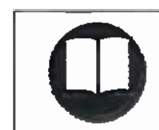
Canadian Journal of Career Development/ Revue canadienne de développement de carrière

the Canadian Journal of Career Development

Volume 1, Number 1 2002

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

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


PRINT

INTERNET

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

Robert Shea, Editor/Rédacteur en chef

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

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.

The Canadian Journal of Career Development is published annually. Subscription rates: The inaugural edition is provided free of charge on line at *www.contactpoint.ca*. Orders and correspondence regarding subscriptions, advertisements, change of address, purchase of back issues, and permission to reprint should be sent to: Robert Shea, Career Development & Experiential Learning, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NF A1C 5S7 or by *cjcd@contactpoint.ca*.

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

La revue est publiée avec l'adie financière du Counselling Foundation of Canada. Les opinions exprimées sont strictement celles des auteur-el-s et ne reflètent pas nécessairement les opinions de revue canadienne de l'orientation et du développement professionnels, ses représentant-e-s, directeurs-trices, ou employé-e-s.

Revue canadienne de développement de carrière est une revue annuelle. Abonnement: L'édition inaugural est disponible gratuit en ligne à *www.contactpoint.ca*. Veuillez adresser toute commande et correspondance au sujet des abonnements, de la publicité, des changements d'adresse, de l'achat de parutions antérieures et des droits de reproduction à: Robert Shea, Career Development & Experiential Learning, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NF A1C 5S7 au par *cjcd@contactpoint.ca*.

Manuscripts should be submitted in quadruplicate with three copies bearing no author identification to facilitate blind review. Authors are requested to follow APA Style. For full length articles, an abstract of approximately 100 words is required.

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

For further details see inside back cover.

Les manuscrits doivent être soumis en quatre exemplaires, dont trois copies ne doivent porter aucune inidication sur l'identité des auteur-e-s afin d'en faciliter l'évaluation. Les auteur-e-s doivent suivre les directives du manuel de publication de l'APA. Un résumé en français d'environ 100 mots doit être joint à chacun des articles.

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

Adresser les manuscrits au rédacteur en chef:

Canadian Journal of Career Development
Revue canadienne de développement de carrière
Robert Shea, Editor
Career Development and Experiential Learning
Memorial University of Newfoundland
Smallwood Centre, UC-4006
St. John's, NF
A1C 5S7

Phone: (709) 737-3448 FAX: (709) 737-2437 E-Mail: rshea@mun.ca

Front Cover Art Design created by David Merkuratsuk. David is a post secondary student in his 2nd year of a 4 year degree in Folklore at Memorial University of Newfoundland. David is from Nain, Labrador and remembers his love of art going back to grade 2.

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

© 2001 Canadian Journal of Career Development/Revue canadienne de l'orientation et du développement professionnels. All rights reserved/tous droits réservés.

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

the Canadian Journal of Career Development

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

Volume 1, Number 1 2002

CONTENTS

Number 1

Editorial

Articles

The Relational Career Values of Post-secondary Women Students 3
Sharon Crozier and Cynthia Dorval

Thriving in the New Millennium: Career Management in the Changing World of Work 11
Roberta A. Neault

A Career Development Course for Academic Credit: An Outcome Analysis 23
Jeanette Hung

Effective Career Counselling: Relationship Between Work Personality, Learning Style and Client Intervention Preferences 29
Randy B. Penney and Mildred Cahill

Research Brief

Psychodynamics of Student Work in a Context of Job Scarcity and Economic Insecurity 37
Marie-France Maranda and Chantal Leclerc

Psychodynamique du travail étudiant dans un contexte de resserrement des conditions d'acces à l'emploi et d'insécurité économique 39
Marie-France Maranda and Chantal Leclerc

Commentary

Formula for Success in Career Building 41
Phillip S. Jarvis

Interview

Richard Young 46

Editorial

Feelings of awe, honour, and responsibility have permeated my thoughts over the past 4 years as we began the onerous task of creating Canada's first peer reviewed journal of career development.

Feelings of awe, in the many subscribers who have supported this initiative with their kind words. Awe in the numerous students, practitioners and researchers who have contacted us to express their interest in preparing an article or acting as a reviewer.

Honour in being supported by the career development community in Canada and abroad to proceed with this initiative. We have had support from our colleagues around the world. Each of whom have expressed admiration and support not just for the journal but for the visionary career development work underway in Canada. The career community around the world is indeed watching what is happening in this country.

Finally, feelings of responsibility have been awakened. Responsibility to each of you, the readers, to continue to make this Journal reflective, responsive, and inspiring for many years to come. This is your Journal. I hope that you will embrace it and continue to submit articles, comments, and suggestions.

We have included in this issue, not just the standard articles, but also an interview with a leader in the field, a section on research briefs, and a commentary on a topic of current work in the field.

In future, issues will include book reviews, and special editions focused on current topics. We also hope to have a special section on international and national best practices that will stimulate the career community to submit outlines of their best practices to the Journal.

A final note of thanks to the numerous peer reviewers who provided feedback and guidance to the individual authors. Your time has been appreciated, and we hope the experience has been rewarding. A special thank you to the Counselling Foundation of Canada, Contact Point, and Memorial University of Newfoundland for your vision and generosity which made this initiative possible.

To all of you, in the broad field of career development, we hope you find something within these pages that both challenge and inspire you in your daily work. Enjoy!

Rob

Robert Shea
Founding Editor

The Relational Career Values of Post-secondary Women Students

Sharon Crozier
University of Calgary
and
Cynthia Dorval
Private Practice Psychologist

Address correspondence to Sharon D. Crozier, Ph.D., Director, Counselling and Student Development Centre, University of Calgary, 2500 University Drive, Calgary, Alberta, Canada T2N 1N4; e-mail: scrozier@ucalgary.ca

Abstract

This qualitative research explores the underlying relational meaning of the career values of women students in traditional and nontraditional university faculties. Values such as achievement, concern for others, responsibility, financial prosperity, belonging, concern for the environment, and spirituality were important for both groups of women to have satisfied in the career for which they were studying/training. Relational themes were found for both groups. Some relational themes were obvious such as helping others but other values, such as achievement also held relational meaning. Interesting are some of the relational connotations that emerged adding new dimensions to commonly accepted "work" values. Some expected differences between women in traditional and nontraditional faculties were found but also many similarities in the expectation that relational values will be satisfied in their future careers.

Introduction

One of the most salient criticisms of the state of career development theory today is that it is ill-equipped to explain the vocational behavior of women (Brooks, 1990). Career theory has traditionally been a domain entrenched with male ways of being (Marshall, 1989). Although some theories have been revised and expanded to more adequately capture women's career development, many of the major career theories were originally formulated based on the career experiences of men (Gallos, 1989; Patton & McMahon, 1999). Due to this male bias in career theory, many of the variables and dimensions unique to women's career development have not been explored (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). The investigation of such things as the meaning and expectation for fulfillment of women's career values has not been a focus of social science research.

Relational aspects of women's identities have been noted and examined by several feminist researchers who suggest that this factor has been neglected in the traditional theories of human development. Gilligan (1982) found that women tend to define themselves in the context of intimate relationships whereas men define themselves in terms of non-relationships, which focus on separation and autonomy. Women in her studies used words such as "caring," "giving," "being kind," and "not hurting others" to describe themselves, suggesting a value system deeply influenced by a genuine concern for others. Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) researching women's cognitive development found that women develop a "connected" way of knowing which can be described as contextual, values experience, and connects concepts to personal knowledge and events. The "self-in-relation" model (Jordan, Kaplan, Miller, Stiver, & Surrey, 1991) posits that for women particularly, connections and relationships with others enhance psychological well being. It is recognized that relational ways of being are not gender-specific, but gender-related whereby women are more likely than men to endorse them (Gilligan & Attanucci, 1988).

The new ways of understanding women's psychological, cognitive, and moral development within a relational context have implications for explaining women's career experience (Crozier, 1999; Forrest & Mikolaitis, 1986; Stonewater, 1988). Forrest and Mikolaitis (1986) reasoned that individuals with a relational identity would prefer environments such as the helping professions, where this orientation could be expressed. They suggested that work environments should be assessed for the "skills, values and preferred problem-solving styles" to see if they are "more associated with helping, not hurting, and maintaining the interconnectedness between people" (p. 83). Stonewater (1988) hypothesized that women would approach the career decision-making process differently than males seeking careers where they could be connected to others in a helping role. Crozier (1999) identifies a number of ways in which a relational identity would influence women's careers such as in career choice, stages of career development, multiple life roles, career decision-making process, and definitions of career success. The connection between relational identity and traditional careers is self-evident. However, women need to be encouraged to consider nontraditional careers, and increase their awareness of the ways they can "offer relationships, be helpful to people, and make a meaningful contribution" (Crozier, 1999, p. 237). Despite the fact that overall research on the career development of girls and women has grown exponentially in the last decade (Phillips & Imhoff, 1997), there has been little attention paid to these relational constructs or underlying relational meanings in women's careers.

Values are a critical component of one's sense of identity (Josselson, 1987). Values are expressed in a variety of life roles, such as the work role (Brown, 1996). Values can be conceptualized as "the degree of importance personally given to modalities of being and behaving that are relevant to the work context

and activities" (Perron & St. Onge, 1991, p. 80). Work values have been incorporated in varying degrees and permutations into various theories of career development.

Donald Super introduced the concept of work values to the field of career theory over 40 years ago advocating for their inclusion in vocational appraisal which had for so long been limited to measures of abilities and interests (Super, Savickas, & Super, 1996). Super (1957, 1980, 1990) noted that people differ in their values and that values partly contribute to a person's career pattern and satisfaction. In her model of women's achievement related decisions, Eccles (1987) discusses "Personal values", conceived of as one component of the "subjective task value" or importance attached to the different career options individuals believe are available to them. She suggests that gender role socialization could lead men and women to develop different core values (interest in people versus interest in things, for example). Consequently, tasks involving different characteristics would have different values for women and men. More specifically, self-schema and "personal values" will influence the "value" one places on various career options.

The values-based holistic career model developed by Duane Brown (1996) gives values the central place in the career decision making process but by no means are they the only basis for decision making. Behavior will be most strongly guided by a small number of values, which are ranked hierarchically. In Brown's framework, factors such as culture, gender, and socioeconomic level have an impact on the development of values. Life satisfaction depends on values being satisfied in a variety of life roles, which are interactive. Brown recognizes the limiting effects that social structures can have on the availability of opportunities to satisfy values.
Brown (1996) suggests that highly prioritized values are determinants of life role choices, such as the selection of an occupation. Therefore accurate values-based information about an occupation or environment must be available for the most effective decision making. Unfortunately, this type of information is not always readily accessible, and furthermore the stereotypes that people, especially young people, have about various occupations are "typically ill-informed" (Eccles, 1994, p. 143).

Recent qualitative research studies in the area of women's career development have revealed the centrality of relational values to women's career identity (Jones, 1997; Lalande, Crozier, & Davey, 1998; Richie, Fassinger, Linn, Johnson, Prosser, & Robinson, 1997; Schuster, 1990; Young & Richards, 1992). Some researchers have described relational ways of being as comprising the "core" or "essence" of the reported career experiences of the women in their samples (Lalande et al., 1998; Schuster, 1990; Richie et al., 1997). Career plans of women are about more than just finding a "satisfying" career (Schuster, 1990). The opportunity to maintain relationships and connections with others on the job is a very important factor for women. When asked to discuss the most salient aspects of their work, distinct themes suggestive of relational values emerge in the career stories of women, such as teaching, giving to others, helping others, and communication. The support of others such as mentors is also mentioned (Richie et al., 1997; Young & Richards, 1992). Relational values, more global in perspective, also emerge in working for social change to improve the human condition, advocating for others, being involved in the community, and generally making the world a better and more equitable place in which to live. Interestingly, the samples utilized in these studies are not homogenous. In fact they were very diverse, incorporating women of different ethnicity (Jones, 1997; Richie et al., 1997); age (Richie et al., 1997; Young & Richards, 1992); fields of study (Jones, 1997; Lalande et al., 1998); sexual orientation (Jones, 1997) and profession (Richie et al., 1997; Schuster, 1990).

The significance of relational values, such as altruism, connection, helping, and concern for others, for women in traditional professions has been documented through research (Ben-Shem & Avi-Itzhak, 1991; Chatterjee & McCarrey, 1991; Schuster, 1990). More inconclusive are the results concerning the relational values of women in nontraditional professions. Women in these professions have been found to be more oriented to masculine values, such as autonomy and risk (Chatterjee & McCarrey, 1991). They have also shown a desire to satisfy relational values in their professions, such as contributing to society (Ambrose, Lazarus, & Nair, 1998), and being connected to and helping others (Richie, et al., 1997; Schuster, 1990).

The current research attempts to explore the existence and importance of relational values in women's career role. The research and theorizing of such feminist writers as Miller (1976), Gilligan (1982), and the Stone Center Group (Jordan, Kaplan, Miller, Stiver, & Surrey, 1991) suggests that women possess relational worldviews, valuing connections and interdependence. Thus, "women's vocational identity may be organized around perceptions of their workplace self as responsive, interdependent, and empathic" (Giordano, 1995, p. 5). One of the difficulties of fully appreciating women's values in the workplace is that they are often examined through a traditional male lens. The ways that women define achievement and success in their careers may differ from the commonly accepted definitions of those constructs. While there have been numerous calls to examine relational ways of being in the career roles of women (Forrest & Mikolaitis, 1986; Gallos, 1989), there has been little research conducted in this area.

