the Canadian Journal of Career Development

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

Volume 3, Number 1 2004

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

Robert Shea, Editor/Rédacteur en chef

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The journal is published with grant support from the Counselling Foundation of Canada. 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, Contact Point or the Counselling Foundation of Canada, officers, directors, or employees.

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Tous les articles acceptés pour publication doivent être présentés sur disquette. Pour de plus amples informations, veuillex communiquer avec le directeur des services de rédaction.

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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."*

ISSN 1499-1845 (Print)/ISSN 1499-1853 (Online)
Printed in Canada/Imprimé au Canada

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Editorial

It is with great pleasure that I provide Volume 3, Number 1 for your review. I hope that the articles contained herein will challenge your thinking and at the same time allow you to engage in a cursory glance of the interesting international career research from 6 different countries. Given the number of articles submitted to the Journal from around the world there is no shortage of interesting research. The international stage is well populated with cutting edge career research and we are happy to share it with you in this volume.

Within these covers we have provided articles from 6 countries. Cora L. Diaz, (Venezuela) in her articled entitled *Primo Tenori: Serendipity and Pseudo –Serendipity in Early Career Paths* has provided an interesting article of happenstance and the career path of opera singers. In Australia, Mary McMahon, Brigid Limerick and Jan Gillies add to the growing body of literature on mentoring and in this case the role of mentoring in fostering career exploration in the information technology sector for girls. Their article entitled *Mentoring as a Career Guidance Activity: Fostering Non-traditional Career Exploration for Girls* provides a foundation for further international work. Jonathan Roberti's article, *Can sensation seeking explain a vocational interest in forensic identification*, is included at a time when forensic identification careers are becoming a career option for many students given the prominence mainstream media has on students perceptions of interesting career paths. Yet another prominent discussion in Canada and other countries is how the ageing baby boomer cohort will challenge existing assumptions of how we engage in career work with our older workers. Mary Rogers and Norm O'Rourke (Canada) provide a foundation upon which further research can be conducted in this exciting field of career development in their article entitled *Health, Job Loss, and Programs for Older Workers in Canada*. Leonor Almeida and Helena Rebelo Pinto from Portugal in their article *Life Values Inventory (LVI): Portuguese Adaptation Studies* provide a review of how they have adapted the Life Values Inventory (LVI) for Portugal. Finally we have an article from Jussi Onnismaa from Finland. His article on *Ethics and professionalism in counselling* is timely in its treatment of the topic and a topic that we should all be consistently aware of as we work with our clients. Our book review this issue is the new text by internationally recognised best selling career author Barbara Moses entitled, *What Next?* Roberta A. Neault's synthesis of the contents will provide a glimpse inside the covers of the book and some items for discussion.

This issue also signals the announcement of our new International Award for creativity in career development programming. We believe that there is a great deal of cutting edge creativity in career development programs occurring at the grass roots level around the world. This award is not designed to recognize career work that is national in scope but rather grass roots programs that are having a significant impact on the clients they serve that we can celebrate and share with the international career community. For further information please look on page 3 for the official announcement and guidelines.

I sincerely hope that you find something inside the covers of this issue that will inspire your practice. This is our first international issue and one which I hope we can provide again in the very near future.

Rob

Robert Shea
Founding Editor

Mentoring as a Career Guidance Activity: Fostering Non-traditional Career Exploration for Girls

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Abstract

This paper reports on a short term mentoring project conducted in the Australian state of Queensland to foster non-traditional career exploration for girls in the communications/information technology industry. The aim of the study was to evaluate the possibilities of a short term mentoring program to foster girls' interest in a non-traditional industry. In addition it sought to examine the viability of mentoring as a career guidance activity in schools. The findings indicate that mentoring could be a worthy addition to the repertoire of career guidance activities offered by schools and that it is a valuable process in promoting non-traditional career exploration for girls.

Mentoring as a Career Guidance Activity: Fostering Non-Traditional Career Exploration for Girls

This paper reports on a short term mentoring program conducted for girls to foster their exploration into non-traditional careers specifically in the communications/information technology (IT) industry. The findings of the study are presented and discussed. A case is presented for the consideration of mentoring as a viable career guidance activity in schools.

The program reported here is part of a larger research project (McMahon, Limerick & Gillies, 2002) funded by the Queensland Department of Training, Employment and Industrial Relations (DETIR) as a result of a previous study, conducted in the Australian state of Queensland, which had identified a need for career guidance and mentoring activities in emerging industries such as the Communications/ Information Technology industry (Queensland Working Women's Service, 1999). The women who participated in that study stated a preference for processes such as mentoring relationships, facilitated networking with relevant groups, and the gathering of relevant industry information within supportive environments (Queensland Working Women's Service Inc., 1999). This information was taken into consideration in developing the present project.

Mentoring as a Career Guidance Activity

Mentoring has frequently been used in business and industry to enhance the career development of individuals. Indeed it has been described as one of the oldest forms of human development and has been used to promote self-development, career development and skills development (Lewis, 1996; Limerick, Heywood, & Daws, 1994; Theobald, Nancarrow & McCowan, 1999). Mentoring has been defined as "a developmental, caring, sharing, and helping relationship where one person invests time, know-how, and effort in enhancing another person's growth, knowledge, and skills … in ways that prepare the individual for greater achievement in the future" (Shea, 1994, p. 13). In essence, mentoring promotes learning and development as the mentor, usually a person experienced in a field or industry, acts as a "wise guide" (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Queensland University of Technology (QUT) Career Mentor Scheme, 2001) and shares his/her experience and knowledge with a less experienced mentee who thus engages in a process of self-learning, world of work learning, and career decision making. "Effective mentoring

- is a relationship that focuses on the needs of the mentee
- fosters caring and supportive relationships
- encourages all mentees to develop to their fullest potential and
- is a strategy to develop active community partnerships" (Tobin, 2000a, p. 1).

As Limerick et al. (1994) argue it is the reciprocity in a mentoring relationship which makes it successful. Effective mentoring then is essentially a two-way process with expectations on both the mentor and mentee to contribute and meet their responsibilities to each other and to the mentoring program. For example, mentors could reasonably be expected to act as a source

of information and/or insight to the occupational field, assist with goal setting and planning, encourage professional behaviour, listen with an open mind, challenge and encourage exploration of ideas, facilitate self-directed learning, and build confidence (Limerick & Mellish, 2001; Theobald et al., 1999). Responsibilities for mentees include making time to contact the mentor, being willing to disclose goals and ideas, communicating expectations needs and feelings, and embracing learning and exploration with commitment and enthusiasm (Simonsen, 1997).

Findings from previous mentoring programs suggest that both mentors and mentees perceive benefits from their mentoring experience (Maresca, 1999; QUT Career Mentor Scheme, 2000). For example, in a program conducted for students from a university setting mentees benefited from their contact with a positive role model, by developing networking skills, gaining confidence, and learning about workplace culture (QUT Career Mentor Scheme, 2000). Mentors benefited through enhanced self-esteem, contributing to an educational program, and feeling their experience was valued. As evidenced by these findings, mentoring is essentially a "learning partnership" (Theobald et al., 1999; Limerick & Mellish, 2001) that is facilitative of the career development of mentees (Daws, 1995).

The benefits of mentoring as outlined here are consistent with the advantages of career guidance as proposed by McCowan and McKenzie (1997, p. 13). They contend that the potential advantages of career guidance to students include:

- enhanced self-understanding;
- enhanced understanding of the work environment in which they live;
- assistance in identifying pathways to future education and training;
- assistance in feeling better equipped to have control over their futures; and
- enhanced ability to retrieve and evaluate appropriate and relevant career and course information in a deliberate manner.

There is a great deal of evidence that argues for the benefits of mentoring among adults. Hansford, Tennant and Ehrich (2000) for example, reviewed 159 articles written since 1986 relating to educational mentoring but made no mention of mentoring as a career enhancing process for school students. It would seem that in Australia there is a lack of resources and perhaps relative inexperience in utilising mentoring as a career guidance activity for school students (Tobin, 2000b).

This project therefore aimed to evaluate the benefits of mentoring against the advantages of career guidance as outlined by McCowan and McKenzie (1997) and also to evaluate the potential usefulness of mentoring as a career enhancing activity in relation to non-traditional work.

Why Girls and Information Technology?

As outlined earlier this project targeted girls and the Communications/IT industry. Concerns have consistently been expressed in Australia over the low proportion of female students in IT higher education courses. Newmarch, Taylor-Steele and Cumpston (2000) point out that the figure has remained at 19% nationally over a five-year period. These authors cite research commissioned by the Department of Education and Training and Youth Affairs (DETYA) that highlighted the following key issues:

- the numbers of girls studying computing in school and using the internet and email are increasing, yet this interest is not translating into post-secondary IT courses or careers in significant numbers
- sex-role stereotyping and culture are major barriers for women in Australia – not all countries experience the same under-representation
- the image of the industry – seen by girls as 'blokey'and 'nerdy'– is a major problem and is 'putting girls off'
- the impact of how IT subjects are taught in schools is a major barrier – many students find IT 'boring'
- lack of information and understanding of what a career in IT means and poor teacher knowledge of the industry impact on students'choices.

In Queensland, the number of females taking up computer studies in year 12 (the final year of secondary schooling) has doubled between 1992 and 1997 but there are still twice as many males as females in computer studies classes (Office of Women's Policy, 1999, p. 23). Gilbert (2001) argues that computer studies is becoming marked as a boys'subject in schools. Similar findings have been reported in the United States where it has been claimed that computer science is becoming "the new boys'club" and that women are in danger of becoming "bystanders in the technological 21st century" (American Association of University Women Educational Foundation, 2000a, p. 4). A contributing factor to this situation is a lack of female role models portrayed in the classroom, media and the home (Anderson, 2000). It has been suggested that school programs should be developed to foster non-traditional career exploration (American Association of University Women Educational Foundation, 2000a, b). Mentoring has also been suggested as a mechanism for encouraging girls to see themselves as capable of careers in information technology (American Association of University Women Educational Foundation, 2000c). There is some evidence that mentoring, at least at the higher education level, has been successful in assisting female students succeed in information technology courses (Anderson, 2000).

With this as background information and the concern expressed locally at the low numbers of girls training and moving into the Communications/IT industry this research project was undertaken trialing mentoring as a possible process to be used in schools to increase career interest of girls in the Communications/IT industry. The program was conducted over a period of six weeks with girls from a large metropolitan secondary school. The aim of the study was to evaluate the possibilities of a short term mentoring program to foster girls' interest in a non-traditional industry. In addition it sought to examine the viability of mentoring as a career guidance activity in schools against the advantages of career guidance outlined by McCowan and McKenzie (1997).

An Overview of the Study

As this mentoring project was set up for a defined and relatively short period of time, that is six weeks, the concept of mentoring that underpinned the project was that of "contract mentoring." Monaghan (1992, p. 253) defines "contract mentoring" as emphasising the "short term, specific nature of the mentor's functions". The project was conducted in three phases. During the first phase resource materials were developed, potential mentors and student participants were identified, parent and student permissions sought, and the pre-test administered. The second phase consisted of the mentoring program itself that began with a brunch where mentors and mentees were introduced. During this six week phase, mentees were required to make contact with their mentors at least three times. The third and final phase comprised a debriefing workshop for student participants and a presentation ceremony to all mentors and mentees. A workbook with specific information to be gathered was developed for mentees and their mentors. In terms of the outcomes there was an understanding that the mentors were engaged in an altruistic activity and were not expected to gain personally from the activity. We return to this point in the results section.

Participants

The participants were ten girls from a large metropolitan secondary school, the teacher involved in the project, the mentors who were all working in the IT industry and the three researchers.

The girls' ages ranged from 13 - 15 years of age. This age group was targeted as it meant that they would be involved in this mentoring experience before they made important subject choices for their senior schooling years. All of the girls were volunteers who expressed interest in participating in the project after it was explained to their classes by the teacher. From the pre-test questionnaire that the girls completed the following information was garnered. Generally the girls who volunteered to be involved in the project did have some background in computing as it was listed as a favourite subject by eight of the girls. Computer studies were also listed by six of the girls as their best subject. All except two of the girls were taking an advanced level of mathematics. Other subjects listed as favourites were Japanese and mathematics with subjects nominated as best subjects including geography, Japanese, mathematics, and English. They also understood the IT industry to be a possible place of employment. Six of the girls indicated that both of their parents were in paid employment. Only one of the parents had a job related to information technology as a computer and photocopier technician. Five of the other parents were employed in professions including teaching, medicine and nursing, and one was a manager. Three were employed in trades including electrician and chef. Other parents had a range of jobs including secretary, sales representative, cleaner, factory worker, and truck driver. Five parents were not in paid employment.

The researchers contacted a support group for women working in the information technology industry and female academics in the area at a local university to identify and develop a list of prospective mentors. From this initial list, prospective mentors were then contacted individually and invited to participate. The nature of the project, particularly the time commitment, and their potential role was clearly outlined to them. The support from these women already working in the industry was outstanding and there was no shortage of possible mentors. Mentoring is at its best voluntary; you have to want to be a mentor (Limerick & Mellish, 2001), and these mentors certainly filled this criterion. The mentors came from a variety of organisations including government departments, private businesses, large organisations, and universities and were involved in a wide range of jobs in the IT industry. Each girl was allocated one of these women as a mentor.

Procedure

The project was set up as a six-week short term mentoring program. The program (McMahon, Limerick & Gillies, 2003) was designed in accordance with the "quality checklist for mentoring programs" (Mentoring Australia, 2000). A contact teacher was recruited who was willing to support the girls throughout the program in addition to the women working in the IT industry who would act as mentors. Information on the program was provided to the girls and their parents and parental permission was sought prior to the study. Also prior to the conduct of the program, the pre-test questionnaire was administered by the contact teacher.

The program began with a brunch, held at a local university, where the program aims and objectives were overviewed by the researchers, and the girls and mentors were introduced to each other. As the time line was tight, each of the girls was provided with a structured workbook to be completed during the program. Once the girls and mentors had introduced themselves to each other, they planned how and when they would meet over the six week period of the mentoring program. They were required by the researchers to communicate at least three times, either in person, by telephone or by email and document these communications in their workbooks. During the program, the contact teacher monitored the girls' progress, and the researchers followed up with the mentors and the teacher to ensure that the program was running smoothly.

At the conclusion of the program, all of the girls participated in a debriefing workshop facilitated by the researchers and completed the post-test questionnaire. The mentors and teacher also completed a qualitative evaluation of the program, that is, they wrote a brief report on their views on the success or otherwise of the program and included any suggestions for improvement. It is the findings of the pre- and post-test questionnaires and the structured workbooks from the students that are reported on here. Comments from the mentors and the teacher are also reported.

Instrumentation

Data were collected from the girls through the pre-test and post-test questionnaires and the structured diary designed by the researchers to ascertain the effectiveness of the program. The questionnaire contained 17 items, 12 of which required open-ended responses

that sought demographic information and information on the participant's self-awareness, knowledge of careers in the industry, knowledge of pathways into the industry, advantages and disadvantages for women in the industry, and what they hoped to learn from participating in the project. Five of the items required the girls to tick their response on a four point Likert type scale using terminology that it was felt that the girls would be comfortable with, specifically "none", "a bit", "a lot", and "unsure". These items sought information on the participants'interest in careers in the industry, knowledge about careers in the industry, current interest and enjoyment in computing, interest in taking computing subjects during their senior schooling, and knowledge about senior school computing subjects.

The structured diary was designed in accordance with the goals of the program and guided the girls through a series of questions to gather information on the mentor 's role and career development pathway, engage in a process of self-reflection, and develop a personal action plan. It was suggested to the girls that they speak to their mentors about the education and training pathways that the mentors had used to enter the information technology industry, the qualities needed to be successful in the industry, and the issues related to working in a non-traditional field. In addition, the girls were required to reflect on their own personal qualities that might enhance their success in the industry and identify school subjects, university courses and other training pathways that could lead to jobs in the industry that appealed to them. The diary was used then by the girls to document their interactions with their mentors and included any other relevant material that they had researched and collected.

Results

The results are presented here in three parts. First, a summary of the findings from the questionnaires is given under four headings based on the advantages of career guidance (McCowan & McKenzie, 1997) specifically, understanding of the work environment, ability to identify pathways to further education and training, enhanced self-understanding, and feeling better equipped to have control over their futures. Second, two case studies illustrative of learnings derived from the project by the participants are included. The case studies were compiled using information from the participants'workbooks and their pre- and post-involvement questionnaires. Finally, a summary of the findings from the mentors and teacher evaluation reports will be presented.

Summary of Findings

Descriptive statistics, in particular frequency counts, were used to analyse the data from the questionnaires. In general the participants'interest in the communications/IT industry came as a result of their interest in and enjoyment of computing studies at school, rather than an extensive knowledge of the industry or their perceived suitability for the industry. In particular, all 10 girls indicated that they had "a lot of" interest in the industry while at the same time nine of the 10 indicated that they had "a little" or "no knowledge" about it. Most of the girls were using the mentoring program to find out more about the industry. This was reflected in comments written by the girls such as: "to know what kind of jobs there are for girls once they finish school", "insight on what it would be like to have an occupation in the computer and technology industry", "what it is like to work there", and "to learn more about the IT industry, the jobs that are available". Some were using the mentoring program to assist them with their career decision making as reflected in comments such as: "to decide whether I want to do IT or not", "an idea of what I would like to do in the future" and "what I will have to do to get a job in the IT industry". Only one girl indicated that she was unsure about what she wanted to get out of the project.

Understanding of the work environment.

Prior to participating in the program, the girls had a very limited understanding as to the range of work available in the communications/IT industry. Eight of the 10 girls indicated that they did not know or that they were unsure of the sorts of jobs available, one suggested computer programmer, and another tentatively wrote, "creating programs?" However by the end of the project the girls could name a wide range of specific jobs or types of work in the industry including multimedia, graphic designing, programming, and designing and creating web pages.

Ability to identify pathways to further education and training.

Prior to the program, all of the girls indicated that they wanted to find out more about what year 11/12 subjects might help them in relation to the industry and what education and training might be needed after Year 12, the final year of secondary school in Queensland, if they were to pursue a career in the IT industry. At the conclusion of the program all of the girls were able to name specific subjects that they could take that would be helpful to them if they pursued careers in the industry. In addition, most were aware that further study at universities or colleges of technical and further education would be needed after Year 12 in order to get work in the industry and they had personally researched these courses and included the information in their diaries.

Enhanced self-understanding.

Prior to participating in the mentoring program, four of the girls were unsure of any special talents or qualities they had that would assist them in having a successful career in the industry. Three indicated that to "like working with computers" would make them successful. Another two indicated that "pretty good marks" and "enjoying maths and designing" would make them successful. One girl thought "communicating well" would make her successful. At the conclusion of the project all of the girls were able to list special talents or qualities that would make them successful in the industry. In addition, they listed a greater range of talents than they had in the pre-test and many of the girls listed more than one talent or quality. Communication skills were listed by four girls, confidence and reliability by three girls and creativity by two girls. Other talents and qualities listed included pride,

being able to work in a team, a sense of humour, being responsible, being hard-working and being motivated.

Feeling better equipped to have control over their futures.

All of the girls indicated that they benefited from the program. In general, they were pleased that they had participated and had learned more about the industry. As a result of their involvement in the program, most girls confirmed their interest in pursuing a career in the communications/IT industry. However, two of the girls were unsure about pursuing a career in the industry as a result of their involvement in the program. One summed up her experience of the program by explaining that: "this project has been very beneficial for me and has allowed me to be sure of what directions I would like to head in".

Case Studies

The following case studies are presented as illustrative of the girls'experience in the mentoring program. The first focuses on discovering new areas in IT while the second case addresses the concern of how few women there are in IT. Further the case studies reflect the advantages of career guidance proposed by McCowan and McKenzie (1997) specifically, assistance in identifying pathways to further education and training, and enhanced ability to retrieve and evaluate appropriate and relevant career and course information in a deliberate manner.

