, cela représente une difficulté pour le développement d'un modèle à l'échelle nationale.

Une troisième difficulté réside dans

la multitude de milieux où sont proposés des services en développement de carrière. « Les conseillers scolaires, les conseillers en carrière et les conseillers pédagogiques des collèges et universités, les conseillers à l'emploi, les conseillers des programmes d'aide aux employés, les conseillers en réinsertion, les psychologues-conseils et les psychologues cliniciens, et tous les autres professionnels de l'aide aux personnes proposent tous des services en orientation professionnelle dans les entreprises ou en pratique privée, à un degré et avec des finalités qui varient. Ces personnes présentent des différences dans leur formation et leurs connaissances en développement de carrière ainsi que dans les méthodes qu'elles utilisent » (Herr, 2003, p. 11). Comment gère-t-on ces différentes approches quant aux types et niveaux de formation jugés appropriés pour intervenir dans ces différents secteurs? Des lignes directrices ou des normes éducatives existent pour certaines professions (pour le personnel d'orientation des écoles secondaires par exemple), mais pas pour d'autres (les intervenants des organismes communautaires par exemple). Il sera peut-être nécessaire, avec le temps, de faire évoluer le modèle pour qu'il englobe l'ensemble des professions du secteur.

Une quatrième difficulté est l'importance relative accordée au développement de carrière à l'intérieur des programmes d'enseignement existants. Dagley and Salter ont noté qu'aux États-Unis,

certains programmes spéciaux de formation non diplômant pour facilitateurs de carrière ont ajouté à leur cursus des éléments de théorie et de recherche dans le domaine du développement de carrière, mais proposent peu de counselling supervisé; en revanche, les programmes d'enseignement qui mènent au diplôme de conseiller fournissent une excellente supervision en counselling, mais peu ou prou d'enseignement en développement de carrière ou de supervision en orientation professionnelle (2004, p. 102).

Ce n'est pas le cas partout au Canada, mais il est vrai que les

programmes de certificats et de diplômes sont, la plupart du temps, plus orientés vers le développement de carrière que les programmes de niveau maîtrise en psychologie de l'orientation (sauf au Québec, où les programmes de baccalauréat et de maîtrise sont spécialisés en développement de carrière). Encore une fois, cela représente une difficulté pour le développement d'un modèle. Comment établir un modèle qui intègre, d'une part, les programmes d'enseignement entièrement tournés vers le développement de carrière avec ceux, d'autre part, tournés plutôt vers le counselling?

Une dernière difficulté sera de proposer, pour les discussions futures entre enseignants, une approche axée sur la coopération plutôt que sur la compétition. La culture de compétition est depuis toujours présente dans les universités et les collèges canadiens (tout comme les étudiants, le personnel enseignant et les employés se disputent qui les premières places, qui une promotion, qui une bourse de recherche). Heureusement, des initiatives récentes démontrent une tendance nouvelle vers le partenariat (le *Campus Alberta Applied Psychology: Counselling Initiative*, un partenariat entre l'université de Lethbridge, l'université de Calgary et l'Athabasca University). Ce type d'initiative démontre une volonté et une capacité à travailler ensemble, ce qui augure bien pour des échanges et des articulations meilleurs entre les programmes d'enseignement en développement de carrière, et pour le développement d'un modèle éducationnel, même au sein de cette culture institutionnelle de la compétition.

Proposer un modèle pour la formation en développement de carrière au Canada

Malgré les difficultés inhérentes au développement d'un modèle éducationnel, les participants au groupe de réflexion ont pu établir un modèle provisoire pour l'enseignement en développement de carrière. Le modèle demande bien entendu à être amélioré (un groupe de travail a été désigné pour continuer à le développer), mais il a le mérite d'établir des catégories pour les

différents types et niveaux de service proposés par les intervenants en développement de carrière. Il propose également des exigences de formation pour chaque type de prestation.

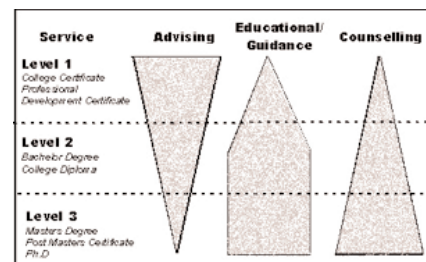
Bien qu'on n'ait jamais clairement défini les rôles dans le domaine du développement de carrière, l'idée qu'il existe de multiples rôles plutôt qu'un seul n'est pas nouvelle. Herr a ainsi affirmé que « l'on peut définir l'orientation professionnelle comme un continuum d'interventions plutôt qu'un processus unique » (2003, p. 11). Furbish suggère également que les services d'orientation professionnelle englobent un ensemble d'activités et il fait la différence entre les prestations selon qu'elles se spécialisent sur le travail, la profession ou la carrière. Les prestations tournées vers la question du travail sont celles, selon lui, qui fournissent « une aide pour le développement de compétences en recherche d'emploi telle que la rédaction d'un curriculum vitae, la recherche de propositions d'emploi et les techniques d'entretien »; la question de la profession appelle plutôt « une aide aux clients pour qu'ils déterminent leurs préférences et les professions qui leur correspondent »; les prestations en développement de carrière sont celles enfin qui « se préoccupent de l'intégration holistique du travail aux autres rôles de la vie et de l'ajustement aux transitions travail-vie privé » (2003, pp. 3-4).

Le modèle éducationnel provisoire conçu lors des séances du groupe de réflexion (voir ill. 1) prend aussi en compte l'idée que la profession englobe des rôles multiples et distincts. S'appuyant sur les travaux précédents effectués par Borgen et Hiebert (2006, 2002), le modèle propose de répartir les prestations proposées par les intervenants en développement de carrière en trois catégories : conseil, orientation et counselling. Chacune d'entre elles a des objectifs et un rôle différents. La prestation en conseil s'occupe avant tout du problème immédiat et a pour but de fournir une information générale et « non personnalisée » sur un sujet particulier (par exemple, expliquer à un client les différentes formes de curriculum vitae est considéré comme du conseil, tout

comme l'aider à obtenir de l'information professionnelle ou le conseiller sur d'autres types de services d'orientation). L'orientation a une portée plus large et vise à fournir des informations ou des services psychopédagogiques mieux adaptés aux besoins du client que le simple conseil. L'orientation demande que l'intervenant rassemble d'abord de l'information sur le client, souvent grâce à un entretien ou une autre forme d'évaluation, s'assurant ainsi que les services proposés seront probablement mieux adaptés aux besoins particuliers du client. Un intervenant qui explique à un client comment une évaluation des champs d'intérêt pourrait influencer ses choix professionnels, propose un service d'orientation. Le counselling va plus loin que la fourniture d'informations. Il concerne des problèmes plus globaux et pourrait inclure

l'utilisation de l'orientation professionnelle pour réduire le stress; la gestion de la colère; l'intégration et la résolution des conflits entre la carrière et les autres rôles de la vie; le soutien aux personnes pour reconstruire et recadrer les expériences passées; une méthode d'apprentissage pour atténuer leur manque d'esprit de décision; l'assistance pour modifier des attentes professionnelles irrationnelles; la prise en compte de problèmes sous-jacents qui conduisent à des dysfonctionnements, y compris les problèmes familiaux non résolus qui se répercutent sur le travail; la possibilité donnée aux personnes déplacées d'exprimer leur colère et leur ressentiment à propos de problèmes personnels; la perte d'emploi; la perte ou la diffusion de l'identité personnelle (Herr, 2003, p. 11).

Se reporter à Borgen et Hiebert (2006, 2002) et Hiebert et Borgen (2002) pour plus d'information concernant la distinction entre le conseil, l'orientation et le counselling.



Ill. 1 : Modèle provisoire pour l'enseignement en développement de carrière. Les zones ombrées représentent le temps passé par les prestataires de services pour chacune des trois catégories de prestations, proportionnellement à leur niveau de formation.

Ce modèle démontre le temps que les intervenants ont accordé aux différentes catégories de prestations (conseil, orientation ou counselling), proportionnellement à leur niveau de formation. L'utilisation de ce type de graphique pour démontrer le degré d'intervention selon les rôles se base sur les travaux précédents effectués par l'un des membres du groupe de réflexion, Kris Magnusson (Magnusson, Day, et Redekopp, 1993; Magnusson, 1992). Le modèle suggère que les intervenants de niveau 1, qui remplissent surtout des fonctions de conseil (et proposent peu de services en orientation et en counselling), ont besoin d'un certificat collégial ou universitaire spécialisé en développement de carrière. Les intervenants de niveau 2, dont la fonction est avant tout de proposer des services d'orientation (mais qui vont aussi proposer un peu de conseil et de counselling), ont besoin, soit d'un diplôme spécialisé en développement de carrière, soit d'un baccalauréat (bien que ce dernier ne soit offert qu'au Québec pour l'instant), soit d'un diplôme ou d'un baccalauréat non spécialisé en développement de carrière avec en plus un certificat ou un diplôme spécialisé en développement de carrière. Un intervenant de niveau 3 peut fournir des prestations minimums de conseil, mais sa principale fonction est soit l'orientation et le counselling, soit la conception et la coordination de services en développement de carrière. Ce type de fonction exige généralement une maîtrise ou un diplôme d'études approfondies, ou encore un doctorat en psychologie de l'orientation ou dans un domaine apparenté.

Il faut s'attarder plus longuement sur le rôle important de l'intervenant de niveau 3. On exige de plus en plus des personnes pratiquant le counselling qu'elles possèdent au moins un diplôme de maîtrise dans le domaine. Par exemple, dans la plupart des États américains, le counselling est une profession réglementée qui exige au moins un diplôme de maîtrise en counselling ou dans un domaine connexe, plus un certain nombre d'heures de pratique supervisée sur le terrain. Au Canada, il n'y a pas de réglementation gouvernementale concernant la délivrance de titres pour la profession, mais l'Association canadienne de counselling octroie le titre de « conseiller canadien certifié » seulement à ceux qui détiennent un diplôme de maîtrise approprié en counselling comportant en plus des heures de stage obligatoires. Le modèle provisoire présenté ici reflète l'idée qu'une formation supérieure est requise pour exercer des fonctions de counselling.

Les participants au groupe de réflexion ont convenu que des intitulés de postes devraient être créés et utilisés de façon uniforme pour représenter les trois différents niveaux présentés dans le modèle. Bien qu'il n'y ait pas encore de consensus sur ces appellations, il a été suggéré que les intervenants de niveau 1 portent le titre de *consultant en orientation professionnelle*, les intervenants de niveau 2 celui de *intervenant en orientation professionnelle* et ceux de niveau 3 celui de *conseiller d'orientation professionnelle*. Il faut aussi choisir un terme générique pour décrire chacun de ces rôles dans le domaine de développement de carrière. Cet article, de même que bien des personnes du milieu, utilise constamment le terme « intervenant en orientation professionnelle » pour parler de personnes offrant un type de prestation quelconque dans le domaine du développement de carrière. Naturellement, si le titre « intervenant en orientation professionnelle » devient la norme pour désigner les intervenants de niveau 2, nous devons concevoir un nouveau terme générique.

Un des avantages du modèle provisoire est qu'il intègre tous les

programmes d'enseignement à tous les niveaux tels qu'ils existent à l'heure actuelle. Il reconnaît que chacun de ces programmes répond à un besoin spécifique et ne leur fait pas courir le risque de disparaître ou d'être considérés inefficaces. Un autre avantage est qu'il reconnaît que certaines tâches au sein de la profession n'exigent pas une formation approfondie de conseiller d'orientation – un avantage en ce sens que les programmes non diplômants qui existent actuellement ont tendance à offrir moins de spécialisation en counselling et moins d'heures de stage supervisé.

Un des possibles inconvénients de ce modèle est qu'il pourrait, à terme, provoquer une hausse des tarifs de prestations, un risque inhérent chaque fois qu'une initiative visant la professionnalisation est prise (OCDE, 2004). Plusieurs participants au groupe de réflexion ont exprimé leurs craintes de voir ce modèle ignoré ou rejeté par les principaux bailleurs de fonds préoccupés par le coût des prestations. Il sera donc important pour tous les enseignants du groupe de bien faire comprendre à toutes les parties prenantes les avantages de ce modèle éducationnel.

Prochaines étapes pour le modèle

Bien que le modèle provisoire présenté dans cet article a fait de grands pas en avant dans la définition des tâches et des exigences de formation, nous devons garder en tête qu'il s'agit ici d'une version préliminaire. Le développement de plusieurs de ses composantes aidera à préciser et à améliorer son contenu (par exemple, le contenu du programme et le nombre d'heures requises pour les stages pratiques doivent être mieux définis pour chacun des niveaux).

Comme nous l'avons mentionné plus tôt, la diffusion de ce modèle auprès des membres de la profession est un aspect important qui doit être pris en compte, en même temps que d'autres formes d'améliorations. Comment et à qui diffuser et expliquer le modèle sont des questions importantes à considérer. On pourrait par exemple laisser la logique et la valeur même du modèle parler pour elles-mêmes, plutôt que d'essayer de l'imposer à la profession.

La logique et la simplicité inhérentes du modèle augurent bien de l'impact significatif qu'il aura pour le secteur du développement de carrière au Canada.

Tandis que le domaine continue à grandir et gagne en maturité, il est possible que nous assistions au développement de spécialisations de formation au sein de la profession. Les possibilités sont nombreuses, mais une des spécialités à envisager serait, par exemple, le travail avec les nouveaux Canadiens, ou avec les individus souffrant de troubles mentaux. De la même manière, le besoin de formation en développement de carrière pour les professions apparentées (travailleurs sociaux, professionnels des ressources humaines...), commence aussi à être reconnu et pourrait se mettre en place d'ici quelque temps. Il reste à déterminer comment intégrer au modèle – si cela se fait – les spécialisations et les formations pour les professions apparentées. Une des approches possibles serait d'établir un lien entre la spécialisation et la formation des professions apparentées et le modèle, plutôt que de les incorporer comme telles à celui-ci.

Programmes d'enseignement en développement de carrière au Canada

Réflexions sur la situation actuelle

Nous l'avons dit plus tôt, la première phase de ce projet de recherche a été consacrée à la compilation d'un *Répertoire des programmes de formation en orientation professionnelle et en développement de carrière au Canada*. La collecte de données auprès des directeurs et coordonnateurs de programmes nous a permis par la même occasion de nous renseigner sur le contenu de chacun des programmes : la plupart d'entre eux comportent un tronc commun minimum qui couvre, entre autres, les théories en développement de carrière, les entretiens, la facilitation sociale, l'évaluation professionnelle, l'éthique et le travail avec des populations diverses.

Mis à part cela, on note des différences importantes selon que le programme d'enseignement est diplômant ou pas. Par exemple, des sujets comme l'information sur les

carrières, les tendances du marché du travail ou encore les techniques de recherche d'emploi sont plus souvent pris en compte dans les programmes d'enseignement non diplômants, tandis que les programmes diplômants ont tendance à donner plus d'importance aux théories générales sur le counselling. Lorsque le modèle éducationnel en développement de carrière (décrit plus haut) sera mieux défini, il sera important de proposer différents types de contenus pour les différents types et niveaux de programmes d'enseignement.

Un autre point de divergence est le nombre d'heures de stage demandées : il variait de pas de stage du tout à 770 heures. Les stages courts concernaient surtout les programmes de certificats, tandis que les stages plus longs avaient tendance à être associés avec les programmes diplômants et universitaires (baccalauréat et maîtrise). Si les étudiants inscrits dans les programmes de certificats évoluent déjà dans le domaine du développement de carrière, ils ont naturellement un lieu pour faire se rencontrer la théorie et la pratique. Mais pour ceux qui ne travaillent pas dans le domaine ou qui n'ont pas d'expérience en développement de carrière, proposer un mécanisme approprié pour que se rencontre la théorie et la pratique représente un enjeu de taille. Puisque le stage est la meilleure façon d'aider les étudiants à faire le lien entre théories et pratique, il est essentiel que les enseignants discutent plus avant de ses modalités pratiques, c'est-à-dire de son contenu et du nombre d'heures nécessaires.

Une autre façon d'aider les étudiants à faire le lien entre théorie et pratique est une supervision efficace en développement de carrière. McMahon a fait remarquer le manque d'importance accordé à la supervision et le peu d'articles écrits à ce propos dans la littérature sur l'orientation professionnelle jusqu'en 2003. Sans supervision, particulièrement pour un étudiant ou un intervenant débutant, il est difficile de mettre les connaissances théoriques en pratique. Ce manque de supervision pourrait aussi faire croire aux stagiaires que le travail en développement de carrière n'est ni

complexe ni suffisamment difficile pour qu'une supervision s'impose, ce qui est une façon de voir fondamentalement erronée. Il faut rappeler qu'une supervision inadéquate a des conséquences sérieuses au fur et à mesure que s'étend la pratique d'un individu en développement de carrière.