Method

Research Design

The qualitative research being discussed in this article is part of a larger study which combined both quantitative and qualitative methods to understand women's relational values overall and in the career role (Dorval, 1999). Gender role orientation and age, two factors that have been suggested to influence values, were also examined in Dorval's study. The qualitative analysis process, according to Dey (1993) consists of three parts: describing the phenomenon under study, classifying the data, and finally making connections within the data. This simple model was followed in the present study. The first step, describing, involves activities such as summarizing the data, and pulling it together through relating central characteristics. Ultimately, description provides the basis for interpretation. Classification entails, "organizing data into categories or classes and identifying formal connections between them" (p. 275). Finally, connecting categories involves, "identifying substantive con-

nections by associating categories or linking data" (p. 275). Qualitative analysis was conducted with a computer software program entitled HyperQual (Padilla, 1990), designed specifically for the qualitative analysis of text-based data.

The quantitative component of the research involved participants completing the Life Values Inventory (LVI) which is a unique values inventory as it promotes holistic thinking by including a variety of life roles (Brown & Crace, 1996). The LVI was chosen for the study because of its inclusion of a variety of values which could be considered relational, such as belonging, concern for others, and loyalty to family or group, concern for the environment, and spirituality. Other values measured by the LVI include achievement, creativity, financial prosperity, health and activity, humility, independence, privacy, responsibility, and scientific understanding. The LVI was also chosen because in its design the authors were particularly sensitive to the unique concerns of women (Brown & Crace, 1996).

The LVI uses a Likert rating scale for 14 values, open-ended qualitative questions and then a ranking process for values overall and values expected to be satisfied in four life roles: job or career, student, family and important relationships, and leisure and community activities. The qualitative component of the study focussed on the ranking of values, on the LVI, that women expected to have satisfied in their job or career. The following question was presented to each participant, with ample paper to write her response on:

Please review the values you ranked as important to be satisfied in your job and indicate in what ways do you hope to have these values satisfied in your job? If possible, provide specific examples.

This question was piloted with a small sample to test for clarity and comprehension. The question was designed to solicit the "underlying meanings" of the career values for these women by understanding the "ways in which they hoped the values would be satisfied" and "through the examples given". Quantitative analysis can often be enriched by qualitative information that provides "depth" and "understanding" behind the numbers (Polit & Hungler, 1999).

Research Participants

Participation in the study was voluntary with recruitment using numerous methods: e-mail messages, notices, campus newspaper and newsletter articles, and presentations in relevant classes and undergraduate clubs. Ninety-eight full-time female undergraduate students, from a university in Alberta, participated in the study. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 52 years (Mean = 24.9, S.D = 6.1). A small percentage of the participants were married or living with an intimate partner (20%) with most of the participants identifying as single (80%). A small percentage of the sample had children (11%) with the majority of those having two children (64%).

The traditional group, 50 participants, was made up of 18 from social work and 32 from nursing. The nontraditional group, 48 participants, included 31 from engineering and 17 from science (excluding biology). A faculty was considered traditional if seventy percent or more of the total enrollees were women and nontraditional if thirty percent or less of the total enrollees were women (Lavallee & Pelletier, 1992). Biology is no longer a nontraditional career area for women (Nevitte, Gibbins, & Codding, 1990), in fact it is the only department in the Faculty of science where female students outnumber males.

Results

Interpretation of the results highlights the significance of relational meanings in the values that women hoped to have satisfied in their career role. The values women hoped to have satisfied in their career role included achievement, concern for others, responsibility, financial prosperity, belonging, concern for the environment, and spirituality. Each of these values will be discussed revealing the relational themes that were embedded within the meaning of the value.

Achievement

The relational theme in Achievement was evident in the desire to help others or connect with others in some way through the job. Women in nursing and social work, mentioned such things as "making a positive impact on people's lives," "achieve good relationships with patients and help them to lead happy, healthy lives," and "relating to and understanding individuals." One nursing student stated that, "If I am able to help only one person or an entire community, I will feel achievement." A social work student mentioned that she would feel personal achievement through witnessing or learning of the achievements of her clients. Helping others to achieve their own goals and success seemed to be an important part of achievement for some women in the sample, particularly those in the traditional group. Only one woman in a nontraditional faculty, an engineering student expressed Achievement in a relational way stating, "I want to do something that really affects the world. I want to help others, and push myself to my limit."

Concern for Others

Concern for Others was a value that appeared very frequently in the data and by definition would be expected to have relational meaning. Mentioned by women in both the traditional and nontraditional group, it was most frequently discussed by the former. The major way that Concern for Others was expected to be accomplished was through "*Helping others*." The responses ranged on a continuum within this theme with some less directly relational, such as "helping others by sharing knowledge" as one engineering student commented. Two women from nontraditional faculties explained that concern for others in their career would mean "*Teaching*" or instructing others. Other comments were more directly and deeply relational as expressed by this social work student, "A deep understanding of others' situation as we walk through their troubles together." Many women in the traditional faculties alluded to the fact that Concern for Others is inherent in their job by virtue of the nature of the work. Some of these women noted this as the reason for entering the profession.

Some women in both traditional and nontraditional faculties mentioned nurturing, caring for, and comforting others, as well as helping others to attain hope, solace, happiness, and self-actualization. A nursing student phrased her point of view in this way, "One of my greatest joys is to calm frightened people, help hurt people and just generally help peo-

ple out when they need it" and "My concern for others drives me and enables me to help people in that really personal way."

The desire to help others was also expressed on a macro level. Some women in both the traditional and nontraditional group stated that they wanted to help communities or contribute to the betterment of society as a whole. Improving the quality of life of others was also mentioned, particularly of those who are less fortunate. An engineering student stated, "I hope to one day go overseas to work with under-developed countries and assist them with water purification/irrigation/solid waste management." A science student noted, "I hope to have a job that allows me to improve the quality of life for other people or animals or aspects of the environment."

A few of the women in both groups mentioned acting as an advocate for those in need, with another theme being *"Responsibility to others."* An engineering student stated that concern for others should be kept in mind because "a civil engineer's work is for the direct use of other people; safety and utility must be remembered in what an engineer constructs." Another engineering student had similar sentiments suggesting that "by entering the engineering profession, the welfare of the public and environment is the main priority; it is the first priority in the Code of Ethics." This theme is closely connected to the relational dimensions found in the value of Responsibility.

Responsibility

The majority of the women in the study, who stated that they wanted the value of Responsibility to be satisfied in their career role, suggested that this would be possible through being "*Trustworthy*". It could be argued that by its very definition, the word "trustworthy" implies a relationship, whether this is with another person or a larger entity such as an organization or company. The responses comprising this theme, however, differed as to whether or not they explicitly mentioned demonstrating trustworthiness to someone else. For example, one engineering student stated, "I hope to be known as a responsible engineer. I plan to satisfy this by applying good work ethics, and just doing my job to my full potential." More obviously relational were the comments such as this statement from another engineering student, "I want people to be able to trust me and depend on me to do what I promise I'll do and be able to help them."

Many women in both groups noted that in their careers they would be relied upon and counted on by co-workers, supervisors, organizations, and clients or patients. A few women in the traditional group described the trustworthiness needed to be in a position where one is dealing with patients or clients in great need. Trust seemed to be considered an important precursor to good relationships with others. A science student wrote "It is important to me to know my supervisors and co-workers consider me reliable, and can be trusted." Similarly, a nursing student stated, "As a nurse it is important to instill a level of trust between the nurse and patient in order to provide optimum care." Others noted that being in a position of trust carried with it ethical and legal obligations. An engineering student noted, "As an engineer, I will be responsible for every design or procedure I approve. This is a large duty because if anything I approve was to cause damage to property or human life (i.e. collapsed building or bridge that I designed) I could be held personally accountable, incarcerated with criminal charges…"

Another relational theme that appeared in the data was being responsible through *"Making Contributions"* to others or making a difference in another person's life. A social work student revealed that she personally had been helped in her life and felt responsible to help others through her work. Four students mentioned the responsibilities they had to others such as family members or partners. For example, a social work student stated, "as part of a family, I am responsible for earning a living through working." A science student remarked that there are certain duties that she expects and accepts in her roles as friend, daughter, and girlfriend.

Financial Prosperity

A theme within Financial Prosperity that emerged, *"Provide for family,"* had obvious relational overtones. Making enough money in one's career to support one's family was mentioned equally by women from traditional and nontraditional faculties. Some women in both groups spoke about children they already had, "When I have my degree I will be making enough money to support myself and my son" noted a nursing student. Others, like this science student, were planning for the future, "financial prosperity will be satisfied in my future job if I am paid well and given benefits for myself and my potential family." A science student noted that she wanted to be in a position financially to take the time to go to the school concerts of her children and spend time with her husband.

Belonging

Feeling a sense of affiliation, inclusion, or acceptance in the workplace was a desire expressed by some of the women from both groups. Some, like this engineering student, commented on the desire to feel like a valued member of a work group or team, "Belonging would be satisfied by working as part of a team where I feel that my part on the team is important." Developing friendships, bonding with co-workers, and "fitting in" were all discussed as ways of cultivating a sense of belonging. An engineering student expressed that she wanted to be "well-liked" by her co-workers. Another engineering student noted that in order to enjoy work, it is important to get along with co-workers. Expanding beyond co-workers, one nurse mentioned feeling belonging as part of a larger team of health professionals. The nurse-patient relationship was also mentioned as a situation in which one feels a sense of belonging.

Concern for the Environment

Caring for the environment through protection of natural resources, or improving existing conditions (air pollution, water quality, deforestation, and so forth) was important for some women, particularly in the nontraditional faculties. Making the world a better place to live for humans, other animals, and plants was a priority. Some engineering students mentioned, "contributing to society," "making a difference," and "creating designs that will make life better for people." One engineering student noted, "I want to be able to go home at night and feel that aside from just making money, I did something real. Something that is good for the environ-

ment that goes beyond making money." Another engineering student felt a responsibility not only to humankind at present, but was also concerned about the future stating that it was "our duty to conserve the earth for the generations to come."

Spirituality

A few women in both groups discussed the ways in which their religion or spirituality could influence their behavior and activities in their careers. An engineering student mentioned incorporating integrity and honor into her work as a method to "glorify God" through her career. Some women in the traditional faculties expressed the fact that Spirituality could be satisfied in their career through putting the needs of others before their own, and helping those who are suffering or in need. A science student stated that she lives her faith by her example. Sentiments regarding feelings of connectedness to God or a higher power and to others were common among both groups of women. A science student revealed that she feels a connection to a higher power through her connection with nature and therefore hoped that her work as a geologist would "get me into nature a lot."

Discussion

Relational themes are present in women's expectations of having their career values satisfied, whether they are enrolled in a traditional or nontraditional faculty. Relational themes are obvious within values, which have a "caring" or "concerned" connotation, such as Concern for Others. However, there are also relational themes present in values such as Achievement, where the traditional or "male lens" would generally not display a relational understanding.

Helping others was a major relational theme across the values; this was conceptualized both as helping individuals but also on a more global level of helping society. On an individual level, it included helping others by offering hope or solace but also by assisting them to achieve happiness and self-actualization. Helping others was a very strong theme in the value of Concern for Others and in Spirituality but also, perhaps surprisingly within the value of Achievement. The "usual" definition of career success includes factors such as "career advancement, stable occupational roles, and levels of status symbolized by power and money" not helping others (Hashizume & Crozier, 1994, p.106). Powell and Mainiero (1992) note that the traditionally male vision of career achievement, "getting ahead" in an organization may be "dated" due to the new realities of the workplace such as decreased job security and downsizing. For some of the women in the study, a sense of Achievement was experienced through helping others. Making a difference in the lives of others constituted achievement for these women. Unfortunately, the literature does not often recognize or give credence to this meaning of achievement. Gallos (1989) noted the absence of a language "to talk about what does a career look like that is simultaneously high on achievement and high on relationship" (p. 124).

Three core achievement styles: direct, instrumental, and relational achievement, have been suggested by Lipman-Blumen, Handley-Isaksen, and Leavitt (1983). Relational achievement is when a sense of achievement is attained through collaborating with others, contributing to a group task, or experiencing it vicariously through the achievements of others. Relational achievement in the career role, note Hashizume and Crozier (1994) is not a contradiction in terms, however when it is mentioned, it is often pathologized. The relational meaning for achievement found in this study offers support to some previous research that found a correlation between achievement/self-development and altruism (Pryor, 1983; Hendrix & Super, 1968).

Helping others is a value that has been well documented in previous research as significant for women (Di Dio, Saragovi, Koestner, & Aube, 1996; McConatha & Schnell, 1997; Skoe and Diessner, 1994). It makes intuitive sense those women who choose a traditional career such as social work or nursing would value helping clients and patients in a variety of ways. Although helping others was definitely more prominent for women in the traditional faculties none the less, it still was mentioned as a value with relational connotations for women from the nontraditional group. This supports the findings of Subotnik and Arnold (1996) and Ambrose, Lazarus, and Nair (1998) who found that women in nontraditional fields have a desire to be helpful or useful to others and to society to serve a greater good.