"I never knew there were so many jobs and people".

One of the participants identified computer studies as her favourite subject at school because it is all "hands on" and "I can be creative". At the beginning of the project, she was interested in following a career in the Communications/IT industry and believed that she had a lot of knowledge about careers in the industry. However, she was unsure about the qualities and talents she possessed that would make her successful in the industry and wanted to learn more about the type of jobs available in the IT industry and the work conditions. She also wanted to know more about Year 11 and 12 subjects that might help her and about the study options after Year 12.
At the completion of the project, she listed a range of jobs she had found out about, such as computer engineer, systems manager, electronics service person, graphic designer and programmer. In addition, she expressed interest in the very specialised fields of robotics and animatronics and had found out about a job she had not previously heard of, that of IT picturers. She was also aware of websites that she could use to find out additional information on these jobs. After discussion with her mentor, she had identified that her creativity and communication skills were qualities that could help her become successful in the area of animatronics. During the project she researched year 11 and 12 subjects that would be beneficial if she wanted to move into the industry. In addition, she documented university, technical and further education courses and on the job training opportunities that were available.

"There aren't many women in the industry".

This statement was recorded as the most worrying learning of one of the participants. However after discussions with her mentor she decided that this was not a barrier to her planning a career in the IT industry. At the beginning of the project she had "a little" interest in following a career in the Communications/IT industry and no knowledge about careers in the industry. In addition, she was unaware of the qualities and talents she possessed that would make her successful in the industry. She wanted to learn more about the type of jobs available in the IT industry, the work conditions, and advantages and disadvantages for women in the industry.

By the end of the project, she had written a paragraph about each of nine jobs in the IT industry including multimedia developer, programmer, broadcasting technician, systems designer, and computer systems auditor. In addition, she was able to distinguish between those in which she was very interested, somewhat interested or not at all interested. She had also collected a list of web sites that could give her information on the IT industry, and had downloaded information on jobs, Internet sites for job seekers, graduate recruitment, ANTA (Australian National Training Authority), and the industry.

In addition to information on the industry, she was much more aware of the qualities and talents that would enable her to be successful in the industry. She was aware of the need for creativity, good communication skills, and innovation, and decided she would like to develop the ability to adapt quickly to changing environments. While she found it worrying that there *"aren't many women in the industry*", she felt encouraged that her mentor's company had a policy of employing women and people of non-English speaking backgrounds.

Summary of Mentors and Teacher Evaluation Reports

Overall the reports from the teacher involved and the mentors were positive and suggested that further mentoring projects should be conducted. All the mentors offered to be involved in another such program. However in some form or other most of them mentioned the three issues discussed below, that is, the issue of reciprocity, the issue of time constraints and the issue of structure.

Issue of reciprocity.

While it was clear that there had been considerable gains for the mentees in terms of self-awareness and knowledge of the industry, it was of interest that the mentors also stated that they had gained from the project in terms of networking and communication "between school and industry" and "between potential employees and employers". The mentors valued the opportunity to work with the girls to help them learn about "the real situation" of the industry and to assist them to "get ahead in a male dominated area". They felt that their interactions with the girls gave them a better understanding of the young people coming into the industry and insight into work with computers occurring at the school level, all information which helped them in their own work. All of the mentors offered to be involved in future

such projects and a further unexpected outcome of this project is that the local university is now involved with the school in an on-going research project linked to IT in the school.

Issue of time.

Opinions related to time were expressed in relation to both the timing of the project in the school year and the duration of the project. The project was carried out in the third of four school terms and some mentors felt that it would have been easier for the girls to be involved earlier in the year prior to the pressure of other end of year school activities. Others felt that six weeks was not long enough for mentor and mentee to develop an easy relationship although no mentor stated that their mentee had not got enough information.

Issue of structure.

Due to the short time span of this project the relationship was very formally structured through the workbook, the requirement to meet at least three times with a specific focus for each meeting and the back up of the teacher discussing the information and encouraging the students to document their discussions. The highly structured mentoring process of the project, particularly through the workbooks, was commented on as a positive aspect of this project. It ensured that the mentees garnered the information that they needed from their mentors.

Discussion

As evidenced by the findings, the mentoring program was a valuable learning experience for all of the participants. As Limerick & Mellish (2001) found in their work, at its best mentoring is reciprocal. However due to the specific nature of this project, the age difference and the difference in expertise the researchers did not expect any benefit to accrue to the mentors. This mentoring experience was then a "learning partnership" where both mentors and mentees benefited (Theobald et al., 1999; Limerick & Mellish, 2000).

The issue of formal and informal mentoring relationships and the amount of structure that it is necessary to impose has also long been debated in the mentoring literature (Limerick et al., 1994). With too little structure initial enthusiasm wanes and with too much structure the relationship is contrived and stifled, but in this case the program was a deliberately structured, planned and strategic program with specific objectives in mind to ensure no time was wasted.

Time constraints are always problematic in all mentoring relationships (Limerick et al., 1994) which was why the researchers decided to adopt a "contract" mentoring approach. Despite our careful attention to this factor time still was an issue for both mentors and mentees. However we would argue that our "contract" mentoring approach was successful in that none of the mentors complained about their time being wasted or that the project took up too much of their time. These are the common complaints in mentoring programs. Although some of the mentors felt that the project should have been longer we would argue that it was the short focussed nature of the project that made it successful.

Having a teacher involved to ensure the students stay focussed we would argue is a key ingredient to the success of such a project. For example, the teacher involved in this project monitored the girl's progress in the project, addressed their concerns, and allocated time in their computing lessons for them to complete the workbooks.

The findings strongly suggest that mentoring is an effective career guidance activity to promote girls'interest in a non-traditional industry. The mentees gained a better understanding of themselves in relation to possible career options in the communications/ IT industry, they gained a realistic understanding of the work environment of a number of different careers in communicationsIT and shared these with each other during the final session.

Gaining first hand knowledge about the industry, taking some control of their career paths and working one to one with an experienced mentor were beneficial experiences for the girls. In addition to finding out more about the industry, the girls were also able to make greater links between their own personal talents and qualities that would make them successful in the industry. The benefits experienced by the girls in the program were similar to those experienced by tertiary students as reported in the QUT Career Mentor Scheme (2000). Participation in the mentoring project facilitated the girls' career decision making in an industry where women traditionally are not well represented. While not all of the girls in the project remained committed to pursuing a career in the communications/ IT industry, their decision making was more informed, and perhaps more importantly they were willing to share the information they had gained with other girls.

These findings suggest that mentoring can offer participants advantages similar to those of career guidance as outlined by McCowan & McKenzie (1997). Specifically the participants gained greater self-understanding and understanding of their own talents and qualities in relation to the industry. Further, they developed greater understanding of the industry and most were more certain of the educational pathways they needed to follow to get into the industry. In addition, as evidenced in the case studies they had been resourceful in accessing information about the industry. The knowledge that the girls gained about the communications/IT industry assisted them in feeling better equipped to have control over their futures and enabled them to retrieve and evaluate appropriate and relevant career and course information in a deliberate manner.

Limitations of the present study include the small number of participants, its short-term nature, and its focus on a specific non-traditional industry. Future studies could examine the effectiveness of mentoring programs for school students conducted over a longer period of time and in a greater range of industries. In addition future studies could include greater numbers of participants and different age ranges.

Conclusion

As a career guidance activity, the short term mentoring program was particularly successful in promoting girls' interest in a non-traditional career. It is hoped that the findings of this study

will stimulate interest in the use of mentoring as a career guidance activity in schools. Clearly mentoring has the potential to assist students make informed decisions related to their career. Further, it is hoped that this study will stimulate interest in mentoring as a mechanism for promoting career exploration by students in non-traditional industries. On the basis of this study, the indications are that mentoring programs would be a worthy addition to the repertoire of career guidance activities already available to secondary school students.

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Primo Tenori: Serendipity and Pseudo-Serendipity in Early Career Paths

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Abstract

International opera singers aim for the highest levels of career success possible. How did chance events impact their careers? To date, careers in opera have remained overlooked in the empirical career and counseling literature. The present article sheds light on careers of great tenors in opera history who were ready to take advantage of chance phenomena that facilitated advancement at initial stages of career development. The career counseling theory of planned happenstance (Mitchell, Levin & Krumboltz, 1999) is underscored as an appropriate vista for exploring chance events. Historic data suggest careers in opera merit researchers'belated attention and the inclusion of the chance variable as a facilitator of success. Implications for research are noted.

Keywords: Performing artists, opera singers, career management, chance, planned happenstance.

Introduction

Luciano Pavarotti, Plácido Domingo, and José Carreras, the world famous "Three Tenors," premièred an outdoor benefit concert in Rome, on the occasion of the 1990 Soccer World Cup, telecasted to a global audience. For some individuals, this creative marketing idea provided an unforeseen, first time cultural exposure to renown arias and popular songs interpreted by extraordinary contemporary opera singers. This magnum performance was followed by a series of world concerts—Monte Carlo and Los Angeles, CA, in 1994; Tokyo, London, Vienna, New York, Sweden, Germany, and Vancouver, Canada, in 1996; Toronto, Canada, and Australia, Miami, Italy and Spain, in 1997; Paris, in 1998: Japan, South Africa, and two concerts in the US, in 1999; Brazil and four concerts in different cities of the US, in 2000; China and South Korea, in 2001; and Japan and the US in 2002 (see threetenors.com). Due to their world exposure, and availability of recordings and films, Pavarotti, Domingo, and Carreras today are household names for many people.

Did chance play a role for gaining prominence at an early career stage, and if so, how? In 1963, for a performance of *La Bohème* at the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden, London, the relatively unknown Italian tenor Luciano Pavarotti was requested to sing at some rehearsals before the arrival of the famous Italian tenor Giuseppe Di Stefano who had the lead role of Rodolfo. Di Stefano, however, cancelled due to vocal problems and young Pavarotti, accidentally, successfully substituted—both for the opera and for the television program, "Sunday Night at the Palladium," viewed by a British audience of 15 million. *Decca* offered the newcomer his first recording contract with which he began an important aspect of his career. Also, conductor Richard Bonynge requested he sing with his wife, soprano Joan Sutherland, which led to many successful joint performances in Australia as well as recordings (Pavarotti, n.d.). Pavarotti was at the right place, at the right time. The additional events were serendipitous spin-offs of his successful performance, which marked the beginning of his international exposure. Pavarotti had made his successful stage début just two years earlier, in 1961, in the same role (*La Bohème*), at the Teatro Municipale of Reggio Emilia. His Metropolitan Opera, New York, début was performed in 1968, again as Rodolfo, and by early 1970, he was a leading world tenor (Thompson, 1976). This type of historic, verifiable chance event in the performing arts, witnessed by audiences, has favored many singers worldwide in all voice categories, providing a career leap, if successful; in such cases, the role of mass media cannot be overlooked or underestimated as a contributing socio-cultural variable.

The Metropolitan Opera, New York, is the major opera stage in North America and one of the major four opera houses of the world, together with La Scala, Milan, the Royal Opera House at Covent Garden, London, and the Wiener Staatsoper. Opera history shows that generations of singers have aspired to triumph on this prestigious stage, a grand dream also shared by contemporary international newcomers and voice students.

Currently, opera circles are aware that Italian spinto tenor Salvatore Licitra made his début at the Metropolitan Opera, New York, on 11 May 2002, also accidentally. Pavarotti, the now aging superstar on the verge of retiring from the opera stage, announced at the last hour that he could not sing at the final night Gala Performance, for which some had paid up to $1,875 per non-refundable ticket. To possibly replace him as Mario Cavaradossi in Puccini's *Tosca*, Licitra was flown in from Italy with little advance notice. Licitra's stellar début at the Metropolitan Opera, with a sold-out house of 4,000 and the additional 3,000 fans who witnessed the video cast at Lincoln Center plaza, made a global media-splash. Overnight, opera lovers wanted to hear the newly discovered tenor who had already made his La Scala début in 1998, in Verdi's *La Forza del Destino*. Recording sales soon soared as an exclusive artist of Sony Classical (Anthonisen, 2002a; also see Blum, 2002; Sony Classical, 2002: Williams, 2002).

Paradoxically, there is a void in empirical studies on the role of chance

in careers of prominent opera singers in the vocational, career and counseling literature. Bandura's (1982, 1998) repeated call for psychological research on fortuitous events in human endeavors has been heard by too few. Empirical studies on chance or serendipity in careers are counted (Betsworth & Hansen, 1996; Cabral & Salomone, 1990; Hart, Rayner, & Christensen, 1971; Miller, 1983; Scott & Hatala, 1990; Williams et al., 1998; for a review, see Mitchell, Levin, & Krumboltz, 1999). Of this literature, only one addresses highly achieving people.

Williams, Soeprapto, Like, Touradji, Hess, and Hill (1998) conducted a seminal qualitative study that took into account serendipity perceptions of prominent adult professional women in the US, focusing on the context of chance events and their readiness to use chance opportunities in career decisions. Results indicated that all 13 prominent academic women in counseling psychology who participated in the study had profited from serendipity at different career stages—serendipity defined as events unplanned by the participants. While the requirements for a career in counseling psychology evidently are quite different than for a career in opera, the personal "readiness" variable is applicable to all careers of both genders. Internal readiness factors include self-confidence and optimism, flexibility, risk-taking attitudes and skills, high motivation and willingness to work hard, and persistence, among others. External readiness factors include external support systems as well as social and cultural factors (Williams et al, 1998; see Díaz de Chumaceiro, 1999a). For Krumboltz (1998), "Serendipity is ubiquitous" (¶ 6). He considers this study "a valuable wakeup-call that our theories of career development need revision and that unplanned events need to assume a major role in our thinking about the best ways to help people with their career concerns" (¶ 11).

Regarding readiness, rarer cases of chance substitutions can occur during an opera performance, between acts, due to a singer's sudden loss of voice or the emergence of other illnesses. For instance, American tenor Frederick Jagel, a member of the Metropolitan Opera since his 1927 début as Radamès (*Aida*), creatively rescued an emergency situation a few years later. A day of glory unexpectedly surfaced when a Saturday matinee of Verdi's *Aida* at the Metropolitan Opera was being broadcasted in 1938, and the leading dramatic Italian tenor Giovanni Martinelli suddenly became indisposed (food poisoning) while singing the aria, "Celeste Aida." Jagel, who happened to be listening to the broadcast at home, immediately hailed a taxi to run to the Metropolitan. In less than twenty minutes later, he replaced Martinelli on stage as Radamès (Davis, 1997). The serendipitous rescuing was possible for Jagel due to his listening to the broadcast, and living near enough to get to the Met on time for the next act. All human beings can become indisposed at one time or another, yet psychological factors are known to affect the voice and singers cancel for different reasons (see Sandgren, 2002).

Relevance of the Field

In North America, there are innumerable talented students currently training for a career in opera, in universities or privately. The number of major and minor opera houses of the world is limited as is the number of performances per season. As the pool of international performing artists aspiring to be contracted is greater than the openings available, it is a very competitive job market at the top, and prominent singers are engaged several years in advance. In the absence of empirical data, vocational and career counselors are intuitively groping in the dark, unless they happen to have a background in this field. Thus, a verifiable source of illumination for career counselors and young singers struggling to enter the field as well as for the design and planning of needed research studies are chance events in opera history. Although chance in this field is a variable that can make a difference, aspiring singers cannot just hope that someone is going to default and provide them with an opening, and magically, they are going to be there at the right place and at the right time, due to the right contacts. A GPS-like road map is needed as many other chance options can emerge in different contexts.

The advent of planned happenstance theory (Mitchell, Levin, & Krumboltz, 1999) is timely, providing a novel context for exploring chance phenomena in all fields, including the variables of career success and job satisfaction (e.g., Neault, 2002). This practical and easy-to-apply theory is viewed as having amended career counseling's learning theory (Krumboltz, 1996), which already had expanded social learning theory of career decisions (Krumboltz, 1979). In short, the conceptual framework of planned happenstance has extended career counseling to include the recognition, creation, and transformation of unplanned events into learning opportunities. Mitchell, Levin and Krumboltz urge clients to develop five basic skills for these objectives: Curiosity, persistence, flexibility, optimism, and risk taking.

Memorable opera singers demonstrate having these skills as well as others; undoubtedly, without these basic personal tools and an exceptional vocal instrument they never would have achieved such high levels of recognition. Overlooked career histories of world-class opera singers contain varied examples of chance events showing how these creative performing artists intuitively, and by trial-and-error, took advantage of unexpected options, or helped create them with positive action to advance their goals, particularly at early career stages when it is most difficult to gain recognition in this highly competitive field. Performing artists dream of having such lucky breaks, and teachers remind them that they are necessary. Different types of chance events have favored many prepared, talented performing artists at different stages of career development confirming Pasteur's famous remark, "Chance only favors prepared minds" (Díaz de Chumaceiro, 2003, in press). Ambitious individuals in many careers share such wishes for luck, prospectively and retrospectively.

Serendipity (Walpole, 1754) is currently defined as the accidental discovery of the unsought for, and is often applied in the medical and scientific literature (Díaz de Chumaceiro, 1999b). In the performing arts, however, it is the artist who is discovered by audi-

ences and critics, acclaimed as a new star in the media. *Pseudo-serendipity*, coined by Roberts (1989) to differentiate this phenomenon from true serendipity, is the accidental finding of the sought for. On observing the rare use of this term in the literature, the term "serendipity analogues" was suggested as an alternative for those who object to the "pseudo" pre-fix to characterize their important discoveries (Díaz de Chumaceiro & Yáber, 1995). Later, however, it came to light that Walpole in 1754 had observed discoveries that were sought for and accidentally found, which were "almost" like serendipity, but not exactly, and this variant had been termed *sortes Walpolianae* by his friend Horace Mann (Díaz de Chumaceiro, 1999c). Due to its lack of diffusion, the phenomenon of pseudo-serendipity often remains confounded with true serendipity. The meaning of the term "planned happenstance" is identical to "planned serendipity" (see Mirvis, 1998; Snyder, 1990). By definition, both terms denote pseudo-serendipitous events—not serendipitous ones.

Role Models

Most fields have legendary role models. Enrico Caruso is recognized as the greatest of late 19th—early 20th century tenors, and remains a role model for many. Highlights of a few chance events in his career are a case in point. Born in Naples in 1873, Caruso was the third of seven siblings of a poor but not destitute family; his first musical instruction was received at the church where he sang in the choir until his voice changed, and then he made a living as a serenader for hire. By chance, Caruso, influenced by a minor singer, decided to seek formal voice lessons. His career path started to materialize with the help of several teachers and agents (White, 1990). For instance, recruited into the army for three years, his voice rescued him. When his reputation spread throughout the camp, the impressed major introduced him to a local nobleman, an opera lover who taught singing. Through his efforts, Caruso had found a new teacher and was discharged from the army.