De l'importance de développer le contenu des programmes d'enseignement

Outre le travail sur un modèle éducationnel provisoire, le groupe de discussion s'est aussi demandé quel devrait être le contenu des programmes d'enseignement en fonction des différents niveaux de pratiques et comment intégrer de manière efficace les nouveaux concepts et les nouvelles idées. Les discussions à propos du contenu ont porté sur les questions suivantes : de quelle manière peut-on réconcilier le counselling individuel et le counselling professionnel dans les programmes d'enseignement en développement de carrière? Comment et dans quelle mesure le cybercounselling peut-il être intégré au contenu des programmes? Enfin, comment intégrer au mieux les connaissances et les compétences en orientation professionnelle dans les programmes apparentés? Toutes ces questions sont débattues plus loin dans cet article.

La question à laquelle on a accordé le plus d'attention et qui influencerait le plus le contenu des programmes est celle du développement de compétences autres que celles acquises dans les programmes d'enseignement en développement de carrière, dont les préoccupations concernent avant tout les prestations aux individus; ces changements pourraient aider les intervenants en orientation professionnelle à élargir leur intervention pour y inclure les enjeux relatifs aux influences organisationnelles et sociétales. Les difficultés professionnelles auxquelles les individus font face reposent souvent, non pas sur des lacunes individuelles, mais plutôt sur des carences connues à l'intérieur des systèmes et des politiques. Pour prendre en compte ce problème de manière efficace, un intervenant doit posséder des connaissances et des compétences dans

des domaines tels que la défense des intérêts, la planification et la politique sociale, l'action sociale et le développement communautaire. Si l'intervenant accorde trop peu d'attention aux enjeux globaux ou fait preuve d'inaction à leur endroit, il peut devenir lui-même une partie du problème. Arthur résume brièvement cela : « les intervenants en orientation professionnelle doivent comprendre comment ils peuvent engendrer sans le vouloir un statu quo et doivent être préparés à confronter les forces sociales, barrières systémiques à la croissance et au développement des individus » (2005, p. 41).

Un exemple tiré d'une politique publique nous aidera à mieux comprendre comment cette expansion du travail de l'intervenant en orientation professionnelle peut améliorer la prestation au client. Dans la plupart des pays, le développement de carrière a fait l'objet d'une politique publique, sans pour autant que les intervenants aient été de manière générale impliqués dans son élaboration. La profession doit donc mettre en oeuvre les idées et les politiques du gouvernement en place sans avoir de réelle influence sur elles. Ce manque d'implication directe dans les politiques peut nuire à la mise en place des prestations, à savoir qui peut les obtenir, comment ils peuvent les obtenir et quels services sont proposés (Herr, 2003). Quand il travaille avec des immigrants par exemple, le conseiller doit souvent aider les individus à gérer les contraintes imposées par la politique sur l'immigration ou les organismes de certification professionnelle. Ces contraintes apparaissent pour le moins fondamentalement injustes et elles sont souvent inéquitable. Voilà un domaine où l'expérience des intervenants en développement de carrière pourrait apporter un plus aux politiques publiques; cela pourrait avoir un effet important et à long terme sur les conditions d'emploi des immigrants et des réfugiés, tout en permettant une utilisation plus efficace du bassin de compétences à l'échelle nationale.

Il est intéressant de noter que le fondateur de la psychologie du travail, Frank Parsons, prenait à cœur le changement social, la justice sociale et l'action sociale. Le Dr. King Davis

définit la justice sociale de la manière suivante :

La justice sociale est une valeur essentielle et un but recherché dans les sociétés démocratiques. Elle comprend l'accès juste et équitable aux institutions sociétales, aux lois, aux ressources, aux perspectives d'avenir, sans limite arbitraire fondée sur l'observation ou l'interprétation de différences du point de vue de l'âge, de la couleur, de la culture, des déficiences physiques ou mentales, de l'éducation, du genre, des revenus, de l'origine nationale, de la race, de la religion ou de l'orientation sexuelle (2004, p. 236).

Parsons a fait montre dans ses écrits d'une préoccupation pour les marginaux et les moins privilégiés de la société (O'Brien, 2001). Jusqu'à récemment pourtant, autant la théorie que la pratique en orientation professionnelle ont été développées principalement pour venir en aide à ceux qui vivent dans une relative aisance. Les individus moins privilégiés qui doivent travailler simplement pour pourvoir à leurs besoins vitaux ont été largement ignorés (Whiston, 2003).

On observe récemment un intérêt renouvelé pour un retour aux sources de l'orientation professionnelle telles qu'établies par Parsons. Cela appelle une conceptualisation plus large de la théorie et de la pratique en orientation professionnelle afin d'aider les clients à gérer des problèmes comme la pauvreté, la discrimination et l'oppression. Par exemple, Guichard (2003), a parlé des objectifs changeants de l'orientation professionnelle et a appelé les intervenants du domaine à mettre en place un nouveau contexte pour la recherche et la pratique, qui prendrait en compte le contexte plus large du développement humain afin de répondre aux besoins de la communauté humaine sans pour autant négliger l'individu.

Dans le même ordre d'idées, Hansen déclare qu'il ne suffit plus de faire correspondre des emplois à des individus. Elle appelle à une approche plus holistique de l'orientation professionnelle qui prenne en compte les dimensions et les rôles différents de

la vie. « Une des lacunes des programmes de formation pour les conseillers d'orientation professionnelle est leur réticence ou leur incapacité à percevoir les conseillers d'orientation professionnelle comme des agents de changements pouvant aider non seulement les *individus*, mais aussi les *systèmes*, à changer » (2003, p. 45). Elle recommande que les programmes de formation intègrent à leur contenu les rôles vie-travail ainsi que le développement organisationnel. Elle reconnaît que chercher à répondre aux besoins d'une population diverse est un premier pas important, mais que « le travail vient à peine de commencer » (Hansen, 2003, p. 45). Elle croit de toute évidence qu'intégrer aux programmes de formation le rôle du conseiller en tant que porte-parole et agent de changement ne sera pas chose facile.

Toujours dans cette idée d'une intervention fondée sur une conceptualisation plus large, on a vu graduellement se mettre en place une façon de travailler capable de reconnaître et de s'adapter aux différences culturelles des populations multiethniques. Le nombre d'articles de revue portant sur l'orientation professionnelle culturellement compétente ne cesse de croître. Cet intérêt et cette préoccupation par rapport aux différences culturelles se sont développés en une perspective plus large pour y inclure la diversité en terme de genre, d'âge, d'orientation sexuelle, de statut socio-économique, de classe sociale, d'habileté et de religion. Notre recherche sur le contenu des programmes indique en fait que la diversité est prise en compte d'une manière ou d'une autre dans tous les programmes d'enseignement qui ont fait l'objet de l'enquête et que 43 p. 100 d'entre eux proposent un cours complet sur la question.

Arthur va beaucoup plus loin dans ce sens et propose d'intégrer la justice sociale dans les rôles et les méthodes d'intervention des intervenants en orientation professionnelle. Elle appelle aussi les intervenants à développer les compétences nécessaires pour provoquer le changement institutionnel et pour travailler sur l'action sociale et les interventions systémiques. Elle a

déterminé 17 formes de compétences qui permettraient aux conseillers d'orientation d'avoir les aptitudes requises pour appuyer les interventions en justice sociale. Elle déclare que « tôt ou tard, l'articulation justice sociale/développement de carrière doit être prise en compte dans la conception des programmes de formation pour les intervenants en orientation professionnelle » (Arthur, 2005, p.143).

Un examen plus approfondi de l'enseignement donné en travail social pourrait nous aider à comprendre comment les aptitudes à la justice sociale pourraient être intégrées à la formation des intervenants en orientation professionnelle. Le travail social est une profession qui repose sur des valeurs. Tous les enseignements liés à la profession encouragent le développement et la promotion du savoir et des compétences qui viennent en appui au bien-être du client, de même que la justice sociale et économique. À l'intérieur de ce cadre obligatoire, le contenu des programmes est divisé entre « micro » et « macro » pratique : la première correspond aux interventions destinées aux problèmes rencontrés par les individus, les familles et les petits groupes; la seconde s'agit plutôt d'un travail social destiné à provoquer un changement dans les organisations et les collectivités. Dans la plupart des programmes d'enseignement en travail social, un étudiant doit faire le choix entre l'une et l'autre, mais doit aussi suivre des cours dans le domaine non choisi.

L'approche éducative en travail social n'est certes pas un modèle qu'on peut appliquer tel quel au développement de carrière, mais elle nous indique comment faire pour atteindre les deux objectifs suivants : le premier est l'intégration à la profession d'intervenant en développement de carrière et à ses buts éducatifs les valeurs de justice sociale; le second est de permettre à l'intérieur des programmes de formation le développement de compétences générales et d'une sensibilisation aux questions plus globales et peut-être permettre à certains intervenants de développer des compétences particulières dans ce domaine.

Les obstacles à l'intégration des enjeux globaux aux programmes d'enseignement

Comme chaque fois que des changements sont proposés, il y aura une certaine dose d'incertitude et de réticence. En effet, les changements proposés auront pour conséquence que des ajustements importants devront être apportés aux programmes et cela ne sera possible que si les enseignants sont convaincus de la valeur et de l'importance des changements et ont donc la motivation nécessaire pour les intégrer aux programmes d'étude. La motivation et la sensibilisation des enseignants sont des facteurs clés, dans la mesure où les programmes sont généralement très chargés et que d'autres champs d'intérêt se disputent aussi une place au programme. D'autant plus que les travaux entrepris pendant la première phase du projet de recherche ont démontré que les programmes d'enseignement accordaient à l'heure actuelle peu d'attention aux enjeux globaux, peut-être parce que beaucoup d'enseignants sont eux-mêmes diplômés de programmes qui privilégient l'individu et, partant, sont moins enclins à adopter un point de vue plus global. Hiebert, McCarthy et Repetto ont souligné à cet égard que « l'enseignement en orientation professionnelle se fonde surtout sur une approche psychologique (plutôt que sur une approche axée sur le développement de carrière, la transition vers la vie adulte ou le marché du travail) et ne prend pas en compte le parcours professionnel divers et la complexité du marché du travail auquel est confronté le client » (2001, p.1). Il faudra des mécanismes qui garantissent que les enseignants, à tous les échelons, soient tenus informés et impliqués dans l'évolution des contenus de programme.

Les intervenants et les enseignants devront aussi être convaincus du bien-fondé d'intégrer aux programmes d'enseignement et à la profession des pratiques nouvelles avec lesquelles ils sont moins familiarisés. En partie à cause de leur formation, et particulièrement pendant les premières années de leur pratique, la plupart des intervenants privilégient l'aide individuelle et ne sont pas motivés à comprendre comment changer les

systèmes et comment ces systèmes influent sur la vie de leurs clients. Les intervenants nourrissent souvent, avec les années qui passent, une frustration envers « le système », mais ils n'ont pas, pour la plupart d'entre eux, développé ni mis en pratique les compétences pour apporter des changements à l'intérieur même du système. Lors de l'enquête sur les intervenants menée durant la deuxième phase du projet, les compétences globales telles que le lobbying auprès du gouvernement, la prise en compte des enjeux de justice sociale, la défense des intérêts du client, la promotion des programmes, la gestion ou encore l'administration, ont été constamment jugées moins importantes que les compétences liées au travail direct avec le client. Si les intervenants en orientation professionnelle réalisaient un jour qu'ils ont le pouvoir et le devoir d'agir sur les systèmes politiques et sociaux et s'ils pouvaient trouver un moyen d'aider leur profession à le faire, la valeur qu'ils accordent à leur travail pourrait changer notablement (particulièrement après quelques années) et permettre un appui solide aux changements de programme que nous proposons; les mettre en œuvre de façon efficace signifie que les intervenants devront suivre un programme de formation continue.

Une autre difficulté est le manque de matériel pédagogique solide traitant des enjeux globaux (y compris la justice économique et sociale), qui pourrait être utilisé facilement en classe ou sur le lieu de travail. Cette pénurie fait que les enseignants ont plus de difficulté lorsqu'ils tentent d'intégrer ces notions ou d'adopter les changements recommandés. Le développement de matériel pédagogique efficace est essentiel dans une stratégie d'implantation. Comme nous le soulignons plus loin, un groupe de travail éducationnel nouvellement formé travaille depuis peu au développement de ressources pédagogiques, dont certaines privilégient la question des enjeux globaux et celle de justice sociale.

Prochaines étapes pour le contenu des programmes

Les participants au groupe de réflexion ont exprimé un soutien et un enthousiasme considérable en ce qui

concerne l'évolution des programmes vers plus de théorie et de pratique sur les idées et les valeurs de justice sociale et économique et vers le développement des compétences nécessaires pour promouvoir le changement social. Il est important de noter que nous ne sommes qu'au tout début de cette initiative et qu'il n'est pas chose facile de faire évoluer un programme d'étude (ou les lignes directrices d'un programme) à l'échelle nationale, compte tenu du besoin préalable de faire accepter, par les parties prenantes, la mise en place d'une nouvelle façon de voir et d'un ensemble élargi de compétences. Si nous, en tant qu'enseignants, étions cependant en mesure d'intégrer aux programmes, à l'échelle nationale, les compétences en justice sociale, le Canada deviendrait sans conteste un chef de file sur la scène internationale.

Dans quelle mesure les différents aspects d'une « macro » pratique devraient-ils être intégrés aux différents niveaux de formation, selon le modèle discuté plus haut, cela devra faire l'objet d'un examen approfondi et d'une discussion. Par exemple, il semble plausible que les intervenants dont la pratique est axée principalement vers le conseil auront besoin uniquement d'une sensibilisation générale aux questions de « macro » pratique et à leur place dans le monde de l'orientation professionnelle. Cette sensibilisation pourrait s'acquérir grâce à un cours ou un module de formation bien construit. D'autre part, dans une « macro » perspective des choses, on s'attendra à ce que les intervenants tournés plutôt vers le counselling s'impliquent dans la planification sociale, fassent preuve d'aptitudes à la défense des intérêts avec les individus et les systèmes et contribuent à l'élaboration de la politique sociale en ce qui concerne le monde du travail. Un individu devra suivre au moins un cours, voire plus, portant sur la « macro » théorie et la « macro » pratique, s'il veut évoluer dans ce domaine.

Comme on l'a mentionné plus tôt, un certain nombre de questions touchant aux contenus et aux enjeux de programme n'ont pas fait l'objet de discussions aussi approfondies qu'on l'aurait souhaité en raison du manque de temps. Une de ces questions portait sur

la zone de contact entre l'orientation professionnelle et le counselling individuel. On ne peut pas établir de séparation nette entre l'orientation professionnelle et le counselling qui porte sur les autres aspects de la vie d'un individu. Certains intervenants sont en mesure, grâce à leur formation, de travailler sur les aspects importants de la vie d'une personne (au travail, dans la vie personnelle, ou même parfois en ce qui concerne la santé mentale). D'autres intervenants, en revanche, sont incapables de gérer ces situations compte tenu des lacunes de leur éducation. Il faudrait au minimum que les conseillers d'orientation possèdent les connaissances suffisantes pour identifier les problèmes d'ordre personnel et, si nécessaire, référer leurs clients vers des professionnels capables de les accompagner. Cette zone de contact va se préciser au fur et à mesure que le modèle va prendre forme et que les rôles des différents intervenants seront mieux définis.

Le cybercounselling, autre enjeu soulevé par les participants au groupe de réflexion, est peu abordé dans les programmes de formation. Bien que cette question soulève le scepticisme, surtout en ce qui concerne l'éthique, plusieurs intervenants en orientation professionnelle font preuve d'innovation et se lancent dans le conseil et le counselling à distance. Le cybercounselling engendre de multiples complexités pour les programmes d'enseignement : quelles sont les compétences nouvelles ou différentes requises pour pratiquer efficacement à distance? Ces compétences peuvent-elles s'intégrer aux programmes existants? Dans quelle mesure les étudiants devraient-ils être formés à cette technique? A-t-on besoin d'une spécialisation en orientation professionnelle à distance? Ces questions méritent une discussion plus approfondie.

Autre enjeu soulevé : comment peut-on au mieux faire le lien entre l'enseignement en développement de carrière et l'enseignement donné aux professions apparentées, comme le travail social, les ressources humaines ou encore la réinsertion professionnelle. Ces intervenants travaillent avec des clients dont les problèmes ne sont pas

liés, la plupart du temps, au monde du travail; mais parce que le travail est si important pour le bien-être des individus et qu'il peut être à la source de tant de désespoir, les enjeux liés au travail et à la carrière forment souvent l'essentiel du problème. C'est pourquoi une connaissance des théories en développement de carrière ainsi que des techniques d'orientation professionnelle, de même qu'une sensibilisation aux possibilités existantes et à l'importance de diriger un client vers les services appropriés quand les problèmes liés à la carrière sont primordiaux, seraient profitables aux professionnels des domaines apparentés et leur procureraient un soutien dans l'aide qu'ils apportent à leurs clients. Nous devons envisager l'importance de cela par rapport à notre domaine et voir s'il est possible de sensibiliser nos maisons d'enseignement à ce qu'il y ait une place accordée dans les programmes apparentés à des cours en développement de carrière.