As noted, helping others on a macro level was also a significant theme, expressed across the values of Concern for Others, Concern for the Environment and Spirituality. The theme here usually involved making the world a better place in which to live on a more global basis. This suggested feelings of connection with not only humankind but also other living things such as plants, animals, and even at times Mother Earth. A feeling of being connected to a higher power was expressed by some women when doing their work. This theme also often involved a longer time dimension of not only helping now but into the future, projecting that the work one does now may have a long lasting positive impact. This is similar to a finding by Lalande et al. (1998) of women in science and art faculties who expressed a connection to the larger universe and a need to make a lasting contribution.

Being connected to others in meaningful relationships at work was another relational theme that appeared across the values of Achievement and Belonging. These women expressed a desire to be part of a team and to have satisfying relationships with co-workers, supervisors, and clients. This theme of affiliation appeared for women planning to work in both traditional and nontraditional areas. It has been recognized that "expressive" traits like connection may play an important role in a nontraditional career like engineering given the amount of teamwork involved (Jagacinski, 1987). One of the most significant ways of being connected was to be in a trusting relationship with others, which was expressed through the value of Responsibility. It was desirable to these women to be viewed as trustworthy or dependable by others, which has definite relational connotations. These women want to be in relationships, which involve being responsible for the safety and welfare of others, whether this is dealing with an ill patient or building a reliable bridge. The women in this study showed a valuing of those relationships whether they were directly or indirectly involved with people, they are still meaningful to them.

Making a contribution was another relational theme that emerged in the values of Responsibility and Financial

Responsibility. Many of these women felt it was their responsibility to contribute to the well being of others. One way that this was expressed was towards their families, both in the values of Responsibility and Financial Prosperity; women noted the wish to contribute financially. Although Loyalty to Family or Group was not a highly ranked value to be satisfied directly in the career role the connection to family, need to balance work with family, and this desire to contribute to family did appear across various values.

Findings of the present study contribute to our understanding of values. Particularly interesting are the relational connotations that emerged from the qualitative data, adding new dimensions to the commonly accepted definitions of certain "work" values such as Achievement, Responsibility, and Financial Prosperity. Moreover, women in both the traditional group and nontraditional groups mentioned these expanded definitions of values that are usually not considered relational. Themes of connecting with or helping others in some way, while endorsed by more women in the traditional than the nontraditional group, were evident for both groups as important facets in career.

The findings of the present study support the theorizing of feminist researchers such as Forrest and Mikolaitis (1986), Gallos (1989), and Crozier (1999) who suggest that a relational dimension should be incorporated into theories of career development applicable to women's careers. The inclusion of this construct could serve to more fully understand and appreciate the career choices women make. As women's participation in post-secondary education increases and particularly in the nontraditional faculties researchers may expect to see more traditional or relational values being expressed by women students in nontraditional faculties. The findings of the present study suggest that women desire to have relational values satisfied in their future career role whether they enter a traditional or nontraditional faculty. For women in the traditional group in particular, Concern for Others was the most important value in the career role. However themes of helping clients, patients or society as a whole; being trusted by co-workers and employers; making a meaningful contribution; and feeling a sense of camaraderie with co-workers, emerged from the qualitative data in the present study as important factors for all women. These variables are left largely unaccounted for in the major theories of career choice and development.

References

Ambrose, S., Lazarus, B., & Nair, I. (1998). No universal constants: Journeys of women in engineering and computer science. *Journal of Engineering Education, 87* (4), 363-383.

Belenky, M., Clinchy, B., Goldberger, N., & Tarule, J. (1986). *Women's ways of knowing.* New York, NY: Basic Books.

Ben-Shem, I., & Avi-Itzhak, T. (1991). On work values and career choice in freshmen students: The case of helping vs. other professions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 39*, 369-379.

Betz, N., & Fitzgerald, L. (1987). *The career psychology of women.* Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Brooks, L. (1990). Recent developments in theory building. In D. Brown, L. Brooks, & Associates (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (2nd ed.) (pp. 364-394). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Brown, D. (1996). Brown's values based, holistic model of career and life-role choices and satisfaction. In D. Brown, L. Brooks, & Associates (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (3rd ed.) (pp.337-372). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Brown, D., & Crace, R. (1996). *The Life Values Inventory professional manual.* Chapel Hill, NC: Life Values Resources.

Chatterjee, J., & McCarrey, M. (1991). Sex-role attitudes, values and instrumental-expressive traits of women trainees in traditional vs. non-traditional programmes. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 40* (3), 281-297.

Crozier, S. (1999). Women's career development in a "relational context". *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling, 21*, 231-247.

Dey, I. (1993). *Qualitative data analysis: A user friendly guide for social scientists*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Di Dio, L., Saragovi, C., Koestner, R., & Aube, J. (1996). Linking personal values to gender. *Sex Roles, 34*, 621-636.

Dorval, C. (1999). *Relational values in women's career role*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Calgary, Calgary, AB.

Eccles, J. (1987). Gender roles and women's achievement-related decisions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 11*, 135-172.

Eccles, J. (1994). Understanding women's educational and occupational choices. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 18*, 585-609.

Forrest, L., & Mikolaitis, N. (1986). The relational component of identity: An expansion of career development theory. *Career Development Quarterly, 35*, 76-88.

Gallos, J. (1989). Exploring women's development: Implications for career theory, practice, and research. In M. Arthur, D. Hall, & B. Lawrence (Eds.), *Handbook of career theory* (pp. 110-132). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gilligan, C., & Attanucci, J. (1988). Two moral orientations: Gender differences and similarities. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 34* (3), 223-237.

Giordano, F. (1995). The whole person at work: An integrative vocational intervention model for women's workplace issues. *Journal for Specialists in Group Work, 20* (1), 4-13.

Hashizume, L., & Crozier, S. (1994). A female definition of career achievement. In J. Gallivan, S. Crozier, & V. Lalande (Eds.). *Women, girls and achievement*. North York, ON: Captus Press.

Hendrix, V., & Super, D. (1968). Factor dimensions and reliability of the Work Values Inventory. *Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 17*, 269-274.

Jagacinski, C.M. (1987). Androgyny in a male-dominated field: The relation-

ship of sex-typed traits to performance and satisfaction in engineering. *Sex Roles, 17*, 529-547.

Jones, S. (1997). Voices of identity and difference: A qualitative exploration of the multiple dimensions of identity development in women college students. *Journal of College Student Development, 38* (4), 376-385.

Jordan, J., Kaplan, A., Miller, J., Stiver, I., & Surrey, J. (Eds.). (1991). *Women's growth in connection: Writings from the stone center*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Josselson, R. (1987). *Finding herself: Pathways to identity development in women*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Lalande, V., Crozier, S., & Davey, H. (1998). *Women's career development and relationships: A qualitative inquiry*. Paper presented at the annual conference of NATCON, Ottawa, ON.

Lavallee, M., & Pelletier, R. (1992). Ecological value of Bem's gender schema theory explored through females' traditional and nontraditional occupational contexts. *Psychological Reports, 70*, 79-82.

Lipman-Blumen, J., Handley-Isaksen, A., &Leavitt, H. (1983). Achieving styles in men and women: A model, an instrument, and some findings. In J. Spence (Ed.), *Achievement and achievement motives* (pp. 147-204). San Francisco: Freeman.

Marshall, J. (1989). Re-visioning career concepts: A feminist invitation. In M. Arthur, D. Hall, & B. Lawrence (Eds.), *Handbook of career theory* (pp. 275-291). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

McConatha, J.T., & Schnell, F. (1997). A cross-generational and gender comparison of value priorities of adults living in the U.S. *Psychology: A Journal of Human Behavior, 34* (1), 27-35.

Miller, J.B. (1976). *Toward a new psychology of women*. Boston, MA: Beacon Press.

Nevitte, N., Gibbins, R., & Codding, P. (1990). The career goals of female science students in Canada. In M. Gosztonyi-Ainley (Ed.), *Despite the odds: Essays on Canadian women and science* (pp.284-303). Montreal, QC: Vehicule Press.

Padilla, R. (1990). *HyperQual Version 3.0* [Computer Program]. Chandler, AZ: Author. (Address: 3327 N. Dakota, Chandler, AZ 85224 U.S.A.).

Patton, W., & McMahon, M. (1999). *Career development and systems theory: A new relationship*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Perron, J., & St-Onge, L. (1991). Work values in relation to gender and forecasted career patterns for women. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counseling, 14*, 79-90.

Phillips, S., & Imhoff, A. (1997). Women and career development: A decade of research. *Annual Review of Psychology, 48*, 31-59.

Polit, D., & Hungler, B. (1999). *Nursing research: Principles and methods* (6th ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott.

Powell, G., & Mainiero, L. (1992). Cross-currents in the river of time: conceptualizing the complexities of women's careers. *Journal of Management, 18* (2), 215-237.

Pryor, R. (1983). Sex differences in the levels of generality of values/preferences related to work. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 23*, 233-241.

Richie, B., Fassinger, R., Linn, S., Johnson, J., Prosser, J., & Robinson, S. (1997). Persistence, connection, and passion: A qualitative study of the career development of highly achieving African American-Black and White women. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 44* (2), 133-148.

Schuster, D. (1990). Work, relationships, and balance in the lives of gifted women. In H. Grossman, & N. Chester (Eds.), *The experience and meaning of work in women's lives* (pp. 189-211). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Skoe, E., & Diessner, R. (1994). Ethic of care, justice, identity, and gender: An extension and replication. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 40* (2), 272-289.

Stonewater, B.B. (1988). Gender differences in career decision-making: A theoretical integration. *Initiatives, 12*, 27-34.

Subotnik, R.F., & Arnold, K. D. (1996). Success and sacrifice: The costs of talent fulfillment for women in science. In K. Arnold, K. Noble, & R. Subotnik (Eds.), *Remarkable women: Perspectives on female talent development* (pp. 263-280). Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.

Super, D. (1957). *The psychology of careers*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Super, D. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 16*, 282-298.

Super, D. (1990). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. In D. Brown, L. Brooks, & Associates (Eds.), *Career choice and development: Applying contemporary theories to practice* (2nd ed.) (pp. 197-261). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Super, D., Savickas, M., & Super, C. (1996). The life-span, life-space approach to careers. In D. Brown, D. Brooks, & Associates (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (3rd ed.) (pp. 121-178). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Young, R., & Richards, R. (1992). Entrepreneurial women and the relational component of identity: A hermeneutical study of career. In R. Young, & A. Collin (Eds.), *Interpreting career: Hermeneutical studies of lives in context* (pp. 117-133). Westport, CT: Praeger/Greenwood.

Thriving in the New Millennium: Career Management in the Changing World of Work

Roberta A. Neault
Life Strategies Ltd.

Address correspondence to Dr. Roberta Neault, Life Strategies Ltd., 2956 Fleet St., Coquitlam, BC, V3C 3R8; email: rneault@capcollege.bc.ca
fax: (604) 464-2387

Abstract

Emerging theories in career development (e.g., planned happenstance), present specific individual characteristics as foundational to effective career management: continuous learning, financial management, flexibility, work-life balance, networking, optimism, persistence, planfulness, and risk-taking. In the present study, managers (N = 181) employed by a large Canadian organization were surveyed to identify whether these career management characteristics predicted either career success or job satisfaction. Optimism and flexibility were found to be the best predictors of career success, accounting for 12% of the total variance. Optimism, continuous learning, and planfulness were the best predictors of job satisfaction, accounting for 19% of the total variance.

Introduction

We are currently living and working in times of unprecedented change (Hall & Moss, 1998; Metcalf & Briody, 1995; Watts, 1996). Traditional theories of career development focus on matching people to occupations. Yet, in contemporary times, "[t]rying to place an evolving person into the changing work environment is like trying to hit a butterfly with a boomerang" (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1996, p. 263).

Career development has been recently defined as "the process of managing learning, training, and work throughout the life span" (ATEC, 1999, p. 124). Traditional career development, however, has resembled riding a raft down a river–with very little control over where the currents take you, but always heading in the same general direction. Career "management," on the other hand, would be more like paddling a canoe–choosing the best course, pausing at times, and changing speed and direction when desired–a more planful and purposive approach. Although the terms career development and career management are used somewhat interchangeably in career-related literature, in the present study the term "career management" is preferred as it tends to emphasize an active, purposeful approach.

A Rationale for Career Management

In today's busy world why would individuals and their employers commit time and resources to career management activities? According to Barbara Moses (1995), a Canadian career management specialist:

> In today's fast-changing workplace, people need the skills and competencies to ensure future employability, and to manage new work and life realities. Organizations need flexible people, who can effectively manage change and adapt to new organizational directions. The key to achieving these goals, for both the individual and the organization, is career self-management. (p. 3)

Clearly, for career management to work within an organization, there is a need for "buy-in" from both sides (Orpen, 1994; Simonsen, 1997).

David Baxter (2000), executive director of the Urban Futures Institute, warned that "[a]s we enter an era of critical labour shortages in many sectors, the challenges of retaining and recruiting human resources will become paramount in the operations of many organizations" (p. 1). One compelling reason, then, for organizations to offer career management support is that it may help them to recruit and retain the talent that they need to sustain a competitive edge. Another area of concern to organizations is productivity. There are two aspects to this quality–the productivity that comes from a keen and highly motivated workforce (Orpen, 1994) and the productivity that comes from that workforce being prepared with the right skill mix or "hot skills" to do the work that is required (Cole-Gomoloski, 1998; Griffith, 1998; Hayes, 1999; Young, 1999). Therefore, to benefit an organization, career management should also equip people to benchmark their skills, anticipate upcoming skill demands, and commit to continuous learning (Kaye, 1997; Moses, 1995; Simonsen, 1997).