Guglielmo Vergine was the main teacher who prepared Caruso to sing in *L´Amico Francesco* (Morelli) for his début at the Teatro Nuovo, Naples, on 16 November 1894. Not always successful, nevertheless, he continuously sang and studied with conductor Vicenzo Lombardi (Celletti, 1980/1995). His career path changed in the summer of 1897. When composer Giacomo Puccini heard Caruso for the first time in his audition for the staging of *La Bohème* in Livorno, astounded, he asked the now celebrated question: "Who sent you to me? God himself?" (Vernon, 1994, p. 2). A break for Caruso, no doubt. A second one unexpectedly occurred when for the première of *Fedora* in Milan, in 1898, Caruso received a call for a serendipitous substitution in the creation of the tenor role. In composer Giordano's view, "Fedora had been consecrated with the new star. . . Caruso's voice conquered everyone's hearts" (Vernon, 1994, p. 2). Caruso also had the distinction of creating the tenor roles for Cilèa's operas *L'Arlesiana* (in Teatro Lirico, Milan, 1897) and *Adriana Lecouvreur* (in Teatro Lirico, Milan, 1902); and for Franchetti's *Germania* in 1902. The creation of new opera roles is a less frequently occurring serendipitous event. Also in 1902, Caruso's fame became international with his great success at Monte Carlo in *La Bohème*, with Australian soprano Nellie Melba; he also performed that year at Covent Garden, London, with Melba and French baritone Maurice Renaud in *Rigoletto* (Thompson, 1975). Notably, however, in 1901, when Caruso received a controversial reaction to his performance of *L'Elisir d'Amore* at Teatro San Carlos, Naples, after having triumphed with it at La Scala, Milan, he firmly decided to never perform again in his home town, and so it was (Celletti, 1980/1995).

On 11 April 1902, a transcendental serendipitous event occurred for Caruso when unexpectedly, a lucrative recording contract for 10 arias (at £10 each) was presented to him by the Gramophone and Typewriter Company, an affiliate of the Victor Talking Machine Company. Fred Gaisberg, recording engineer, heard Caruso perform in Milan and then creatively attempted to convince the company and Caruso to agree to the recordings. Although Gaisberg's boss in London considered the fee too high, against their specific instructions he closed the deal (Vernon, 1994). Until then, no significant entertainer had agreed to such a risky venture. The outcome? The first exclusive contract with a celebrity had been created by The Victor Talking Machine Company. The public purchased both the records and machines to play them (*Johnson Victrola Museum*, 2002). Thus, by the time Caruso made his début in New York, he was equally known in America as in Europe. Caruso was the first tenor to record for posterity (Thompson, 1975). He dared to take a risk which paid off handsomely in making him famous and rich. At the time of his early death, recording royalties surpassed two million dollars. The Gramophone Company gained £15,000 from that first deal (Vernon, 1994).

On 3 November 1903, Caruso made his Metropolitan Opera début as the Duke of Mantua in *Rigoletto*, and on this famous stage he eventually sang a total of 37 roles in 607 performances, in 18 seasons, of which he performed on opening night for 17 operas. At 48, at the pinnacle of his career, he died in Naples, on 2 August 1921, as a result of bronchial pneumonia which had developed into pleurisy (Thompson, 1975). His exceptionally beautiful voice set a standard in his times. A complementary aspect of Caruso's career was that he also loved popular songs, having begun as a serenade singer. During his career, he presented concerts of Neapolitan songs and recorded many of his favorites.

After Caruso's death, on opening night at the Metropolitan Opera in November 1921, the honor of singing Alfredo in *La Traviata* was bestowed on Beniamino Gigli, the great Italian tenor known as "The People's Singer," due to his multiple popular performances beyond opera. His lucky break had come in 1914, with the international vocal contest in Parma; pseudo-serendipitously, he resulted first among 32 tenors, of 105 singers in total of all categories. The famous tenor Alessandro Bonci happened to be in the jury, and with Caruso performing practically exclusively in the United States for the Metropolitan Opera, leaving a

void in Italy, he wrote in his jury report: "*Abbiamo finalmente trovato il tenore*"—"At last we have found the tenor" (Anthonisen, 2002b,). Gigli had made his Metropolitan Opera début in 1920, in the role of Faust (Boito's *Mefistofele*).

Caruso and Gigli's singing of both opera and popular music, called today cross-over artists, have been topped in modern times by The Three Tenors, selected for the introduction. Notably, in September 1968, Domingo advanced his Metropolitan Opera début (by four days), substituting for the famed Italian tenor Franco Corelli, who cancelled due to hoarseness with less than an hour for the start of *Adriana Lecouvreur*. In 1999, Domingo, who had already interpreted 119 roles, was the first tenor ever to outdo Caruso's opening night record at the Metropolitan Opera (Tommasini, 1999). Undoubtedly, Pavarotti, Domingo (also a leading conductor), and Carreras, are contemporary role models for their many achievements as well as for promotion of younger singers entering the field (e.g., the *Pavarotti International Voice Competition*, Domingo's *Operalia*), and for Carreras'International Leukemia Foundation.

Remarkably, Carreras, born in Barcelona, Spain, in 1946, experienced a more unusual type of serendipitous event that launched his career. By his 18th birthday, his lyric tenor voice was evident, and he initially studied with Jaime Francisco Puig. Later, Juan Ruax became his teacher, considered by Carreras "his artistic father" (Peccei, 1999). Ruax encouraged Carreras' audition for what became at Barcelona's opera house, Gran Teatro del Liceo, his first tenor role in *Norma*, as Flavio. "This minor role had major consequences for his career" (¶ 5). The beautifully sung few phrases of Flavio caught the attention of both critics and his compatriot prominent soprano Montserrat Caballé who sang the title role in 1970 with him. Consequently, she requested he sing with her the role of Genaro in *Lucrezia Borgia* (Donizetti)—his first major role, which he views as "his 'real'debut as a tenor" (¶ 5). In more ways than one, Caballé became "his artistic mother" (¶6). For his London stage début in 1971, she interpreted the title role in the concert performance of *Maria Stuarda* (Donizetti). Their artistic partnership led to recordings of over 15 operas (Peccei, 1999). Another compatriot who supported him early was Rafael Frübeck de Brugos; in 1970, he engaged him for Verdi's *Requiem* in Madrid (Bernheimer, 1980/1995a). By age 28, when many in the field are just commencing to gain recognition, Carreras already had interpreted in Europe and North America lead tenor roles in 24 operas, having made his début at the great four opera houses of the world. Singers can never know in advance the outcome of singing well a minor role.

The voice teacher's role of encouragement for tackling a direct goal was a crucial first step which resulted in Carreras'pseudo-serendipitous winning of the audition—an example of planned happenstance. Instead, his successful pairing with Caballé was true serendipity, as he had no say in her being the lead role for Bellini's *Norma*, or that his voice would blend well with hers. The recordings that followed were unforeseen serendipity spin-offs from the previous event. At the start of a career, to unexpectedly be requested to sing with an established, highly recognized artist is indeed a serendipitous lucky break, as also noted that occurred to Pavarotti with Sutherland. For an expanded understanding of great opera voices, they must be heard; contemporary artists have customized websites, record-company sites, and fan sites, increasingly with audio excerpts (Leff, 2000); sometimes, voices of the past can also be found in cyberspace.

An opera career can be viewed in three broad stages: (a) an initial stage, as a vocal student, entering the field, and obtaining traditional débuts in the major opera houses; (b) a middle stage of career management, which is the longest period, includes establishment of a solid, highly achieving career, with all its vicissitudes (e.g., vocal and health problems, performance anxiety; family life events, and so on.); and (c) a final stage after retirement from the opera stage, which often includes "a second career" in concerts and recitals, master classes, and teaching. I will focus on three essential areas that may be affected by chance events: entering the field due to career change, vocal teachers, and artist managers. Each career path is unique yet common threads in chance events can be identified.

Career Change and Vocal Teachers

Jon Vickers

The renowned Canadian heldentenor Jon Vickers celebrated his 75th birthday on 20 October 2001. Jonathan Stewart Vickers, born in Prince Albert, Saskatchewan, in 1926, in his youth sang in church choirs, amateur opera and operettas. After high school, he worked for Safeway stores, then, Woolworth in Saskatchewan and Manitoba; in Winnipeg, he was a purchasing agent for the Hudson Bay Company. In 1949, as a result of singing the tenor lead role in Victor Herbert's operetta *Naughty Marietta*, combined with Toronto soprano Mary Morrison's encouragement to study voice seriously, he decided to change careers and left his job (CBC Radio Two, 2000). He settled in Toronto in 1950, with a scholarship at the Toronto Conservatory of music; George Lambert was his teacher and Roy Fenwick, school board music educator, facilitated his participation in the concert series of the Department of Education, and performances in Eastern Canada (MacDonnell & Norman, 2003).

In 1952, he sang the tenor role in the Canadian première of Bruckner's *Te Deum*, which was tape-recorded; a copy landed in the hands of the Toronto Symphony Orchestra conductor Sir Ernest MacMillan, who invited Vickers to sing in Handel's *Messiah* with the Toronto Mendelssohn Choir. Vickers won first prize in Radio Canada's "*Nos Futures Étoiles,*" and was a finalist on CBC Radio's "*Singing Stars of Tomorrow.*" He became the leading tenor for six years, including in his repertoire 22 opera roles, 34 oratorios and cantatas, and almost 400 songs (MacDonnell & Norman, 2003). Yet Vickers received "a rocky ride" from the critical establishment in Toronto, to the extent that he commented that "Toronto had 'torn his heart out.'For a time, he refused to perform there"

(CBC Radio Two, 2000, ¶ 5). Toronto's reviews were mixed; thus, married and with a child, by the age of 28, Vickers was still thinking about leaving singing for a business career (MacDonnell & Norman, 2003). Sometimes, it is very difficult to be a prophet in one's own land—his case, in retrospect, is one of critics'misjudgments (Runco, 1999).

Vickers longed for international challenging opportunities. His lucky break appeared when, serendipitously, Sir David Webster, of the Royal Opera House at Covent Garden, heard him and requested he audition in 1956; after concluding his last note, he was offered a contract for three years. His début at Covent Garden in the role of Riccardo (Verdi's *Un Ballo in Maschera*) was followed by Aeneas in *Les Troyens* (Berlioz), finally receiving deserved rave reviews (Clement, 2001). At Bayreuth, in 1958, his début as Siegmund (*Die Walküre*) was a sensation, and it became one of his signature roles. For his Metropolitan Opera début in 1960, he performed the role of Canio (*I Pagliacci*). His following decades on stage is Canadian opera history (see Paley, 1999).

Ben Heppner

The celebrated Canadian heldentenor Ben Heppner, considered the successor of Vickers, also had a difficult initial road to earn recognition in the field. He started his career as a lyric tenor, winning first prize in the CBC Talent Festival in 1979. Heppner's stage début was as Roderigo (*Otello*) with the Vancouver Opera Association. He sang in church and in the synagogue, and with the Tudor Singers of Montreal, including tenor roles with the Ensemble Studio of the Canadian Opera Company. He married and three children were born, but his career was going nowhere. Frustrated, he set a time limit of one year for his career to take off.

The Canada Council gave Heppner a grant, and he hired voice teacher William Neill, who suggested technical advice to change from lyric to spinto repertoire (Campbell, 1999). In 1987, his voice rapidly made the transition, specializing in German opera, first singing in Strauss' *Ariadne auf Naxos* in Australia in the same year. His US début was at the Lyric Opera of Chicago, in *Tannhauser*, in the fall of 1988 (So, 2003). Neill, however, had also suggested as a goal the Metropolitan Opera Auditions in March 1988, and prepared him for it. This first breakthrough led to triumph. Heppner was included among 11 winners, and additionally won the Birgit Nilsson Prize, which resulted in his European début at the Royal Swedish Opera, Stockholm, in March 1989, in the role of Lohengrin—suggested to him by Nilsson on the telephone (Campbell, 1999). Then, with the Royal Swedish Opera, he went to Moscow in September 1989, for performances of *Lohengrin* at the Bolshoi Theatre. Unexpectedly, in December 1991, his Metropolitan Opera début was advanced (from later that season) by substituting for an indisposed Pavarotti in *Idomeneo* (Mozart). Today, he has performed on all the major opera stages of the world to great acclaim (So, 2003), and is engaged as Aeneas in *Les Troyens* (Berlioz) at the Metropolitan Opera 2003 season. An appropriate voice teacher can make a world of difference between reaching the top and remaining at ordinary levels of performance.

John McCormack

The Irish-born naturalized eminent American tenor in his times, John McCormack was the fourth of eleven siblings and one of five who survived childhood. His parents, Hannah and Andrew McCormack, were both musical. At 18, however, after his college studies ended John was undecided on a career. He resisted parental suggestions of the priesthood, science, and civil service; he tried the postal service but soon quit. One day, per chance, John took part in a charity concert presented at Sligo Town Hall as a solo vocalist and became enamored with a singing career. His life changed as a result of a traveling mandolinist's suggestion, despite his father's objections, that he ought to sing for Vincent O'Brien, Dublin's leading musical teacher (Manning, 1990). Dr. Dudley Ford took him to O'Brien who happened to need a tenor; a placement in the Palestrina Choir of Dublin's Pro-Cathedral, with a $125 annual salary, was accepted with gusto (Key, 1918/1973). From choirmaster O'Brien he received his initial lessons in solfège and voice (Douglas, 1995).

In 1902, O'Brien entered McCormack for the tenor competition of the Irish National Music Festival ("*Feis Ceoil*") to take place on May 1903, and he won the gold medal. From this pseudo-serendipitous outcome emerged the opportunity to sing overseas at the 1904 St. Louis Exposition as a member of the Dublin Catholic Church Choir (Thompson, 1975). After returning home early, ambitious McCormack desired to study in Italy and with entrepreneurial spirit he managed to raise money for this project with concerts. Fortuitously, in 1904, he received two invitations to record in London—one from the Edison Company and the other from the Gramophone Company. Then, for the first time in his life, McCormack heard Enrico Caruso sing in *La Bohème*, in the fall of 1904 at Covent Garden, and was greatly impacted with his voice. In an interview in 1917, McCormack declared to Pierre Key (1918/1973) that this performance was the heretofore "best lesson" ever taken and an indescribable "stimulus." He also noted that the voice of Caruso had lingered in his ears for a long time and, undoubtedly, would always stay there. He had looked up to him, and still did, "as a supremely gifted artist; unique . . . standing apart from the rest as a model for all" (in Worth, 1997, chap. 1, ¶ 8).

McCormack arrived in Milan in spring of 1905, and studied with maestro Vincenzo Sabatini; he returned to Ireland for four summer months and by September was back in Milan. By December, Sabatini had prepared him for his début in Savona, at the Teatro Chiabrera, on 13 January 1906—with the alias of Giovanni Foli—in the title role of *L`Amico Fritz* (Mascagni). The critics were positive, but he considered himself only "mildly accepted." Sabatini gave his approval, predicting McCormack's ultimate success. But he warned the young tenor that a role would be played by good luck (Worth, 1997, chap. 1). After another presentation in the small town of Santa Croce del Arno, near Florence, in which his voice cracked on a high note singing

Faust (Gounod), he astutely realized that the road to success in Italy would be hard indeed. He returned to Milan for his farewell to Sabatini and sailed home in May of 1906. He married Irish soprano Lily Foley in July, and after a change of plans, they returned to Milan. This move was unsuccessful as no engagements were forthcoming. Short of cash, and with their first child on the way, they made the decision to relocate to London at summer's end, where he hoped for better opportunities (Worth, 1997).

McCormack revealed (Key, 1918/1973): "We hadn't been long back in our small quarters in London before Fortune permitted herself to smile, just a little, upon us" (in Worth, 1997, chap. 1, 1906, ¶ 3). Soon he landed a six-year recording contract with Odeon, and found brief engagements that at least permitted them to survive and for him to practice in public. He searched intensely for opportunities everywhere.

After Christmas of 1906, McCormack met Albert Vesetti, Royal College of Music professor of singing. Impressed with his voice, Vesetti gave McCormack two letters of introduction. Both were addressed to rival music publishers: one to Chapells' William Boosey and the other to his cousin Arthur Boosey, owner of Boosey & Company. The latter unexpectedly opened the door to success and riches when he least expected it, providing his early career development with a lucky break all artists need and desire. Arthur Boosey organized Ballad Concerts at Queen's Hall in London. Greatly impressed with McCormack's audition, he contracted him to sing on 1 March 1907, in the elite company of known artists. His successful performance ensured his job with Boosey for the rest of the season and the following one. Requests of aristocrats to perform in their private soirées also materialized—an excellent extra income source at the time—and he was noticed by Sir John Murray Scott, a wealthy patron of the arts. Eventually, Scott's influence arranged for his protégée an audition with Henry Higgins, general manager of the Royal Opera, Covent Garden (Worth, 1997). On 15 October 1907, McCormack made his successful début at Covent Garden as Turiddu in *Cavalleria Rusticana*, singing in the same season in *Rigoletto* and *Don Giovanni*. Twenty three year-old McCormack was the youngest tenor ever at the Royal Opera. Thereafter, every summer season he returned to Covent Garden, from 1908 to 1914 (Shawe-Taylor, 1980/1995).

Two years later, the German-American impresario Oscar Hammerstein engaged him to appear as leading tenor of the Manhattan Opera House, New York—a rival of the Metropolitan Opera—and he made his début on 10 November 1909, in *La Traviata*. McCormack, however, owed this lucky turning point to soprano Luisa Tetrazzini. Her début at Covent Garden had occurred in the identical season as his and in all the history of the Royal Opera, hers was the most sensational one. On 23 November 1907, he had performed as the Duke of Mantua (*Rigoletto*) with her. Tetrazzini wrote in her autobiography that when performing in London she had met "John McCormack, the Irish tenor with the God-given voice. I found that his rich voice went so well with mine that I took him back with me to America . . . the Americans took John McCormack to their hearts" (Douglas, 1995, p. 137). Fate placed them on stage together, serendipitously, their voices blended well, and pseudo-serendipitously, Tetrazzini had the power to secure him the engagement in America. In effect, "Hammerstein had not been enthused about hiring the young Irishman but he acceded to the request of his star soprano, Luisa Tetrazzini" (Dolan, 1974, ¶ 2). McCormack is the best recalled Hammerstein star today, as after leaving the opera stage he became "the greatest concert attraction in history" (¶ 2). For five seasons (1910-1918) McCormack also sang at the Metropolitan Opera (Shawe-Taylor, 1980/1995). He was named papal count in 1928. McCormack's career history reveals his single-minded determination to succeed, persistence to overcoming obstacles, flexibility to change plans, optimism, performance creativity, and touches of serendipity and pseudo-serendipity along the way.

Richard Tucker

In another case of career change, by contrast, the Metropolitan Opera doors opened quickly, also due to the aid of the vocal teacher. Briefly, Richard Tucker, the great Brooklyn, New York born tenor, nee Reuben Ticker in 1913, began to sing at the age of six as a boy alto at the Tifereth Israel synagogue, on the Lower East Side; he remained under the tutelage of Cantor Samuel Weisser for seven years until his voice changed. His father was a middleman in the fur industry and Richard worked as a salesman. In 1936, when he married Sara Perelmuth (only sister of tenor Jan Peerce), he was making per week $25,00 selling furs, plus a little extra from singing at weddings and Bar Mitzvahs which helped to pay for voice lessons from Cantor Joseph Mirsky (Davis, 1997).

In 1942, Tucker failed to win the Metropolitan Opera Auditions of the Air, so he continued with his cantorial work. In 1943, he had started gain prominence on the radio—*The Chicago Theatre of the Air* and *Music from the House of Squibb*. He became cantor at the Brooklyn Jewish Center, where weekly a large congregation of rich and prominent individuals had the opportunity to hear him. His teacher, dramatic tenor Paul Althouse, recommended to him by his brother-in-law and rival, persuaded Canadian tenor Edward Johnson, the Metropolitan Opera general manager (1935-1950), to attend a service at the Brooklyn Jewish Center. Quite impressed, Johnson told him to forget about the Met Auditions. "If you can satisfy the critical ears of two thousand people in this prestigious temple, you can satisfy any audience at the Metropolitan Opera House" (Davis, 1997, p. 427). A clear example of planned happenstance due to the agency of his teacher. The contract, however, mainly contained comprimario parts and cover jobs, with a *Rosenkavalier* début in the minor role of the Italian tenor who only sings for five-minutes. Tucker took the risk of telling Eddie Johnson, Frank St. Leger, and others at the meeting, that he was not willing to perform *Rosenkavalier,* or be the cover of anybody. He would enter the Metropolitan "through the front door, not through the back" (p. 427). As the Met had a need for tenors for the 1944-45 seasons, his gamble

paid off. Tucker successfully débuted at the Metropolitan Opera in the role of Enzo (*La Gioconda*), on 25 January 1945 (Bernheimer, 1980/1995). It requires self-confidence to take such a risk.