Une étape préliminaire a été franchie depuis que le groupe de réflexion s'est réuni : la mise sur pied d'un groupe composé d'enseignants souhaitant rédiger des documents sur les enjeux et les améliorations actuels dans le domaine du développement de carrière au Canada. La nature exacte de cette publication reste à définir, mais il est certain qu'on fera une place importante aux questions de justice sociale et de compétences en justice sociale. Nous espérons que ce travail va mener à la rédaction, d'une part, d'un texte introductif permettant aux étudiants et au personnel enseignant d'acquérir plus d'information et des perspectives sur les enjeux globaux et, d'autre part, de matériel pédagogique traitant des améliorations et des pratiques exemplaires au Canada. La rédaction de ces documents et d'autres encore va aider grandement à prendre en compte les enjeux pédagogiques, tout en permettant que soit facilité le processus d'ajustement des programmes d'enseignement.

L'image professionnelle et le rôle de l'éducation

Les enseignants en développement de carrière, tout comme les autres intervenants du secteur sont préoccupés

par la question de l'image professionnelle de la profession. Les prestations offertes par les intervenants en orientation professionnelle reçoivent peu de publicité et sont généralement mal comprises par le public. C'est un facteur de mécontentement largement ressenti par les professionnels du milieu. Une enquête menée par Ipsos Reid en 2006 pour le compte du CERIC a montré qu'une majorité de Canadiens (68 %) s'adressent à leur famille, à leurs amis ou à leurs voisins lorsqu'ils ont besoin d'assistance dans la planification de leur carrière. Ils sont 67 % à demander l'aide de leurs collègues de travail ou de leurs associés et 67 % encore à consulter les journaux. Seuls 47 % consultent un spécialiste du domaine. Que les Canadiens s'adressent à un ami ou à un membre de la famille plutôt qu'à un intervenant en orientation professionnelle illustre à quel point « l'image de l'orientation professionnelle est similaire à un client qui manque d'identité par rapport au travail et n'a pas de buts clairement articulés » (Niles, 2003, p. 73).

Les enseignants sont particulièrement préoccupés par les différentes appellations d'emploi utilisées pour décrire ce type de travail. Lors de l'enquête effectuée dans la seconde phase du projet, il a été demandé aux répondants d'indiquer l'intitulé de leur poste. De manière significative, 37 % d'entre eux ont mentionné des intitulés qui ne correspondent pas aux treize appellations d'emploi habituellement recensées. (Ce problème ne concerne pas le Québec, où 69 % des répondants ont indiqué une seule et unique appellation d'emploi : conseiller d'orientation). Cette multitude d'intitulés se retrouve également dans le nom des programmes d'études à travers le pays. Tandis que certains utilisent le terme « intervenant en carrière » (career practitioner), d'autres utilisent plutôt « conseiller en carrière » (career counsellor), « spécialiste en gestion de carrière » (career management professional), « facilitateur en développement de carrière » (career facilitator), ou encore « accompagnateur en développement de carrière » (career development coach). Ce libre usage d'appellations diverses dans nos lieux

de travail et dans nos programmes d'enseignement est une question qu'il faut résolument soulever. Les enseignants peuvent jouer un rôle positif en développant et en faisant connaître le modèle éducationnel décrit dans la première partie de cet article. Ce modèle peut aider à concevoir des appellations plus descriptives, cohérentes et porteuses de sens, autant pour les professionnels du secteur que pour le grand public.

Soulever la question de l'image professionnelle n'est pas une tâche facile et demandera à ce que les efforts soient concertés (intervenants, employeurs, associations, gouvernement). Mais les enseignants espèrent vivement que le fait de rehausser le profil de l'enseignement spécialisé en développement de carrière (grâce au modèle provisoire décrit plus haut) et d'améliorer le contenu des programmes conduira au but recherché. McCarthy (2001) déclare à cet effet que la formation joue un rôle important dans l'établissement d'une image professionnelle.

Conclusion

Comme nous l'avons mentionné plus tôt, ce projet de recherche a été mis sur pied afin d'entamer un processus destiné à définir le type de formation, qui apparaît nécessaire aux membres de la profession, pour entrer et évoluer dans le secteur du développement de carrière. Cet article est le fruit du travail entrepris lors de la troisième phase du projet : réunir des enseignants venus de tout le Canada pour participer à un groupe de réflexion sur ces questions éducatives et professionnelles. Bien que des sous-comités issus de ce groupe se rencontrent à l'occasion pour d'autres raisons, il s'agissait de la première réunion regroupant des enseignants francophones et anglophones provenant des universités, des collèges et du secteur privé. Les participants ont laissé entendre que ces discussions ouvraient la voie à des progrès importants dans la mise en place d'un cadre innovateur et global pour l'enseignement en développement de carrière au Canada.

Le développement d'un modèle éducationnel peut représenter un pas en avant pour la profession. Ce modèle peut déterminer avec précision quel type

de formation est nécessaire pour travailler dans le secteur du développement de carrière, comment un individu peut évoluer dans le secteur et comment les tâches de l'intervenant débutant diffèrent de celles de l'intervenant expérimenté. Cette clarté dans la définition peut aider à elle seule à attirer l'attention sur l'importance d'un enseignement spécialisé et sur les services proposés par les intervenants en développement de carrière. Un modèle bien construit permettra aussi aux consommateurs de mieux choisir le type et l'étendue des services dont il ont besoin. Cette tâche est loin d'être terminée, mais nous espérons que l'énergie et l'enthousiasme que ce projet a suscités nous donneront l'élan nécessaire pour faire avancer le modèle.

Le groupe de réflexion a également abordé le sujet du contenu des programmes d'enseignement, une question qui a suscité des discussions tout aussi intéressantes que celles qui ont eu lieu autour du modèle éducationnel. Grâce à la présence de représentants venus de tous les secteurs éducatifs, les délibérations ont permis qu'un dialogue constructif se mette en place en ce qui concerne la manière de faire évoluer les programmes et d'étendre leur contenu. Un des domaines qui demande un effort considérable est la prise en compte dans les programmes d'enseignement d'une perspective en justice sociale et du développement de compétences en « macro » pratique. Le développement d'un programme approprié et son adaptation aux programmes canadiens actuels en développement de carrière feront avancer le secteur et feront du Canada un chef de file en la matière. L'enjeu est de taille, mais nous pouvons y parvenir. Nous espérons que l'esprit de coopération remarqué parmi les participants au groupe de réflexion viendra soutenir cet élan.

Nous souhaitons remercier les enseignants qui ont participé au groupe de réflexion pour leur appui enthousiaste au projet de recherche et pour leur formidable contribution qui ont ouvert la voie à de plus amples discussions et à la poursuite de cette initiative. Nous aimerions également remercier le CERIC pour son appui professionnel et financier.

Annexe A Participants au groupe de réflexion

Nancy Arthur	University of Calgary
Robert Baudouin	Université de Moncton
Marie-Denyse Boivin	Université Laval
Bruno Bourassa	Université Laval
Mildred Cahill	Memorial University
Deborah Day	Acadia University
Edwidge Desjardins	Université du Québec à Montréal
Carmen Forrest	First Nations University
Marcelle Gingras	Université de Sherbrooke
Bryan Hiebert	University of Calgary
Kon Li	Kwantlen University College
Kris Magnusson	University of Lethbridge
Greg Morrow	George Brown College
Nathalie Perreault	OrientAction
Geoff Peruniak	Athabasca University
Deirdre Pickerell	Life Strategies Inc.
Natalee Popadiuk	Simon Fraser University
Blythe Shepard	University of Victoria
Rob Straby	Conestoga College
Beverley Walters	Bow Valley College

Bibliographie

- Arthur, N. (2005). Building from diversity to social justice competencies in international standards for career development practitioners. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance*, 5, 137–148.
- Borgen, W. A., & Hiebert, B. (2002). Understanding the context of technical and vocational education and training. In B. Hiebert & W. Borgen (Eds.), *Technical and vocational education and training in the 21st century: New roles and challenges for guidance and counselling* (pp. 13–26). Paris: UNESCO.
- Borgen, W. A., & Hiebert, B. (2006). Youth counselling and career guidance: What adolescents and young adults are telling us. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling*, 28, 389–400.
- Brown, C. (2002). Career counseling practitioners: Reflections on theory, research and practice. *Journal of Career Development*, 29, 109–127.
- Chen, C. P. (2001). Career counselling as life career integration. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 53, 523–542.

- Dagley, J. C., & Salter, S. K. (2004). Practice and research in career counseling and development. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 53, 98–157.
- Davis, K.E. (2004). Social work's commitment to social justice and social policy. In K.E. Davis & T. Bent-Goodley (Eds.), *The Color of Social Policy* (pp. 229-244). Alexandria: Council on Social Work Education Press.
- Furbish, D. S. (2003, October). Considerations about the professionalisation of New Zealand career practice. Presentation conducted at the Third Biennial Conference of the Career Practitioners Association of New Zealand, Auckland, New Zealand.
- Guichard, J. (2003). Career counseling for human development: An international perspective. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 51, 306–321.
- Hansen, S. S. (2003). Career counselors as advocates and change agents for equality. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 52, 43–53.
- Herr, E. L. (2003). The future of career counseling as an instrument of public policy. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 52, 8–17.
- Hiebert, B., & Borgen, W. A. (2002). Where to from here? Guidance and counselling connecting with technical and vocational education and training. In B. Hiebert & W. A. Borgen (Eds.), *Technical and vocational education and training in the 21st century: New roles and challenges for guidance and counselling* (pp. 131–147). Paris: UNESCO.
- Hiebert, B., McCarthy, J., & Repetto, E. (2001, March). Synthesis of Issue 5: Professional Training, Qualifications, and Skills. Présenté au *Second International Symposium on Career Development and Public Policy*, Richmond, British Columbia, Canada.
- Ipsos Reid. (2006). Many Canadians look for help when it comes to career planning. Site Internet du CERIC, 21 décembre 2006 (<http://ceric.ca/documents/Ipsos%20Reid%20CERIC%20Factum%20Final.pdf>)
- McMahon, M. (2003). Supervision and career counsellors: A little-explored practice with an uncertain future. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 31, 177–187.
- Magnusson, K. C. (1992). Transitions to work: A model for program development. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling*, 15(1), 27–38.
- Magnusson, K. C., Day, B., & Redekopp, D. (1993). Skills are not enough: A concept paper on innovative strategies and services for youth in transition. *Guidance & Counselling*, 8(4), 6–20.
- McCarthy, J. (2004). The skills, training and qualifications of guidance workers. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance*, 4, 159–178.
- Niles, S. G. (2003). Career counselors confront a critical crossroad: A vision of the future. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 52, 70–77.
- O'Brien, K. M. (2001). The legacy of Parsons: Career counselors and vocational psychologists as agents of social change. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 50, 66–71.
- Organisation pour la coopération et le développement économiques. (2004). Orientation professionnelle et politique publique : comment combler l'écart. Site internet de l'OCDE : <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/33/45/34050171.pdf>
- Turcotte, M. (Janvier 2005). L'élaboration de normes d'admission à l'Ordre des conseillers et conseillères d'orientation et des psychoéducateurs et psychoéducatrices du Québec, *Regard sur l'orientation professionnelle*, 17, 7–8.
- Whiston, S. C. (2003). Career counseling: Ninety years old yet still healthy and vital. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 52, 35–42.

Despite the Barriers Men Nurses are Satisfied with Career Choices

J. Creina Twomey & R. J. Meadus
Memorial University of Newfoundland

Abstract

Men remain a minority in the nursing profession. In 2005, 5.6 per cent of the nurses in Canada were men (Canadian Nurses Association [CNA], 2005); while in the United States (U.S.) men comprise about 5.8 per cent of the registered nurses (U. S. Department of Health and Human Services Health Resources and Services Administration [HRSA], 2004). Although the basis for this gender imbalance has been discussed in the literature, there is a paucity of data regarding reasons why men choose nursing as a career, perceived barriers experienced in practice, and factors associated with career satisfaction. A descriptive design was used by the researchers to examine these questions among a group of male registered nurses ($N = 250$) in one Canadian province. Knowledge about reasons why men choose nursing, the barriers they experience in practice, and information about factors that impact career satisfaction may help to attract men into the nursing profession, and aid development of recruitment and retention strategies.

Key Words: male nurses, career choice, barriers, career satisfaction

Acknowledgements:

Thank you to the Association of Registered Nurses of Newfoundland and Labrador (ARNNL) Education & Research Trust for providing financial support to undertake this research project.

Despite significant changes in the health care professions over the last century, nursing continues to remain a female "gendered" occupation. Men have made slight inroads in the profession and as such, continue to be a minority within the registered nurse workforce. In 2005, 5.6 per cent of the nurses in Canada were men (CNA,

2005), while men comprise about 5.8 per cent of the nursing workforce in the U.S. (HRSA, 2004). Although reasons for this gender imbalance have been debated in the literature, scant evidence is available regarding why men choose nursing and what factors are associated with their career satisfaction. The purpose of this study was to explore reasons why men in Newfoundland and Labrador (NL) choose nursing as an occupation, what are the perceived barriers they experience in practice, factors associated with career satisfaction, and their reasons for recommending nursing as a career option for other males.

Literature Review

There is an abundance of literature both anecdotal and research based related to the topic of men in nursing. Most of this literature is concerned with the recruitment of men nurses and the barriers they experience in their chosen career. Men historically have been identified as having caregiver roles in organized nursing throughout history. For example, military, religious, and lay orders of men throughout the centuries have provided care to the sick and injured. Despite this history, the role of men in nursing tends to be forgotten (Mackintosh, 1997).

One of the dominant barriers identified as a major deterrent to men entering the nursing profession is stereotypes. The public perception of nursing as a sex-role occupation exclusive to females is a well-entrenched societal belief based upon the traditional image of the nurse as being white and female. This perception supported by the mass media is reinforced through images of nursing solely based upon female attributes. These beliefs influence societal perceptions for nursing and feed the cycle of bias that limits the role of men in nursing. Historically, nursing is considered to be a natural extension of a

woman's role in society. The gendered nature of nursing work is reflected by the patriarchal social structure that associates the characteristics, of caring, compassion, nurturance, and empathy exclusive to women. As a result, the nursing profession is considered not to be suited to men who are believed not to have any of those attributes (Meadus, 2000). Again; these factors hinder men in choosing a nursing career.

In the nursing literature and popular press, sex stereotypes are seen as a major obstacle to men entering nursing. A common stereotype concerning men who choose nursing is that they are effeminate or gay (Jinks & Bradley, 2004; Hart, 2005). According to Jinks and Bradley, little has changed in societal attitudes towards nursing stereotypes over the years. Thus, men who chose to become a nurse may be questioned about their masculinity. Other stereotypes reported from the literature were that men end up in nursing because they are perceived as underachievers and lack the ability to enter medical school (Poli-fico, 1998).

Several researchers have examined why men choose nursing as a career option, the most common motive noted was the wish to help others; other factors were job security, salary and career opportunities (Boughn, 1994, 2004). In a recent study investigating why nursing students choose nursing other factors were reported such as, the desire to work with complex technology and the inability to get into another program (Rheume, Woodside, Gautreau, & Ditommaso, 2003).

A large body of literature is available on factors associated with work satisfaction of registered nurses. Factors such as work setting, job stress, pay, promotional opportunities and involvement in patient care have been identified as key determinants in job and career satisfaction for nurses (Kovner,

Brewer, Wu, Cheng, & Suzuki, 2006; Hoffman & Scott, 2003; Shaver & Lacey, 2003). Most of these studies have not investigated specific factors for men nurses related to career satisfaction and reasons for recommending nursing to others as a career option. A worrisome finding from a recent study was that male nurses within the first four years following graduation are leaving the profession approximately four times more frequently than female nurses. Male nurses in comparison to women also reported less satisfaction with nursing regardless of their clinical setting or position (Sochalski, 2002). With men being a minority and many leaving the profession, it is imperative that greater efforts are undertaken to understand this phenomenon and also strategies are needed for recruitment and retention of males.