How might career management benefit the individual? In times of rapid change, employees need help with identifying the specific skills and competencies that will keep them employable in the months and years ahead. Career management may also help individuals to balance their work and family life, and

link their personal career goals to the emerging needs of their employer, industry, or community (Moses, 1995; Simonsen, 1997).

Career Management for Changing Times: Planned Happenstance Theory

Poehnell and Amundson (2000) argued that the term "management"–at least as it has been traditionally used–may be problematic when applied to careers. It may imply a degree of control over career development that is unrealistic in today's climate of unprecedented organizational change. Good career management theory, therefore, must account for the limited degree to which workers have control over their own career experiences and satisfaction and organizations have control over the work environments that they provide.

Gelatt (1991) spoke of approaching careers with an attitude of "positive uncertainty." Savickas (1997) suggested that "career adaptability" may be the core construct in Super's life-span, life-space theory. We know from employer surveys that flexibility, adaptability, and problem-solving skills are held in high regard in the corporate world (Business Council of British Columbia, 1999; Corporate Council on Education, 1992). Many recent articles have recognized the impact of "serendipity" on career management, especially in these times of rapid change (Krumboltz, 1998; Watts, 1996; Williams et al., 1998).

Planned happenstance theory has also been built on this notion of serendipity (Krumboltz, 2000; Mitchell, Levin, & Krumboltz, 1999). One of the central tenets in planned happenstance theory, however, is that individuals can, to a certain extent, create their own luck. Authors of the theory have identified a number of individual qualities believed to contribute to such "luck-readiness," suggesting that employees who are planful and goal-oriented, curious (actively searching while open to new learning opportunities), persistent, flexible, optimistic, and prepared to take risks would be better equipped to seize the opportunities that chance brings their way. Such employees would be able to both create and capitalize on chance events–transforming serendipity or happenstance into career opportunities.

Effective Career Management

Planned happenstance theory offers a foundation from which to research career management. In it, several personal attributes and attitudes are identified as potentially helpful in managing careers in the often chaotic world of work. Implicit in the notions of curiousity and openness from planned happenstance theory (and central to most literature on career management) is a commitment to continuous learning and skill development–which involves ongoing self-assessment and realistic feedback from others, as well as "benchmarking" skills and keeping them current (Bridges, 1997; Hill, 1998; Kaye, 1997; Kidd, 1998; Moses, 1995, 1999; Porter, Porter, & Bennett, 1998; Shahnasarian, 1994).

Persistence, another personal quality highlighted in planned happenstance theory, has also been valued by the business community (Champy & Nohria, 2000; Posen, 1998). Highly valued in the business community, as well, has been optimism–an attribute often thought to contribute to individual career success (Champy & Nohria, 2000; Posen, 1998). Champy, Nohria, and Posen, like Seligman (1990), believe that optimism can be learned.

Risk-taking is another valued attribute (Hakim, 1994; Posen, 1998). Hakim provided numerous examples of employees who limited their career potential by refusing to take risks. Planfulness (another attribute critical to planned happenstance theory) appears to be foundational to effective career management (Blustein, 1997; De Voe, 1998; Kaye, 1997; Moses, 1995; Orpen, 1994; Shahnasarian, 1994). Corporate managers have long recognized the importance of planning to the long-term success of their organizations (Wack, 1985). Perhaps career management, then, might draw from such time-tested management strategies as "scenario planning" to help individuals and organizations better cope with tumultuous change.

There are other recurring themes in the career literature, as well, that are worth considering in research on effective career management. Many of these entail behavioural strategies rather than the personal attributes or characteristics identified as important by planned happenstance theory. For example, the ability to network effectively has been presented as integral to career management (Kaye, 1997; Kidd, 1998; Moses, 1999; Porter, Porter, & Bennett, 1998; Shahnasarian, 1994). Financial planning and money management have also taken on new importance as career management skills. Some authors have stressed the importance of being financially prepared for periods of unemployment between jobs and having the financial flexibility to pursue opportunities as they arise (Moses, 1995, 1999; Shahnasarian, 1994). Other literature has identified links between personal financial problems and employee productivity (Joo & Grable, 2000).

The importance of achieving balance between work and other life roles has also become an emerging topic in the career management literature (DeVoe, 1998; Moses 1995, 1999; Shahnasarian, 1994). Moses (1999), in describing the intermittent nature of work in the future, warned:

> We will need to be able to manage these periods of downtime not only financially but *psychologically*. We will need to know not only how to be busy but how to *stop* our busyness, how to use these breaks as times to nourish ourselves, reconnect with people, explore new avenues of work and play. We will need to find something other than our own busyness to validate our self-worth. (p. 7)

To summarize, then, effective career management for individuals appears to entail a combination of specific personal attributes, attitudes and strategies. A commitment to lifelong learning (based on ongoing, realistic self-assessment), alertness to opportunities and the ability to keep diverse options open (adaptability and flexibility), persistence, optimism, the willingness to take risks, and planfulness are all personal attributes theorized to foster career management success. In addition, networking and self-marketing, financial management, and balancing work with other significant life roles are seen as important components of a planful approach to career management. The outcome of effective career management is expected to be successful careers that meet the needs of both individuals and their employers.

Career Success and Job Satisfaction

Career success has been variously defined and measured in the literature as salary growth and promotions (Orpen, 1994, 1996a, 1996b; Turban & Dougherty, 1994), the accumulation of rewards such as salary, status, and prestige (Bahniuk, Hill & Darus, 1996), career progression (Kirchmeyer, 1998), and relative salary and managerial level (Melamed, 1995). Some authors have attempted to move beyond such traditional, objective descriptions by defining career success more subjectively– with measures of perceived career success and satisfaction (Burke, 1999; Kirchmeyer, 1998; Parasuraman et al., 1996; Van Eck Peluchette, 1993). Gottfredson (1996) suggested that satisfied workers would be more highly valued by employers as such workers would likely be more committed to the organization and have longer tenure.

Rationale for the Present Study

As career counsellors find more demand for their services in the corporate world, as employees recognize the need to self-manage their careers, and as employers recognize the benefits of offering career management support to their employees, all three groups need a clear understanding of what effective career management is and how best to pursue it. To this point in time, there has been limited interface between theories in the fields of career counselling and corporate management. As such, there has been little research testing the effectiveness of career management in achieving its stated goals. The present study took preliminary steps toward evaluating the outcomes (career success and job satisfaction) of several of the attitudes and strategies that practitioners and theorists suggest form the basis of good career management.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants were recruited from among the management employees of one of Canada's largest corporations–a telecommunications company that was in the midst of transformational change. The organization faced the same recruitment and retention issues as other major employers. In addition, the organization was anticipating major business changes as the global economy continued to expand, mergers and acquisitions abounded, and emerging technology impacted both internal business strategies and customer needs and expectations. The current managers in the organization were all survivors of major downsizing and restructuring over the past several years and all had successfully competed for their existing jobs after the merger.

Participation was voluntary and efforts were made to ensure that confidentiality was preserved. Of the 404 survey packages that were distributed, 181 (44%) were completed and returned. Descriptive statistics for the participants are reported in Table 1.

Measures

Career Attitudes and Strategies Inventory (CASI, Holland & Gottfredson, 1992). The CASI is an assessment tool developed to measure various aspects of individuals'work situations including job satisfaction and specific attitudes and strategies hypothesized to impact their careers (Gottfredson, 1996). Alpha reliabilities in previous research ranged from .76 to .92. Of particular interest in the present study were the subscales on the CASI measuring job satisfaction, risk-taking style, skill development, and work involvement. The subscale measuring career worries, while not a pure measure of optimism as defined by Seligman (1990) or in more recent assessments of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 1997), nonetheless captured the essence of an optimistic approach to career management (i.e., optimism could be operationalized as low career worries). For further analyses, therefore, this subscale was reverse-scored and renamed as Optimism.

Career Beliefs Inventory (CBI, Krumboltz, 1991). The CBI was developed to identify specific beliefs that may result in attitudes and behaviours hypothesized to block career success. The CBI consists of 25 subscales–Table 2 displays the internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) for scores on the specific subscales of interest, based on the participants in this study.

Career Management Survey (CMS). The CMS was designed for this study to collect demographic data and to ensure that the factors hypothesized to comprise effective career management and career success were measured in ways consistent with previous theory-driven research. Neither the CBI nor CASI scales, for example, seemed to measure networking very well. Therefore, questions measuring networking beliefs and attitudes were added to the CMS, including "I believe that it is important to have a large, diverse network of professional acquaintances." Work-life balance, though addressed in the Work Involvement subscale on the CASI, also seemed to be inadequately measured. Two questions directly measuring attitudes toward such balance were added to the CMS: "I am happy with the present balance between my work role and my other life roles" and "In my opinion, work is taking too large a piece of my life right now." (The latter question was reverse scored.)

Following Orpen (1994), statements were included to collect objective data about career success including information about salary, promotions, and performance ratings. However, two issues may have confounded the career success measure for this sample: (a) not all managers in this company had received annual performance ratings within the past year, and (b) all had recently competed successfully for their present positions. Therefore, as several researchers have also advocated a subjective measure of career success (Burke, 1999; Kirchmeyer, 1998; Parasuraman et al., 1996; Van Eck Peluchette, 1993), two statements were added to the survey to gather subjective data: "I believe that my career to this point has been a success" and "Compared to my peers, my career progress has been good."

Career Management Behaviours Checklist (CMBC). The CMBC was designed for this study to gather data on the specific career management behaviours in which the participants had engaged over the past year. Questions on the selected subscales of both standardized measures used in this study tended to elicit attitudes and beliefs rather than the actual career management strategies or behaviours that an individual might exhibit. It seemed important, therefore, to also ask participants what career management strategies they had actually employed within the past year.

Results

Career Management, Career Success, and Job Satisfaction Scale Development

Alpha reliabilities. Initial reliability tests were conducted for comprehensive scales. By systematically deleting items from those comprehensive scales, scales with good internal consistency were developed for each of the variables under consideration: Job Satisfaction (.88), Career Success (.72), Continuous Learning (.83), Flexibility (.71), Networking (.65), Financial Management (.76), Work-Life Balance (.81), Planfulness (.76), Optimism (.87), Persistence (.72), and Risk-Taking (.78).

Correlations. After the specific measures were selected, correlations between each pair of predictor variables was examined to determine whether or not there was sufficient multicollinearity to warrant combining any of the variables. Almost all of the significant correlations ($p < .05$) between pairs of variables were very low; only four (listed here) were > .35, $p = .00$. The largest correlations were between Flexibility and Risk-Taking (.50), Persistence and Optimism (.44), Persistence and Risk-Taking (.38), and Job Satisfaction and Career Success (.37). To ensure that demographic variables were not potential confounds in this study, they were also checked for collinearity with the dependent variables–job satisfaction and career success–but nothing significant was found. Because it also seemed likely that the two dependent variables might overlap significantly with each other, they, too, were checked for collinearity. However, there was not sufficient collinearity to collapse the dependent variables.

Multiple Regression: Predicting Career Success and Job Satisfaction

Once appropriate and reliable measures were identified for all variables under consideration, two step-wise multiple regression analyses were conducted in order to identify the best career management predictors of career success and job satisfaction (Stevens, 1986).

Descriptive statistics for the variables in the multiple regressions appear in Table 3. The correlations among predictor variables, Career Success, and Job Satisfaction are reported in Table 4. The results of the stepwise regression for career success are reported in Table 5. Optimism and Flexibility were the best predictors of Career Success, accounting together for a total of 12% of the variance. The results of the stepwise regression for job satisfaction are reported in Table 6. Optimism, Continuous Learning, and Planfulness were the best predictors of Job Satisfaction, accounting together for a total of 19% of the variance. Planfulness contributed in a negative direction (i.e., participants who were more planful reported less job satisfaction).

Discussion

Predicting Job Satisfaction and Career Success

A portrait of a satisfied worker. A satisfied worker was one with an optimistic attitude, involved in continuous learning activities, and with somewhat less of a planful approach to career management. A review of the zero-order correlations enriched this portrait, adding that a satisfied worker was also more persistent and willing to take risks, and had achieved a measure of work-life balance.

A portrait of career success. Similar to the portrait of job satisfaction, a successful worker had an optimistic attitude. In addition (and different from the portrait of satisfaction), a successful worker was flexible. This fits with the literature on employability skills (e.g., Business Council of British Columbia, 1999)–employers are looking for flexible people with good attitudes. What was somewhat surprising, however, was that none of the demographic variables correlated positively with responses to the subjective statements, "I believe that my career to this point has been a success" and "Compared to my peers, my career progress has been good" although previous literature suggested that career success could be measured by such objective measures as salary, bonus, performance ratings, and promotions.

A review of the zero-order correlations enriched the portrait of career success, adding that successful workers were persistent, continuous learners, planful, and willing to take risks. They had also achieved a measure of work-life balance and networked more than their peers who reported less career success. In essence, all of the career management variables extrapolated from the literature (except for financial management), contributed to the portrait of a successful worker in the present study.

Career Management Attitudes and Strategies

Continuous learning. In the multiple regressions, continuous learning was a significant predictor of job satisfaction but not career success. It seems likely, from the results in the present study, that individuals may be engaging in continuous learning that is keeping their work interesting and satisfying for today, and has allowed them to achieve success to this point in their careers, but which may not be preparing them for upcoming changes in their occupations or organization.