In his history of the Metropolitan Opera, Kolodin (1966) noted that when finally Tucker focused his mayor efforts on opera, "the Metropolitan acquired its most beautiful tenor voice since Gigli's" (p. 452). In 1947, he sang the same role for his European début in Arena di Verona, with an unknown soprano lead who was making her début—Maria Callas. Tucker was the Met's "House Tenor" for almost 30 years, until his death (Anthonisen, 2000). Of Rudolph Bing, the next Metropolitan Opera manager in 1950, Tucker commented at the end of his regime in 1972, "Let's say I did well by him and he did well by me" (Davis, 1997, p. 428). A successful relationship for both is essential for job satisfaction.

Successful Business Partnerships

Managers are known to scout for artists, instead of waiting for them to knock on their doors, per chance, through referrals—pseudo-serendipitous discoveries that yield economic results for both sides, if these artists become prominent. For artists, of course, suddenly being discovered by influential managers is an unplanned, serendipitous event.

The famous American tenor Jan Peerce, nee Jacob Pincus Perelmuth, was born in the Lower East Side, New York, in 1904, of Jewish Eastern European immigrant parents. Peerce's early exposure to music began as a toddler by accompanying his parents to synagogue services. For Anna Perelmuth, however, music was not a social grace but a necessity for her son; as a piano was beyond their budget, the chosen instrument was a fiddle. To pay for the best lessons with H.M. Shapiro at his 110th Street studio across town, she quickly created a small private restaurant business in their home; later she expanded it and even had some lodgers. Peerce attended Dewitt Clinton High School and his vocal lessons started after his voice broke. More intent on violin studies than on his voice, Peerce formed, with four peers from the neighborhood, the *Pinky Pearl and His Society Dance Band*, charging four dollars each plus tips to perform at social events. During the summer, they performed at the Catskills and Peerce started to toss in some vocals in addition to his fiddling which were applauded (Davis, 1997).

In 1928, he married Alice Kalmanowitz. During the following few years, Pinky Pearl performed, playing and singing on this route until an audition with the Broadway impresario Earl Carroll was arranged by an influential fan who heard him singing. This chance opportunity came to nothing because Peerce demanded $125, 00 per week, and talent-booker Tom Rooney laughed at his nerve, criticizing his unattractive looks—short, stocky, with big thick eyeglasses—about which Peerce had a lifelong complex (Davis, 1997).

After that fiasco, however, soon Samuel Lionel ("Roxy") Rothafel discovered Peerce. Roxy was another pioneer on Broadway who aimed to unite good music with entertainment and give the masses both (e.g., the Roxy Theatre and the Roxyettes later renamed the Rockettes). He told Peerce to get rid of the fiddle and focus on his voice which would produce riches for him. "You just sing, sing the best you can . . . and you'll be beautiful! You study and you sing and you'll be even taller and handsomer and more good-looking than you are now!" (Davis, 1997, p. 419). What a boost to his self-esteem. Roxy became the ideal manager for Pinky at this stage of his career. He offered his new protégée a permanent place on his popular *Radio City Music Hall of the Air* program, found him a teacher, and gave him a new stage name: John Pierce. In 1932, with the opening at Rockefeller Center, New York, of the Radio City Music Hall—a 6200 seat theater, which was then the world's largest—Peerce became a regular performer in its extravaganzas, and also at the Center Theater shows. During the next eight years, Peerce was a very busy singer in town, particularly on the radio—*The A & P Gypsies*, *The Chevrolet Hour*, and *Forverts*. His voice impressed listeners nationwide and on the radio his unflattering looks no longer mattered. Then, in 1936, Peerce sang "The Bluebird of Happiness" and it turned into "his signature song" until the day he died (p. 420; see also Peerce, 1976). When the decade ended, Roxy already had suggested another name-change, and both agreed on Jan Peerce.

Later, maestro Arturo Toscanini heard Peerce singing Act I of *Die Walküre* (Wagner) on a Radio City Music Hall broadcast, and decided that this was the tenor he required for the upcoming performance of his NBC Symphony Orchestra of Beethoven's *Ninth Symphony* in 1938. Thus, by serendipity, Peerce became "Toscanini's tenor" in an association that lasted for 15 years, which led to many recordings and broadcasts (Davis, 1997). Included were *Fidelio*, *La Traviata*, *La Bohème*, *Un Ballo in Maschera*, and others (Bernheimer, 1980/1995b).

Peerce then studied with contralto Marian Anderson's teacher, world-famous tenor/coach Giuseppe Boghetti. It was precisely this link that caught the attention of Anderson's manager, Russian-American impresario Solomon ("Sol") Hurok and the Metropolitan Opera. After singing a few arias, Hurok told him: "All right, Pirs, you'll be my artist" (Davis, 1997, p. 420). And so it was for the next four decades, with only a verbal contract—20% for concerts and 10% for records & radio. On 14 May 1938, in Philadelphia, Peerce had his stage début as the Duke of Mantua in *Rigoletto*. His New York recital première followed on 7 November 1939 (Thompson, 1975). On 19 October 1941, Peerce made his début at the San Francisco Opera as the Duke (*Rigoletto*). The beckoning to audition for Edward Johnson at the Metropolitan Opera came two weeks later and immediately he became of member of the company. His Metropolitan Opera début on 29 November 1941, as Alfredo in *La Traviata*, at a Saturday matinee was broadcasted (Davis, 1997, Thompson, 1975; see also Metopera.org, 1940-1943). A serendipity spin-off. In the final stage of his career, in addition to worldwide tours and appearances in films and television, he made his Broadway début in 1971, in *Fiddler on the Roof*, in the role of Tevye (Bernheimer, 1980/1995b). Each man-

ager who pseudo-serendipitously discovered Peerce, and believed in him, made a significant contribution to building his career. From Peerce's vista, to have been unexpectedly discovered by Roxy, Toscanini, and Hurok, was apparently pure serendipity.

Concluding Remarks

In all prominent opera careers, an exceptional vocal instrument combined with hard work, persistence, belief in self, and optimism, are key elements for high levels of success. Invariably, chance events can facilitate breakthroughs and career advancement in this highly competitive field. Historic data suggest that chance options no longer can be ignored in career development of opera singers and the use of planned happenstance theory is applicable, as underscored in the selected vignettes. For vocational and career counselors, examples of chance events in the client's field are a useful tool to stimulate exploratory thinking for future action; illustrations from unrelated fields are less effective. This presentation is an initial effort in this direction.

Opera is an unexplored niche of highly creative, well prepared performing artists. As qualitative research findings depend on questions asked in open-ended interview protocols, three major areas affected by chance were addressed. Prominent singers and voice teachers may be willing to serve as advisors, revealing even more types of chance events of value for novel studies. In this new millennium, is it not time to study the role of chance events in this overlooked profession in the career and counseling literature? Opera history provides a foundation for empirical studies. All it takes is a couple of creative doctoral students and career researchers who love and enjoy opera to open new paths and others will follow, enriching both fields.

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Can Sensation Seeking Explain a Vocational Interest in Forensic Identification?

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to describe the occupational demands and duties of a forensic identifier. It is illustrated that the occupational demands and duties of a forensic identifier are stimulating, novel, and challenging. It is proposed that an interest in this career may be related to the personality factor of sensation seeking. Lastly, a review of occupations with similar stimulating, novel, and challenging occupational demands and duties are reviewed.

Can Sensation Seeking Explain a Vocational Interest in Forensic Identification?

Forensic Identification

Many occupations provide interesting and stimulating activities, tasks, duties, and demands. One such occupation is forensic identification. Forensic identification has stimulating, novel, challenging, and nonrisky occupational demands as part of the daily work routine.

The occupational demands of forensic identifiers are constantly changing with high external stimulation (Yura, 1999). Forensic identification is a scientific occupation focused on documenting, collecting, analyzing criminal evidence (Baldwin, 2002; DeLucia & Doyle, 1998; ICSIA, 2002). It is a scientifically based occupation that applies scientific techniques and technology (Baldwin, 2002; DeLucia & Doyle, 1998; ICSIA, 2002). Forensic identifiers objectively apply scientific techniques and technology to determine the facts in a criminal investigation. The information obtained is organized, verified, and then presented to the judicial system for determining innocence or guilt of a suspect in a criminal case (DeLucia & Doyle, 1998; Yura, 1999).

Forensic identification is an occupation considered nonconventional, stimulating, and demanding high responsibility. Its occupational demands are constantly changing with high external stimulation (Yura, 1999). Forensic identifiers must be able to handle novel, complex, and unpredictable situations (e.g., crime scenes with dead bodies or other physical evidence).

The duties and occupational demands of a forensic identifier are intricate (Rowh, 2000). Although their duties vary from agency to agency, responsibilities generally include the following (ICSIA, 2002). Forensic identifiers generally work a 40-hour week and have to respond at a moments notice, often working irregular hours (Dillon, 1999). First, the scene needs securing (e.g., using barricades, tape, or rope). Then, forensic identifiers process the crime scene. Processing includes the collection, identification, documentation, preservation, and securing of physical evidence. Evidence that is collected must be documented. Various forms of documentation may take place – dusting for fingerprinting, casting, photography, measurements, sketching, diagrams, and written report of collected physical evidence (e.g., blood, hair and fiber samples, clothing, shell casings, and trace evidence). Once evidence has been collected, it must be properly secured and packaged. As such, knowledge of proper methods for handling, transporting and storing evidence is essential.

Forensic identifiers also determine the events leading up to the crime. During the process of collecting evidence, the forensic identifier must attempt to reconstruct events and develop a theory related to the crime. This may include explaining the effects of time and environmental surroundings, describing and interpreting the evidence found at the scene, understanding autopsy reports, utilizing information obtained from interrogations, and laboratory reports. The forensic identifier must record what was found at the crime scene and convey the findings in detailed reports. These reports assist other officials in preparing criminal cases. Additionally, forensic identifiers may be requested to give expert testimony in criminal court cases. This requires them to be knowledgeable of courtroom procedures, understand rules of evidence, and have knowledge of federal and state statutes.

Although a majority of time is spent in the "field," at the scene, and in court, forensic identifiers also perform tasks in the laboratory. They must be proficient with the maintenance and usage of high technology equipment (e.g., microscopes, chromatographs, spectrographs, and computers) used to assess physical evidence. Additionally, they may work closely with forensic pathologists in determining the exact nature of an individual's death.

As discussed, forensic identifiers' occupational demands are complex and intricate. Learning these skills requires specialized educational training emphasizing scientific methods (Dillon, 1999; Furton, Hsu, & Cole, 1999; Stinchcomb, 1996). In addition to educational training in an academic setting, significant training involves hands on experience or fieldwork (Gaensslen & Lee, 1988). These field experiences are generally provided through cooperation between various forensic science laboratories (Lee & Gaensslen, 1988).

Employment in many forensic organizations requires extensive education and training in the scientific fields, such as chemistry and biology (Siegal, 1988). Additionally, coursework in psychology, mathematics, and statistics and training in the usage of complex instruments for analyzing evidence is

required. Lastly, forensic identifiers must have good oral and written communication skills to prepare the written reports and provide expert testimony to the judicial system.

Overall, the occupational demands of a forensic identifier are numerous, and intricate. In order to handle their occupational demands, identifiers need innovative thinking and analytical skills to deal effectively with ambiguity or uncertainty, to interact productively with other professionals, and to handle highly stressful environments and situations (graphic, grotesque stimuli). A forensic identifier's preference for new experiences, high external stimulation, and dislike for routine, conventional work, and repetitive experiences can be potentially related to personality characteristics.

Personality traits are a way in which we can characterize and describe an individual. Preferences and interests, including certain behaviors, attitudes, and expressions, are the basis for defining personality traits (Cloninger, 1996). Past research has found relations between personality traits (e.g., extraversion-introversion, sociability, impulsiveness, and sensation seeking) and interest in certain occupations (Costa, McCrae, & Holland, 1984; Hogan & Blake, 1999; Holland, 1985; Holland, Johnston, & Asama, 1994). For instance, individuals with certain preferences are interested in occupations that are nonconventional, stimulating, and novel (Zuckerman, 1994). Assessment of personality traits and their relation with occupational interests, especially with more contemporary, nontraditional occupations such as forensic identification, is necessary (Lowman, 1991; Osipow, 1987).

Certain personality traits may be advantageous or adaptive for the occupational demands. For instance, research supports that certain occupations provide the necessary stimulation for sensation seekers (Best & Kilpatrick, 1977; Biersner & LaRocco, 1983; Kish & Donnenwerth, 1969; Oleszkiewicz, 1982; Waters, Ambler, & Waters, 1976; Zaleski, 1984). Findings indicate that high levels of sensation seeking are positively related to career interest patterns associated with challenging and novel situations, unstructured tasks, and flexibility in their approach, such as forensic identification. Forensic Identification is an occupation with demands that are novel, challenging, and nonrisky. Personality traits, such as sensation seeking, may explain the interest in the profession.

Sensation Seeking Characteristics

Sensation seeking is "a trait defined by the seeking of varied, novel, complex, and intense sensations and experiences, and the willingness to take physical, social, legal, and financial risks for the sake of such experience" (Zuckerman, 1994, p.27). Sensation seeking traits can be measured via standard self-report questionnaires (e.g., SSS-V). These traits can be partitioned into four dimensions: thrill and adventure seeking, experience seeking, disinhibition, and boredom susceptibility (Zuckerman et al., 1978). Currently, the explanation for sensation seeking is genetic, biological, psychophysiological, and social factors (Zuckerman, 1983b, 1984, 1990, 1994, 1996; Zuckerman, Buchsbaum, & Murphy, 1980) that influence certain behaviors, attitudes, and preferences.

Sensation seeking individuals engage in behaviors to increase the amount of stimulation they experience. Such behaviors (e.g. interest in stimulating occupations, drug use, driving recklessly, etc.) involve seeking arousal. Satisfying a preference for stimulation can be accomplished through many behaviors, activities, and attitudes (Arnett, 1991; Irwin & Millstein, 1986; Zuckerman, 1985, 1994; Zuckerman & Neeb, 1980). These include recreation, lifestyle choices, sports, social interactions, and occupational choice. These stimulating activities vary in the amount of risk associated. Although risk taking is a correlate of sensation seeking it is not the primary motive in behavior (Zuckerman, 1994). Sensation seekers accept risk as a possible outcome of obtaining arousal, yet do not seek out risk for its own sake (Zuckerman, 1994).

Other Stimulating Occupations

A stimulating job can be an ideal source of arousal for high sensation seekers. Various studies have found certain career interests and choices to be associated with sensation-seeking characteristics (Best & Kilpatrick, 1977; Biersner & LaRocco, 1983; Kish & Donnenwerth, 1969; Oleszkiewicz, 1982; Waters et al., 1976; Zaleski, 1984). Additionally, more adventurous and non-conventional occupational choices are ideally suited for individuals with sensation seeking preferences (Biersner & LaRocco, 1983; Kish & Donnenwerth, 1969; Oleszkiewicz, 1982; Zaleski, 1984). For example, Kish and Donnenwerth (1969) found that certain occupations on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) correlated with scores on a sensation seeking scale. High sensation seeking scores positively correlated to vocational interest patterns associated with novel situations, stimulating surroundings, unstructured tasks, and flexibility in their approach as major components of their occupational demands. Males with high sensation seeking scores tended to choose scientific or social service careers (e.g., psychologist, psychiatrist, and social worker). In contrast, low sensation scores were related to structured, well-defined tasks with order and routine in the occupation. Traditional vocations (e.g., housewife and home economics teacher) were inversely related to sensation seeking scores for females and directly related to such occupations as attorney.

Investigation of the types of personality traits of individuals already in a chosen occupation has been completed. Zaleski (1984) found that sensation seeking scores were related to certain chosen professions. Occupations including firefighters, mountain rescue and mine rescue squads tended to have higher thrill and adventure seeking scores when compared to sportsmen professions (e.g., race car drivers, mountain climbers, and parachutists). The sportsmen group also had elevated thrill and adventure seeking scores on the SSS-V. Furthermore, both groups had elevated scores on the disinhibition scale when compared to a matched control group.

Various individuals are attracted to vocations with a higher degree of risk. A U.S. Navy diver is one such occupation. In a study investigating U.S. Navy divers, Biersner & LaRocco (1983)

found that the divers had an internal locus of control, socialized less with others outside of their profession, and have less reports of chronic anxiety than normative male groups. The sensation seeking scores for this sample revealed a preference for thrill and adventure seeking through risk associated with danger. They also displayed a low level of disinhibition and experience seeking indicating minimal preference for mental or social activities that are novel or unconventional (e.g., living in a nonconforming life style with unconventional friends, drinking, partying, and seeking variety in sexual partners). Results from this study suggest that individuals in this occupation prefer stimulation that is more external with a moderate degree of risk.

Although some occupations are risky, many are non-risky yet stimulating. In a study by Waters et al. (1976), it was found that pre-flight students in the U.S. Navy indicated high external sensation seeking and thrill and adventure seeking preferences, yet have low disinhibiting and experience seeking behaviors. Therefore, these students could find adequate, non-risky stimulation in their occupational choices.

A similar finding was discovered with crisis rape counselors. Best and Kilpatrick (1977) compared the personality profiles of 14 female pediatric nurses and 20 female counselors who worked with rape victims. The counselors in this study had a variety of occupational demands. These counselors worked in the field in crowded emergency rooms with high levels of sensory stimulation (e.g., multiple individuals, chaotic surroundings, exposure to individuals with trauma). Using objective personality tests and inventories (e.g., MMPI and SSS-V), counselors indicated more openmindedness and flexible attitudes towards patients. Differences in sensation seeking traits revealed that these counselors had significantly higher scores on the disinhibition scale and experience seeking scale of the SSS-V than the pediatric nurses. These results also support that these counselors enjoy stimulating work environments, are non-anxious, and prefer disinhibiting behaviors.

Finally, in a study of vocational preference, Oleszkiewicz (1982) determined that occupations providing new sensations and experiences (e.g., journalist, movie double, sportsman, and surgeon) attracted individuals with elevated scores of general sensation seeking, thrill and adventure seeking and boredom susceptibly (SSS-V). Out of a list of 44 different occupations, high school seniors were asked to pick the three most and three least desired occupations. Individuals choosing vocations that involved some level of risk (e.g., aircraft pilot, policeman, and army officer) had elevated levels of thrill and adventure seeking behaviors. In summary, these results indicate that sensation seekers, based on their varying preference for stimulation, have interest or chose certain careers.

Conclusion

Overall these results indicate that sensation seekers, based on their varying preference for stimulation, have interest or chose certain careers. Forensic identification provides a socially acceptable outlet for sensation seekers without running the risk of participation in personal, social, or legally harmful behaviors. The occupational demands of forensic identification provide a non-risky source of stimulation.

Forensic Identifiers' occupational conditions are non-risky in the physical sense, yet demanding in various activities. These demands range from remaining current on new collection and analysis equipment, following rigid standard protocol, exposure to graphic crime scenes, exposure to chaotic situations, dealing with heightened levels of ambiguity in the "field," gathering evidence in a timely fashion, preservation of crime scenes, and uncovering evidence that can lead to potential court decisions. Occupational characteristics similar to those found in forensic identification provide a socially and legally acceptable way for these individuals to increase arousal (Zuckerman, 1979a, 1994). These occupational characteristics may be a vehicle for which high sensation seekers can obtain an optimal level of arousal (Zuckerman, 1979a) in a non-risky manner.