Several campaigns have been undertaken within the U.S. that emphasized the recruitment of people into nursing programs. Some of these have been at the national level such as the Johnson and Johnson Discover Nursing advertising campaign. Although not specifically focused on the recruitment of men, several of the promotional materials have highlighted men in nursing on television, brochures, and posters (Buerhaus, Donelan, Norman, & Dittus, 2005). Another campaign aimed on the recruitment of males into the nursing profession has been launched by the Oregon Center for Nursing. A component of this campaign is a poster with the slogan, "Are You Man Enough To Be A Nurse" that highlights the diversity of men in nursing and a program called Men in Scrubs that specifically targets middle school and high school students. Participants in this program get an opportunity to gain insight into nursing by "shadowing" men nurses in the practice setting (Trossman, 2003).

Several universities within the U.S. have formalized plans for the recruitment of men into the nursing profession. The University of Iowa College of Nursing for example, has instituted a men in nursing mentoring task force whose sole purpose is to develop and to implement strategies focused on recruitment and to increase the visibility of nursing as a career choice for men (The University of Iowa College of Nursing

Men in Nursing Mentoring Task Force, 2006). No formalized plans to actively recruit males into university schools of nursing have been undertaken in Canada. A national U.S. group of men and women known as the American Assembly for Men in Nursing (AAMN) was formed in 1971 to encourage men to choose nursing as a career choice and increasing the visibility of men in nursing through education of the public (The American Assembly for Men in Nursing, 2005). Recently, in Canada the Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario (RNAO) launched the establishment of the Men in Nursing Interest Group (MINIG) with similar objectives as the AAMN (Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario [RNAO] The Men in Nursing Interest Group, 2007). This initiative has potential to strengthen the nursing profession for all interested stakeholders throughout Canada through ongoing education and support around the image of nursing and the role of men as nurses. This may lead to a greater emphasis on the promotion of nursing as an appropriate career choice for males.

Methodology

Ethical considerations

The necessary steps were taken to ensure that the rights of all subjects were recognized and protected throughout the study. Confidentiality with respect to both participants and storage of data was maintained throughout. Ethical approval was granted from the Human Investigation Committee, Memorial University of Newfoundland. Consent was implied by completion of the survey.

Sample and Setting

Using a descriptive design, the researchers surveyed the opinion of 62 nurses on reasons for entering the profession and perceived barriers to being a male practicing in a predominantly female oriented profession. Open-ended questions were included to allow participants to voice their recommendations regarding recruitment and satisfaction with career choice and willingness to advise a career in nursing.

In 2005, 5,629 RNs were employed in Newfoundland and Labrador (NL);

250, (4%), of these were men (ARNNL, 2005). The convenient sample included all males who agreed to participate in research as identified by their response on the ARNNL registration form ($n = 78$). Subjects were also recruited using an advertisement included in an ARNNL mail out and snowball sampling. In total, 102 questionnaires were distributed, 87 were sent through the regular mail system and 15 were delivered via the internal hospital mail system. To aid return, all questionnaires contained a stamped self-addressed envelope.

Instrument

Data were collected using a self-report questionnaire developed by the researchers. No appropriate published instrument for examining men's career choice and barriers specific to nursing was available. Questions related to career choice and barriers were partially based upon findings from a qualitative research report prepared by the Canadian Nurses Association (CNA) on men in nursing (Hanvey, 2003). By reference to this report and existing literature, the draft questionnaire was developed and pilot tested for face and content validity. Two nurses, one a content expert on men in nursing and two male nursing students completed the survey. As a result of this review, adjustments were made to increase item clarity and readability. The final questionnaire assessed the following four areas:

Demographic data; 2) Reasons for entering the nursing profession; 3) Perceived barriers experienced by men in nursing and 4) Recruitment strategies, Career satisfaction, and Career recommendations.

Reliability testing of the instrument indicated a Cronbach's Alpha of .63 for the subscale measuring the reasons for career choices and the barriers subscale had an alpha of .81. With this population, the internal consistency levels suggest that the subscales adequately measure the constructs.

Results

Data were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences. Indices of central tendency were calculated and depending on the level of

Table I:
Practice Setting (n = 61)

Setting	Frequency	Percentage
Med/Surg Adult	17	27.9
Mental Health	8	13.1
Nursing Home	7	11.5
ICU/CCU	7	11.5
Occupational Health	3	4.9
Education	3	4.9
Emergency	3	4.9
Administration	2	3.3
Community Health	1	1.6
Other	10	16.4
Total	61	100

Table II:
Reasons for Choosing Nursing (n = 62)

<i>Reason for Choosing Nursing</i>	<i>Mean¹</i>	<i>SD¹</i>
Career Opportunities	2.41	.78
Job Security	2.39	.91
Salary	1.79	.83
Travel	1.23	1.2
Family in the Profession	.77	1.1
Knew a Nurse	.74	1.1
Volunteer or Patient	.72	1.1
Peer Pressure	.56	.95
To meet Women	.34	.83

¹ Mean = mean score (average based on the following scale: 0 = not at all to 3 = very important) and SD = standard deviation for each of the identified reasons for choosing nursing.

Table III:
Barriers to Men in Nursing Practice (n = 62)

<i>Barriers</i>	<i>Mean¹</i>	<i>SD¹</i>
Sexual Stereotypes	1.75	1.1
Inadequate Recruitment	1.70	1.2
Female Oriented Profession	1.67	1.2
Lack of Exposure to Male Role		
Models in the Media	1.57	1.2
Low Salary	1.23	1.0
Patients prefer Female Nurses	1.15	1.0
Families View of Nursing as a Career		
Choice	0.74	1.0

¹ Mean = mean score (average based on the following scale: 0 = not at all to 3 = very important) and SD = standard deviation for each of the identified reasons for choosing nursing.

data, tests of difference were computed. Alpha was set at $p < .05$. Sixty-two questionnaires were returned to the researchers for a return rate of 60%. The mean age of the sample was 38.1, with a range of 23 to 58 years, respondents had been practicing nursing for one to 35 years, with a mean of 13.2 years. Overall, the subjects had been in the same position for an average of 6.3 years. Most (80.6%) were employed full time, 8.1 % were part time, 9.7 % worked in casual positions and only 1.6% were unemployed. The majority of nurses worked on a medical/surgical adult practice setting (see Table I) and as expected 68.3% were employed by the Eastern Health Authority; this region is the most populated geographical area in NL.

The second part of the questionnaire examined why men choose nursing as a career. The subjects were requested to rate their reasons on a scale from 0 ("not important") to 3 ("very important"). The most common motives (in descending order) for becoming a nurse (see Table II) were career opportunities, job security, and the salary. Other reasons identified as important were the opportunity to travel and having a family member in the profession. In the category labeled *other*, nine respondents stated that they chose nursing because they wanted to be part of a caring profession and they felt it was a calling.

In the third section of the survey, subjects were asked to circle the number which best reflects their assessment of perceived barriers (see Table III) encountered when they first decided to enter the nursing profession. Using the same rating scale, 0 to 3, the most commonly perceived barriers (in descending order) to being a male in a female dominated profession were: sexual stereotypes, female oriented profession, lack of recruitment strategies, and few male role models portrayed in the media.

Further analysis was completed and the respondents were grouped by age, level of education and practice roles. At Alpha $p < .05$ there were no significant differences between age groups, levels of education or practice roles in terms of reasons for career choices or barriers experienced.

Instrument Part II

In this section of the survey, subjects were asked three open-ended questions:

*What do you think would increase the recruitment of male nurses?

*Are you satisfied with the choice that you made? Please explain.

*Would you recommend nursing to other males? Please explain

All nurses stated there is a lack of recruitment initiatives specifically aimed at males to consider nursing as a career choice. Many of the study subjects articulated the invisibility of men in nursing and offered particular suggestions such as: a greater need to work on demystifying the stereotypes, more media advertisements promoting men as nurses, using testimonies from nurses during recruitment, promoting travel and career opportunities that nursing offers, and increasing the salaries.

In response to the questions on career satisfaction, over 93 per cent of the subjects were satisfied with choosing nursing as a career. Specifically, 58 subjects, out of 62, were satisfied with their career choice and would recommend it to others. Four nurses, of the 62, were not satisfied or were unsure, of whether they would recommend nursing to others. Some of the narrative responses demonstrate their satisfaction with being a nurse:

"Absolutely satisfied, it is who I am. It isn't just a job to me, I live my nursing role."

"I had entered nursing in the hopes of getting an education and then applying to the RCMP, but I enjoyed the profession so much I stayed."

"Yes, I do this job for the caring and safety of my patients and this gives me great satisfaction."

"Extremely satisfied-it met my professional needs and my personal needs."

"I believe it was a 'calling' because I always wanted to do it and still do. My father had the same feeling but 50 years ago could not afford it, and men were not encouraged to take on this profession."

"To be a professional career person; to have a career by age 21; to be part of one of the oldest professions to care for sick, disabled."

"Yes, the profession has been very good to me and I can't imagine doing anything else."

Discussion

Within this study, regardless of age, educational background and practice role, men in nursing reported the main reasons they chose nursing as a career were: job security, career and travel opportunities, and salary. Similar findings have been reported in the literature. In a study investigating how gender affected motivation for choosing nursing for freshman in three nursing programs in the U.S. male students in comparison to female students put greater emphasis on aspects such as salary, job security, and the social image of the profession (Zysberg, & Berry, 2005). To recruit more men strategies should be designed based upon these factors that influenced men's decision to enter a nursing program. It is imperative that school and career counsellors emphasize these qualities when providing career advice to young men interested in a nursing career. With the unstable economy, the financial security, career and geographic mobility that nursing offers are benefits important to men. These can be stressed during recruitment efforts for this population.

Other reasons for choosing nursing as a career identified by study subjects were: attraction to the social image of the profession; belief that the job would be rewarding; and congruence of a caring personality with their perceptions of being a nurse. These qualities need to be addressed during recruitment. It is also recommended that future research include further investigation of these concepts.

The findings of this study highlight that men remain an untapped resource and continue to be overlooked during recruitment efforts for the nursing profession. The subjects in this study reported that inadequate recruitment and lack of male role models in the media continue to be a barrier that inhibits men from choosing nursing as a career choice. A lack of recruitment efforts directed at the male population was identified as the top barrier. Even though it is the 21st century and nursing is a growing career, limited recruitment of men continues to impact males who may wish to pursue nursing as a career choice. Recruitment strategies specifically targeting men need to become top priority. Advertisements/promotional materials that portray nurses in mascu-

line ways should be developed to counter any stigma held by society. These posters should prominently be exhibited in places and locations frequented by the male population. A television ad campaign directed at men and shown during the news and sport events is another initiative that should be undertaken. Such materials would be an excellent resource for use by guidance and career counsellors in assisting individuals with career planning.

Despite the fact that men have been working in the profession for a number of years, stereotypes continue to be a barrier in the clinical setting. Nurses in this study reported being satisfied with their career choice and were willing to advise others to choose nursing as a career option. These findings were supported by their narrative responses. However, the movement of men into nursing is slow and gender bias continues to impact the profession. Unless a concentrated effort by all concerned stakeholders is undertaken to aid recruitment and retention, discrimination of men who are nurses will continue and men will still represent a small percentage of the registered nurse population. The focus on the occupation of nursing as a career needs greater development with an emphasis on the characteristics of gender neutrality by professional associations, university schools of nursing, and school and career counsellors. An objective for nursing organizations and nursing programs is to aid recruitment efforts by challenging the societal stereotypes of femininity and masculinity. These endeavors may lead to an increase of men joining the nursing profession.

Given the small sample size of this study, the results need to be interpreted with caution. The use of a convenience sample of nurses within one Canadian province may not be representative of nurses in other provinces or those outside of Canada. Additionally, the questionnaire used in this study should be refined and retested using a larger sample of men nurses. Also the authors recommend doing further qualitative investigations looking at career satisfaction among male nurses. These studies may aid discovery of particular factors that are responsible for satisfaction in choosing a nursing career. Such findings

may be useful for preparation of promotional materials in recruitment efforts and thus benefit retention of nurses.

Conclusion

If the nursing profession is sincere in its efforts to create a gender neutral workforce, then it needs to address the issue of not actively recruiting men. A major priority is a greater emphasis on the development of gender appropriate materials for nursing recruitment and career promotion. Such initiatives are necessary if the profession wishes to address the current issue of nursing shortages and lack of diversity among the nursing workforce. The time for nursing to act is now to deal with gender bias, recruit more men, and to take bold steps to correct the gender imbalance. These steps can only help strengthen the health care workforce which will benefit the profession and also the population served by nurses.

References

- Association of Registered Nurses of Newfoundland and Labrador. (2005). *Annual Report 2004-2005*. St. John's, Newfoundland & Labrador: Author.
- Canadian Nurses Association. (2005). *2005 workplace profile of registered nurses in Canada*. Ottawa, Ontario: Author.
- Boughn, S. (1994). Why do men choose nursing? *Nursing and Health Care*, 15(8), 406-411.
- Boughn, S. (2001). Why women and men choose nursing. *Nursing and Health Care Perspectives*, 22(1), 14-19.
- Buerhaus, P.I., Donelan, K., Norman, L., & Dittus, R. (2005). Nursing students' perceptions of a career in nursing and impact of a national campaign designed to attract people into the nursing profession. *Journal of Professional Nursing*, 21(2), 75-83.
- Hanvey, L. (2003). *Men in nursing*. Ottawa, Ontario: Canadian Nurses Association.
- Hart, K.A., (2005). What do men in nursing really think? Survey respondents speak out. *Nursing*, 35(11), 46-48.
- Hoffman, A.J., & Scott, L.D. (2003). Role stress and career satisfaction among registered nurses by work shift patterns. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, 33(6), 337-342.
- Jinks, A.M., & Bradley, E. (2004). Angel, handmaiden, battleaxe or whore? A study which examines changes in newly recruited student nurses' attitudes to gender and nursing stereotypes. *Nurse Education Today*, 24(2), 121-127.
- Kovner, C., Brewer, C., Wu, Y.W., Cheng, Y., & Suzuki, M. (2006). Factors associated with work satisfaction of registered nurses. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 38(1), 71-79.
- Mackintosh, C. (1997). A historical study of men in nursing. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 26(2), 232-236.
- Meadus, R.J. (2000). Men in nursing: Barriers to recruitment. *Nursing Forum*, 35(3), 5-12.
- Poliafico, J.K. (1998). Nursing's gender gap. *RN*, 61(10), 39-42.
- Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario (RNAO). (March), 2007). *The Men in Nursing Interest Group (MINIG)*. Retrieved March 23, 2007 from <http://www.rnao.org/Page.asp?PageID=924&ContentID=1725>.
- Rheaume, A., Woodside, R., Gautreau, G. & Ditommaso, E. (2003). Why students choose nursing. *Canadian Nurse*, 99(5), 25-29.
- Shaver, K.H., & Lacey, L.M. (2003). Job and career satisfaction among staff nurses. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, 33(3), 166-172.
- Sochalski, J. (2002). Nursing shortage redux: Turning the corner on an enduring problem. *Health Affairs*, 21(5), 157-164.
- The American Assembly for Men in Nursing. (Sept, 2005). Retrieved September 6, 2005 from <http://aamn.org/index.htm/>.
- The University of Iowa College of Nursing Men in Nursing Mentoring Task Force. (May, 2006). Retrieved May, 22, 2007 from <http://www.nursing.uiowa.edu/students/meninnursing.htm>.
- Trossman, S. (2003). Caring knows no gender. *American Journal of Nursing*, 103(5), 65-68.
- U. S. Department of Health and Human Services Health Resources and Services Administration. (May, 2007). *The registered nurses population: Findings from the 2004 national sample chapter III: The registered nurse population 2004*. Retrieved May 14, 2007 from <http://bhpr.hrsa.gov/healthworkforce/rnsurvey04/3.htm>.
- Zysberg L. & Berry, D.M. (2005). Gender and students' vocational choices in entering the field of nursing. *Nursing Outlook*, 53(4), 193-198.

The Tentacles of Bullying: The Impact of Negative Childhood Peer Relationships on Adult Professional and Educational Choices

Ginette D. Roberge
Rainbow District School Board

Abstract

Being victimized by a bully in childhood has many potential effects on facets of adult life. This study attempted to examine whether being bullied in childhood has had an impact on the employment and post-secondary educational choices of the participants. Brief interviews and a resiliency inventory were administered in this regard. It was discovered that most of the participants who were bullied chose their occupations because of an interest in their field or a desire to assist others, rather than making their choices for financial reasons, or for reasons of familial pressure. In addition, participants who had an elevated number of conditions that foster resiliency in their environment had diminished manifestations of the bullying on their future educational and occupational selections. In fact, all of the participants had elevated resiliency levels, all were employed, and most were currently pursuing a profession or educational endeavor for which they were passionate. Consequently, it was recommended that bullying intervention stratagems should endeavor to produce academic environmental conditions that are positive despite the varied familial environment of the students. These programs should also promote a constructive learning environment. Finally, students should be made aware of career and post-secondary educational options that target their interests and aptitudes.