Optimism. In the present study, optimism was a significant predictor of both career success and job satisfaction and correlated with all but two variables–networking and financial management.

Flexibility. In the present study, flexibility was correlated with career success but not job satisfaction. One may wonder, are the workers of today being stretched beyond their comfort zones–to the point where job satisfaction may be sacrificed at the expense of career success? In the present study, flexibility did not correlate significantly with financial management, balance, or planfulness. It is possible that a more flexible worker might be more inclined to overwork, jeopardizing work-life balance in exchange for career success. The lack of a correlation with planfulness begs the question, "Is it contradictory to expect people to be both planful and flexible?" Although, theoretically, Gelatt's (1991) construct of positive uncertainty and Krumboltz's (2000) planned happenstance theory link planfulness and flexibility together as desirable qualities for career management, those variables did not cluster together in the present study.

Planfulness. It was interesting, in the present study, that planfulness predicted job satisfaction in a negative direction. Perhaps those who are dissatisfied become more planful as they begin to consider alternative career paths–this would fit with Gottfredson's (1996) find-

ings that dissatisfied employees were more likely to be engaged in an active career search.

Persistence. In this study, persistence correlated with career success but not job satisfaction. Perhaps some workers who were satisfied stopped working so hard, while others continued to persist for the intrinsic value derived from their hard work.

Risk-Taking. It was interesting, in this study, that risk-taking correlated with both career success and job satisfaction–a finding that supports planned happenstance theory and the characteristics apparently valued by business leaders (Hakim, 1994).

Work-Life balance. In this study, work-life balance exhibited the least overlap with other predictor variables (the only significant correlation was with optimism), yet it was correlated with both career success and job satisfaction. Perhaps, then, balance is not so much a career management variable as it is a life management variable that permits one to achieve career success while remaining satisfied. This explanation would support Moses'(1999) call for workers of the future to take time to recharge.

Networking. It was interesting that, in the present study, networking did not correlate with job satisfaction, balance, optimism, or persistence. It could be that networking is an effective strategy used more consistently by individuals actively engaged in either job search (as promoted in such programs as job clubs) or in building their careers. Reviewing the responses to individual items on the CMBC offers further insight into this variable. Although over 65% of participants acknowledged networking with others by attending meetings and conferences, only 31% indicated that they had informed colleagues and professional acquaintances of their career accomplishments. Therefore, it seems quite possible that more passive networking (i.e., attending meetings and speaking with direct supervisors) is the kind of networking in which most individuals engage–particularly when their careers are successful. More focussed networking, on the other hand–networking which entails informing others of one's career accomplishments–does not seem to be an activity in which many of the participants in the present study chose to engage.

Financial management. In the present study, financial management was not correlated with either job satisfaction or career success. Perhaps these results were confounded by the relatively high income and long tenure of the participants. Salary, on the other hand, did correlate with job satisfaction (.22, $p < .01$)–a finding which makes intuitive sense. It was interesting, however, that neither salary nor bonus correlated with the subjective measure used in this study for career success. These findings suggest that, although individuals may find their jobs more satisfying if they are paid well, they are not inclined to measure their career success by either the salary or bonuses that they receive.

Redefining Effective Career Management

Planned happenstance. Although each variable under consideration in this study, except for financial management, had a small significant correlation with at least one of the outcome variables–career success and job satisfaction–multicollinearity resulted in only limited variance (12% - 19%) being explained when variables were combined. Planned happenstance theory (Krumboltz, 2000; Mitchell, Levin & Krumboltz, 1999) seems to be supported by these results in that unexpected, chance occurrences might impact careers–possibly even to a greater extent than individual attitudes, beliefs, career management strategies, or organizational variables.

Flow. According to flow theory (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990,1997), setting challenging but achievable goals can make work more enjoyable. A potential problem with this theory, however, is that it seems to place too much of the responsibility for achieving and sustaining flow in the hands of individuals. For example, organizational restructuring could result in one person doing the work of two or more people, or budget cuts could result in individuals struggling to cope with insufficient resources or obsolete equipment. Extending flow theory to include the notion of sufficient resources as well as skill development might help to make the theory fit the reality of a changing workplace.

Career responsiveness: Career management in changing times. Although the present study focussed on individuals–their career management efforts and their experiences of career success and job satisfaction–it is important to acknowledge that organizations, too, have an important role to play in providing environments that support the careers of their employees and accommodate the individual challenges that they face. To revisit the canoeing metaphor introduced earlier in this paper, even a skilful canoeist could not navigate effectively if a floodgate were unexpectedly opened–depending on which side of the gate the canoe is, there would either be no water (i.e., job loss) or a tumultuous torrent (i.e., chaotic organizational or personal change). Clear communication, therefore, and strategic partnerships between the organization and its employees are crucial for successfully navigating the changing world of work.

However, the impact of serendipity or chance occurrences also needs to be taken into account–some events are beyond the control of either individuals or their organizations (e.g., in the canoeing metaphor, floods or droughts caused by weather extremes would be beyond anyone's control). Effective career management, however, may equip individuals to recognize and maximize the benefits of such chance events or, at the very least, minimize the negative impact of those events by planning for their possibility, thus avoiding being caught off guard.

Perhaps a new term, "career responsiveness," could integrate some of the ideas from flow and planned happenstance theory with Super's notion of "adaptability" and Gelatt's "positive uncertainty." Responsiveness implies an organic and mutual adaptation or accommodation to change–sometimes the environment might respond to the changing needs of individuals (e.g., when an organization provides on-site daycare facilities for its employees with young families) and sometimes individuals respond to changing organizational demands (e.g., when they agree to work extended hours to better serve their customers).

Implications

Individual career management: Enhancing career success and job satisfaction. One interesting finding in this study was the relatively small overlap

between measures of career success and job satisfaction. Therefore, when counselling or coaching individuals, it might be appropriate to first clarify whether career goals involve achieving career success, job satisfaction, or both. Optimism was the only consistent significant predictor in the two regressions in the present study. Although, without further research, it is impossible to assign any particular direction of causality to this association, perhaps interventions that could instill or reinforce hope might be useful in enhancing both career success and job satisfaction. Such interventions could include seminars and workshops, inspirational reading, positive communication from leaders in the company and even rising stock prices or a positive economic forecast for the organization. There seems to be a renewed interest among career practitioners in incorporating spiritual and cultural beliefs in career discussions. Perhaps, because optimism was found to be a significant predictor of both career success and job satisfaction, this study can offer some empirical support for the contribution of hope and spirituality to effective career management.

Continuous learning, interestingly, was a significant predictor of job satisfaction but not career success. Much of the recent literature has promoted "learning organizations" as the key to success. The present results, however, suggest that there is something intrinsically satisfying about learning; learning is not just about skill development to prepare for future organizational demands. These findings fit with Csikszentmihalyi's (1997) flow theory–continuous learning helps to keep people "in flow" by matching their skills to new challenges.

Enhancing career management programs and services. It might be particularly helpful to introduce programs and services that would encourage employees to participate in activities deemed useful to effective career management, but in which the rate of participation is currently low. In the present study, for example, less than 40% of the participants reported that they had actively benchmarked their skills to those skills currently in demand in their fields. Also, although networking is touted by many as the foundation of career management, the present study shed some light on with whom people are networking–few participants (31%) reported engaging in potentially productive networking techniques such as informing others of their accomplishments. And, although almost 50% indicated that they had set some specific career goals, only 35% had implemented an action plan to achieve those goals.

In an era of continuous learning, it is essential that individuals keep up their skills. Although 68% of the participants in the present study had completed courses or seminars within the past year, only 47% had deliberately diversified their work experience to keep their career options open. One might also question how courses and seminars were selected, given that so few participants were benchmarking their skills.

In addition, although in the present study financial management was not correlated with career success or job satisfaction, it is somewhat alarming that only 25% of the participants indicated that they had made financial plans flexible enough to allow them to pursue interesting career opportunities as they arise, and less than 40% indicated that they had managed their money so that they could handle a period of unemployment between jobs. Given the uncertain labour market and Joo and Grable's (2000) findings linking financial problems to decreased productivity at work, it seems that financial management programs and resources might be an important intervention.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

There were several research challenges encountered in the present study. To begin with, there were no standardized measures available to reliably measure many of the specific variables under consideration. In addition, due to the exploratory nature of this study, no attempt was made to ensure that participation was either random or representative.

It is important to remember that, in the case of career success, much of the variance (88%) was not explained by the variables under consideration in this study; the unexplained variance is almost as high (81%) for job satisfaction. What other variables might contribute to career success and job satisfaction? It is possible that differences among individual work teams might account for some variation–often conflicts with team members and immediate supervisors are the most distressing. There are many interpersonal characteristics that could be measured. Future research might incorporate interpersonal variables such as management styles and contextual variables such as personal crises (e.g., illness or death in the family) in an attempt to explain more of the variance in career success or job satisfaction. A qualitative design would facilitate individuals telling their own career management stories and perhaps offer insights into the happenstance or chance occurrences that have already impacted their careers.

Another useful focus for future research would be to develop better measures for career management variables and also for career success and job satisfaction. It would be helpful for career practitioners and coaches to have an easily available, concise assessment tool (with good reliability and validity) to screen for effective career management attitudes and behaviours. Such a tool could be useful in directing individuals to the career management interventions or resources that would be of the most immediate benefit in enhancing their job satisfaction or career success. The present study, exploratory in nature, offers a beginning to our understanding of effective career management in the changing world of work. It is encouraging that all of the variables drawn from theory and the growing body of career management literature now have empirical support for their inclusion in career management programs and services. It is also somewhat daunting to acknowledge how little we know about the subject–more than 80% of the variance in job satisfaction and career success is still unexplained. Perhaps the notion of career responsiveness can enhance our understanding by illuminating the complex interaction between individuals and their employers as both attempt to manage careers more effectively in this changing world of work. There is much work to be done if we hope to better help our clients and employees thrive in the new millennium..

References

ATEC (1999). *Canadian standards and guidelines for career development: Draft 1*. Ottawa, ON: National Steering Committee.

Bahniuk, M. H., Hill, S. E. K., & Darus, H. J. (1996). The relationship of power-gaining communication strategies to career success. *Western Journal of Communication, 60*, 358-378.

Bar-On, R. (1997). *EQ-i: BarOn emotional quotient inventory*. Toronto, ON: Multi-Health Systems.

Baxter, D. (2000, May). *An outline for strategic succession, retention, and recruitment planning*. Paper presented at Working Wonders, the CACEE/CAFCE National Conference 2000, Victoria, BC.

Blustein, D. L. (1997). A context-rich perspective of career exploration across the life roles. *Career Development Quarterly, 45*, 260-274.

Bridges, W. (1997). *Creating you & co.: Learn to think like the CEO of your career*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Burke, R. J. (1999). Career success and personal failure feelings among managers. *Psychological Reports, 84*, 651-653.

Business Council of British Columbia. (1999). *Generic skills - characteristics survey results: What are British Columbia employers looking for?* [Brochure]. Vancouver, BC: Author.

Champy, J. & Nohria, N. (2000). *The Arc of ambition: Defining the leadership journey*. Cambridge, MA: Perseus Books.

Cole-Gomolski, B. (1998, December 14). Pay, hot tech block IT vets. *Computerworld, 32*(50), (p. 1,110).

Corporate Council on Education (1992). *Employability skills profile* [Brochure]. Ottawa, ON: Conference Board of Canada.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1997). *Finding flow: The psychology of engagement with everyday life*. New York: HarperCollins.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow: The psychology of optimal experience. New York: HarperCollins.*

DeVoe, D. (1998). Plans are key to success. *Infoworld, 20*(31), 75-76.

Gelatt, H. B. (1991). *Creative Decision Making*. Los Altos, CA: Crisp Publications.

Gottfredson, G. D. (1996). The assessment of career status with the Career Attitudes and Strategies Inventory. *Journal of Career Assessment, 4*, 363-381.

Griffith, C. (1998, January). Building a resilient workforce. *Training*, 54-60.

Hakim, C. (1994). *We are all self-employed: The new social contract for working in a changed world*. San Francisco: Berrett-Loehler.

Hall, D. T. & Moss, J. E. (1998). The new protean career contract: Helping organizations and employees adapt. *Organizational Dynamics, 26(3)*, 22-37.

Hayes, F. (1999, January 4). '99 do's and don'ts. *Computerworld, 33*(1), 8.

Hill, S. (1998). Taking your career in hand: A question of attitude? *Business Information Review, 15*(3), 164-171.

Holland, J. L. & Gottfredson, G. D. (1992). *Career attitudes and strategies inventory: An inventory for understanding adult careers*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Joo, S. & Grable, J. E. (2000). Improving employee productivity: The role of financial counseling and education. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 37*, 2-15.

Kaye, B. L. (1997). *Up is not the only way: A guide to developing workforce talent* (2nd ed.). Palo Alto, CA: Davies-Black Publishing.

Kidd, J. M. (1998). Emotion: An absent presence in career theory. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 52*, 275-288.

Kirchmeyer, C. (1998). Determinants of managerial career success. *Journal of Management, 34*, 673-692.

Krumboltz, J. D. (1991). *Manual for the Career Beliefs Inventory*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Krumboltz, J. D. (2000). *Planned happenstance: Constructing unexpected career opportunities*. Keynote address presented at Building Tomorrow Today, the Sixth Annual Alberta Regional Consultation for Career Development, Edmonton, AB.

Krumboltz, J. D. (1998). Serendipity is not serendipitous. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 45*, 390-392.