Interest in forensic identification may be related to high sensation seeking preferences, attitudes, and behaviors. So far it is unknown what sensation seeking preferences are associated with interest in forensic identification. Based on the occupational demands it is relevant to determine the type of individual interested in forensic identification. Furthermore, certain characteristics of sensation seeking may be related to decreased stress reactions to stressful situations. Therefore, future studies that investigate the potential relationship between sensation seeking and interest in forensic identification are warranted.

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Life Values Inventory (LVI): Portuguese Adaptation Studies

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Abstract

Studies here presented were carried out with the Life Values Inventory (LVI), a relatively new instrument created by Crace and Brown (1996). It focuses on values assessment, a crucial psychological dimension in vocational development.

Following a literature review about values and their use in career counseling, the Portuguese adaptation of the LVI is presented. Some results concerning psychometric properties are also discussed.

Theoretical Background

Introduction

As Crace and Brown (1996) have pointed out, values have long been viewed as important determinants of human behavior (Allport, Vernon & Lindzey, 1960; Rokeach, 1973; Super, 1990). In addition, values have been empirically linked to important aspects of organizational behavior (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989), academic performance (Coyne, 1988), career decision making (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987), and marital satisfaction (Vaitkus, 1995). They have also been identified as important determinants of culturally unique behavior (Sue & Sue, 1990), and thus are critical to the understanding of cultural differences (Brown, 2002). Like the previous studies have found, values have a large influence on human functioning, however, career counselors, marriage counselors, health educators, organizational psychologists, and others frequently do not use values measures in their work because of the absence of an empirically based, easily administered and scored values inventory. The *Life Values Inventory* (LVI) was developed (Crace & Brown,1996) to answer that need.

Most existing values inventories have been developed either as general measures of values (e.g. Allport, Vernon, & Lindzey, 1960) with no direct link to life roles, or as work values inventories (e.g. Nevill & Super, 1986) with relationships to the work role only. In general, work values inventories do not encourage people to explore other life roles in the career planning process, which seems inappropriate given the interactions that occur among the work role and other life roles (Brown & Crace 1996). Nonetheless, Super's research about life roles, values, and careers, in the 90's, was the most important contribution in this field (Super & Sverko, 1995).

Also, inventories such as the *Rokeach Values Survey* (Rokeach, 1973) have limited utility because they provide no crosswalks to make decisions about careers, suitable marital partners, leisure activities, and so forth based on the results. The LVI is a trial to fill in the vacuum between work values inventories and general values inventories by creating a values inventory that can be used as a decision making aid by people who are debating with decisions regarding work, education, relationships, and leisure.

The LVI above all is an effort to promote holistic thinking in the decision making process. It is long overdue that practitioners stop focusing on one role at a time as they assist people making career selections, dealing with marital problems or choosing among leisure activities. The use of LVI will helpfully assist the practitioners in the focusing in a holistic approach to role-related decision making.

Values definition

The first step in the process of developing the LVI was to uphold Rokeach's (1973) definition of values, as standards that not only guide the behavior of the individuals who hold them, but also support their judgement about the behaviour of others. Rokeach differentiated values from interests on two grounds: the role of values as standards, and the number of values people have versus interests. Interests are preferences or likes, not standards against which individuals judge their own behavior as well as the functioning of others. Moreover, individuals may develop several interests, but they develop rather few values. Needs may also serve as a guide to behavior, but according to Rokeach (1973), they are transitory, and once satisfied, they may not influence behavior for varying amounts of time. Values develop so that individuals can meet their needs in socially acceptable ways, but unlike needs, transcend situations and are stable influences on behavior. Finally, not only do values provide individuals with a basis for judging the appropriateness of their behavior in the present, they also provide them a sense of what goals they would like to attain in the future. Once developed, values become the primary basis for goal setting.

Theoretical underpinnings

Brown's Holistic Values-Based Theory of Life Role Choice and Satisfaction (Brown, 1996; Brown & Crace, 1995) underpins the LVI. This

theory draws on Rokeach's (1973) theory and research, as well as some aspects of Super's (1990) theory, to explain the decision making process and the satisfaction that results from role related decisions. Some basic propositions – presented as follows - were also conceived. As Brown & Crace 1996, pointed out: "they are a synthesis of others theories, the research data available regarding values, and, in some instances our own speculation." (Brown & Crace 1996, p.212).

Each person develops a relatively small number of values that are organized into a dynamic values system. Rokeach (1973) suggested that there are 36 human values, but factor analysis of his work suggests that the number is much smaller (Braithewaite & Law, 1985). The LVI measures 14 values that are guides to behavior as people make important life decisions.

Crystallized, highly prioritized values are the most important determinants of life role choices so long as values-based information regarding the choices is available. Crystallized values have meaningful labels and definitions that can be used by individuals to describe themselves. In a situation where none of the options available will satisfy the values of the decision maker, the option that conflicts least with strongly held, highly prioritized values will be selected. Research by Ravlin and Maglino (1987) and Judge and Bretz (1992) strongly suggests that, when options that are related to the strongly held values of the decision maker are available in the decision making process, those options are frequently chosen. Moreover, Schulenberg, Vondracek and Kim (1993) found that certainty of career choice was directly related to the strength of the values held by the individuals they studied.

Values are the dominant factor in the decision making process, but other factors influence decision making as well. Self-efficacy and interests will also have an impact on decision-making (Bandura, 1986; Feather, 1988; Rokeach, 1973). Feather (1988) studied how college students make career choices and found that, while values were the dominant factor in the decision making process, self-efficacy became a factor when one of the options being considered was viewed as more difficult to attain than the others being considered.

Because of the diverse sources of information and experiences that influence values development, it is likely that each person will experience values conflicts. When competing values come into play in the decision making process, the result will be ambivalent feelings and perhaps procrastination. This hypothesis has not been tested directly.

Due to differences in their socialization process and the values laden information they receive, males and females and people from various cultural backgrounds are able to develop differing values systems. Cross cultural studies of values by Brenner, Blazini, and Greenhaus (1988), Leong (1991), and others have shown that values vary by gender and ethnicity.

Life satisfaction will be more than the sum of the products of the life roles filled taken separately. This hypothesis has not been tested at this time, although Hesketh (1993) and others have written in support of this idea.

Life roles interact in characteristic ways. They may interact synergistically (complementary), entropically (conflicting), or interact to maintain homeostasis (supplementary) (Super, 1980). Testing this hypothesis, Pittner and Orthner (1988) found that job commitment could be predicted by attending to the extent to which the organization was perceived to be supportive of their families. In another related study, Watson and Ager (1991) found that the frequency with which people between the ages of 50 and 90 performed valued life roles was directly related to life satisfaction. Finally, O'Driscoll, Ilgen and Hildreth (1992) found that there were negative links among the amount of time spent on the job, factors that interfered with the job and satisfaction with roles beside job.

The salience of a single role can be determined by the extent to which that role satisfies crystallized, highly prioritized values. However, few people will have all of their values satisfied in a single role. When more than one role is required to satisfy values, the salience of values in the values systems shifts dynamically as the person moves from role to role because of the expectation that different values will be satisfied in different roles. Flannelly (1995), who used a modified version of the LVI in his research, found that when people rated the values they hoped to satisfy within various roles, their ratings varied significantly from role to role.

Success in a life role will usually depend on (1) the congruence between the person's values and those of others in the role; (2) role related skills which the person has developed prior to entering the role; (3) the person's ability to cope with change, as the demands of the role change; and (4) the nature of the interaction of the role with other roles performed by the individual. Ravlin and Meglino (1987) found a direct relationship between the congruence of supervisors and workers values and job satisfaction. Research on the Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) has also been supportive of this proposition.

Several types of values-based problems sometimes require therapeutic interventions. These include (1) values poorly crystallized and/or poorly prioritized; (2) intra-personal values conflicts; (3) intra-role values conflicts; (4) inter-role conflicts that may or may not be values-based; and (5) perception that values satisfaction is blocked resulting in depression. This proposition has not been tested directly at this time.

The Life Values Inventory (LVI)

Description

The LVI has a quantitative and a qualitative part. The quantitative one contains 42 items that measure 14 relatively independent values. It also contains several qualitative exercises that may be useful in helping people to crystallize their values. The values measured by the LVI are *Achievement, Belonging, Concern for the Environment, Concern for Others, Creativity, Financial Prosperity, Health and Activity, Humility, Independence, Loyalty to Family or Group, Privacy, Responsibility, Scientific Understanding,* and *Spirituality*. More specifically, Achievement corresponds to the importance of challenging our-

selves and to work hard to improve. Belonging reflects the importance of being accepted by others and to feel included. *Concern for the Environment* corresponds to the importance of protecting and preserving the environment. *Concern for Others* takes into account how the well being of others is important. *Creativity* states that it is important to have new ideas or to create new things. *Financial Prosperity* corresponds to the importance of being successful at making money or buying things. *Health and Activity* considers the importance of being healthy and physically active. *Humility* is linked to the importance of being humble and modest about our accomplishments. *Independence* takes into account the importance of making our own decisions and making things our way. *Loyalty to Family or Group* reflects the importance to follow the traditions and expectations of our family or group. *Privacy* is related to the importance of having time alone. *Responsibility* corresponds to the importance of being dependable and trustworthy. *Scientific Understanding* values the use of scientific principles to understand and solve problems. Finally, *Spirituality* is defined by the importance of having spiritual beliefs and to believe that we are a part of something greater than ourselves.

When answering to the LVI, people are asked both to rate the strength of their values and to rank them by order of importance. They are first asked to rate the degree to which the beliefs contained in the 42 items are currently guides to their behavior. These are then self-scored and individuals are asked to circle those values which they view as the most important determinants of their behavior. The next step in the assessment process is to complete a series of qualitative exercises and, the information obtained with these exercises along with the data derived from the ratings, is used to rank their most important values. The final step in the process is for each individual to rank the importance of the values they hope to see satisfied in each of four life roles: Job; Student; Family and Important Relationships, and Leisure and Community Activities.

The LVI scales were selected on the basis of a series of factor analysis studies. Many of the existing values inventories contain scales that are highly correlated, sometimes exceeding .50. Because intercorrelations of this magnitude confound the interpretation process, one goal in the development of the LVI was to create values scales that were relatively independent. Two methods were used to determine the reliability of the LVI scales: test-retest and internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha. Both types of reliability coefficients were satisfactory. The validity of the LVI was determined using a traditional convergent and divergent validity check as well as a more rigorous predictive validity check.

As noted above, one of the goals in the LVI development was to create an instrument that has acceptable psychometric properties. However, a second goal was pursued just as vigorously. This one was to create a culturally sensitive instrument that could be used with confidence in both genders and all major cultural groups. To achieve this goal, the LVI was submitted to two rounds of reviews by knowledgeable representative members of several cultural groups and subgroups. At various stages of development of the instrument, feedback was received from members of two Native American tribes, two Hispanics (a Cuban and a Mexican American), one Asian American, one African American, and others who were aware of the issues involved in measuring values in several cultural groups. The items and instructions were also reviewed to determine whether they were sensitive to the unique concerns of women.

To sum up, the LVI was developed for use in career counseling, marriage counseling, retirement counseling and planning, leisure counseling, team building (either in sport or the workplace), and other activities in which decision making and/or interpersonal functioning are important.

Interpretation

Interpretation of the LVI should begin with a look at the individual's values system. Thus, it begins by identifying the values that have been considered as most important.

When interpreting the LVI, several ideas should be kept in mind: a) values are guidelines to our behaviour, being the primary basis for goal setting. Thus, they are also the basis for short and long-term goal setting and the primary source of life satisfaction; b) individuals are satisfied with a particular role when their behavior is congruent with their values and they can engage in self-reinforcement. External feedback may or may not confirm their own perceptions; c) they are dissatisfied when their role related behavior is not according to their own perceptions of what is appropriate for them; d) individuals may be dissatisfied with co-occupants in a role who do not meet their expectations. These expectations are generated on the basis of their values; e) dissatisfaction with others reveals itself in the form of subtle or direct disapproval and often results in intra-role friction. Finally, few individuals achieve total life satisfaction on the basis of their functioning in one role, and thus it is important for individuals to craft an overall life plan that allows them to satisfy all essential values. In most instances this means identifying at least two or three roles that may satisfy strongly held values.

To amplify the points made in the foregoing paragraph, it should be kept in mind that the LVI measures 14 values. Eleven of these values can be at least partially satisfied in the work role: Achievement, Belonging, Concern for the Environment, Concern for Others, Creativity, Financial Prosperity, Health and Activity, Independence, Responsibility, Scientific Understanding, and Spirituality. Values that may influence occupational choices because of the nature of the working environment but are unlikely to be satisfied in these roles are: Humility, Loyalty to Family or Group, and Privacy. People who have identified one or all of these three values as being among their most important ones need to carefully structure roles other than the job or career if they are to satisfy these values.

Most individuals will try to satisfy their most highly prioritized values in more than one role, although this may not always be possible. For example, a person who has as a highly prioritized value, Loyalty to Family or Group, and

has an unsatisfactory marital relationship, may want to establish collegial leisure relationships if the couple decides that dissolving the marriage is not an acceptable alternative. Similarly, because of the dynamic nature of the workplace, many people find themselves in jobs that have changed to the point where they are no longer satisfying, but because of their age or personal circumstances they find it impossible to seek another job. These people must seek alternative sources of satisfaction in their relationships with others or in leisure or community activities.

Using values in career counseling

Career counseling should consider the impact of the career decision on other life roles (Brown, 1996; Brown & Crace, 1995). In this process the LVI can be used to help clients (1) crystallize and prioritize their values, (2) identify the values they hope to see satisfied in their careers and other life roles, (3) determine sources of intrapersonal values conflicts, (4) identify the locus of intrarole conflicts, and (5) estimate the source(s) of interrole conflicts.

A value is *crystallized* whenever it has a label that is meaningful to the individual. Whenever a client says, "One of my values is Concern for Others", he has a crystallized value. When a client can rank the importance he attaches to each value, he has a prioritized value system. Both crystallization and *prioritization* normally occur in the process of completing the LVI unless clients have given little thought to their values or have intrapersonal values conflicts. On the other hand, *intrapersonal conflicts* are experienced as feelings of ambivalence. These clients may have trouble generating their overall values ranking and/or the values they hope to see satisfied in their work role. Intrapersonal conflict can occur when a person holds two contradictory values to be important, such as Belonging and Independence. Unresolved feelings of hurt, anger, guilt or fear due to life experiences can also be a form of intrapersonal conflict. In this instance, unresolved issues are getting in the way of values fulfillment. Examples of this may include unresolved hurt getting in the way of trust and a fulfilled sense of Belonging; or a strong fear of failure getting in the way of Achievement. Counseling may be required to assist them in identifying the source of the conflict, particularly if they have doubts regarding the career choice. *Intrarole conflicts* occur whenever the demands of the job conflict with the values of the worker. People who value Creativity and find themselves in routine jobs that discourage or punish creativity will experience intrarole conflict. Their choices are to (1) leave the job, (2) restructure the nature of their job role, or to (3) develop compensatory roles outside the job that allow them to satisfy their Creativity value. People who are "stuck" in their job because of personal or interpersonal circumstances will often need assistance in pursuing the choice of developing compensatory roles. Finally, *inter - role conflicts* occur whenever the demands of the job preclude the individual from satisfying their values in other life roles or when other life roles interfere with the job to the degree that important work values are not satisfied. People who experience interrole conflicts may need to restructure their jobs or their other life roles, or learn some basic skills such as time management, assertiveness, communication, and/or decision-making skills.

Portuguese Adaptation of the LVI

Experimental version

The research's first step was the translation to the Portuguese language of the *Life Values Inventory* published at the Life Values Resources (EUA) in 1996. This work had the special concern of going beyond a literal translation, in order to adapt the items to the Portuguese culture. After a first translation, it was asked to experts on the theme to express their opinion, in order to guarantee the technical and scientific accuracy aspects. It was also demanded to people without education in psychology to give their contribution about the items understanding. Although the development of the experimental version required some changes, these were minimum since the concern of maintaining it as close as possible from the original one was always present. For example, sometimes it was necessary to use easier and more employed words in the portuguese language; nonetheless, there was a constant concern on maintaining their meaning close to their equivalent in the english language.

Thus, the Portuguese experimental version includes a test register which contains the instructions and the items, as well as the answering places. In the end a sheet for the demographic data was also included (Almeida & Pinto, 2002).

The Inventory has three parts. First, a quantitative part that begins with a values definition and an example which explains how the subject should respond to the 42 items that follow. Thus, the subject will use a 1 to 5 Likert scale which allows identifying how the presented belief guides the individual's behaviour (1 meaning *almost never guides my behavior* and 5 meaning *almost always guides my behaviour*). In pages 2 and 3, the subject will find a list of 42 *beliefs* which he/she has to classify with the 1 to 5 scale. Page 4 presents a synthesis table for the scores, to be filled in on their own. The subject must add the scores of the pages 2 and 3 as it is showed in page 4. Page 5 presents a Values Profile, a list of the 14 values evaluated by the Inventory, preceded by a little square that should be filled with the value obtained at page 4, and after he must point out the 5 highest values. This ends the first part of the Inventory. Part II is a qualitative one, where the subject continues to explore his or her values through a series of qualitative exercises. These exercises stimulate the subject to think a little more about the values. At the end of Part II and after completing the 5 exercises proposed – where it is also demanded to use the list of values on page 5 – the subject must do a *list of important values* and a *list of non important values*. After completing Part II the subjects are ready to begin Part III, where they are asked to identify which of their most important values they expect to see satisfied in each one of 4 major life roles (Job, Student, Family and Important Relationships, and Leisure and Community Activities).

Research design and participants

After adapting the LVI, a preliminary study was carried out (Almeida & Pinto, 2002). This first essay had as major goals the rehearsal of the standardization conditions, namely the presentation of the instrument and its instructions, aiming to identify possible difficulties in understanding the items' contents and to verify the average time of response.

This instrument was used in a total sample of 314 participants: 92 higher education students, 159 working students and 63 workers (209 of the female gender and 105 of the male gender), with ages between 18 and 55 years.

Psychometric properties

To evaluate the scores obtained some procedures of data analysis were developed. Table 1 presents the study of the distributions for each one of the 14 values.

Generally, the asymmetrical coefficients are not very far from zero, except for the Value 'Responsibility', which presents a higher coefficient; and the Curtose coefficients present higher values. The minimum scores are reached in 9 of the 14 values of the instrument. The maximum scores are reached in all the considered values. The mean scores are very high. All values present means higher than 9. Nonetheless, it should be noted that some of the standard deviations suggest some degree of dispersion in the answers.

Table 2 includes the alpha coefficients in the American and Portuguese samples. Some Portuguese coefficients are not very high, in particular for the value Independence, which is also the lowest in the American sample.