Barbara Coloroso (2001) states that: "Bullying is a life-and-death issue that we ignore at our children's peril" (p. 1). Many human beings bear the scars of being mistreated by a bully in childhood. Recent manifestations of violence in primary and secondary schools by students who were continuously mistreated by their peers indicate that this is an alarming occurrence that must be addressed. Moreover, the adverse impacts of being bullied in youth

do not necessarily come to an end once children reach adulthood.

Research surrounding many aspects of bullying has been conducted through the years. At the outset, Lynch (2004) states that: "Being bullied at school can result in long-term and social effects" (Paragraph 6). From a socio-emotional standpoint, some of the innate developmental constructs of individuals can be altered as a result of having had negative peer relationships in childhood. Some research has also shown that childhood bullying can be linked to future aggression, criminal behavior, depression, and even suicide (Patterson, 2005; Thompson, Cohen, & O'Neill Grace, 2002; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, n.d.). In instances where reconciliatory justice measures are not undertaken to aid the aggressors and their victims, a stage is set for the adverse effects of childhood bullying to continue into later life. In turn, numerous studies have been conducted to examine the immediate impacts of bullying on children (Coloroso, 2002; Gottheil & Dubow, 2001; Swearer, Song, Cary, Eagle, & Mickelson, 2001; Voors, 2000). However, the research conducted in regards to the long-term impacts of bullying and their materialization once adults make their vocational choices is limited.

Consequently, this study first examined the childhood environmental conditions of ten adult participants whose ages ranged from 26 years to 42 years. Seven were female, and three were male participants. All were victims of bullying at some point in their youth. It was conducted in a small, northerly, Canadian community. An attempt was made to determine how these conditions, in combination with childhood victimization in the form of peer aggressions, impacted the selections made by the participants in regards to their employment and post-secondary educational choices.

Instrumentation

Two measurement instruments were utilized to gather data for this study. The first was a resiliency inventory called the *Resiliency Quiz*. The second is a series of interview questions pertaining to demographic information, family environment, childhood bullying, and adult resiliency traits. These sources are further explained below.

Resiliency Inventory

The Resiliency Quiz was developed by Nan Henderson, who is an international trainer and renowned author on building and fostering resiliency, and who has given permission for its use in this study (Henderson, 2002). It was created to assist individuals in measuring and identifying the conditions in their lives that would assist them in further developing their level of resiliency. The inventory consists of a series of eighteen statements that require an affirmative or negative response. By identifying the areas where there are more negative responses, the individual can then concentrate on these particular areas to build his or her resiliency levels. This ability, in turn, can have an impact on the extent to which the participants were and are still affected by being victims of childhood bullying. Individuals who demonstrate higher resiliency levels, for example, may have a greater chance of being impacted positively, or of not being impacted as negatively by being victimized by peers in childhood as individuals with lower levels of resiliency.

Interviews

In turn, the interview questions were developed by the researcher, and were designed to gather additional data specifically in regards to certain areas of the participants' lives. The interview comprised four categories: Demo-

graphic Factors, Childhood Family Environment, Bullying, and Personality Dynamics.

The questions addressed demographic information about the participants, their level of parental and environmental support in regards to personal and professional choices, their motivations for their professional and academic choices, the quality of their relationships with their family, the nature and extent of bullying they endured as children, intervention measures undertaken on their behalf, as well as their adult defense and coping mechanisms. Accordingly, the specificity in their design permitted the collection of data that was geared towards areas that were thought to be the more common areas that would potentially impact the vocational choices made by the participants.

Summary and Discussion of Results

Resiliency Quiz Summary

Administration of the resiliency inventory was conducted verbally by the researcher. This permitted clarification of ambiguous items by allowing the researcher to explain certain statements to the participants that could have had dissimilar meanings in different contexts. Clarification was given on the meaning of the items if required, and probing, non-leading questions were used only if the participant was unsure on how to respond. This was also noted during the administration of the inventory. The Resiliency Quiz (Henderson, 2002) encompasses five categories: Caring and Support, High Expectations for Success, Opportunities for Meaningful Participation, Positive Bonds, and Clear and Consistent Boundaries. The following table demonstrates the number of affirmative responses in relation to the number of items for every category on the Resiliency Quiz.

Table 1
Resiliency Quiz Responses

Participant Number	Caring and Support	High Expectations for Success	Opportunities for Meaningful Participation	Positive Bonds	Clear and Consistent Boundaries	Overall Resiliency Level
1	3/3	3/3	1/3	1/3	5/6	14/18
2	3/3	2/3	2/3	2/3	6/6	15/18
3	3/3	3/3	2/3	2/3	6/6	16/18
4	2/3	3/3	0/3	3/3	3/6	11/18
5	3/3	3/3	2/3	2/3	5/6	15/18
6	3/3	2/3	3/3	2/3	3/6	13/18
7	3/3	3/3	3/3	2/3	6/6	17/18
8	3/3	3/3	2/3	0/3	5/6	12/18
9	3/3	2/3	3/3	2/3	5/6	15/18
10	2/3	2/3	1/3	2/3	4/6	11/18

Caring and Support

The first category on the Resiliency Quiz, *Caring and Support*, addresses conditions in regards to the support received by the participants, their consequential achievements, as well as their ability to take care of themselves physically. These also represent other significant environmental influences. The results were elevated in this area. Two of the participants responded affirmatively to two of the items, and the remaining eight responded affirmatively to all three items. This suggests that the participants in this study have had many individuals in their lives who supported their endeavors.

High Expectations for Success

Successively, the second group, *High Expectations for Success*, can be related to adult conditions that are thought to foster resiliency in their workplace, with the people in their lives, and with their internal sense of self. In this section, all of the participants had at least two of the three conditions thought to develop resiliency. In actuality, four of the ten had two affirmative responses, while the remaining six responded affirmatively to all three items. This also represents generally elevated workplace, environmental, and familial conditions in these areas of the participants' lives.

Opportunities for Meaningful Participation

The third category on the Resiliency Quiz, *Opportunities for Mean-*

ingful Participation, addresses whether the participants' have the opportunity to participate in community groups or extra-curricular activities in which they feel that they are contributing positively. It also addresses whether they feel their opinions and choices are valued by their family, friends, and others in their professional or social connections. This section therefore describes some of the pertinent current environmental influences of the participants.

The resiliency levels in this area were varied. Of the ten participants, one did not respond positively to any items on this section of the resiliency inventory. Two of the participants responded affirmatively to one of the three items, and four of the participants possessed two conditions of the three. Finally, three of the participants responded affirmatively to all three items in this category. This signifies that less than half of the participants had all of the conditions in their lives that provided them with prospects to participate meaningfully in their environment.

Positive Bonds

The participants in this study were bullied for varied durations. The fourth grouping, *Positive Bonds*, addresses whether they possess meaningful bonds with individuals in their professional, social, and familial environments. This provides insight into the quality of their relationships with their peers in adulthood, which sequentially can be considered an effect of the duration of the childhood bullying.

In fact, for this area, one of the par-

ticipants did not give an affirmative response to any of the items in this section. One of the participants had one affirmative response. Nonetheless, seven participants, had two of three affirmative responses for this section, and one responded affirmatively to all three items. This reflects a reduction in the presence of bonds with the social and familial environments for some of the participants in adulthood, in comparison to other sections on the inventory.

Clear and Consistent Boundaries

It is evident that all of the participants in this study were bullied in different measures during their childhood. The impact that these negative childhood peer relationships have had on their resiliency levels in adulthood, in relation to their life choices, is difficult to ascribe to a specific component of the Resiliency Quiz. However, the fifth grouping, *Clear and Consistent Boundaries*, questions whether the participants are aware of their strengths and weaknesses, and can utilize this knowledge to achieve their goals. It also investigates their current behaviors in their professional or academic lives. This section therefore categorizes the presence of conditions in the participants' lives that could possibly exacerbate or alleviate the long-term consequences of childhood bullying on these particular aspects.

In this section, all participants scored a minimum of three out of six conditions that generally represent optimal circumstances for the development of resiliency. One of the participants responded affirmatively to four of the items on this section of the resiliency inventory. In turn, four of the ten participants had five affirmative responses, and three of the six participants responded affirmatively to all of the items in this section. This indicates that the majority of participants had high resiliency levels in this category. This could possibly minimize the long-term manifestations of the bullying they experienced at the hands of their peers in childhood on their adult vocational decisions.

Emergence of Themes from Interview Transcripts

Upon close scrutiny of the individ-

ual responses, the researcher collectively compared the responses for every question, and denoted observations of common recurring trends that were of interest. Certain themes were derived as a result. The narratives were scrutinized, and words of interest that arose more than once were noted for every individual response. Next, the researcher utilized the *Find* function in Microsoft

Word to locate these common words in the transcripts as a whole. These transcripts were revisited collectively. The following table represents the common words or trends noted, the interview category in which they arose, the frequency of their recurrence in the transcripts, as well as whether or not they were included as a theme:

Table 2
Re-occurring Words and Trends in the Interview Transcripts

<i>Common Words Or Trends</i>	<i>Interview Category</i>	<i>Frequency of Re-occurrence</i>	<i>Inclusion as a Theme</i>
More than one previous occupation	Demographic Factors	Ten	Yes
More than one previous educational endeavor	Demographic Factors	Nine	Yes
Help people	Demographic Factors	Ten	Yes
More than one career change	Demographic Factors	Ten	Yes
Career or educational program change to pursue passion	Demographic Factors	Seven	Yes
Financial motives	Demographic Factors	Four	No
Passion for field of choice	Demographic Factors	Eight	Yes
Good relationship with mother	Childhood Family Environment	Ten	Yes
Strained relations with father	Childhood Family Environment	Four	No
Parental involvement in professional decisions	Demographic Factors, Childhood Family Environment	Seven	Yes
Parental involvement in personal/life decisions	Childhood Family Environment	Eight	Yes
Bullied for more than one year	Bullying	Ten	No
Too many to count/remember	Bullying	Two	No
Never reported the bullying	Bullying	Eleven	Yes
Told figure of authority of the bullying	Bullying	Nine	Yes
Bullied by more than one person	Bullying	Eight	No
Ignoring/avoiding bullies	Bullying	Six	Yes
Defending myself	Bullying	Four	Yes
Teachers or authority did not intervene	Bullying	Fifteen	Yes

cont'd. p. 38

Table 2 (cont'd.)

Re-occurring Words and Trends in the Interview Transcripts

<i>Common Words Or Trends</i>	<i>Interview Category</i>	<i>Frequency of Re-occurrence</i>	<i>Inclusion as a Theme</i>
Parent or authority figure successful in ending the bullying	Bullying	Three	No
Adult behaviors stemming from childhood bullying	Bullying, Personality Dynamics	Two	Yes
Recall names of bullies	Bullying	Two	No
Encounter bullies in later life	Bullying	Two	No
Resilient in adulthood	Personality Dynamics	Eight	Yes
Severely affected by trauma or major upsets	Personality Dynamics	Seven	Yes
I just do it	Personality Dynamics	Five	Yes
Depends what it is	Personality Dynamics	Three	No
Compliant to authority	Personality Dynamics	Eight	Yes
Sometimes question authority	Personality Dynamics	Six	Yes
Optimistic	Personality Dynamics	Nine	Yes

Table 3

Themes Ensuing From Interview Transcripts

<i>Theme</i>	<i>Re-Occurring Word or Trend</i>
Depressive Tendencies	Depression, depressed, anti-depressants, severely affected
Motivations for Post-Secondary Choices	Severely affected by trauma or major upsets More than one previous occupation More than one previous educational endeavor Help people More than one career change Career or educational program change to pursue passion Passion for field of choice
Adult Resiliency	Good relationship with mother More apt to defend themselves in adulthood than in childhood Resilient in adulthood Severely affected by trauma or major upsets
Future Exhibition of Behaviors	Defending myself Adult behaviors stemming from childhood bullying More apt to defend themselves in adulthood than in childhood I just do it Optimistic
Perception of Authority	Teachers or authority did not intervene Compliant to authority Depends what it is Sometimes question authority
Familial Influences	Good relationship with mother Parental involvement in professional decisions Parental involvement in personal/life decisions

These common words or trends were then studied individually, and were analyzed to determine whether they arose sufficiently to be considered a theme. Four or less occurrences of a trend or word were generally excluded as a theme unless sufficient evidence supported their inclusion in the remainder of the dialogue.

However, in two cases, despite the elevated number of occurrences in the transcripts, trends were excluded as themes. In fact, while all ten participants were bullied for more than one year, insufficient evidence was found to determine the nature and extent of impact on their adult vocational choices. In addition, while eight of the participants noted that they had been bullied by more than one person, the researcher could not link this trend to a future manifestation on adult career and educational selections.

In contrast, only two participants specifically noted that they utilized similar strategies in childhood and adulthood to resolve conflicts. However, other instances were linked to the future exhibition of behaviors to lead to their inclusion as a theme. Similarly, four participants utilized the words *defending myself* in some form, but this was still included as a theme because further analysis of data suggested that seven participants noted that they were more apt to defend themselves in adulthood than they were in childhood. The following table delineates the themes, and outlines the words or concepts that led to their inclusion

As such, one of the means used to analyze the interview data was to verify the frequency of re-occurrence of certain words or trends. The researcher attempted to explicate their frequent appearance in the interview responses. Where sufficient literature support was found that could potentially link childhood bullying to the trend or word, these were then categorized according to similarity, as can be observed in the above table. A title was then given to the category, which constituted the theme for that category.

Description of Themes

Depressive Tendencies

The inclusion of depressive tendencies as a theme was due to the fact that

seven of the ten participants mentioned the word “depression” in reference to their emotional state at some point in their lives. This relates to the findings of Lynch (2004), who states that: “Students who are chronic victims of bullying experience more physical and psychosocial problems than their peers who are not harassed by other children” (Paragraph 6). In fact, she highlights the results of a survey administered to more than one thousand adults, which indicate that over 46 percent of these adults contemplated suicide at one point, as opposed to only 7 percent of individuals who were not bullied (Paragraph 20).

The U.S. Department of Health (n.d.) supports the fact that adults who were victimized by their peers in childhood are more likely than their non-bullied peers to have low self-esteem and to suffer from depression (Paragraph 2). In turn, Lynch (2004) states that being bullied in childhood affects the adults’ ability to make social connections, and to succeed in work and educational endeavors (Paragraph 20). Furthermore, Thompson et al. (2002) attribute high drop-out and drug use rates to childhood bullying (p. xvi).