Melamed, T. (1995). Career success: The moderating effect of gender. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 47*(1), 35-60.

Metcalf, C. J. & Briody, E. K. (1995). Reconciling perceptions of career advancement with organizational change: A case from General Motors. *Human Organization, 54*, 417-428.

Mitchell, K. E., Levin, A. S., & Krumboltz, J. D. (1999). Planned happenstance: Constructing unexpected career opportunities. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 77*, 115-124.

Mitchell, L. K. & Krumboltz, J. D. (1996). Krumboltz's learning theory of career choice and counseling. In D. Brown, L. Brooks, & Associates (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (3rd ed.), pp. 233-280. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Moses, B. (1999). *The good news about careers: How you'll be working in the next decade*. Toronto, ON: Stoddart.

Moses, B. (1995). *The manager's career coaching guide*. Toronto, ON: BBM Human Resource Consultants.

Orpen, C. (1994). The effects of organizational and individual career management on career success. *International Journal of Manpower, 15*, 27-37.

Orpen, C. (1996a). Dependency as a moderator of the effects of networking behavior on managerial career success. *Journal of Psychology, 130*, 245-248.

Orpen, C. (1996b). The effects of ingratiation and self promotion tactics on employee career success. *Social Behavior and Personality, 24*, 213-214.

Parasuraman, S., Purohit, Y., Godshalk, V. M., & Beutell, N. (1996). Work and family variables, entrepreneurial career success, and psychological well-being. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 48*, 275-300.

Poehnell, G. & Amundson, N. (2000). *CareerCraft.* Manuscript in preparation.

Porter, S., Porter, K., & Bennett, C.

(1998). *Me, myself, and I, inc.: Ten steps to career independence.* Manassas Park, VA: Impact.

Posen, D. B. (1998). *Staying afloat when the water gets rough: How to live in a rapidly changing world*. Toronto, ON: Key Porter Books.

Savickas, M. L. (1997). Career adaptability: An integrative construct for life-span, life-space theory. *Career Development Quarterly, 45*, 247-259.

Seligman, M. E. P. (1990). *Learned optimism.* New York: Pocket Books.

Shahnasarian, M. (1994). *Decision time: A guide to career enhancement*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Simonsen, P. (1997). *Promoting a Development Culture in Your Organization: Using career development as a change agent*. Palo Alto, CA: Davies-Black.

Stevens, J. (1986). *Applied Multivariate Statistics for the Social Sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Turban, D. B. & Dougherty, T. W. (1994). The role of protégé personality in receipt of mentoring and career success. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*, 688-702.

Van Eck Peluchette, J. (1993). Subjective career success: The influence of individual difference, family, and organizational variables. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 43*, 198-208.

Wack, P. (1985). Scenarios: Uncharted waters ahead. *Harvard Business Review, 63*(5), p. 72-89.

Watts, A. G. (1996). Toward a policy for lifelong career development: A transatlantic perspective. *Career Development Quarterly, 45*, 41-53.

Williams, E. N. Soeprapto, E., Like, K., Touradji, P., Hess, S., & Hill, C. E. (1998). Perceptions of serendipity: Career paths of prominent academic women in counseling psychology. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 45*, 379-389.

Young, D. (1999, March 15). Hot skills and cold cash. *CIO, 12*(11), 36-46.

TABLE 1

Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Variable	M	SD	n	%
Tenure in Current Job (months)	36.4	49.59		
Tenure in Organization (months)	197.04	114.35		
Salary (thousands of Canadian dollars)	61.34	10.03		
Bonus (thousands of Canadian dollars)	7.59	4.76		
Age	42.41	7.38		
Dependents	1.26	1.19		
Sex				
Female			126	70
Male			55	30
Marital Status				
Single			26	14
Married			129	71
Divorced			26	14
Ethnicity				
Caucasian			151	83
Asian			5	3
Not identified			25	14
Education				
College			90	50
Bachelors Degree			40	22
Graduate Level Studies (Masters or PhD)			19	11

TABLE 2

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficients for CBI Scales in Present Sample

Scale	Items	N	Alpha
2 Career Plans	2	177	0.34
10 Control	2	178	0.23
15 Career Path Flexibility	4	178	0.48
16 Post-Training Transition	5	178	0.51
17 Job Experimentation	8	178	0.66
18 Relocation	5	178	0.85
19 Improving Self	2	178	0.21
20 Persisting While Uncertain	5	178	0.64
21 Taking Risks	4	178	0.49
22 Learning Job Skills	2	178	0.42
23 Negotiating/Searching	4	178	0.38
24 Overcoming Obstacles	8	178	0.69
25 Working Hard	7	178	0.72

TABLE 3

Descriptive Statistics for Scales used in Multiple Regressions

Variable	M	SD	Alpha
Career Success	8.2	1.3	0.72
Job Satisfaction	67.2	9.2	0.88
Continuous Learning	41.4	4.3	0.83
Financial Management	7.4	1.6	0.76
Flexibility	81.8	9.8	0.71
Work-Life Balance	6.2	1.8	0.81
Networking	11.5	2	0.65
Optimism	37.0 (37.2)	8.7 (8.8)	0.87
Persistence	29.7	3.1	0.72
Planfulness	0.9	0.9	0.76
Risk-Taking	37.9	5.5	0.78

Note. Numbers in parentheses represent statistics for variables in the regression equation for Job Satisfaction when they vary from those reported for Career Success.

TABLE 4

Correlation Among Predictor and Criterion Variables for Multiple Regression Analyses (N = 174)

Variable	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Career Success	.24*	.02	.26*	.19*	.13**	.31*	.29*	.19*	.20*	.37*
2. Cont. Learning		.22*	.20*	.02*	.14**	.31*	.28*	.20*	.35*	
3. Fin. Management	.22*		.07	-.-1	.26*	.02	-.06*	.14**	.10	
4. Flexibility	.21*	.07		.07	.17**	.30*	.37**	.11	.50**	
5. Balance	.02	-.01	.07		-.05	.33*	.09	.04	-.00	
6. Networking	.15**	.25**	.17**	-.05		.09	.07	.20*	.15**	
7. Optimism	.32*	-.01	.30*	.33*	.10		.43*	.27*	.32*	
8. Persistence	.29*	-.06	.37*	.09	.08	.44*		.22*	.38*	
9. Planfulness	.20*	.13**	.11	.04	.20*	.28*	.23*		.13**	
10. Risk-Taking	.35*	.10**	.50*	-.00	.15**	.32*	.38*	.13**		
11. Job Satisfaction	.35*	-.08	.11	.15**	-.08	.34*	.23*	-.03	.12**	

Note. Correlations above the diagonal are for the regression predicting career success. Those below the diagonal are for the regression predicting job satisfaction.

*p < .01
**p < .05

TABLE 5

Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Career Success (N = 174)

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Optimism	0.04	0.01	0.25	3.37	0
Flexibility	0.02	0.01	0.19	2.49	0.01
(Constant)	7.59	1		7.6	0

Note. Adjusted $R2$ = .12, $F(2, 171) = 12.41$, $p = .00$

TABLE 6

Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Job Satisfaction (N = 175)

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Optimism	0.31	0.08	0.3	4.05	0
Cont. Learning	0.62	0.16	0.29	4.01	0
Planfulness	-1.79	0.75	-0.17	-2.38	0.02
(Constant)	54.41	7.8		6.98	0

Note. Adjusted $R2$ = .19, $F(3, 171) = 15.01$, $p = .00$A Career Development Course For Academic Credit:

Your contact point for resources, learning and support

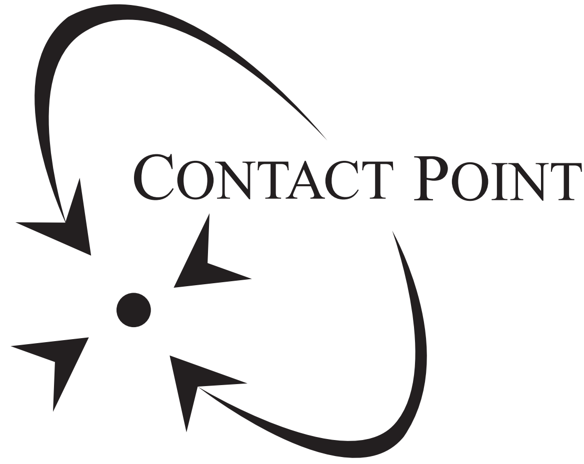
WWW.CONTACTPOINT.CA

Votre point de contact pour les ressources, l'apprentissage et le support

networking

professional development

research



Supported by / Sous l'égide de:
The Counselling Foundation of Canada

réseautique

perfectionnement professionnel

recherche

A Career Development Course for Academic Credit: An Outcome Analysis

Jeanette Hung
Dalhousie University

Address correspondence to
Jeanette.Hung@Dal.Ca
902-494-2081
902-494-3337 (fax)

Abstract

An undergraduate career development course focusing on theoretical models, concepts, and practices was analyzed using pre- and post- course measures of the Career Decision Scale, the Career Maturity Inventory and the Career Factors Inventory. Significant increases were found on measures of Career Certainty, and significant decreases were found on Career Indecision, Career Choice Anxiety, and Generalized Indecisiveness. Females demonstrated statistically significant mean score changes on measures of Career Choice Anxiety, Generalized Indecisiveness, Career Certainty and Indecision and on Career Competencies. Males showed a statistically significant change only on the increased Need for Self-Knowledge. The two gender groups differed only on the post-course measure of Career Indecision.

Despite the significant body of scholarly knowledge on career development issues, factors, and strategies which have been gathered, researched and reported in the last century, there is a dearth of opportunities for Canadian students to study and apply these understandings to their own career choice and development issues. Although the integration of career development into the academic curriculum is receiving increasing interest in a number of Canadian post-secondary institutions (Crozier, Douglas, Dobbs, & Hung, 1998) only three Canadian universities have awarded credit at the undergraduate level (Crozier, 1998).

In response to the student need for a more knowledgeable approach to their own career issues, and in recognition of the study of careers as a legitimate academic pursuit, Dalhousie University has recently been offering an elective half credit course open to all Arts and Social Sciences and Science undergraduates: Introduction To Career Portfolios (ASSC/SCIE 1100.03).

This course examines theoretical and practical issues in career development. The class explores the scholarly work of career development researchers, economists, demographers, educators, writers and theorists as their work relates to issues in career choice and development. Through an experiential learning model (Kolb, 1984) which is incorporated into discussions, exercises, weekly labs, exams and research papers, students also develop a portfolio which documents their theoretical applications as they reflect on their work and learning history. Through assessing personal and environmental factors impacting on decision-making over one's life span, students create a purposeful context for viewing their careers as well as reflect upon and propose career development strategies.

The course content includes principles, theories and practices relating to the meaning and nature of work, leisure, self and identity; career choice and decision-making; issues and strategies in self-assessment; occupational research; and, the future of work. Special issues are also considered such as gender, culture, special needs, dual careers, stress, burnout, job loss and career management in an uncertain economy. Students are encouraged to tailor the research assignments to meet their personal areas of interest.

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of this course by conducting a quantitative analysis of factors related to the students'experience of their study and application of career choice and development constructs and issues. The factors which were analyzed were measured on indices of Career Maturity, Career Indecision, Generalized Indecisiveness, Career Certainty, Career Choice Anxiety, Need For Self-Knowledge and Need For Career Information.

Method

Participants:

After obtaining the Institutional Ethics Review Board's approval, all students enrolled in this course in 1999 and again in 2000, were invited by the professor to participate in this study. An independent consultant also met with the classes and explained how anonymity was ensured and the safeguards in place to ensure the professor was blind to who was and was not participating in this study. The consultant collected and analyzed the data, interpreted the results to the class, and was available for individual consultation. The class was comprised of students from all years of undergraduate study from primarily Arts and Social Sciences and Science Faculties. After signing an informed consent form, forty eight students (53%) anonymously participated in both pre- and post-course quantitative assessments.

Instruments

Quantitative measures were gathered through the pre- and post- course administration of three career assessment instruments: The Career Decision Scale (CDS); the Career Maturity Inventory (CMI); and, the Career Factors Inventory (CFI)

The Career Decision Scale (CDS) was introduced by Osipow et al. in 1976 and was revised in 1987. It is "intended as a rapid and reliable instrument for surveying high school and college students about their status in the decision making process. The scale provides an estimate of career indecision and its antecedents as well as an outcome measure for determining the effects of interventions relevant to career choice or career development ... " (Osipow, 1987, p.1). Norms are provided for college students for both the Certainty Scale and the Indecision Scale. Test-retest reliability co-efficients range from .70 to .90. Percentile scores (grouped as low, middle and high) are provided for both scales. Certainty scores at or below the 15th percentile (low) and Indecision scores at or above the 85th percentile (high) are considered significant.The Career Decision Scale has been reviewed as unsurpassed in the career indecision literature (Meier, 1991, Harmon, 1994 and Herman, 1985).

The Career Maturity Inventory (CMI), (Crites,1978, 1995) provides a measure of career maturity which can be "generally defined as the extent to which the individual has mastered the vocational development tasks, including both knowledge and attitudinal components, appropriate to his or her state of career development. Maturity is assumed to be an underlying psychological construct reflecting this developmental level just as intellectual, moral, and social development are assumed to be psychological constructs " (Betz,1988 p.79).