The item analysis for the total sample (table 3) shows a factorial structure where 13 factors were identified, corre-

Table 1 – Distribution of standard scores (n= 314)

	Mean	SD	Median	Kurtosis coefficients	Asymmetrical coefficients	Range
Achievement	12.11	1.94	12	.69	-.47	5 - 15
Belonging	10.72	2.39	11	.15	-.40	3 - 15
Concern for the Environment	11.75	2.39	12	-.26	-.41	5 - 15
Concern for Others	12.13	1.95	12	.12	-.44	5 - 15
Creativity	11.41	2.30	12	.74	-.57	3 - 15
Financial Prosperity	10.38	2.83	11	-.19	-.42	3 - 15
Health and Activity	10.38	2.72	10.50	-.31	-.33	3 - 15
Humility	9.50	2.25	9	.24	-.22	3 - 15
Independence	11.61	1.88	12	1.16	-.55	3 - 15
Loyalty to Family or Group	11.83	2.19	12	1.26	-.91	3 - 15
Privacy	11.42	2.37	12	-.07	.50	4 - 15
Responsibility	13.51	1.67	14	2.33	-1.16	6 - 15
Scientific Understanding	9.59	2.78	10	-.47	-.130	3 - 15
Spirituality	10.48	3.42	11	-.64	-.37	3 - 15

Table 2 - Alpha of Cronbach coefficients for the american and portuguese samples

	American sample	Portuguese sample
Achievement	.74	.63
Belonging	.77	.67
Concern for the Environment	.86	.73
Concern for Others	.69	.73
Creativity	.86	.75
Financial Prosperity	.84	.85
Health and Activity	.74	.75
Humility	.64	.57
Independence	.55	.22
Loyalty to Family or Group	.75	.64
Privacy	.83	.79
Responsibility	.68	.78
Scientific Understanding	.80	.81
Spirituality	.88	.85

Table 3 – Factor analysis of the LVI's scores for total sample (n= 314)

Factor 1	Believing in a higher power	.91	**Factor 7**	Protecting the environment	.84
	Believing that there is something greater than ourselves	.89		Taking care of the environment	.83
	Living in harmony with my spiritual beliefs	.79		Appreciating the beauty of nature	.47
Factor 2	Creating new things or ideas	.77	**Factor 8**	Being liked by others	.72
	Coming up with new ideas	.72		Being accepted by others	.76
	Discovering new things or ideas	.67		Feeling as though I belong	.67
Factor 3	Making money	.85	**Factor 9**	Taking care of my body	.80
	Having financial success	.84		Being in good physical shape	.83
	Being wealthy (having lots of money, land, or livestock)	.77		Being strong or good in a sport (being athletic)	.61
Factor 4	Being sensitive to others needs	.75	**Factor 10**	Using science for progress	.76
	Being concerned about the rights of others	.74		Knowing things about science	.81
	Helping others	.59		Knowing about math	.45
Factor 5	Having quiet time to think	.76	**Factor 11**	Downplaying compliments or praise	.70
	Having a private place to go	.66		Being quiet about my successes	.66
	Having control over my time	.61		Avoiding credit for my accomplishments	.60
Factor 6	Being trustworthy	.74	**Factor 12**	Working hard to do better	.68
	Being reliable	.56		Improving my performance	.51
	Meeting my obligations	.42		Challenging myself to achieve	.24
			Factor 13	Giving my opinion	.75

Table 4 – Factor analysis of the LVI's scores for women sample (n= 209)

Factor 1	Having financial success	.86	**Factor 8**	Being sensitive to others needs	.80
	Making money	.84		Helping others	.56
	Being wealthy (having lots of money, land, or livestock)	.77		Being concerned about the rights of others	.58
Factor 2	Believing in a higher power	.90	**Factor 9**	Taking care of my body	.75
	Believing that there is something greater than ourselves	.87		Being in good physical shape	.82
	Living in harmony with my spiritual beliefs	.77		Being strong or good in a sport (being athletic)	.33
Factor 3	Being trustworthy	.57	**Factor 10**	Being liked by others	.78
	Being reliable	.76		Being accepted by others	.70
	Meeting my obligations	.51		Feeling as though I belong	.63
Factor 4	Coming up with new ideas	.75	**Factor 11**	Accepting my place in my family or group	.40
	Creating new things or ideas	.71		Respecting the traditions of my group or family	.67
	Discovering new things or ideas	.66		Making decisions with my family or group in mind	.63
Factor 5	Protecting the environment	.83	**Factor 12**	Downplaying compliments or praise	.64
	Taking care of the environment	.77		Being quiet about my successes	.64
	Appreciating the beauty of nature	.44		Avoiding credit for my accomplishments	.75
Factor 6	Having quiet time to think	.75	**Factor 13**	Improving my performance	.33
	Having control over my time	.40		Working hard to do better	.70
	Having a private place to go	.67			
Factor 7	Using science for progress	.77	**Factor 14**	Giving my opinion	.78
	Knowing things about science	.82		Challenging myself to achieve	.22
	Knowing about math	.25			

sponding to the ones found in the American sample, except for the items concerning the value 'Loyalty to Family or Group', which did not emerge, and some items concerning the value 'Independence'. Nevertheless, in the item analysis for female sub-sample (table 4), the 14 American values were identified. Attending to all these results, it was considered that the Portuguese adaptation should include the same 14 values, introducing some improvements in the items of the referred two values.

Conclusion

Values studies have been revealing themselves increasingly important in vocational research and practice; the LVI corresponds to a quantitative and qualitative approach in this area and presents an interesting new instrument in psychological assessment.

The studies and use of the LVI in Portugal are taking place in the aim of a research plan with several groups, such as secondary and higher education students, women and some cultural minorities, with the goal of achieving an LVI Portuguese adaptation useful to several populations.

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Health, Job Loss, and Programs for Older Workers in Canada

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Abstract

Older workers represent a growing proportion of the labour force that is expected to reach 40% by the year 2010. Involuntary job loss within this group has also risen markedly over the past two decades. A review of existing research was conducted pertaining to the relationship between health and employment for this population, and programs to address job loss in latter career stages. Program managers and government personnel associated with these programs in British Columbia were also interviewed. While increased recognition of the need for older worker programs in Canada is positive, the top-down nature of their development, implementation and evaluation has meant that they are largely motivated by fiscal agendas. Although unemployment has a deleterious effect upon both the physiological and psychological health of older adults, this association is rarely considered in program planning or evaluation. Several courses of action to improve older worker programs in Canada are proposed. These include: paying greater heed to employment-related health issues; fostering multi-sectoral collaboration between government, business, communities and older workers and; devising evaluation systems that move beyond short-term quantitative methods toward more qualitative, long-term outcome measures.

Introduction

Various phenomena over the past century, including the escalation of technological change, normalization of retirement, emergence of the baby boom cohort, and population aging have contributed to a labour force that is unique in the history of this country, posing challenges never before faced in Canada. One such challenge witnessed across the country is a rising incidence of job loss within the older worker population, a group that will continue to comprise an increasingly larger proportion of the workforce in the future (Human Resources Development Canada; HRDC, 1999). Within the multidisciplinary field of gerontology, research questions regarding older adults in relation to the work force have most often focused on the issue of retirement. However, job loss experienced in late career is in many ways different from that experienced by younger persons, involving decisions such as whether to take early retirement and, for those who pursue other employment, a typically longer and more difficult job search process (Couch, 1998; LeBlanc & McMullin, 1997). As research points to an association between unemployment and negative health implications (Warr, 1987), this trend of increased older worker job displacement should also be of concern to proponents of health promotion. Unfortunately, programs for older workers have proliferated over the past decade with little attention or input from the discipline of gerontology or the health promotion perspective.

This paper will address the impact of unemployment on older adults' health and critically review the nature of the programs targeting this group. Informed by the principles of health education as well as the experience of other countries, several issues and suggestions for improvement of older worker programs in Canada are presented.

Employment, Job Loss and Older Adults in Canada

The age category used to define 'older workers'used within this paper will be 45 years and older, the same utilized by Canadian government agencies such as HRDC (1999) and British Columbia Statistics (BC Stats, 1997). This cohort represents a growing proportion of the labour force in Canada and other industrialized countries due to the phenomenon of population aging. For instance, older workers comprised 28% of the Canadian workforce in 1994 and 31% in 2000. The estimate for 2010 is 40% (HRDC, 1999). This trend has also been examined in terms of the population of prime entrants into the labour force (ages 20 to 24) compared to the prime retirement population (ages 60 to 64). Whereas the entrant cohort in the province of British Columbia in 1976 was more than twice as large as the retiree cohort, the retiree population is expected to be equal in size to the entrant population in 2011, and surpass them thereafter (BC Stats, 2001). Hence, the importance of older workers to the vitality of the Canadian labour force is projected to grow in the near future (Nathanson & O'Rourke, 1994; Wanner, 1994).

The aging of the workforce intersects with another phenomenon, that of widespread early exit of older adults from the workforce. Despite increased life expectancy and decreased self-reported inability and limitation in ability to work due to health reasons, the trend of early retirement continues in most industrialized countries (Crimmins, Reynolds, & Saito, 1999). This may be largely attributed to private and public policy that has encour-

aged early retirement over the past several decades to the extent that it is now viewed as normative within Canadian society (LeBlanc & McMullin, 1997; Wanner, 1994). Examples of such policies include the drop in Canada Pension Plan eligibility to age 60 and the increased prevalence of senior employee buy-out packages. The short-term fiscal and political gains include the replacement of expensive older employees with younger persons at lower wages and purportedly, the attenuation of youth unemployment. However, the former is achieved at the expense of decreased workplace experience, and the latter has not been realized as youth unemployment has not decreased with the early exit of older workers (HRDC, 1999; Wanner, 1994; Winn, 1999).

It is important to realize, however, that while there are many who desire early retirement, this decision is not always voluntary and may be preceded by an extended period of unemployment and fruitless job search (LeBlanc & McMullin, 1997; Marshall, Clarke, & Ballantyne, 2001; Wanner, 1994). In fact, the frequency of job loss for older workers has risen disproportionately in recent years (Chan & Stevens, 1999; Couch, 1998; Quinn & Kozy, 1996). Whereas job displacement was more common for younger than older workers in the 1980s, this has been reversed such that displacement rates are now higher for those over 49 years of age (Chan & Stevens, 1999; Couch, 1998). Moreover, rates of job loss within the older worker population are higher for non-white and less educated persons (Couch, 1998). On average, older unemployed workers face a 1-year duration out of work (over twice as long as younger workers) and experience a decline in earnings between 20% and 50% of pre-displacement earnings (BC Stats, 1997; Chan & Stevens, 1999; Couch, 1998).

Several reasons have been given to explain the trend of increased job displacement of persons over 44 years of age. Related to the proliferation of public and private policy that have pushed and pulled older workers into earlier retirement, ageist stereotypes of older workers have emerged, which have led employers to question their ability to function effectively on the job (Kaye & Alexander, 1995; Wolf, London, Casey, & Pufahl, 1995) despite a lack of evidence that work performance declines with age (HRDC, 1999; Schultz, 2000). Discrimination against older workers is apparent in terms of differential hiring, and fewer promotion opportunities and on-the-job training (Kaye & Alexander, 1995). Additionally, Barth (2000) and Schultz (2000) note that older persons may be less likely to possess the skills and training most desired within our increasingly global and technological labour market. While older workers offer benefits to the workplace such as a commitment to quality, extensive experience and low turnover, they are typically limited in certain abilities that are highly valued today (e.g., flexibility, acceptance of new technology, a desire to learn new skills) placing them at a disadvantage in the hiring process (Barth, 2000). Other explanations for increased job displacement among older workers include: economic and labour market changes leading to massive plant closures and company reorganizations; social and political pressure on older workers to make room for the next generation (i.e., stepping aside); and inexperience in how to perform a successful job search (HRDC, 1999; Rife & Belcher, 1994; Wolf et al., 1995).

Of course, these trends do not provide the entire picture. For some older adults, such as those who have held blue collar, seasonal, or semi-skilled jobs, a history of job loss and periods of extended unemployment are not unique to late career but endemic of their entire working lives (Kaye et al., 1999). Also, many women have work histories characterized by part-time employment and multiple entrances and exits from the workforce due to family obligations (Fast & Da Pont, 1997). Ethnic minorities and immigrants are other sub-groups who experience greater unemployment (Quinn & Kozy, 1996; Thomas & Rappak, 1998). According to Couch (1998), higher rates of job displacement among older minority workers in the United States may be partially explained by lower levels of education and previous job tenure. Recent immigrants to Canada experience higher rates of unemployment relative to non-immigrants until they have lived in this country more than 15 years (Thomas & Rappak, 1998). This difference may be attributed, in part, to characteristics that are more prevalent among the foreign-born population: visible minority status, older age, and human capital disadvantages such as non-English speaking ability and lack of experience in the Canadian labour force.

Involuntary Job Loss and the Health of Older Workers

Employment and unemployment are contextual factors within individuals' lives that influence their overall health and well-being. Researchers have tried to tease apart the causal associations observed in cross-sectional studies indicating a link between unemployment or career instability and poorer mental and physical health (He, Colantonio, & Marshall, 2003; Marshall et al., 2001; Warr, 1987). While persons may lose their jobs because of poor health, recent longitudinal research supports the assertion that job loss leads to declines in mental and physical health (Gallo, Bradley, Siegel, & Kasl, 2000).

Both aggregate and individual data reveal a positive linear association between unemployment and premature mortality where longer periods of unemployment are associated with higher mortality rates (Avison, 2002; Jin, Shah, & Svoboda, 1995). An increased incidence of completed suicide is also correlated with unemployment (Vinokur, van Ryn, Gramlich, & Price, 1991). A recent study by Gallo and colleagues (2000) examining the health effects of involuntary job loss among older workers using longitudinal Health and Retirement Survey data found that the effect of this event on physical functioning remains negative and significant after controlling for baseline health, socio-demographic and economic factors. However, the link between job loss and increased physical morbidity appears somewhat ambiguous (Vinokur et al., 1991). For instance, the correlation between unemployment and greater symptoms of physical illness may only occur during times of economic recession (Avison, 2002). Time-series data collected within com-

munities and nations over a period of years reveal a general pattern where increased unemployment is followed closely by increased rates of illness incidence (Warr, 1987). Furthermore, in countries such as Canada where healthcare is generally accessible, a clear relationship emerges between job loss and increased utilization of the healthcare system (i.e., hospital visits, physician visits, prescription drug use) by both unemployed individuals and their families (Avison, 2002; Warr, 1987).

The mental health implications of unemployment are also considerable. Even after controlling for pre-job loss health status, differences between the mental health of employed and unemployed persons are consistently reported whereby the latter report greater negative affect, anxiety, distress, and more psychosomatic complaints (Canadian Council on Social Development, 1999; Warr, 1987). Compared to employed persons, unemployed individuals experience higher levels of psychopathology (e.g., depression, substance abuse, panic disorder; Avison, 2002; Warr, 1987). Longitudinal and cross-sectional research also indicates that involuntary job loss is associated with lower scores on measures of global mental health (Gallo et al., 2000) and self-rated health (He et al., 2003) among older individuals.

Some researchers seeking to understand the association between job loss and health consider the stressful nature of termination (Baum, Fleming & Reddy, 1986; Beland, Birch, & Stoddart, 2001; Ensminger & Celentano, 1988; Marshall et al., 2001). According to the Canadian Mental Health Association (2002), unexpected job loss is a major life crisis, regardless of age, involving a grieving process and the experience of significant stress. Additionally, unemployment often causes greater stress in one's family and financial situation that may further undermine one's sense of self-esteem, self-efficacy, and perceived social support. If a person does not have the resources or skills to cope successfully with this stressful event, negative health outcomes may result. Avison (2002) elaborates on the stress process model, indicating that mediating or intervening factors such as positive social relationships can buffer the negative impact of unemployment on health while moderating factors such as reduced self-esteem or increased family conflict may exacerbate the effects of stress on illness.

Other research has looked more specifically at the situation of displaced older workers and how job loss impacts the health of this sub-population. Several studies point to the economic implications of unemployment in later life and describe how this may negatively affect health by compromising short-term and long-term financial security (Chan & Stevens, 1999; Couch, 1998; Gallo et al., 2000). As previously noted, older workers typically face a longer duration of job seeking without salary or benefits. This affects one's ability to save for retirement and may require the use of savings that had been set aside for future years (Couch, 1998; Gallo et al., 2000). Furthermore, older individuals have less opportunity to compensate for such financial setbacks since they face potentially substantial wage reductions and job insecurity even upon reemployment (Chan & Stevens, 1999).

The unexpected nature of a job loss in later life may also have implications for older workers that extend beyond economics. There is evidence that a majority of people tend to plan toward retirement several years in advance, organizing their lives, and making choices (e.g., saving more or less, 'sticking it out' in a bad job with a good pension) based on their expectations of when it will occur (Ekerdt, Kosloski, & DeViney, 2000). Unexpected job loss therefore creates stress by disrupting extensive, careful planning and decision-making. Also related to this is the loss of control that may accompany an involuntary job loss, leaving older workers with a sense that the circumstances affecting their lives are beyond their influence (Baum et al., 1986; Canadian Council on Social Development, 1999; Warr, 1987). Perceived control has been established as an important element of health and well-being in later life through its association with self-efficacy, proactive coping, psychosocial adaptation and good health behaviours (O'Rourke, 2002; Waller & Bates, 1992). Thus, the loss of a job may undermine older workers'belief that the actions they take positively impact their quality of life.

Furthermore, Pearlin and Yu (2000) contend that the loss of work may be equated with a personal loss. These authors suggest that it is the unscheduled and involuntary nature of loss that causes an individual to redefine a relatively objective role loss into a devastating personal loss, thereby making the person susceptible to diminished self-worth and self-esteem. Accordingly, an unstable transition from work into retirement after taking a buy-out package, characterized by working when the expectation was to retire early or not working when the expectation was to find new employment, is associated with lower life satisfaction and higher life stress for men (Marshall et al., 2001). This is less true for women perhaps because they are accustomed to discontinuity in their work histories due to familial obligations (Marshall et al., 2001).

Moreover, it appears that the more important the work role is in an older person's life, the greater the negative affect on self-identity. According to Westerhof and Dittmann-Kohli (2000), society provides a 'standard biography' against which people define, evaluate and interpret their lives. The standard biography for the current generation of older adults has entailed a life pattern where people progressed from education to work and then finally to retirement (for women, 'work'was typically within the home). Each stage is separate from the others and involves different values, beliefs and self-definitions. Therefore, those who consider themselves in the 'work'portion of their lives will rate their job, work role and employment-related abilities as valuable and central to their self-definition (Westerhof & Dittmann-Kohli, 2000). While today's society may expect a financially-secure 60-year-old engineer who has just been laid off to move easily into retirement, this lost work role may be devastating if the individual does not yet view him/herself as a retiree. This helps to explain the fact that the well-being of retirees and homemakers is less affected by their non-work status relative to unemployed older adults, even when these groups are of a similar age (Marshall & Clarke,

2002; Westerhof & Dittmann-Kohli, 2000). Accordingly, Bossé, Aldwin, Levenson, and Ekerdt (1987) suggest that their research linking early retirement with symptoms of depression, somatization and anxiety indicates that when retirement is involuntary and out of step with one's peers (thereby different from the standard biography), poor mental health can result.

Finally, the link between extended job loss and poorer health may be partially explained by the loss of social ties present in the workplace. Social interaction is an important dimension of work for most people (Mor-Barak, 1995). Based on their research, Mor-Barak, Scharlach, Birba, and Sokolov (1992) assert that employment in later life is related to a larger network of friends (not family or confidants) and, through this relationship, to perceived health. While research must further clarify the mechanisms, it is apparent that for older workers who desire employment, the loss of a job has deleterious affects on health; therefore, programs aiming to alleviate involuntary unemployment in this population have important health-related functions.

Employment Programs for Older Workers in Canada

Programs specific to older workers did not exist in Canada until recently as older workers have historically been the most advantaged in terms of job stability, security and wages (HRDC, 1999). This relative advantage has disappeared in recent years and various types of programs to aid older displaced workers have since emerged (HRDC, 1999); these include income support, career retraining and job search interventions. Income support programs provide older persons laid off from long-term jobs some financial assistance to bridge the gap until retirement eligibility or new employment. For instance, the Program for Older Worker Adjustment (POWA), jointly funded by the Federal and British Columbia Governments from 1990 to 1997, provided a safety net of up to $1,000 per month to older workers who had been displaced due to downsizing or plant layoffs and had exhausted Employment Insurance benefits (British Columbia Ministry of Advanced Education, 1997). Income support programs, however, may act as a disincentive to reemployment (HRDC, 1999); for example, a 1996 evaluation revealed that POWA participants were 20% less likely to become reemployed than non-POWA older displaced workers. Such income support programs are termed 'passive'and contrast with other programs that require 'active'participant involvement (HRDC, 1999).