One of the participants who suffered from a severe depression noted that she used to believe that she would

be a homemaker like her mother, because she dropped out of high school. She stated that she also did not have faith in her abilities to pursue her studies. Nevertheless, she ultimately returned to post-secondary education, and is currently returning to college for a second degree. In contrast, none of the four participants who divulged no signs of depressive tendencies made any significant career changes in their lives. However, two of them had parents who always supported their educational and employment decisions. These two participants pursued one single career avenue to date in their lives. The other two participants noted that their parents

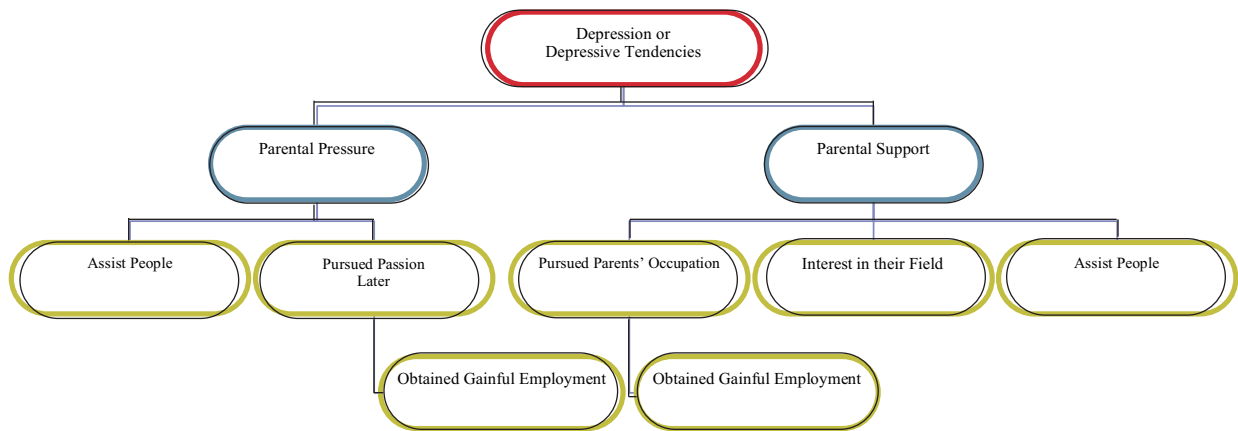


Figure 1: Depressive tendencies and their Impact on Vocational Choices

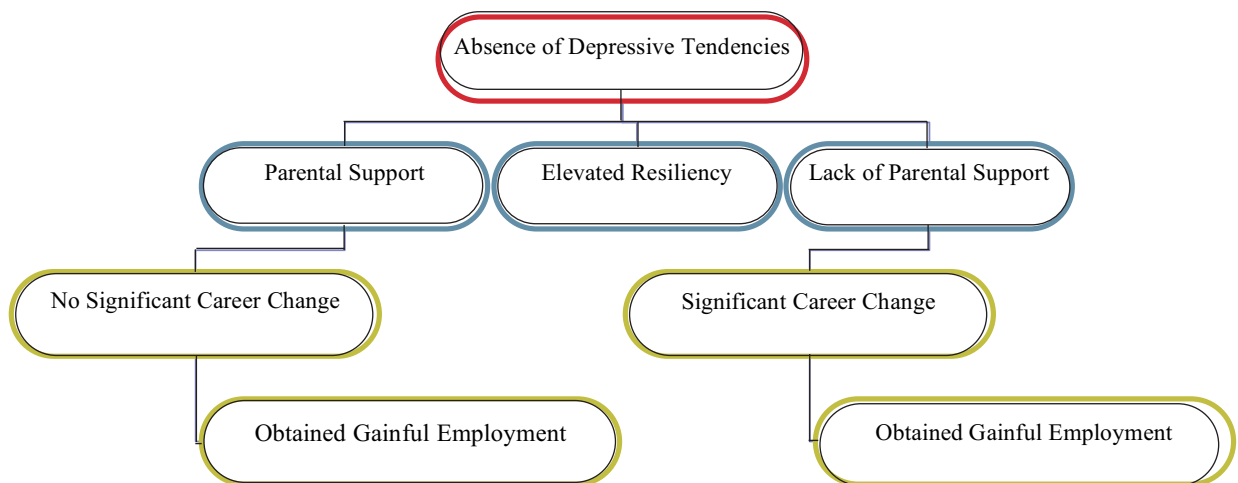


Figure 2: Absence of Depressive Tendencies and their Impact on Vocational Choices

did not always support their life, career, and educational choices. The two figures below illustrate these trends:

This could suggest that reduced self-esteem brought on by childhood bullying has potentially caused the individuals who participated in this study, who had depressive tendencies, to be more submissive in their post-secondary selections. They were, in some cases, more likely to yield to parental demands when making vocational choices. In contrast, where their non-depressive counterparts had parental support, the participants tended to only pursue on career option, while those whose parents were opposed to their choices made at least one significant career change. This could potentially imply that when parental support was present, the participants pursued their general area of interest in early adulthood, and those whose parents were opposed pursued different avenues. Further research would be needed to draw conclusive findings in this regard.

Motivations for Post-Secondary Choices

One of the more significant discoveries that ensued from analyzing the data collected was in regards to the motivations of bullying victims for their employment and educational choices. First, their current employment situations were noteworthy. All but one of the participants pursued post-secondary education, and eight even completed more than one degree or diploma in more than one area of study. In addition, all participants were currently employed, but two were on temporary leave from work to return to school. Willet (2004) highlights numerous factors that could influence post-secondary selections. Among these factors, he delineates the availability of post-secondary offerings in the geographical location of choice, the influence of family members, the availability of information in regards to post-secondary offerings, among other factors (Paragraph 1).

Additionally, the geographical location where this study took place comprises two colleges, one which offers French programming, and the other which offers similar English options. There is also a bilingual University and

Table 4

Participant Motivations for Career and Educational Selections

Participant Number	Continuous Parental Support	Depressive Tendencies	Financial	Same Occupation as Parent(s)	Helping People	Passion/Interest in Field
1		X			X	X
2	X	X			X	X
3	X		X			
4		X	X			X
5	X	X	X		X	X
6	X			X	X	
7	X	X		X		X
8					X	X
9	X	X			X	X
10	X		X			X

varied private institutions with post-secondary offerings. This suggests that there were numerous opportunities for the participants to continue their studies beyond high school.

However, Taylor, Harris, & Taylor (2004) make the following statement in regards to the roles of the parents in individuals' career selections: "Families, parents, and guardians in particular, play a significant role in the occupational aspirations and the career goal development of their children" (Paragraph 2). They further attribute academic settings, familial inspirations, money, and social circles as contributing factors in the selection of a career.

As was noted in an earlier section, two of the participants simply succumbed to authority in their educational and employment selections. These two participants, and two others, also failed to pursue certain areas in an earlier stage of life but later returned to school or changed their professional situation in some manner to pursue their passion. Using Erikson's theory of Psychosocial Stages as a point of reference, this could be explained by the incomplete transition between certain tasks or phases of life engendered by being victimized in childhood by peers (Bridges, 1980, p. 35). It could also signify that some of the participants limited their opportunities to identify themselves in one of their areas of expertise due to a reduced self-esteem caused by bullying. In turn, this would have caused them to pursue their true passion in later life, when the threat of their peers was reduced.

However, the main motivation be-

hind employment and educational selections seemed to be geared towards pursuing an area of interest. In fact, five of these participants pursued an area of interest at a later time in their lives. Furthermore, six participants chose their current occupation at least in part because of a desire to assist people in some way. Four participants indicated that there were some financial considerations for their choices. The following table represents a profile of all of the participants in this study.

This table also includes whether the participants had depressive tendencies, have always had parental support in their endeavors, as well as their motivations for their educational and career selections. These findings could suggest that these participants, who were bullied in childhood, possessed a desire to intervene among the populace, and to be of assistance to people in some way. The majority of the participants' career choices centered on the pursuit of a field of interest, but this sometimes occurred after the pursuit of other avenues. Other factors such as following in a parent's footsteps, or financial considerations, which are common factors of employment choices (Taylor et al., 2004), were not prominent factors for vocational choices among these participants. While the low number of participants in this study is insufficient to ascertain conclusively that people who are bullied in childhood develop a desire to help people once they reach adulthood, further research in this area would be noteworthy.

Familial Influences

It is important to include the influence of the familial environment on the vocational choices of the participants. Certain factors surfaced during the examination of the interview data and demographic profiles. One of these issues was that two participants indicated that they still utilize certain strategies that were suggested by their parents to deal with their bullies in their present social lives and in their workplace. To support this concept, Patterson (2005) suggests that “Guiding children to manage conflict in their relationships would be helpful in preventing relationship disruption” (Paragraph 3).

In addition, Thompson et al. (2002) further state that relationships and social skills are learned in the home. In this study, all ten of the participants had good relations with at least one parent. This is possibly one of the reasons that they are now all employed, and that most pursued post-secondary studies despite research findings that suggest that victims of childhood bullying are likely to encounter difficulties in their future employment and educational avenues (Lynch 2004; Knoester, 2003; Pattersen, 2005; U.S. Department of Health, n.d.).

of their career choices suggests that this could have built up their self-esteem, and could potentially account for their successes despite their negative childhood experiences. As such, it can be assumed that having life conditions that foster resiliency may have an impact on the extent of the effect that childhood bullying has on professional and educational selections made in adulthood.

Adult Resiliency

There were significant extrapolations of data that occurred in regards to the adult resiliency environments of the participants in this research. First, the resiliency inventory suggested that all ten participants had elevated resiliency levels. In fact, they seemed to grow more resilient in adulthood than they were in their childhood. However, six of the participants stated that they were accommodating, but nonetheless indicated that they have difficulty dealing with traumatic situations.

Conversely, Nan Henderson (2002) indicates in reference to her Resiliency Quiz that: “People bounce back from tragedy, trauma, risks, and stress by having the following conditions in their lives” (Paragraph 2). These conditions consist of having a caring and support-

and consistent limitations and realistic expectations. She continues by outlining the fact that higher numbers of affirmative responses suggests that there are greater chances of bouncing back from life problems.

This could explicate the fact that, in this research, the participants all obtained gainful employment, which contradicts some research findings that suggest that adults who are bullied in childhood are more likely to have difficulty in school and in the workplace (Knoester, 2003; Lynch 2004; Pattersen, 2005; U.S. Department of Health, n.d.).

The following figure represents how having elevated resiliency levels, optimism versus pessimism, and developing the ability to deal with trauma in adulthood impacts the extent of the manifestation of childhood bullying in later life, in accordance to the observed trends in this study:

Copper, Estes, & Allen (2004) designate hopefulness as a characteristic that is thought to be more often present in resilient individuals (Paragraph 2). The fact that all of the participants had elevated resiliency levels could suggest that their environmental conditions have lessened the impact of being bullied in childhood in their later lives. In short, these indications suggest that positive

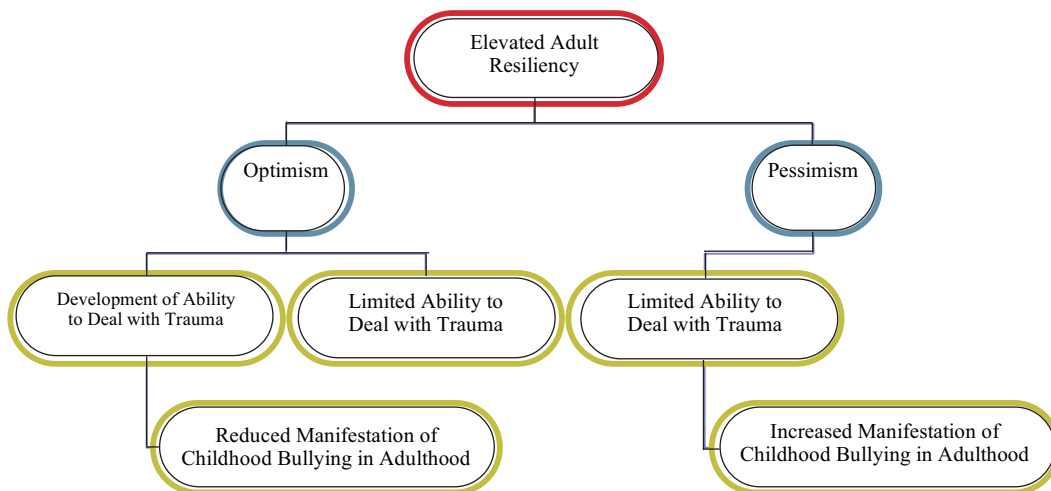


Figure 3: The Impact of Elevated Resiliency and the Ability to Deal with Traumatic Situations in Adulthood and the Extent of Manifestation of Childhood Bullying

As a final point, Voors (2000) considers assertiveness on the part of a bullying victim to be an effective strategy to reduce future incidents. The fact that seven of the participants noted that their parents are supportive of their life and

ive familial and social circle, having elevated expectations for success, belonging to community groups with opportunities for meaningful contribution, having positive, constructive relationships, and finally, establishing clear

environmental factors as well as certain internal characteristics found in resilient individuals can potentially affect the extent of the effect of childhood bullying on adult vocational choices.

Future Exhibition of Behaviors

General trends in regards to adult exhibition of certain behaviors were also noted. At the outset, Knoester (2003) notes that being a victim of bullying in childhood can cause the adaptation of anti-social behaviors that can sometimes continue across the life-span (Paragraph 8).

For this study, nine of the ten participants indicated that they could not stand up for themselves in the past, but that now they are much more apt to speak up when they feel someone is disrespecting them. In addition, seven of the participants even stated that they are sometimes firm and blunt in their defense. Finally, two participants noted that they still utilized the conflict resolution strategies provided by their parents in their youth to resolve present situations.

In regards to employment, five of the participants often questioned their employers when they were asked to complete a task. One even noted that he sometimes got into trouble at work for voicing his opinions too firmly. Another participant noted that her new, strong attitude at work definitely stemmed from being bullied in childhood.

Conversely, Bandura's theory of Social Cognition suggests that children learn certain behaviors in the home, in the media, or from their social connections (Isom, 1998, Paragraph 1). As such, in reference to this theory, being victimized by their peers in childhood could have reinforced the need for the participants to defend their rights assertively. Their victimization could have caused them to want to eliminate the possibility of this reoccurring in adulthood. Finally, this could suggest that maturity, in combination with optimal life-conditions, have provided the victims of childhood bullying with necessary tools once they reach adulthood to ensure that they are not victimized again. It is possible that assertiveness was developed as a defense mechanism to avoid the trauma they experienced in childhood.

Perception of Authority

Certain observations also led to the development of the participants' perception of figures of authority in adulthood

Table 5

Relation between Resiliency Levels, Parental Support and Participant Perception of Authority

<i>Participant Number</i>	<i>Overall Resiliency Level</i>	<i>Depressive Tendencies</i>	<i>Continuous Parental Support</i>	<i>Immediate Compliance With Authority</i>
1	14/18	X		
2	15/18	X	X	
3	16/18		X	X
4	11/18	X		X
5	15/18	X	X	X
6	13/18		X	
7	17/18	X	X	X
8	12/18			
9	15/18	X	X	
10	11/18		X	

as a theme. At the outset, Watkins (2000) indicates that certain children who are continuously victimized by their peers sometimes develop a pattern of compliance with authority (Paragraph 5). For this study, the areas of interest were specifically geared towards the participants' use of coping mechanisms in their perception of authority, and its' impact on their subsequent vocational and educational choices.

In fact, the research findings suggest that the participants were not always immediately acquiescent to authority. In truth, six of the participants actually questioned their employers when they were asked to complete a task. Three even indicated that they do not act in accordance with the request unless it is something that they felt was reasonable. Four participants, however, immediately conformed to the requirements of their employers or teachers. The following table represents a profile of the participants in regards to their level of resiliency, their depressive tendencies, whether they were pressured by their parents in their vocational selections, and whether they complied with their employer's or another figure of authority's requests:

As such, the evidence is conflicting in this regard. There does not seem to be a relation between the adult overall resiliency level and the surfacing of depressive tendencies, and the resiliency level does not seem to be related to immediate compliance with authority. At the moment, based on the information gathered from the demographic profiles and from the interview responses, there

is no reason to conclude that the level of compliance to authority had any consequence, positive or negative, on the participants when they made their choices. The only factor that was evident was that two participants yielded to the will of their parents in their choice of an educational program or employment field. Eight participants ultimately ended up pursuing what they considered to be their passion at a later point in their lives. One of these two participants had depressive tendencies and the other did not, therefore the evidence is inconclusive in this regard as well.

This could suggest that authoritarian influence did not continue to be a factor in the selection of post-secondary options, for these participants, despite being bullied in childhood. However, this could also suggest that maturity and life circumstances that foster resiliency can potentially assist individuals in making employment and educational decisions that are better suited to their area of interest rather than being based on environmental conformity.

Conclusions

The research findings of this study suggest that there might be manifestations of adult bullying that surface into adulthood when adults make choices for their vocations. In fact, many of the participants could recall clear facts about their childhood bullies, and could remember the feelings of anger and distress they experienced. Many of these participants chose their vocation due to a desire to help others. Coloroso (2001) makes the following statement in re-

gards to bullying intervention: "Breaking the cycle of violence involves more than merely identifying and stopping the bully. It requires that we examine why and how a child becomes a bully or a target of a bully as well as the role bystanders play in perpetuating the cycle" (p. xvi). This suggests that the areas of consideration when undertaking studies about bullying and career selections are multifaceted. In fact, Voors (2000) indicates in the following statement that society often portrays attitudes that lead to discriminatory tendencies: "Every child and adult deserves to be treated with respect. Yet every day our children absorb societal attitudes that not only minimize and deny but also sometimes embrace intolerance" (p. 13). It is important to recognize that the media, the home environment, pressure from peers, and other factors affect the perception of violence as an acceptable behavior.

Recommendations

Based on the data collected, it is evident that optimal environmental conditions that foster resiliency in individuals was possibly, for these participants, an important factor in reducing the long-term impact of childhood bullying. Consequently, bullying intervention and reconciliatory justice measures should comprise proficient conditions such as the ones found on the Resiliency Quiz in regards to providing students with opportunities to bond. They should also encompass teaching them positive life skills and conflict resolutions strategies, the provision of caring and support by teachers when they intervene in situations of bullying, the setting and communicating of high expectations from teachers and parents, as well as the creation of opportunities for meaningful participation. This could take the form of having the students participate in community charity events, fundraising, or helping the less fortunate through community service (Henderson, 2002). On the other hand, it is evident that, at times, it is difficult to remedy familial circumstances that hinder some individuals' ability to heal from being victimized by peers.

However, schools can alleviate this occurrence by acclimatizing after-school programs or opportunities for their students to contribute positively in

their environment. This could include the creation of peer support groups for victims of bullying, individual career counseling sessions with experts in the community integrated into schools, or even the creation of student and parent councils to provide input into effective bullying intervention strategies (Lynch, 2002, Paragraph 1). In addition, in light of the fact that victims of bullying are often reluctant to come forward (O'Moore & Minton, 2005) it could be beneficial to implement bullying reporting protocols where the students could feel more secure, for example, by having positive student leaders in charge of observing the schoolyards for incidents of bullying, and of reporting their observations to a designated figure of authority.