Similarly, Savickas (1990) stated, " simply defined, career maturity means readiness for making realistic career choices. Clients below a certain threshold of readiness lack the life experiences and personal inclinations to make realistic choices. These clients need to develop attitudes that move them closer to the choice threshold" (p.58). This 50 item instrument yields scores for two scales measuring Attitude and Competence which are combined to form the total Career Maturity score. Crites (1978) recommends using this instrument for "(1) studying career development, (2) screening for career immaturity, (3) evaluating career education..." (p.270).

Internal consistency co-efficients for the five subtests range from .58 to .90, test-retest reliability ranges from .64 to .66 and content validity for the Self Appraisal subtest was built by collecting case records. Criterion related and construct validity was supported through a strong relationship with other Career Choice Competencies (Crites, 1978).The CMI has been highly regarded and used in hundreds of studies (Crites, 1995).

The Career Factors Inventory (CFI), measures four scales: (1)Need for Career Information, (2) Need for Self-Knowledge, (3)Career Choice Anxiety, and (4)Generalized Indecisiveness. The individual results are then profiled in standard score bands derived from general college samples.

The CFI has been administered to over 4,000 people and college students serve as the normative group. Test-retest reliability for college students range from a low of .68 to a high of .82. Internal consistency ranges from .73 to .92. The CFI has been correlated with several instruments to establish convergent validity and research has demonstrated that its scales "are operating in a manner consistent with their definition and development" (Chartrand and Robbins, 1997, p.13). The CFI has been designed, and used successfully, to measure the effectiveness of career planning courses (Chartrand and Robbins, 1997, Chartrand and Nutter, 1996) .

In summary these three psychometric instruments address questions derived from the theoretical and research literature. The results, in addition to being useful to the participants, allowed an exploration of the impact of the course on measures of Career Certainty, Career Indecision, Career Maturity (Attitude and Competence), Need For Career Information, Need For Self- Knowledge, Career Choice Anxiety, and the Generalized Indecisiveness of students enrolled in the course Introduction to Career Portfolios (ASSC/SCIE 1100.03).

Results

Data Analysis

The survey data were examined to determine if there were differences within the group of participants between scores attained on the test instruments at the beginning of the course and scores resulting from a second administration at the end of the course . Group means were compared with paired samples t-tests.

Career Certainty/Career Indecision:

Career Certainty scores, a measure of the degree of certainty that the student feels in having made a decision about a major and a career, and Career Indecision scores, a measure of career indecision, were received from 48 students pre- and post- course as measured on the Career Decision Scale. These scores are presented in Table 1. On both scales, statistically significant changes were noted in percentile scores from pre- to post-course. Certainty scores increased from a mean of 46.4% pre-course to 54.9% post-course (p=0.04). Indecision scores decreased from a mean of 71.4% pre-course to 64.7% post-course (p= 0.05).

Career Maturity:

Career Maturity, a measure of Attitude and Competence, as assessed by the Career Maturity Inventory, was completed pre- and post- course by 48 students. Overall, there were no significant changes in the mean scores. For the Attitude scale, the pre - course mean score was 16.7 and the post - course mean score was 17.3 (p=0.23). On the Competency scale the pre - course mean score was 18.9 and the post - course mean score was 18.6 (p=0.49). The total Career Maturity score was essentially unchanged as the pre - course mean score was 35.8 compared to the post - course mean score of 36.0 (p=0.68).

Need for Career Information, Self-Knowledge, Career Choice Anxiety and Generalized Indecisiveness:

Pre- and post-course measures were completed by 47 students. Of the four scales, three showed a decrease in mean scores and one showed an increase from pre- to post-course. Significant decreases were measured on the Need for Career Information, Generalized Indecisiveness, and on Career Choice Anxiety. The Need for Career Information, the perceived need to acquire specific information about or experience in various occupa-

tions before making a career decision showed a slight decrease (from 23.3 to 22.6, p=0.22). Generalized Indecisiveness, the general tendency to have difficulty making decisions showed a decrease in scores over time (from 14.2 to 12.9, p=0.042); and Career Choice Anxiety, the level of nervousness one feels when faced with a career decision showed a significant decrease (from 16.9 to 14.7, p<0.0001). The Need for Self-Knowledge, the desire to have greater self-understanding before making a career decision showed a slight (non-significant) increase in mean scores (from 15.3 to 16.2, p=0.135).

Gender Differences:

When the students were divided on the basis of gender and pre- and post-course score differences examined, statistically significant mean score changes were seen within the group of female students (n=30). Female students showed decreases on the measures of Career Choice Anxiety (from 16.6 to 14.1, p=0.002), and Generalized Indecisiveness (from 14.5 to 12.5, p=0.02) of the Career Factors Inventory. Increased mean scores were noted on both scales of the Career Decision Scale. Certainty scores increased from a pre-course mean of 51.7% to post course mean of 62.6% (p=0.04). The Indecision scale showed a decrease from a mean of 66.7% pre-course to a mean of 56.6% post-course (p=0.03). The competency scale of the Career Maturity Inventory showed a drop in mean scores from 19.5 pre-course to 18.4 post-course (p=0.04).

Male students (n=18) showed a statistically significant change in mean scores only on the Need for Self Knowledge subscale of the Career Factors Inventory where the scores increased from 14.1 to 16.4 (p=0.03).

When the two gender groups were compared on all scales of the study instruments, the only significant between-group difference seen was on the Career Decision Scale measure of Indecision post-course (mean percentile for males 78.1, for females 56.5, p=0.02).

Discussion

The course Introduction To Career Portfolios was designed to teach theoretical models, concepts, and practices relating to career choice and development. Students were encouraged to maximize the personal benefits that could be gained from the study of this material by applying this knowledge to their own personal situations.

Rather than encouraging students to focus on making career decisions, emphasis was placed on examining their career issues from each of the multiple theoretical perspectives that were studied. In spite of this emphasis, or perhaps because of it, career indecision scores decreased. For example, as one student in a lab discussion group commented " ... I am ready with answers. I am ready to explain myself. I wasn't secure in my thoughts and who I was as a person and now I know I am able to confront the questions."

Sometimes career indecision is an appropriate response to a future that is uncertain, especially for careers which consist of multiple contracts from a variety of employers. Therefore, students were required to read and reflect on the benefits of indecision (Gelatt, 1989), (Krumboltz, 1992), particularly as indecision can have a positive impact on a portfolio career (Handy, 1989). Students were asked, in their labs, to discuss how studying this material affected their decision making, one student said, " I don't have any more answers, but I feel like I have more questions which are going to lead to more answers later on. It is good to be able to have those questions." Another student commented, " I realize that I am an 'undecided'person not an indecisive one. The distinction was one that I really had never thought of. Now I feel more confident to proceed knowing that the things I am going through are OK, and I can keep going."

As students became more career certain, perhaps as a result of integrating the theoretical frameworks into their own life experiences, they appeared to become more confident in their interactions with others over career issues. The confidence was not just about being more certain, but about being better able to articulate the basis of that certainty. As one student commented in class, " .... now I understand what I mean by what I say I want and why I want it." Consistent with decreased career indecision and increased career certainty, career choice anxiety scores also decreased. Career anxiety was usually expressed indirectly e.g., " We're talking about evaluating ourselves ...How do I go about doing this? My life seems so cluttered, how do I dig down in this mess and make a foundation for myself?" Career anxiety reduction was expressed more directly e.g.,"It's not so scary anymore." "I obtained the insight that I am someone to be proud of....I really do have self worth. ...I should be more confident in myself. I learned how to set goals that I could reach and achieve."(anonymous reflective exercises).

The combined results of the Career Factors Inventory revealed a decrease in the Need For Career Information and a slight non-significant increase on the Need For Self -Knowledge. Perhaps the research and reflective components of the course were sufficient for some students but led others to see the need for further exploration. As one student commented in a lab discussion group, " There is much more to career development than just picking your career then getting appropriate information. I know there are many influencing factors when choosing a career, and it is important to analyze them while making your decision."

The Career Maturity Inventory revealed only slight non-significant changes in scores. This could be because neither Attitude nor Competency was impacted by this intervention, or because the sample size was too small which could have caused a Type II error. As this study focused on whether the intervention impacted measures of career maturity, the Career Developer, a supplement to the 1995 CMI and described as an "adjunct" to facilitate "teaching the test" (Crites, 1995, p. 48), was not used for this study. The use of the CMI without its supplement (which teaches the answers to the test questions) may have reduced its sensitivity to changes over time. It is also possible that the most recent revision did not adequately adjust this instrument for use with a post-secondary population. Indeed, an adult population may be better served with the construct of career adaptability rather than career maturity. Career adaptability has been defined by Savickas (1997) as "the readiness to cope with the predictable tasks of preparing for and participating in the work role and with the unpredictable adjustments prompted by

changes in work and working conditions" (p. 254). Regardless, as reliability and validity studies are needed for the revised version of the CMI, these results support the recommendation for "extreme caution" (Levinson, Ohler, Caswell, & Kiewra, 1998, p.478).

The scores of female students were more dramatically impacted than the scores of males. Females showed greater decreases in Career Anxiety and Indecision as well as greater increases in Certainty scores at the end of the course. The scores of male students changed significantly only on the increased Need for Self- Knowledge. The two gender groups were different only on the career Decision Scale measure of Indecision post-course. The small sample sizes (18 males, 30 females) may preclude the attribution of true gender differences on these measures. However, it is possible that the females found the introspective nature of the course requirements combined with the cooperative and interactive learning methods as well as the explicit links to societal issues a more immediately beneficial learning environment (Tobias, 1990; Miranda and Magsino, 1990; Beall and Sternberg;1993).

A limitation of this study is that only 53% of the students participated in this research. While a larger sample size may have increased this study's validity, ethical constraints did not allow the researcher to use coercion or rewards to increase the students'participation. There is a potential bias in this sample as it is not clear what motivated some students to participate while others did not. As this course was open to students in all years of undergraduate Arts, Science and Social Sciences, there were a number of uncontrolled variables including a wide range of student interests, needs and career problems. These students were a mix of those who had decided, those still yet to decide, those who did not know how to decide and those who were indifferent to deciding. Personality factors (such as decidedness and motivation) are one of the challenges to analyzing the effectiveness of this course. As Johnson and Smouse (1993) reported, personality variables are not easily changed with a career planning course intervention. Their results suggested that students with problems of decisiveness or motivation did not benefit from a course. Perhaps these students needed an intervention more tailored to their concerns. Similarly, as Oliver and Spokane (1988) stated, "It may well be that clients with poor self esteem, poor sociability, or goal instability will fare better in individual counseling or more structured treatments" (p.459).

Career development courses for academic credit are well established at American universities (Isaacson and Brown, 1993). As Canadian universities increasingly express an interest in offering career courses, they may find that discussions center around concerns of academic credibility, philosophical issues related to the purpose of a university, and the complex nature of designing interventions to influence the career development of a wide range of student needs, interests and concerns. This course, which was designed to have a high standard of scholarly excellence and personal significance, demonstrated that many students can personally benefit from a theoretically integrated approach to the understanding of their career issues. Counsellors with expertise in career choice, career development and work related issues can offer much from the research literature and their professional practices to enrich the career development experiences of students in a classroom.

Conclusions and Implications:

These results suggest that the study and application of career development theory, concepts and practices can have a positive impact on the career concerns of university students. Career Choice Anxiety, in particular, appears to be positively affected by this course. Additionally, participants show significantly decreased Career Indecision and increased Career Certainty. While anecdotal comments from the participants support the view that students benefited from this course to a significant extent, further research in this area is required to substantiate these findings and provide more insight into how and why this course has a positive impact on the students'career concerns.

It is challenging to conduct research which analyses the outcomes of a career course while accepting both ethical constraints and a number of uncontrolled variables. Perhaps as a consequence, there is insufficient information available to maximize the impact of this type of intervention. A qualitative study which asks open ended questions about how this body of knowledge has affected students' understandings of their own personal career issues could provide valuable insights to instructors. In addition, qualitative studies exploring the experiences of expert instructors could also help universities to anticipate some of the pedagogical, political and developmental challenges inherent in offering a course of this nature. This type of data would be invaluable to course instructors, career consultants and administrators who have come to realize that it is time for more Canadian universities to give credit to career development.

References

Beall, A.E. and Sternberg, R.J. (Eds.), (1993). The psychology of gender. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Betz, N.E. (1988). The assessment of career development and maturity. In W.B. Walsh and S.H. Osipow (Eds.), *Career decision making*, (pp.77-87). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Chartrand, J.M. and Nutter, K.J. (1996). The Career Factors Inventory: Theory and applications. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 4, 205-218.

Chartrand, J.M. and Robbins, S.B. (1997). *Career Factors Inventory applications and technical guide*. Palo Alto,CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Crites, J.O.(1978). *Theory and research handbook for the Career Maturity Inventory* (2nd ed.). Monterey,CA: CTB/McGraw-Hill.

Crites, J. O. (1995). *Career Maturity Inventory sourcebook*. Ottawa, ONT: Careerware.

Crozier, S. (1998). A university career planning course for academic credit. *Australian Journal of Career Development*, 7(3),3-5.

Crozier, S., Dobbs, J., Douglas, K. and Hung, J. (1998) *Career counselling position paper*. The Canadian University and College Counselling Association.

Gelatt, H. B. (1989). Positive uncertain-

ty: A new decision-making framework for counseling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 36,(2), 252-256.