Retraining programs provide older workers with new or updated skills, such as computer familiarity enabling them to be competitive in today's changing workplace (Wolf et al., 1995). Research shows that high motivation facilitates success in such programs while extensive experience in a single job throughout one's life is associated with lower success (Wolf et al., 1995). In general, it is important that these programs be well designed for older workers and include elements such as: allowing ample time; providing support and feedback; ensuring mastery at each stage; building on familiar elements; and limiting memory requirements (Wolf et al., 1995).

Retraining components may also be incorporated into job search programs, currently the most popular type of older worker program in Canada. Of the five existing programs targeting older displaced workers in British Columbia's lower mainland (i.e., Vancouver and surrounding areas), four have a strong job search focus. These interventions teach older adults the requisite skills for a successful job hunt, such as résumé-writing, networking, and interviewing within a leader-led, group environment where participants are motivated by and benefit from the support and feedback of others (Rife & Belcher, 1994). Within these groups, older workers are able to share their fears and frustrations with peers, many whom have had similar experiences.

According to O'Neill (senior advisor for an older worker pilot project administered by British Columbia's Ministry of Advanced Education and funded by Human Resources Development Canada), there has been a shift where passive income support programs have fallen out of favour and more active programs are receiving funding (personal communication, March 8, 2002). HRDC (1999) suggests that this shift is positive for the older worker, citing research and the results of focus groups held by the National Advisory Council on Aging (NACA) indicating that most older workers want to work and, "for the majority, only full-time employment would satisfy their economic, social and psychological needs" (p. 13). A valid question arises, however, as to why governments at one time thought it best to provide income assistance to displaced older workers but now believe that income support programs are undesirable. The rationale behind this shift is likely fiscal given the realization that an aging workforce has fostered the current trend of early retirement. This change in emphasis to active programs conveniently comes on the verge of the retirement of the baby-boom generation when an exit of this group en masse from the labour force would have significant economic implications. The motivation behind older worker programs is further illuminated by an examination of how (and how not) they are evaluated.

Evaluation of Programs for Older Workers

In general, evaluation of programs targeting displaced older workers is limited (Olson & Robbins, 1986; Walker & Taylor, 1999). The Evaluation and Data Development Branch of HRDC (1999) produced a report purporting to summarize the lessons learned thus far from experiences with older worker adjustment programs within Canada and selected countries. While programs targeting older workers vary widely in terms of their frequency, duration, methods and structure, this report and other research identify several characteristics that appear to contribute to the efficacy of such initiatives. The literature indicates that successful programs: are community-based; take a client-centred approach in responding to diversity in goals and abilities; actively involve older workers in development and implementation stages; often include peer-counselling and job-placement elements; have clearly defined goals related to this population and; provide an element of social support (HRDC, 1999; Rife,

1994, 1995; Vinokur et al., 1991).

The objectives that serve as the basis for defining the success of older worker programs are less explicitly stated, however. Most studies we reviewed frame their assessments about program effectiveness in terms of how many older workers become reemployed or the intensity of an older adult's job search (HRDC, 1999; Nathanson & O'Rourke, 1994; Rife, 1995; Rife & Belcher, 1994; Wolf et al., 1995). Within Canada specifically, the evaluation of older worker programs may be examined by looking at the information requested by HRDC from the various programs it funds. This information provides a purely quantitative overview of the extent to which certain quotas were met (e.g., the number of job search groups run per month, the number of people completing these programs, and the proportion of job seekers within a program who become employed within three months; R. James, program manager of Canadian Career Moves, personal communication, March 8, 2002). A HRDC report (1999) states that the definition of "success depends on the economic and political objectives being sought" (p. 27). If meeting of quotas defines the success of these programs, it appears as though their primary objective is narrowly focused on getting older persons back to work quickly. Notably absent from this type of evaluation is consideration of the subjective experience and perceptions of the older workers as they experience unexpected job loss, grapple with decisions such as reemployment or early retirement, face the unfamiliar and sometimes frightening task of looking for a job, and deal with the physical, psychological and social implications to their health. Only one outcome evaluation was identified that considered the reemployed older person's satisfaction with the new job (Kaye et al., 1999).

On a more positive note, some individual programs themselves attempt to address these issues (e.g., through regular participant evaluations; R. James, personal communication, March 8, 2002). Also, the evaluation criteria for the Older Worker Pilot Project partnered by the Federal and British Columbia Governments shows promise in terms of adding more depth to this process. For instance, assessment of the 15 programs that have been funded across British Columbia under this 1-year project will go beyond quantitative data and consider the extent to which participants'goals were altered and/or met, their satisfaction with their new job once reemployed, and how prepared they felt for their job search (A. Nystrom, personal communication, March 1, 2002; J. O'Neill, personal communication, March 8, 2002).

While the inclusion of qualitative data in the pilot project evaluation process is certainly positive, it still remains unclear whose needs and desires these programs serve. According to the ideals of health promotion, interventions targeting a specific population should involve that group as an equal and active partner in the planning, implementation and evaluation stages (Green & Kreuter, 1991). Although the Older Worker Pilot Project is an improvement in terms of evaluation, the failure to include older workers in its inception suggests that the underlying objectives of the program may be more about ensuring their contribution to the economy (and program continuity) than addressing the unique and diverse needs of participants. Involvement of older workers in the development of programs is necessary to ensure these interventions address participant needs (Green & Kreuter, 1991). For instance, though an older adult may experience several periods of unemployment after an initial job loss, current job search programs do not conduct long-term follow-up to determine whether the participant remains reemployed or shortly returns to an unemployed state. The extent to which older persons who desire to work are maintaining employment after being rehired is a worthy outcome for assessment. With the guidance of older workers, these programs may begin to focus more on health and well-being outcomes rather than short-term job search success. As is, older worker program evaluations rarely consider the health of the individual in the assessment of their effectiveness (Avison, 2002).

Areas for Improvement

Drawing upon examples in other countries, such as Japan and the European Union, apparent are various means by which older worker programs in Canada may be improved. A few have already been discussed, such as the need for a more bottom-up approach that includes older persons in program planning, implementation and evaluation. This could be accomplished through focus groups, representation of older workers on steering and panel review committees, and greater input from program participants. This type of involvement would help ensure that program goals, methods and structure are both acceptable and appropriate for the group they purport to serve.

Also mentioned is a need to include more health-related objectives in the measurement of program success. Only one study could be identified that specifically evaluated program effectiveness in terms of a health-related objective, in this case, reduced depressive symptomatology (Rife, 1992). Hence, an important expansion to current evaluations would be to address programs'ability to assist participants in coping with the stress, threats to personal identity, and feelings of decreased control that can accompany job loss. Rife (1994) advocates for the assessment of informal and formal support as well as the use of clinical screening instruments to identify pronounced depressive symptomatology by community-based programs providing job search training and placement programs for older workers.

Other issues upon which programs targeting the needs of displaced older workers in Canada may improve include: better communication between program funders, implementers and participants; greater collaboration between government and business; and an attempt to take a preventative and proactive approach to the issue of job loss in late career. Regarding the first issue, it would appear that communication between HRDC, the organizations receiving funding for these programs, and the target population of older workers are not well established. For example, the evaluation report conducted by HRDC in 1999 holds valuable information for program implementers but has not been disseminated to all of these programs (R. James, personal commu-

nication, March 8, 2002). The utility of conducting an evaluation project is questionable if the front-line workers are not able to benefit from its content. A lack of awareness of the recently initiated Older Worker Pilot Project (that includes a total of 15 programs in British Columbia) is also evident; employment counselling staff at a local HRDC office were unaware of its existence. Obviously, more effective communication is needed to ensure that programs take advantage of recent knowledge and that settings where unemployed older workers seek assistance are fully aware of available resources.

Efforts to increase the collaboration among business, governments and communities may be one way to promote greater knowledge dissemination and awareness. According to Canada's Framework for Population Health (Advisory Committee on Population Health, 1994), the link between employment and health suggests that "the involvement of employment and business sectors is essential to bring about changes to ensure that the workplace fosters good health" (p 19). A national initiative established in 1975 to encourage greater workforce participation of older adults in Japan (the country with the highest international rates of labour force participation for an older adult population according to Statistics Canada, 1999), indicates that securing the interest and support of various levels of government and local business are key to their success (Bass & Oka, 1995). Initiatives that forge partnerships among key stakeholders ensure that interventions are feasible, relevant and understood by those who may have a direct or indirect influence on their success as well as those who are intended to benefit from them. One way in which this type of collaborative effort may occur is by involving businesses and influential community organizations as well as sites where older persons may be likely to work. Then, representatives from these settings, governmental bodies such as HRDC and British Columbia's Ministry of Advanced Education, Training and Labour, and the target population could form steering committees with a mandate to plan and/or evaluate programs for older workers. This type of arrangement would foster greater understanding of the situation of displaced older workers and facilitate greater involvement of local businesses and other organizations in programs, such as through job placement opportunities. In Britain, for example, the Hands on Support and Training (HOST) program matches skills and experience of older unemployed managers with projects proposed by local companies or entrepreneurs. After a training program to restore their confidence and latent skills, these older workers assist the start-up of local projects, demonstrating their relevant and valuable experience and abilities to potential employers (Collis, Mallier, & Smith-Canham, 1999).

Finally, given the influence of work on health and the potentially deleterious effects of job loss in late career, consideration of a more proactive approach to dealing with the issues of older displaced workers is warranted. Based on a thorough attempt to identify best practices in the employment of older workers in the European Union, Walker and Taylor (1999) advocate for a holistic approach to age and employment involving "an integrated policy that would encompass the whole career" that includes "both preventative measures (such as lifelong education) and remedial ones (training for older workers lacking specific skills, for example in new technology)" (p. 72). These authors suggest that implementation of policy and practice with a strict focus on older adults, such as encouraging older workers to remain in the workplace throughout late career by increasing the age of pension eligibility, could have negative implications for aging employees who need to retire early due to ill health. An alternative approach would involve interventions that address the entire lifespan such as ongoing training and education as a normative part of the work experience. According to one advocate of lifelong learning (Schultz, 2000), this should involve a focus on teaching basic skills that are easily transferred across jobs (e.g., computer skills, written communication, financial planning, good health practices). Also, innovative work arrangements such as job sharing and flexible work hours, while challenging to develop, would provide more variety and options to meet the needs and lifestyles of persons of all ages (Wanner, 1994). Collaboration among business, government and education sectors, already identified as an area for improvement, would be critical to making such a proactive, life-span approach successful.

Summary and Conclusion

Examination of older worker programs in Canada brings to light important issues. First, the health implications of unemployment and job loss, particularly as it relates to persons in latter career stages, must be better understood. Research addressing this issue should be disseminated to those who plan and implement programs aimed at unemployed individuals over age 44. Evaluation of effectiveness should consider the ability of programs to achieve outcomes beyond reemployment including those related to health and well-being.

Second, the development and evaluation of these programs must involve greater participation from their target groups. To date, it appears that fiscal objectives imposed in a top-down fashion by governments define these programs. Without the input of older workers themselves, a program's structure, process and goals may be inappropriate or irrelevant to the group it purports to serve. Related to the first point, this type of participatory action would undoubtedly lead to an increased effort by older worker programs to buffer the negative impact of unemployment on mental and physical health.

Third, a better system of communication between those who fund, implement and participate in these programs is required given the finite resources available to program planners. Lines of communication would be further improved through addressing a fourth issue, the need for multi-sectoral collaboration among stakeholders. This type of cooperative effort would foster understanding, support and input from all parties that have vested interest the success of the intervention.

Finally, a philosophical shift in focus is required to more effectively address the issue of involuntary job loss in late career. This would entail the

reallocation of resources away from remedial programs to those that take a more proactive approach to the problem. These programs might involve life-long learning efforts to ensure that people remain competitive in the workplace across the lifespan as well as the development of a wider and more flexible array of employment options to reflect the diverse abilities, needs and lifestyles that exist within the population.

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Ethics and Professionalism in Counselling

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Abstract

In the present situation the coun - sellor no longer holds a specific given role. Because definitive operation mod - els and formula do not exist as they once did, questions of right and wrong force one to approach each question and case individually. Therefore, coun - selling work can no longer be based strictly on the "counsellor knows best" philosophy, but should be based both on the personal relationship that exists between the counsellor and help-seeker and the reinterpretation of problems and solutions concerning risk and ethics. Questions concerning coun - selling professionalism, professional ethics and the ability to cope with work are intertwined in many ways with everyday working situations. It would appear that ethical issues often become concentrated, visible and cause friction in the various relationships and bound - aries to be found in counsellors'daily work settings.

Uncertainty brings out a normative horizon (Beck 1993), and it would appear that ethical ques-tions arise in new forms in counselling practices. Professional ethics may be objection - able if the counsellor attempts to avoid painful ambivalence and, instead, for the benefit of the help-seeker, acts out a performance of the picture of the coun - sellor as an omniscient expert. According to Mark Savickas, coun - selling professionals have moved or are in the process of moving past the atti - tude in which the client is seen as the "problem" and the counsellor as the "solution." Instead, by specifying them - selves as facilitators of truth, the pro - fessionals can create time and space for the clients, who, in turn, can then speak and act for themselves (Savickas, 1993; see also: Harju, Kallio & Kurhila, in press; Onnismaa, 1998).

The article is divided into three parts. First, we shall shortly examine the controversial nature of moral and ethical issues in late modernity. Secondly, codes for professional ethics are discussed. Thirdly, a suggestion is made that counselling expertise could be depicted as "boundary exper-tise", identifying and redefining work related boundaries. Ethically problematic situ - ations can, via the identifying and redefining of boundaries, bring forth new and more fruitful points of view.

Abivalence and Narriatives

Alasdair McIntyre (1981) states that the moral precepts of everyday life form a chaotic composition, which can be compared with the playing of several games simultaneously. Zygmunt Bauman (1991) maintains that continu-ous *negotiations* have replaced familiar strictly binding values. In the work community, leaders are being invited to negotiate with those working under them. This way of thought can also be seen in many current child-rearing man-uals, where parents are being encour-aged to negotiate with their children. The age-old questions, like pondering the meaning of life and life-values, are especially painful. The traditional val-ues, on which one would like to lean, unavoidably narrow the field of choic-es, while, simultaneously, bringing about the desire to broaden the field of choices. This ambivalence causes the accumulation of moral self-conscious-ness. According to Bauman (1996) to let morality out of the artificially con-structed ethical codes, means to *re-per - sonalise* it.

Ambivalence in life can cause indi-viduals to feel themselves alone and to have been "thrown into the world" at large. This sense of isolation stems from the notion that moral and ethical questions have a shared and communal nature. Gergen (*s.a.*) states that the moral identity of the individual is creat-ed in connection with others and from the *narratives of the self*. These stories are used both to create and to maintain the merit and worth of self and others. Individual integrity is strongly connect-ed to moral identity, defining self as something worthy and acceptable indi-vidual by the standards inhering in one's relationships.

According to Riikonen and Smith (1997) narrative is often seen as the most comprehensive form of synthetic understanding, and therefore moral rea-soning and moral imagination should be ex-amined in a narrative context. Gergen (*s.a.*) suggests that, in Western culture, to intelligibly narrate oneself is to approach a state of moral identity, of communal decency. One can "narrate her/himself" as a stable and coherent individual (*stability narrative*), who is attempting to achieve a standard of excellence (*progressive narrative*) and is fighting against earlier setbacks or injuries (*regressive narrative*).

By one's narratives, one's moral status is negotiated, and the result is one to which the person can subse-quently be held responsible. The stories perpetrated about oneself also form the foundation of a morally sound commu-nity. Each of us is "knitted into" others' historical constructions, as they are into ours. The ability to form a moral indi-vidual identity is dependent on the his-tory of the community:

> People with our history do not engage in x; we uphold the ideas of y; as you chose y over x, you are one of us; you are a good and worthy person, a moral being. (Gergen, s.a., 11).

Individualisation

In past decades, individuality and individualisation have been strongly emphasised (Beck, 1993, Giddens, 1994). According to Rose (1995) indi-viduals are nowadays expected to *fulfil their obli-gations* to society through an attempt to *fulfil themselves*, although not based on dependent rela-tionships of responsibility between people. Individuals must control their lives in such a way that their choices in this world represent and actualise the "truth

of their inner selves." Consequently, caring about others can "hinder" the realisation of self-fulfilment.

However, Peter Jarvis (1997) states that at least one more value, caring for others, seems to be a constant principle throughout all ethical thinking. Bauman believes that emphasizing individual rationality in ethics isolates the self, exactly that which is seen as being moral:

> Reason cannot help the moral self without depriving the self of what makes the self moral: that unfounded, non-rational, unarguable, no-excuses-given and non-calculable urge to stretch towards the other, to caress, to be for, to live for, happen what may. (Bauman, 1996, p. 247.)

Bauman, who sees ethics as "the first philosophy", bases his thinking largely on the work of Levi-nas (1985). Moral responsibility towards the Other is placed above all else. The adoption of a moral stance of "I-for-the-other" can help to offset the dangers of post-modern relativism and isolation of the individual. The morally responsible counsellor often finds herself living out Dostoevsky's famous maxim: "*We are all responsible for everyone else—but I am more responsible than all the others*" (cit. in Peavy, 2000).

Codes for Professional Ethics

Traditionally, it was thought that the mere existence of a code of professional ethics was enough to earn a professional group professional status. Can the guidance field, then, be considered as a "genuine profession"?

The birth of *professio* is connected with the evolution of division of labour and also with the bat-tle for power. According to Lindqvist (1995), *profes - sio* signifies a distinctly profiled and inde-pendent profession. There is a common professional socialisation, identitiy and a clearly defined status in society for all those who work in that profession. To a great extent, the same seems to apply to both guidance professions and areas of social work, where there is a great uncertainty about the theoretical and knowledge foundation of the professions and professional identity. As a profession, social work is relatively young, the field evolved from a rather unprofessional func-tion, which involved a variety of tasks and duties. It has been observed that the level of respect held by society for the social field is not very high.

One prerequisite for the existence of *professio* is the classification of individual qualification standards for each helping field. Another kind of point, according to Lindqvist (1995), is whether the qualification standards - if indeed the reaching of such a consensus would be possible - would correspond directly with the inner mental image concerning what fundamentally provides the work with justification and identity.

The functions of professional ethical codes can vary greatly. Firstly, they can contain the charac-teristics of professional *norms*, for instance, respect for the client. There is no exact predeter-mined sanction for the breaking of norms, whereas there may be one is the case of breaking a professional *rule*. For example, the writing of a certification by a doctor, without sufficient or proper grounds, of a person's inability to work. Secondly, professional ethical codes can be seen either as helping tools for ethical consideration in specific cases or as principles which define the profession as a whole. In the latter case, the purpose is not support in practical situations but to inform workers of the significance of their work. Thirdly, ethical codes are *political*, in that they give justification for the profession, in which case the message is pointed outwardly. However, if the sole purpose of ethical codes is to justify the methods already chosen by a profession, the ethi-cal significance of such codes is questionable (Räikkä, Kotkavirta & Sajama, 1995).

One way of categorising professional ethical codes is to examine collective internal traits. Corey (1996) claims that there are some basic principles that have been observed behind all counsellors'ethical codes, which are as follows: 1. *beneficence*, doing good to others, 2. "*nonmaleficence*", not causing harm to others, 3. *autonomy*, respecting personal integrity, 4. *justice*, equal and fair treatment to all clients, and 5. *fidelity*, being just and honest.

Principles in abstract level are problematic merely as a result of their lack of problems. Helping work is "good" by definition. However, in different helping professions, as in counselling work, harm is sometimes inevitably being done, either intentionally or unintentionally. When there is a lack of resources, a limited freedom to function or when one is forced to choose between the lesser of two evils, moral courage and thoroughly pondered ethics are needed.