To continue, many of the participants in this study chose their occupations based on a desire to aid others. This suggests that schools can assist the perpetrators and victims of bullying by providing prospects for their student bodies to assist in the reduction of school violence. One example of this is the Safe Schools Ambassadors Program (Ontario Ministry of Education, n.d.), in which the students are trained by an outlying community organization to promote and utilize positive conflict resolution skills in their schools.

As a final point, the analysis of the data has shown that two of the participants utilized strategies provided by their parents or teachers to resolve conflicts in their future occupations. Some researchers have also indicated that children who are provided with positive conflict resolution strategies are more likely to have positive peer relationships (Coloroso, 2001; Patterson, 2005). This outlines the importance of implementing educational programming that promotes character education and positive character traits in their students. Many of the adaptations of later behaviors seem to be rooted in childhood. In addition, in light of the fact that many of the participants chose their current field due to a desire to help others, it would be of primary importance to provide students with information in regards to their post-secondary educational and career options. As such, scholars, parents, educators, and administrators should be provided with the necessary knowledge

and tools to ensure that the children are benefiting from the most proficient educational environment possible. This maximizes their chances for future academic and employment stability.

References

- Bridges, W. (1980). *Transitions: Making sense of life's changes*. Cambridge, MA: Perseus Books.
- Coloroso, B. (2002). *The bully, the bullied and the bystander*. Toronto, ON: Harper Collins Publishers Ltd.
- Cooper, N., Estes, C., & Allen, L. (2004). Bouncing back. *Parks & Recreation*, 39, 28-35. Retrieved May 13, 2006 from Academic Search Premier database.
- Gotthel, N.F., & Dubow, E.F. (2001). The interrelationships of behavioral indices of bully and victim behavior. *Bullying Behavior: Current Issues, Research, and Interventions*, 2, 75-93.
- Henderson, N. (2002). The resiliency quiz. *Resiliency in Action Inc*. Retrieved May 12, 2006, from <http://www.resiliency.com/htm/resiliencyquiz.htm>
- Isom, M.D. (1998). *The social learning theory*. Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University. Retrieved April 25, 2006, from <http://www.criminology.fsu.edu/crimtheory/bandura.htm>
- Knoester, C. (2003). Implications of childhood externalizing problems for young adults [Electronic Version]. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 65, p. 1073-1081. Retrieved May 20, 2006, from ProQuest Psychology Journals database.
- Lynch, E. (2004). Lasting damage. *Nursing Standard*, 18, 22-23. Retrieved May 2, 2006, from Academic Search Premier database.
- O'Moore, A.M., & Minton, S.J. (2005). Evaluating the effectiveness of an anti-bullying programme in primary schools. *Aggressive Behavior*, 31, 609-622. Retrieved May 2, 2006, from Academic Search Premier database.
- Ontario Ministry of Education. (n.d.) *Registry of bullying prevention programs*. Retrieved May 18, 2006, from <http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/teach>

- ers/bullyprevention/registry.html
- Patterson, G. (2005). The bully as victim? *Pediatric Nursing*, 17, 27-30. Retrieved May 2, 2006, from Academic Search Premier database.
- Swearer, S., Song, S., Cary, P., Eagle, J., & Mickelson, W. (2001). Psychosocial correlates in bullying and victimization: The relationship between depression, anxiety, and bully/victim status. *Bullying Behavior: Current Issues, Research, and Interventions*, 2, 95-121
- Taylor, J., Harris, M., & Taylor, S. (2004). *College-age children's career decisions*. Retrieved May 22, 2006, from JobWeb Web site: <http://www.dartmouth.edu/~csrc/pdfs/parentssay.pdf>
- Thompson, M., Cohen, L.J. & O'Neill Grace, C. (2002). *Mom, They're Teasing Me: Helping Your Child Solve Social Problems*. New York, NY: Ballantine Books.
- U.S Department of Health and Human Services. (n.d.) *Why should adults care about bullying?*. Retrieved May 11, 2006, from <http://www.stopbullyingnow.hrsa.gov/adult/indexAdult.asp?Area=shuldadultscare>
- Voors, W. (2000). *Bullying: Changing the course of your child's life*. Center City, MN: Hazeldon.
- Watkins, C.E. (2000). *Bullying throughout the life cycle*. Baltimore, MD: Northern County Psychiatric Associates.
- Willett, T. (2004). *College choice literature review*. Retrieved May 22, 2006, from Gavilan College Web site: <http://www.gavilan.edu/research/reports/college-choice%20refs.pdf>

The Impact of Mentoring on the Careers of African Americans

Glenn A. Palmer
Juanita Johnson-Bailey
University of Georgia

Abstract

This qualitative study focuses on the mentoring experiences of ten African Americans who worked for Fortune 500 and Fortune 1000 companies. This study was extracted from a larger study that focused on the career development of African Americans in the fields of training and organizational development. However, the participants placed significant importance to the salience of mentoring in their career development. Therefore in the follow-up data analysis, the authors decided to focus attention on the phenomenon of mentoring.

The purposeful sample of ten African Americans consisted of six women and four men. Their corporate positions ranged from first line managers to human resource directors, with their educational levels ranging from undergraduate to terminal degrees. The participants were employed by Fortune 500 and Fortune 1000 companies located in the Southeastern United States. The research focused primarily on the structural, attitudinal, and personal factors that affect career development.

Introduction

Researchers have identified several factors that have conspired to thwart the efforts of African Americans and other minorities to achieve their fullest potentials in organizations (Hackett & Byers 1996; Palmer & Johnson-Bailey, 2005). Researchers contend that African American women are more disadvantaged than African American men in the career development process (Cox & Blake 1991; Cox, 1993). While both are confronted with racism, African American women must deal with the added layer of sexism. Experts and scholars believe that various barriers (discrimination, prejudice, structural variables, lack of skills, etc.) have prevented African Americans from achieving their full potentials in the workplace (Carnevale &

Stone 1995).

The purpose of this study was to analyze the career development of African American managers in the areas of training and organizational development. The researchers wanted to identify the factors that influence the career development and career aspirations of African Americans working in the fields of training and organizational development.

Although the primary focus of the study was on the overall career development of African Americans in training and development, early in the study, mentoring emerged as a significant factor impacting the career aspirations of the respondents. The data revealed several factors that contrived to impact the career development of the respondents, including: lack of diversity, prejudice, stereotypes, education and training, career succession programs, networking and mentoring. Mentoring emerged as one of the more salient factors and therefore decided on the extraction.

Mentoring and Career Development

The general definition of a mentor is someone in a position of power who can guide the career of a junior employee (Bierema 1996; Mullen 2000; Thomas, 2001). Studies have indicated that mentoring relationships can significantly affect an individual's career development and advancement, with both the mentor and the person being mentored (protégé) benefiting from the relationship (Scandura 1992). The studies acknowledged that protégés might benefit from the mentoring process through higher promotion rate, greater compensation, or overall higher morale and satisfaction with their career. Kram (1985) contends that individuals, who are mentors, benefit from increased competence, increased feelings of confidence in their own abilities, and higher esteem. Mentors are usually individuals at middle or advanced levels in their ca-

reers with significant experience, knowledge, and skills that can be beneficial to the protégé.

The mentoring process can be an effective management tool that can be beneficial to the careers of the mentor and the protégé, while assisting the organization to achieve its mission (Cox, 1993; Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004). Mentors are senior level management and executive members of the organization who can facilitate and nurture the careers of the protégé. Kram (1985) asserts that mentoring helps protégés by providing inside information and access to the informal organization. Good mentoring helps the protégé to reach their full potential. Collins (1983) believes the good mentor should be able to:

- Listen patiently
- Build a relationship with protégé
- Nurture self-sufficiency
- Establish protected time
- Share himself or herself
- Be constructive.

Mentoring and Minorities

While several studies acknowledged the mentoring process provides minorities with vital information and access to the informal network, the process can be thwarted with problems. Cross-cultural, cross-racial, and cross-gender mentoring sometimes ignites irrational fears and speculations, precipitated by existing race and sex taboos (Bova, 2000; Day, 1974; Grier & Cobbs, 1968; Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004). Thomas (1989) contends sex taboos between White males and African American females sometimes cause tension in this type of mentoring relationship. Nevertheless, African American women and other women can benefit from being mentored by White males. Kovel (1970) contends the historical tension between Whites and African Americans tends to

impact the mentoring process across racial barriers.

Several studies have indicated that in the mentoring process, the relationship works to the advantage of those with similar backgrounds, values, and cultural beliefs (Bowers, 1984; Dreher & Cox 1996). Consequently, the relationship between a mentor and protégé works best when both share similar experiences and cultural background. The reality, however, is that White males are usually the power brokers and decision makers in organizations, and must therefore be trained on how to mentor across cultural, ethnic, and gender lines.

Although minorities may have legitimate power as a result of their official management functions, being on the periphery of corporate elitism, with little access to the inner sanctum, diminishes or marginalizes their referent power. From this perspective, minorities may not necessarily be effective mentors (Cox, 1993). Their ineffectiveness can stem not from being incapable or ineptness but rather from the structural and attitudinal barriers preventing them from being fully accepted into the inner sanctum of the organization (Cox, 1993). On the contrary, minorities can be excellent mentors when not limited by structural, attitudinal, or personal barriers.

When used ethically, and morally, mentoring can be effective and beneficial to the mentor, protégé, and the organization in general. The mentor can facilitate the type of learning and insight that will reap substantial benefits for the protégé.

Methodology

Because this study was attempting to understand factors that impact the career development of African Americans in the areas of training and organizational development, a qualitative research methodology was chosen. The qualitative research format allowed the researchers to analyze documents (resumes), and synthesized the personal experiences, emotions, behaviors, and attitudes of the African Americans who participated in the research. The primary method of data collection for this research study was interviews. However, data was also collected through analyzing the resumes, bios, and job

descriptions of the participants.

The Sample

This purposeful sample consist of ten African Americans who work in the areas of training and organizational development and who met the predetermined criteria: (1) The participants were African Americans and in fact self-identified as either African American or Black; (2) participants had a college education, some had completed graduate degrees; (3) participants are older than thirty years; (4) participants had more than five years experience in the field of training and organizational development; (5) participants have spent at least two years with their current employer; and (6) participants included both male and female. The interviews ranged between one and one half hours.

While all the participants were African Americans, consistent with the focus of the research, there was some diversity within the group. There were four males and six females, ranging between the ages of 37 and 62. They were employed in a wide range of industries and held positions from instructors to directors of training and organizational development. Educational attainments ranged from the undergraduate level to some doctoral studies. The participants chose their pseudonyms.

Findings

The findings around mentoring center on the formal and informal mentoring experiences in the workplace. In addition, the issues of cross-cultural mentoring and cross-gender mentoring are examined by exploring the relationships of White male mentors and Black women protégée and by analyzing the Black male protégée and the White woman mentor as the most typical mentoring relationships in the corporate setting.

Formal and Informal Mentoring

The participants were unanimous on the significance of mentoring to their career development and advancement. The participants agreed the mentor provides guidance, support, and counseling for the professional development of junior level employees. They concluded that mentoring is an effective manage-

ment strategy that benefits both the mentor and the protégé. Mentoring is the relationship between an experienced employee (mentor) and a lesser-experienced employee (protégé). While the participants acknowledged the mentor may or may not be employed by the same organization, they believed that if available internally, the mentor might be more advantageous to the development of their careers because of proximity and accessibility.

Carl is a forty-three year old African American male who has worked for his company for twenty years. He has spent the last six and a half years delivering training and development to all levels of employees, including senior level management. He is employed by a major international company. Carl's summation of the importance of mentoring to career development is characteristic of the other participants' views on the topic:

Mentoring is absolutely essential, because the mentor is the person who understands the culture, the business, and the climate of the organization. They understand what is required of a position. They are the ones that have the power to place people, to pull people up as I alluded to earlier as well as to help promote their careers even further in the organization. So the mentors are extremely important, especially the higher one moves within the organization. I believe you must have people, someone continuously pulling you through, sponsoring your career. If I had the consistent mentoring, I believe my career would have been further advanced. Earlier in my career, I was very focused, very pro company, very interested in looking for ways in which to discover the wealth of opportunities in the organization and how could capitalize on those possibilities. And even with my high performance it was not happening. So I believe my career would have been tremendously enhanced and would be further along if I had consistent mentoring throughout.

The participants declared that mentoring helps the protégé by providing: inside information and access to the informal organization. They believe mentoring is one way of piercing through the proverbial glass ceiling. They re-

peatedly articulated the significance of having someone with insight and power sponsoring the careers of minorities. The mentor is needed from the early stage of one's career. Ms. Jackson, a fifty five year old corporate director at a major U.S. airline, is the most senior participant in terms of rank and title. Mentoring figured prominently on her list of career succession initiatives. Ms. Jackson accredited much of her success to being mentored by the right people:

Upon leaving graduate school, I had sixteen job offers and because I couldn't decide, having had no coaching, no mentoring, and not having a planned career path, I don't think I chose my job wisely. So after graduate school, I went back to what I was doing and that was to work for E_____.

I had a twenty-four year career with them, and all those years were in human resources and organizational development. I worked in compensations, benefits, training and development, organizational procedures; the whole gamut of HROD. If I had a mentor who could have guided me, I could have accomplished more professionally.

With twenty years working for the same company, Carl is convinced that he could have accomplished more and achieved greater professional success had he been mentored. He believes that the management of the company is cognizant of the organizational benefits to be derived from the mentoring process:

And I think the company now realizes they have to invest in its human capital. And they have to invest in people and now they are playing catch-up. But mentoring is absolutely critical in the development of one's career. You could be the best employee, you could have the best work ethics, job performance, but if you don't have somebody at the next level to sponsor you, who feel comfortable with you, you are not going to make it.

But it wasn't until late in my career, that I fully understood that I needed to have a sponsor and a mentor, if I was going to continue to progress in this organization.

Other participants also believed that if they had received consistent mentoring, their careers would have been further advanced. Jeff another participant

is a thirty-seven year old African American male who has worked in the field of HROD for the past eleven years. Jeff works for a large Fortune 500 Company and is based in a large southeastern city. He is the Manager of Organizational Development (OD) for the division. Although Jeff has garnished some degree of professional success, he is convinced he could have been further ahead had he received more consistent nurturing. Jeff's story supports this point:

I think that if I had a person that we have now in charge of this division, who would have taken me under their wings, and provided some mentoring, I would definitely be in senior management at this stage of my career, probably at the vice-president level. But when I encountered people that could have mentored me, they were usually standoffish. They thought I was aggressive and was trying to get their job, when all I was doing was trying to do a good Job, and trying to advance my career. So if I had had a mentor to latch onto, it's just no telling how far along I could have been at this stage in my career.

Tracy believes that even though she did have the desire to move into middle management, her career would have been further advanced if she had consistent mentoring. Tracy is a thirty-nine year old African American female. She is a program manager with responsibilities for instructional design at a Fortune 500 company. According to Tracy:

I had some very good managers. One in particular was Lucille. She provided valuable insight on what I needed to do to get to the next level. She was a good coach who took the time to assist me when I needed the help. Had there been a formal mentoring program available throughout the company, I would have benefited from it.

The mentor understands the internal politics, fully knows the business, and has the power and political savvy to strategically position the protégé to achieve professional development. The mentor has the insight and experience to direct the protégé towards the appropriate position. The mentor becomes a counselor to the protégée, helping them to avoid pitfalls in their careers. Another participant, Mary, is an African American female who is probably in her

mid-forties. She did not want to reveal her age. She is the Director of Training for a global company located in a city in the southeast. Mary described her mentoring experience:

One particular mentor that I am thinking about gave me enough information that I knew I should take the job. He connected me with people who worked at the company, and allowed me to tour the company. He gave me enough information so that I know I should take it. But also the mentor gave me opportunities to learn, to try and do things beyond what any other interns were doing, so that was kind of pre-work mentoring. Despite the overwhelming claims regarding the importance of mentoring on career development, only a few of the participants had access to formal mentoring, others had no form of mentoring. Those who have received some form of mentoring have done so through mutual cooperation between themselves and others inside or outside the organization.

Ricky is a forty-one year old African American male. He is employed as a Human Resource Manager at a prominent multi-national corporation. Ricky concurred with some of the sentiments expressed by the other participants:

We actually just started a mentoring program in this division last month. Formal mentoring in this division, even though we know how valuable mentoring is to the professional development of an individual. You know, the classic one on one mentoring I think is even obsolete now, because it is more like a mentoring network, where you have multiple mentors in different arenas and with different agendas, different races, different areas, different functions. So you can get a global or a broader perspective to prepare you for greater professional advancement.