It might be problematic when ethical codes are abstract and hard to apply to specific situations, but, on the other hand, the highly detailed professional ethical codes in the counselling field seem to communicate more about the desire to avoid time consuming lawsuits than about the desire to lead professionals towards their primary task.

Processional ethical codes have been evaluated from various different points of views. According to House (1988), power holders appreciate a formal view of ethics-as-action that is carried out according to just standards, as this is not seen as a threat to the ideological *status quo*. Edwards and Payne (1997) contend that the professional codes are a reflection of an implicit liberal-humanist view of the self while the quality frameworks inscribe a rational-choice model of the self. Both are individualistic and abstract and both universalise certain characteristics as intrinsic of all human beings. Meijers (1995) sees the professional ethical codes observed in the guidance field reflecting a individual-societal dualism and portraying too little about the goals of guidance, against which professional action could be properly observed.

According to Silfverberg (1998), in the counselling field the professional ethical standards apply to how the counsellors ought to relate to their clientele, colleagues and society as a whole. Adop-tion of rules leaves an impression that ethical behaviour is somehow measurable and that there is a predetermined, correct way of acting in every possible situation. Most professional ethical codes are expressed as general principles, rules and guidelines.

Aristotle wrote in *Ethica Nicomachea* (1975) that there is no definitive mode of performing in any given situation; the choice must come down to each person as an individual.

Aristotelian virtue as a basis for professional ethics refers to ethics that have been conceived, relating to action rather than in obeying abstract guidelines. Silfverberg (1998) believes that professional ethical codes are pointed backwards, not forwards and that *obeying rules has no connection with ethics.* The process in which the professional becomes only gradually aware of what is expected of him or her is usually ignored in professional ethical instructions. New situations crave new methods of reaction, imagination and listening. In working with people, the sorting out of an acute situation and the demands involved in that situation is, in itself, moral behaviour. Moral responsibility begins well before a decision for action is made. Also Bauman (1996) points out that re-personalising begins well before a decision for action is made. Also Bauman (1996) points out that re-personalising morality means returning moral responsibility from the finishing line (to which it was exiled) to the starting point (where it is at home) of the ethical process.

Instead of seeing ethics in counselling work as predetermined codes, ethics could instead be seen *as a resource and tool for every phase of the counselling process.* For example, the quality of communication should be defined using moral criteria. Good communication is what does good things to people. It expands people's possibilities and increases their experience of self-worth (Lahikainen, 1995, Riikonen & Smith, 1997).

Counselling Field Ethics as Relationships and Boundaries

In the counselling field, ambivalence, in the sense of Bauman,[1] should not be swept under the carpet but should be taken openly into general consideration. Ambivalence should not be seen as putting an additional strain on counselling work that should be gotten rid of but should be seen as an intrinsic part of counselling work.

Three suggestions about counselling professionalism and ethics in the counselling field are as follows:

Thesis 1. Questions concerning counselling professionalism, professional ethics and the ability to cope with work are intertwined in many ways with everyday working situations. These questions become concentrated, visible and cause friction in the *relationships* and *boundaries*[2] that exist between people and relevant issues. These stress-filled boundaries may exist, e.g., in relation-ships between professionals and their clients, their colleagues, their organisations, their partners, and their professional identities (Nummenmaa & Yli-Vakkuri, 1998). Additionally, boundaries, and the crossing of them, can become heightened through the realisation of the counsellor's and client's past, present, or future selves.

Thesis 2. It is possible to depict the above-mentioned relationships, concentrations and friction as so-called critical incidents or dilemmas. In depicting a dilemma, the situation is such that there are only bad alternatives to choose from. The depiction method may be in some way illustrative, but it does not necessarily empower counselling practitioners. Everyday work occurrences that are contemplated in retrospect and that offer ethical problems and possibly reveal a turning point can better be portrayed to both oneself and others using a critical case method. It is these cases with which one often can't find adequate time to deal in daily work.

Thesis 3. Professionalism in counselling and guidance can be depicted as "*boundary expertise*", identifying and redefining work related boundaries. Ethically problematic situations can, via the identifying and redefining of boundaries, bring forth new and more fruitful points of view. Better identification of boundaries, both individually or together with colleagues or in supervision encounters, clarifies the primary task and contributes to coping in work situations and to well-being, which quite certainly is conveyed in the help-seeker - counsellor relationship.

In the following section, the relations and boundaries between the counselling professional and the help-seeker, organisation and professional identity is covered. Little attention will be paid to separate questions conceived from practical work situations. The section will instead concentrate on the relationships and boundaries concerning the ethical starting points of counselling work.

The Client-Counsellor Relationship

In the counselling encounter others cannot be "known" nor can they be defined. Levinas asserts that no one can penetrate into other people's time or link their time to one's own time through recollection or anticipation. How is it possible to have a connection between individuals in the first place, when one cannot have knowledge of others? Leveinas (1985) feels that connection with another person need not be thought of as knowledge, but can be seen as closeness, being face to face, or stepping into a communal relationship. To be social is to have contact and to reach out to others.

Also Bakhtin opposes the "knowing" and defining the Other. As long as a person is alive he/she is not finalized, he/she has not uttered his/her ultimate word:

> The truth about a man in the mouth of others, not directed to him dialogically and therefore a secondhand truth, becomes a lie degrading and deadening him – The consciousness of other people cannot be perceived, analyzed, defined as objects or as things - one can only relate to them dialogically. To think about them means to talk with them; otherwise they immediately turn to us their objectivized side: they fall silent, close up, and congeal into finished, objectivized images. – Truth is not born nor is it to be found inside the head of an individual person, it is born between people collectively searching for truth, in the process of their dialogic interaction. (Bakhtin, 1984, pp. 59, 68, 110)

By applying the ideas of Bakhtin and Shotter, it can be suggested that all knowledge concerning relationships cannot be given a descriptive form. Shotter (1993) claims that relationships between people base themselves mostly on a special kind of knowledge, "knowledge of the third kind." It is not knowing *what* (descriptive, theoretical) or knowing *how* (methodological), but knowing *from* (a social situation). This type of knowledge has to do with how we relate to our situation or circumstances.

As with Wittgenstein, one can see

that the primary function of research is to discover mental images and metaphors that stop the automatic flow of events and better bring forward things that have become self-evident truths, while at the same time revealing new connections and possibilities. New situations and topics are constantly being created through interaction and speech, as well as through internal dialogue, which momentarily binds those who are communicating, giving the interaction and experiences a more concrete structure. The borders that enfold situations and topics are intrinsically nebulae, negating the existence of objective borders. Every attempt to discuss or define borders or to control them concurrently ends in changing them (cit. in Riikonen & Smith, 1997).

In this context, guidance and counselling professionalism as "boundary-professionalism" can signify, among other things, that the borders of both the help-seeker's and counselling professional's responsibilities and roles are identified and made visible through negotiations. While taking responsibility for the help-seekers'well being is an important part of the counsellor's job description, it should not be confused with taking responsibility for the client, as such. Attempts must be made to make it clear what boundaries and possibilities exist within interaction. The client and counselling professional can examine together the borders the help-seeker is ready to cross at the given moment, and what kind of new situations could possibly develop as a result of the crossing.

Riikonen and Smith (1997) see *providentiality* as an essential feature of dialogical interaction. Providential interaction invites all participants to use their skills to create connectedness, mean-ingfulness and promise together.

Counsellor's Relationship with Organisation

Counselling professionals often work in connection with an organisation. The justification for such organisational structures is to provide the possibility and framework needed to commence with the primary task. However, this doesn't always occur. In recent years, the basic objectives of many organisations have been in constant flux. Those "learning organisations" have been forced to acknowledge that examples of constant change have been provided for interest groups. In such cases, counselling professionals are forced to do their jobs as if apologising or, even, in secrecy. The "top" expert seems to be the one who reacts quickest to rapidly changing and, often, conflicting demands.

Consistently running after new ideas, denying the past and, on the other hand, hanging on to the past are, according to C. G. Jung, two sides of the same coin. The opposites of these are reflectivity, ability and a willingness to put every action into its proper context, while pondering the starting points and possible consequences, as well as making self-clarification problematic.

It seems that, in many places, contemplation of professional ethics have been taken underground. The so-called discussions of values and declarations of visions by the management of organisations are in many cases too abstract and much too difficult to apply in practice. Through the use of technical standards, the quality standard systems seem to be overshadowing the professional ethical point of view. Correct performance in counselling is reduced as the consistent avoidance of mistakes. In spite of the fact that counselling involves many agonising, distressing and multifaceted issues, the quality of client satisfaction is being monitored using superficial meters. Such circumstances are not always likely to bring about a high level of immediate client-satisfaction. Another problem is that the consumer oriented point of view, which at first sight seems to be a very contemporary approach, transforms the help-seeker into a mere functional object, in a manner varying only slightly from the traditional objectifying "specialist" systems. This marketing trend, which is particularly evident in the adult guidance and counselling, has swept through many organisations. This market oriented counselling creates other kinds of difficult-to-define relationships and boundaries between people and issues. According to Varto (1999) the marketplace itself has no clear definition, since it is merely a matter of technique that allows one to take something as something, so that thing can be evaluated in relationship to anything else. The marketplace as a producer of semantic correlation can both create and destroy qualities, but above all it makes it impossible to identify issues and events as being a part of the world at large. The greater the part the marketplace is given in everyday life, the less things there are that can be evaluated using moral guidelines. If counselling is turned into manufactured service, the most effective aspects of counselling are lost.

Rose (1995) presents one explanation for the lack of alternatives available in market discourse. The marketplace concept has, perhaps, touched all political groups, one reason being that even the left-wing groups haven't been able to offer any alternative which would be on the same level with the ethics of the modern self. In the currently dominating self-ethics, the individual is presented as an autonomic, free agent whose objective is to maximise the quality of his/her life via choices.

In relation to one's own organisation, counselling professionalism as "boundary-professionalism" can include continuous, persistent reminders of the primary task of the organisation in various ways. The best way for this to succeed is in connection with concrete co-operation projects, using dialogue, not monologue declarations. Also, quality projects at time may include positive potential. While work evaluation criteria are being pondered, it is possible to raise discussion about the often disregarded object of evaluation. It should also be kept in mind, that allies can be found in unexpected places. It is important to take time with colleagues for the contemplation of guidance work.

Counsellor's Relationship to Professional Identity

In practical counselling, there are daily so many ethical contradictions that are encountered that it is impossible to deal with others, or, even, what is going on in one's own mind. In situations containing ethical choices, counselling professionals may be exposed to continuous "inner trials." This can, in time, reflect on the ability to cope with work.

In a counselling encounter it is possible to study the client's multiple-selves of past, present and future. Narratives, metaphors, as well as drawing of life-space maps, can all be useful in re-searching the surfacing potential in making use of future selves (Peavy, 1997). Similar measures are also possible when counselling professionals connect their own professional identity to themselves or colleagues. In the latter case, a certain amount of trust is needed among colleagues, which means that the process will inevitably involve the revealing of insecurities. A jealous work atmosphere is not going to be particularly fruitful for this kind of discussion.

According to Hyyppä (1983, p. 51), some criteria for professional development and maturity can be said to be "*a living connection with one's internal experience, fantasy, imagination and contemplation, and also the capability to connect these with one's primary task*." If counselling professionals are buried beneath the burdensome thought that they are indispensable and "good", or if the organisational power structures and power struggles cause continuous friction, then it is possible that the joy of work, self-esteem and the use of imagination are in danger of vanishing. Since morals are based largely on imagination, in a narrowing work situation one's own professional ethics are diminished to the point of becoming mechanical and outward looking. In helping professions, taking care of oneself and maintaining functional ability are professional ethical responsibilities.

Supervision cannot be seen as the once and for all solution for unwanted friction and ambivalence caused by the myriad of relationships and boundaries which belong to the field of counselling. It can, however, offer the time and the place to contemplate the relationships and boundaries. The same can be achieved in supervision situations than in counselling: to discover mental images and metaphors that stop the automatic flow of events and better bring forward things that have be-come self-evident truths, while at the same time revealing new connections and possibilities. (Riikonen & Smith, 1997, see above).

When colleagues and, possibly, an outside supervisor, work as mirrors and, as a result, a new kind of situation with new rules is created, the professional future "me's" can become integrated and connected and new stories can be conceived. The boundaries of professional identity can be discovered at those points of intersection where the individual's dynamics, inner dynamics or those of the community become evident in supervision. Supervision in itself includes situations that can correspond to the work situations of those doing the counselling, and the situation can bring out experiential data about both the work and individual as a professional.

Conclusion:"Centrifugal" professional ethics?

According to Bakhtin, all speech, writing and behaviour is created through the tension that exists in *centrifugal* and *centripetal* powers. Centrifugal powers are attached to the uniqueness of speech situations. The latter can be oppressive and they standardise meanings. Each and every expression is thus both a creative happening and a result of foreign and normative forces (Cit. in Riikonen and Smith, 1997). The use of "centrifugal" professional ethics can help to return to counselling professionals the language and expertise that may have faded into the background under the pressure of apparent efficiency, reacting to demands strange to counselling work. Also, in this way, the well-being of employees and the working environment can be improved, obtaining more permanent results than through the implementation of detached and restricting so called "improvement projects".

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[1]According to Bauman (1991) the traditional values, on which one would like to lean, unavoidably narrow the field of choices, while, simultaneously, bringing about the desire to broaden the field of choices. This ambivalence causes the accumulation of moral self-consciousness (see above).

[2]In this article “boundaries” are looked in a perspective of systems approach in organisational psychology, see e.g.

Book Review

What Next, Barbara Moses

Roberta A. Neault

What next? This question encapsulates the career dilemma faced by most clients that come to career practitioners for help. It's also a question that those practitioners may be asking themselves. What next? My organization is restructuring…how can I position myself to be one of the survivors? I'm about to graduate from university. I'm suddenly the sole supporter of my family. I'm so bored with work that it's hard to get out of bed in the morning.

What next?, Barbara Moses'most recent book (2003), is designed to help individuals, at all career stages, uncover the answer to this compelling question. Moses subtitles her book: *The complete guide to taking control of your working life.* I'm delighted to say that it lives up to her rather ambitious claim.

The book is organized into five major sections: Know yourself, find your perfect path, find great work, overcome career challenges, and boost your career intelligence (including strategies for career success). At first glance, the topics seem very standard. So, what's special about this book?

In a recent interview with Contact Point (2003), Dr. Moses is quoted as saying, "I wanted this book to capture my own voice in career counselling and to show people how to respond to every career issue and dilemma today whether it is boredom, burnout or finding their authentic path (p. 1)." Barbara's voice as a counsellor comes through in *What next?* as she shares insights and refreshing revelations about her own career highs and lows.

The layout and graphics of the book are appealing. Each section is colour-coded and numerous photographs are sure to keep readers engaged in browsing through pages. Sprinkled throughout are self-assessments and worksheets that allow lots of space for notes and personal reflections. Sidebars are used for tips, highlights from the text, case studies, quotes, and "career counsel."

In the introduction to *What Next?*, Moses says, "I hope that you will think of this book as, in effect, your own personal career counsellor and coach." (p. 8). Through her unique style, Moses succeeds in personalizing her book. The reader is left with a clear sense of having been privately coached by one of the very best.

Two key themes, not new to Moses'work (Moses, 1998; 1999), run throughout the book: "Be who you are" and "Be a career activist." Every chapter begins with specific objectives relevant to these themes. Customized exercises are clearly identified (e.g., "If you are considering part-time work, complete the following:," Moses, 2003, p. 120). Moses peppers this book with results from her own extensive research (e.g., the eight motivational types described in the Section 1) and provides numerous case studies to illustrate key points.

Throughout the book, Moses normalizes real-life career development, acknowledging that most people move somewhat intuitively (i.e., with minimal strategic planning or external coaching) into careers that fit fairly well. Recognizing that people are more likely to seek help in times of career distress, this book is designed to walk folks through troubling or confusing times.

In Section 2 of the book, Moses describes 10 work sectors and provides tips for "decoding" an organization's culture. She profiles a variety of work options (e.g., telecommuting, self employment, and portfolio work), and provides several self-assessments to help readers determine "best fit".

In writing about "shadow careers" (p. 141), Moses helps readers to recognize possibilities that capitalize on transferable skills while making a career shift.

Although Moses (like most career counsellors/coaches) clearly states that it's never too late to change careers, she does caution readers to "be realistic about [their] prospects of success" (p. 143). Acknowledging that the best career option sometimes is to stay where you are, Moses provides comprehensive strategies for career enhancement. I appreciated Moses'candid and pragmatic answer to the question, "Can you have it all?" Acknowledging that we often need to make tradeoffs, she writes "You will probably be happiest if you completely meet one important need rather than living in a "gray" zone where all your needs are compromised (p. 159).

In Section 3, Moses walks readers through the process of finding and securing "great work." Acknowledging the emotional impact of job loss, she also offers specific strategies that address financial and legal concerns (e.g., developing a "leaving" story that both you and your past employer can live with). Moses advocates taking a "project management" approach to job search and "thinking like a recruiter."

What next? provides up-to-date insights about the contemporary workplace. Not surprisingly, Moses tells us "networking is one of today's most important career management skills" (p. 178). She goes on to provide concrete tips for effective marketing and also encourages job seekers to "mine" every possible source of leads. A "Career Directory" at the end of the book lists selected websites to help readers get started. As a Canadian, however, I would have liked to see a bit more balance between Canadian and American resources, particularly regarding starting a business (where considerable differences exist across borders).

Moses offers a step-by-step process for writing a targetted résumé or CV and provides annotated examples of key résumé styles. She provides detailed tips for writing personal marketing letters and offers strategies for successful interviewing and negotiation, as well as advice for completing psychological and screening assessments. Tips are provided for selecting and managing references. Moses concludes this chapter with a comprehensive (four page) worksheet to facilitate career decision-making.

Section 4 of this book is really

what sets it apart from traditional career management resources. In this section, Moses offers detailed descriptions of a variety of career crises (including dealing with difficult bosses) and tangible strategies for working through them. She admonishes her readers to "recognize today's cult of busyness for what it really is—a destroyer of work-life balance." (p. 279) and introduces an innovative solution, "strategic laziness." One chapter in this section explores age-related career dilemmas, addressing concerns faced by those at the very beginning of their careers right through to those contemplating retirement.

In this section I did find myself wishing, however, that Moses would have specifically referenced relevant resources or cited well-known authors. For example, she briefly alludes to "flow" (p. 252) but many readers would be unaware of the extensive body of work on this relevant topic by Csikszentmihalyi (1990; 1997).

In the final section of her book, Moses leaves the readers with her trademark tips for boosting "career intelligence" and becoming a "career activist." Moses has never been known to promote career passivity or career dependency and this book is no exception. Ultimately, readers are forced to acknowledge that career success, to a large extent, will depend on their own proactive efforts. *What next?* provides extensive tips and tools. Activating them, however, will require focused attention and energy from individuals committed to managing their own careers.

I expect that this book will become a favourite of both career practitioners and clients—perhaps along the lines of *What Color is your Parachute?* (Bolles, 2003). It is well written, comprehensive, and based on solid research and a lifetime of experience as a career professional. I've already begun recommending it to my students, clients and colleagues (and even picked up a few tips for my own career!).

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As a career management specialist and president of Life Strategies Ltd., Roberta works with diverse clients in a variety of settings. In all of her work, her mission remains constant: to empower others to positively and proactively manage their career and life changes. Dr. Neault received the 2002 Stu Conger Award for Leadership in Career Development / Career Counselling in Canada.

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the Canadian Journal of Career Development

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

Volume 3, Number 1 2004

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The Counselling Foundation of Canada

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This Journal was made possible through the generous contributions of Contact Point, The Counselling Foundation of Canada and Memorial University of Newfoundland.

Printed by MUN Printing Services