While Mary has received mentoring from some of her managers, no formal mentoring program exists in her company. However, as articulated by Mary, the mentor need not be in the same organization as the protégée. She enlisted what she refers to as "mentor on call." About this kind of mentoring, Mary concluded:

I made a contact with a woman down in F———, through a conference we attended, just prior to me getting into training, and she was a training manager. I have contacted her on a number of occasions to ask her different things, because there is so much information out there on training, and getting it narrowed down to what you want can be a challenge. So she is like an on-called mentor. I don't talk to her very often, but when she finds things that she thinks are of interest, she sends them to me. If I have a question, I can shoot it to her and at least be sent in the right direction.

While there was unanimity by the participants on the importance of mentoring on their professional development, they also acknowledged that White males tend to have a greater impact on their career development than any other group in the workplace. This data is supported by other research and can be attributed to the fact that White males' control power in the corporate world (Bierema, 1996).

Mentoring — White Males and African American Females.

Mentoring is seen as pivotal to the career development of women (Burke & McKeen 1990; Ragins, 1999). The study revealed much of the mentoring occurs between the African American female participants and White males. In the work environment, there appeared to be greater comfort between African American females and White males, a factor that is supported by the literature (Dreher & Cox, 1996). This finding has been supported by previous research on mentoring between the sexes in corporate America. This was corroborated by another of the participant. Sharon is a forty-six year old African American female who is a director of training for the southeastern division of a large corporation. The response of Sharon was typical of the female respondents, and she summed it up as follows:

I think White male mentors are very far and few in between, especially in this organization, and I dare say it is because some of them don't want to do it. I also feel that a lot of them are uncomfortable doing it. They are certainly more comfortable around

other White males. I guess I am somewhat naive to think that it's nothing personal. They really don't understand me, although in my particular case currently, my boss, who is a vice president, is an excellent mentor to me.

The ranks of management in corporate America remain largely homogeneous, White and male. This poses a dilemma for developing mentoring relationships for African Americans and other minorities. Although research suggests that mentoring relationships are most effective when they are informal and involve people with similar backgrounds such as race, ethnicity, and gender, this is difficult to achieve when those with power, who are in the positions to effectively mentor, do not share similarities with the potential protégées. Notwithstanding this irony, White males can be effective mentors to people who are dissimilar to them, given their rank and power in organizations.

The female participants appeared to have benefited most from being mentored by White males. However, cross-gender mentoring has been found to suffer from the anxiety that may develop in the relationship between White males and females — the likelihood of physical attraction, intimacy and a romantic involvement (Burke & McKeen, 1990). Even when physical attraction is absent in cross-gender mentoring relationships, problems may arise based on public image and the perception that others have about the relationship between the White male mentor and the female protégé. Cross-gender mentoring may suffer negatively from the mere perception of romantic involvement between the mentor (White males) and the protégé (African American females), (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2002).

Sharon reports to a White male vice-president. Throughout the interview, she raved about the positive relationship between her and her boss. Referring to the mentoring she has received, Sharon uttered similar sentiments regarding cross-gender mentoring as reported in the literature:

I think it takes special efforts on both the mentor and the protégé whenever the mentoring goes across racial or ethnic or gender lines. If people don't say I will do this because this is something I really need to do, that type of men-

toring does not happen. I believe mentoring happens automatically and in an unstructured manner between White males. Some people may be inclined to make comments about the mentoring relationship, when it goes across gender and racial lines. You have to solicit help for your career wherever you can get that support.

In spite of the differences, some of the participants believe they have benefited from being mentored by both White males and White females. Sharon is one such individual who benefited from being mentored by a White male. Here she described the experience of being groomed to hopefully take her manager's position. Sharon continues:

Since I came to this position, the person who hired me has been my mentor. He is the vice president for the division and is a White male. The things I have learned from that person are more from the informal perspectives as opposed to the formal perspectives; how to get things done in the organization; understanding of the politics within the system; who are the key people to know; and how to approach certain people. So I think that part of the mentoring has been very valuable to me than anything else. I do feel that anybody in an organization, need someone to sponsor his or her career.

Acknowledging the differences between her and her White male manager, Ms. Jackson believes the professional advice and insight she has received were invaluable and has greatly augmented her professional development. Ms. Jackson concurred with Sharon regarding the benefits of being mentored by White males. She agrees that White males can be effective mentors:

There must be a mentor who is in the position to support you and sponsor your career and I have been fortunate to have several. They have all been White males. There were several mentors who were instrumental in the development of my career. Those White men really helped focused my career in the right direction. I got constructive advice and support from them.

Tracy has also received favorable support, encouragement and professional support from her White male manager. Here Tracy described the

mentoring relationship between herself and her manager:

You know, he is always there for me whenever I needed some support. In fact he has given me a great deal of autonomy to do my job. Most of the time, I am working from home. Because of that, I am able to spend much more time with my two young boys. I have learned a lot from my current boss. I must also add that my previous manager was a black female and she was an excellent mentor to us. She was also instrumental in my career development by providing much needed support.

Mentoring – White Females to African Americans

While the African American men in the study have not reported being mentored by White males, some relayed stories about the positive effects of being mentored by White females. Jeff's story underscored this point:

All that I have achieved thus far in this corporation is attributable to the wisdom and insight of my manager who was a big haired Texan, and I say this in a positive way. She was fair, honest, supportive, and pushed me every step of the way. She recruited me into the company, and when she was promoted to a vice president, for another division, she brought me along. The things I have done that caused me to excel were as a result of the inside information she shared with me. I had another opportunity to go with another company and probably could be making more money, but the experience of working with her was invaluable. She is an excellent mentor and a very good person.

Carl believed that for twenty years he did not get the type of support that could have exponentially advanced his career. He believed that the last year has been different in a positive way for everyone in the department. His most recent manager, a White female, has been supportive of his career development by providing the appropriate advice and resources. Thus, in this conversation, Carl talked about the support being received from his current manager, who happens to be a White female:

It was not until late in my career,

within the last year. This person was brought into the organization from outside. But she has given us a fresh insight, a fresh perspective, with an emphasis on growth and development of the talent of the people. And that is something I have not encountered here before. She is someone who is very down to earth, someone who was very approachable, and someone who can relate directly to the obstacles, barriers, and other critical success factors that I was encountering. She is someone who wants to take a chance, and is willing to take the risk by giving me opportunities, by giving me exposure, while at the same time giving me an equal opportunity not only to succeed but also to fail. But not to fail in order to be devastated, but an opportunity to fail, so as to use that failure as a learning experience. She is someone who is open, honest and is able to give and receive honest feedback and criticisms.

The African American female respondents also commented on the positive support and mentoring given by White females. Folashade had positive feelings about the relationship between her and her former and current managers. Folashade is an African American woman who I think is in her mid fifties; she did not wish to disclose her age. Folashade works for a major retail chain. Here she described the support received from her former boss:

My former boss, the lady who fought so hard to get me in the training department, is from a small town in Georgia, but she is about being fair. She is a role model to me. She is on the outside as soft as butter, but inside she is very steely and she gets things done. She has a way of getting things done that you don't see how heavy-handed she can be. She campaigned for at least a year to get me into that department and when I left my old company, she actually cried, because she said she had already started the paperwork for me to become a director of the training department. I wish she had informed me about her intention prior to being interviewed for the new position. I might have stayed. Another thing the job as director there was comparable to this job (Regional Training Manager), it just had a big title. She

was a fine lady and a good mentor.

I should just send her some flowers for the sake of it (LAUGH).

The data supports what other researchers have concluded. Researchers and practitioners agree that a proven way to break through barriers is by pairing minorities with mentors who are capable of sponsoring and advancing their careers (Cox, 1993; Morrison, 1992; Palmer & Watkins, 2000). Thus a formal mentoring program, authorized by the organization and endorsed by top-level management, can assist minorities in breaking through barriers, thereby advancing their careers.

Issues specific to the mentoring of African Americans include a lack of available African American mentors, and problems associated with cross-gender and cross-race mentoring relationships. Open discussions in the workplace regarding the benefits and opportunities to the mentor, protégé, and organization resulting from mentoring relationships should be encouraged. Organizations wishing to establish formal mentoring to facilitate the career development of African Americans and other minorities should provide the necessary training to appropriately educate both mentors and protégées regarding issues and problems unique to cross-gender and cross-race mentoring.

When used ethically, and morally, mentoring can be effective and beneficial to the mentor, protégé, and the organization in general. The mentor can facilitate the type of learning and insight that will reap substantial benefits, thus allowing the protégé to optimize his/her potentials.

Recommendations

The lack of formal mentoring emerged as a career-defying barrier. Participants complained about the lack of access to someone with organizational power, resources, and influence that could positively impact their career development. This was probably the single issue on which there was complete agreement by the respondents. The study revealed that all of the participants believed their careers could have been further advanced if they had received the appropriate guidance through an organizationally sponsored mentoring program. Mentoring is typically de-

defined as a relationship between an experienced and a less experienced person in which the mentor provides guidance, advice, support, and feedback to the protégé. Hence, the significance of mentoring in the career development process as outlined by Bierema (1996), Fagenson (1989), Kram (1985), and Thomas (2001), emerged as a factor that could have tremendous impact on the professional development of the participants if they had been exposed to formal mentoring in their respective organizations. Participants such as Sharon, Jeff, and Ms. Jackson, who appear to have achieved greater career advancement and successes than the other participants, have received informal mentoring from powerful White males throughout their careers. All three have declared mentoring was pivotal in their professional development.

A comprehensive career succession program would include mentoring as an integral part of the program. The participants concurred that race is a factor in their career development and that race plays a role in the mentoring relationships, particularly when the mentor is a White male or a white female. As articulated by Thomas (2001) and confirmed by the findings from this study, race is a factor in the mentoring process as African Americans and minorities are less likely to be chosen to be mentored by White males or White females. Thus, most of the participants were exposed to limited mentoring in their respective organizations. The mentoring was usually informal, and occurred through mutual cooperation between the participant and someone they had befriended, usually a manager. Despite the limitation, those participants who have advanced credited much of their successes to being mentored.

The participants attributed several reasons for limited access to mentoring, including: the non-existence of career succession programs that would have included career development and sensitivity training, a lack of understanding and communication between cultural lines, and perceived problems associated with cross-gender and cross-race mentoring, resulting from the lack of diversity training. While the literature highlighted several problems associated with cross-gender and cross-race men-

ting, those participants who benefited most from the mentoring process appeared not to be plagued by the problems documented in the literature regarding cross-gender and cross-race mentoring (Burke & Mckeen, 1990; 1984; Cox 1993; Dreher & Cox, 1996). The female respondents benefited more from the limited mentoring experience than their male counterparts. While White males did much of the mentoring, successfully mentoring relationships were developed between some to the African American females, White females, and Black males. This finding is consistent with the literature that purports that White males tend to be better mentors to African American females than they do African American males (Cox 1993; Morrison, 1992). There appears to be greater comfort in the mentoring process between African American females and White males than between African American males and White males.

References

- Bierema, L. (1996). How Executive Women Learn Corporate Culture, *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 7, 2, p 145-164.
- Bova, B. (2000). Mentoring Revisited: the Black woman's experience, *Journal of Mentoring and Tutoring*, 8(1), 5-16
- Bowers, A. G. (1984). *Mentors and Protégés in Male-Dominated Corporate Cultures: The Experience of Top-Level Women Executives* (Doctoral Dissertation, California School of Professional Psychology - Los Angeles, 1984). **Dissertation Abstract International**, 45, 3103B.
- Brooks, L., (1990). Recent development in theory building. In D. Brown and L. Brooks (Eds.), *Career Choice and Development* (p.364-394). (San Francisco, C. A.: Jossey-Bass).
- Burke, R. J., & Mckeen, C. A., (1990). Mentoring in organizations: Implications for women. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 9, P.317-332.
- Collins, N. W. (1983). *Professional Women and Their Mentors* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall).
- Cox, T., Jr. (1993). *Cultural Diversity in Organizations: Theory, Research and Practice* (San Francisco: Barrett-Koehler Publisher).
- Cox, T., Jr. & Blake, S. (1991). Managing cultural diversity: Implications for organizational competitiveness. *Academy of Management Executives*, 5, pp. 45-56.
- Day, B., (1974). *The Sexual Life Between Blacks and Whites* (New York, N. Y.: Appollon).
- Dreher, G. F., & Cox, T. H., Jr. (1996). Race, gender, and opportunity: A study of compensation attainment and the establishment of mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 3, p.297-308.
- Ginzberg, E., Ginsburg, S. W., Axelrad, S., & Herma, J. L., (1951). *Occupational Choice: An Approach to a General Theory* (New York, N.Y.: Columbia University Press).
- Grier, W., & Cobbs, P., (1968). *Black Rage* (New York, N. Y., Bantam).
- Hackett, G. & Byars, A. M., (1996). Social cognitive theory and the career development of African American women, *Career Development Quarterly*, 44,4,p.322-340.
- Johnson-Bailey, J. (1998). Diversity Issues in Women's Career Development. In L. Bierema (Ed.), *Women's Career Development Across the Lifespan: Insights and Strategies for Women, Organizations, and Adult Educators* (pp. 83-93). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Johnson-Bailey, J., & Cervero, R. M. (2002). Cross-cultural mentoring and learning in adulthood. In M. V. Alfred (Ed.), *Learning and Socio-Cultural Context: Implications for Adults, Community, and Workplace Education* (pp. 15-26). *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, No. 96. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Johnson-Bailey, J., & Cervero, M. (2004). Mentoring in Black and White: The intricacies of cross-cultural mentoring. *Journal of Mentoring and Tutoring*, 12(1), 7-21.
- Kram, K. E. (1985). *Mentoring at Work* (Glenville, I. L.: Scott, Foresman).
- Kovel, J. (1970). *White Racism: A Psychohistory* (New York, N. Y.: Vintage).
- Morrison, A. M. (1992). *The New Leaders: Guidelines on Leadership Diversity in America* (San Francisco, C. A.: Jossey-Bass).

- NOTES -

- Mullen, C. A. (2000). *Untenured faculty: Issues of transition, adjustment and mentorship*. *Mentoring & Tutoring*, 8(1), 31-46.
- Palmer, G. A., & Watkins, K., (2000). *Cultural diversity and the learning organization*. *Thresholds in Education* 26 (2), 33-39.
- Palmer, G. A. (2001). *The Career Development of African Americans in the Areas of Training and Organizational Development* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia, 2001). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, AAT 3025364.
- Palmer, G. A., & Johnson-Bailey, J. (2005) *The Career Development of African Americans in the areas of Training and Organizational Development*. *Human Resource Planning*, Vol. 28, Issue. 1; p. 11.
- Ragins, B.R. 1999, 'Gender and mentoring relationships', in *Handbook of Gender in Organizations*, ed. G.N. Powell, Oaks, Sage, CA, pp. 347-70.
- Scandura, T. A. (1992). *Mentorship and career mobility: An empirical investigation*. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13, p.169-174.
- Smith, E. J., (1983). *Issues in racial minorities' career behavior*. In W. B. Walsh & S. A. Osipow (Eds.), *Handbook of Vocational Behavior*. Hillsdale, N. J.: Laurence Erlbaum Associates.
- Stitt-Gohdes, W. L. (1997). *Career Development: Issues of Gender, Race, and Class* (ERIC document #RR93002001). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- Sue, D. W., & Sue, D., (1990). *Counseling the Culturally Different: Theory and Practice* (2nd ed. New York, Wiley).
- Thomas, D. A. (1989). *Mentoring irrationality: The role of racial taboos*. *Human Resource Management*, 28, 279-290.
- Thomas, D. A. (2001). *The truth about mentoring minorities: Race matters*. *Harvard Business Review*, 79, 99-107.

Volume 7, Number 1 2008

CONTENTS

Number 1

EDITORIAL

ARTICLES

The Relationship between Negative Career Thoughts and Emotional Intelligence

A. Dennis Dahl, R. Kirk Austin, Bruce D. Wagner, and Andrew Lukas

Under the Magnifying Glass: Perception of Contextual Factors Influencing the Career Decision Making Process for Indo-Canadian Young Women Entering Science

Priya S. Mani

Délibérations sur l'avenir de l'enseignement en développement de carrière au Canada

Rebecca Burwell and Sharon Kalbfleisch

Despite the Barriers Men Nurses are Satisfied with Career Choice

J. Creina Twomey and R. J. Meadus

The Tentacles of Bullying: The Impact of Negative Childhood Peer Relationships on Adult Professional and Educational Choices

Ginette D. Roberge

The Impact of Mentoring on the Careers of African Americans

Glenn A. Palmer and Juanita Johnson-Bailey