Handy, C. (1989). *The age of unreason*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Harmon, L.W. (1994). Review of the Career Decision Scale. In J.T. Kapes, M.M. Mastie and E.A. Whitfield (Eds.), *A counselor's guide to career assessment instruments* (3rd ed.) (pp. 259-262). Alexandria, VA:National Career Development Associaton.

Herman, D.O. (1985). Review of the Career Decision Scale. In J.V. Mitchell, Jr. (Ed.), *Ninth mental measurements yearbook.* Vol. 1 (pp.270-271). Lincoln, NE: Buros Institute.

Isaaacson, L.E. and Brown, D. (1993). *Career information, career counsel - ing, & career development* (5th ed.). Toronto,ONT: Allyn and Bacon.

Johnson, D.C. and Smouse, A.D. (1993). Assessing a career planning course: A multidimensional approach. *Journal of College Student Development*, 34, 145-147.

Kolb, D.(1984). Experiential Learning: Experience as the source of learning and development. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Krumboltz, J.D. (1992) The wisdom of indecision. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 39*, 131-181.

Levinson, E. M., Ohler, D. L., Caswell, S. and Kiewra, K. (1998). Six approaches to the assessment of career maturity. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 76, 475-482.

Meier, S.T. (1991). Vocational behavior, 1998-1990: Vocational choice, decision-making, career development interventions, and assessment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 39*, 131-181.

Miranda, E.O. and Magsino, R.F. (Eds.), (1990). Teaching schools and society. Bristol, PA: The Falmer Press.

Oliver, L.W. and Spokane, A.R. (1988). Career-intervention outcome: What contributes to client gain? *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 35, 4*, 447-462.

Osipow, S. H. (1987). Career Decision Scale manual. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc. Savickas, M.L. (1990,March). Developing career choice readiness. Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Association for Counseling and Development. Cincinnati,OH. IN J.O. Crites (1995). *Career Maturity Inventory source book*, (p.58). Ottawa, ONT: Careerware.

Savickas, M.L. (1997). Career adaptability: An integrated construct for life-span, life-space theory. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 45, 247-259.

Tobias, S. (1990). They're not dumb, they're different: Stalking the second tier. Tuscon, AZ: Research Corporation.

The author would like to thank Dr. Colleen O'Connell and Dr. Ann Manicom, independent consultants, for their valuable skill and insights with the data collection and analysis.

The course discussed in this article is supported by the Dalhousie Career Portfolio, in partnership with Human Resources Development Canada.

TABLE 1

Table of pre- and post- test scores for the combined, female, and male samples on the Career Decision Scale (CDS), Career Maturity Inventory (CMI), and the Career Factors Inventory (CFI).

Scale	Pre-Test Combined	Post-test Combined	Pre-Test Females	Post-Test Females	Pre-Test Males	Post-Test Males
CDS Certainty	46.4	54.9*	51.7	62.6*	37.5	42.05
CDS Indecision	71.4	64.7*	66.7	56.6*	79.3	78.1#
CMI Attitude	16.7	17.3	16.84	17.3	17	17.28
CMI Competence	18.9	18.6	19.5	18.4*	18	19.1
CMI Total	35.8	36	36.37	35.83	35	36.38
CFI Need For Career Info.	23.3	22.6	22.81	21.93	24.37	23.94
CFI Career Choice Anxiety	16.9	14.7***	16.6	14.1**	17.56	15.94
CFI Generalized Indecisiveness	14.2	12.9*	14.5	12.5*	13.69	13.69
CFI Need For Self Knowledge	15.3	16.2	15.9	16.1	14.06	16.44*

* = $p<0.05$

** = $p<0.01$

*** = $p<0.0001$

= $p<0.05$ when compared to post-test females

Effective Career Counselling: Relationship Between Work Personality, Learning Style and Client Intervention Preferences

Randy B. Penney
John Howard Society of Newfoundland

Mildred Cahill
Memorial University of Newfoundland

Abstract

Determining client preference regarding the structure and approach to the career counselling intervention could be expected to benefit the counselling relationship, especially when working with clients who are resistant to typical intervention approaches. A process is proposed that seeks to provide offenders with a choice between two approaches to group career counselling, one that is action-oriented and a second that is grounded in self-reflection. This study focused on the development of an assessment tool that included work personality and learning style in the process of determining the individual's preference for career counselling. This instrument, the Career Counselling Preferences Questionnaire (CCPQ), along with Holland's Self-Directed Search (SDS-E) and Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (LSI) was administered to 60 inmates, parolees, and probationers to investigate these inter-correlations and to determine the validity of the CCPQ in assessing preferences for counselling structure. Four Holland types, Artistic, Investigative, Social and Enterprising, were found to be positively correlated with a "thinking" approach to career intervention. The Social type was found to be additionally correlated with a "doing" approach. The Realistic Holland type, accounting for the largest portion of the sample, was found to be not significantly correlated with either approach, as was the Conventional type. In addition, all six Holland types produced by the CCPQ were strongly correlated with results of the SDS-E. The CCPQ "thinker" construct was supported with a positive correlation to the LSI Abstract Conceptualization score. These results are discussed as per the potential benefits of a dual approach that creates a space for emerging career counselling approaches such as constructivism in the correctional system.

Introduction

There are many services today that provide career counselling and employment skills related training. However, consideration may be lacking as to a systematic means of discerning client preferences in career counselling (Niles, 1993; Galassi, Crace, Martin, James & Wallace, 1992).

The determination of client preference and subsequent application of this information to the choice of career counselling strategy could be expected to proffer certain benefits. This may be especially true when working with clients who are resistant to typical intervention approaches. One such group commonly identified for this characteristic is offenders. In the field of offender rehabilitative services, increasing client responsivity to treatment is considered to be a key component of effective intervention in terms of reducing recidivism (Andrews, Zinger, Hoge, Bonta, Gendreau & Cullen, 1990; Bonta, 1997). This may be witnessed through the reduction of client resistance as is often characterized in correctional counselling interventions by absenteeism, failure to complete homework assignments, disengagement in discussions, argumentativeness and apathy. Accommodating preference for approach may result in a client who is more engaged in a process that has greater meaning and, as a result, who is more positively affected by it. In fact, the importance of client expectations has been a major research focus in psychotherapy for over 40 years but it has received little attention in the area of career counselling (Galassi et. al., 1992)

The use of a work personality typology such as Holland's (1966, 1973, 1985) to explore relationships between client personalities and career counselling interventions has received historical as well as recent support (Riverin-Simard, 1999; Boyd and Cramer, 1995; Niles, 1993; Rosenberg and Smith, 1985). Holland developed six basic personality types: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional (RIASEC) and argued that people tend to affiliate with and be most like one, two or three of the types. Rosenberg and Smith (1985) developed six strategies for career counselling based on these Holland types. They claimed that realistic types would prefer a hands-on approach, investigative types a problem-solving approach, artistic types a low structured approach, social types a highly verbal approach, enterprising types a challenging approach and conventional types a highly structured approach. Niles (1993) explored this concept further in a sample of undergraduate students and found support for parts of this theory. More specifically, realistic and enterprising males preferred congruent career counselling environments, but results were less conclusive for the other typologies.

Boyd and Cramer (1995) in examining this theory, explored four aspects of client preferences as they related to Holland type: the framework of the counselling intervention, career aspirations, the process of decision-making, and counselor characteristics. Overall, support was found for the desirability of considering client personality type when devising a career counselling intervention. In particular, in looking at the

framework of counselling variable, a significant difference was found between the social and realistic types, with the enterprising types responding similarly to social types and conventional types most similarly to the realistic types.

Riverin-Simard (1999) has also suggested that distinctly different career counselling approaches should be provided to clients based on their Holland typology. She proposes that individuals tend towards one of two opposite poles, that of being and doing. More specifically, the pole of "being" describes clients who must first clarify who they are (or have become) in order to deal with the career dilemma they face and that three of Holland's occupational typologies (artistic, social, enterprising) share this pole. Their preferred counselling approach would seek to help them redefine themselves through examination of their personal assets, qualities of their being that make them act and motivate them in vocational activities. On the opposite side, Riverin-Simard suggests that the pole of "doing" describes clients who emphasize what they produce rather than who they are and is represented mainly by Holland's other three typologies (Realistic, Investigative, Conventional). Accordingly, their preferred approach would assist self-definition through acting and doing. Therefore, the first intervention priority should be to get them to act; to accomplish and do things.

A review of the literature on learning styles (Dunn, 1996; Hewitt, 1995; Simms and Sims, 1995; Dunn and Griggs, 1995; Reiff, 1992; Keefe, 1987; Gregorc,1979; Messick & Assoc., 1976; Witkin, 1976; Kagan, 1965; Myers, 1962; Jung, 1921) provides support to the concept that adapting intervention strategies to the preferences of the 'learner' (client), will increase the likelihood there will be a positive learning or teaching experience and that client responsivity will be enhanced. Kolb's (1984) experiential learning model is useful in identifying adult learning styles and this information can then be used to modify the approach taken in a career counselling intervention. Kolb maintains there is a four stage cycle of learning that is structured around two dimensions of learning style: concrete experience versus abstract conceptualization (taking in experience) and reflective observation versus active experimentation (dealing with experience). Kolb proposes that the most effective learners have competencies in and use all four stages when learning. However, some learners are more comfortable with a particular stage and prefer this approach, often skipping other stages.

Using Kolb's (1999) Learning Style Inventory (LSI) that contains 12 sentence stems, each having four completers that are rank ordered by the test-taker to determine the client's preferred way of taking in experience (concrete experience versus abstract conceptualization), will provide an additional assessment of preferred approach to career counselling. This additional measure will provide a means of evaluating the relationship between an individual's preferred counselling strategy and their Holland code as postulated by Riverin-Simard above.

This research was designed to explore the career counselling preferences of a representational sample of Newfoundland offenders. A career counselling preferences questionnaire was designed to provide an assessment tool for career counselors working with this population. Through a comparison of responses on this questionnaire to responses on two standardized and validated instruments that identify work personality by Holland code (Holland, 1985) and learning style (Kolb, 1984), the ability of this questionnaire to accurately identify these indicators for counselling preferences can be established. In effect, clients demonstrating a propensity towards an abstract conceptualization learning style were predicted to be more responsive to a self-reflective approach to career counselling than those who preferred to learn through concrete experience. Additionally, this preference for a reflective, less-structured approach was also expected to exist more frequently in artistic, social and enterprising Holland types in comparison to realistic, investigative and conventional Holland types. The degree of correlation of responses to items on the career counselling preferences questionnaire developed for this study with Holland code and Kolb's learning style could result in a new way of approaching career counselling that reduces resistance and increases client responsivity to the intervention, thus increasing effectiveness of the counselling strategy.

Method

Subjects

The subjects were 60 adult, male offenders selected by means of a stratified random sampling procedure. The sample represented all Federal and Provincial Parolees residing on the Avalon peninsula of Newfoundland, all inmates of Her Majesty's Penitentiary and Salmonier Correctional Institute, and all clients (excluding females and low-risk males) under supervision of the Corrections and Community Services office in St. John's. This last group included individuals on electronic monitoring, a conditional sentence or under a probation order. The average age of participants was 33 years. The group aged 20 to 29 years accounted for 48% of all participants. The majority of participants were single (60%), currently living in the community in a non-halfway house setting (60%), and were unemployed (72%) at the time of interview. The level of education of the participants ranged from grade 5 to university graduate, with an average of grade 10.

Instruments

The Self-Directed Search, Form E (SDS-E) is based on and developed from John Holland's well established theory (Holland, 1966, 1973, 1985) that links personality with occupational choice. The six personality types (RIASEC) are matched by six types of work-place environments on the assumption that these environments can be classified according to their demands and that people seek out work settings where there are others like themselves who share their interests and skills (Diamond, 1998). The SDS instrument seeks to estimate the test-taker's similarity to these six types by exploring experiences and competencies.

The SDS-E assessment booklet contains 192 items and can be administered in 20 to 40 minutes. The Form E (easy) was selected because of it's applicability to a special client group, that is, adults with low education. Form E was specifically designed for adults (and adolescents) with as low as a grade four reading level.

Internal reliability of the SDS scales is moderate: KR 20's for the six scales ranging from .67 to .94 (Holland, 1991). Comparisons of the internal consistency

between the 1985 and 1990 revision was examined by Ciechalski (1998) and found to be high (Cronbach's alpha above .95). The retest reliability of the SDS summary scales are reported in the manual to also be favourable (.81 to .92).

The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) was developed from David Kolb's (1984) experiential learning model that holds there is a four stage cycle of learning that is structured around two dimensions of learning style: concrete experience versus abstract conceptualization (taking in experience) and reflective observation versus active experimentation (dealing with experience). The cycle is thought to follow a sequence that begins with concrete learning experiences, and moves to reflective experiences where the focus is building meaning and structured understanding. It then progresses to abstract experiences where theory building and logical analysis of ideas are central and ends with active experimentation experiences where application of what has been learned to real life occurs. Kolb proposes that the most effective learners have competencies in and use all four stages when learning. However, some learners are more comfortable with a particular stage and prefer this approach, often skipping or not moving into other stages.

The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) has been developed by Kolb (1999) to help individuals assess their modes of learning and learning styles (Murphy et al., 1999). The LSI contains 12 sentence stems, each having four completers which are rank ordered from four to one by the test-taker. Four is assigned to the completer with the stem that best characterizes the participant's learning style and one is assigned to the least. Reliability testing carried out since introduction of the first version in 1981 found the instrument to be rated as "strong in regard to reliability and fair in terms of validity" (Hickcox, 1995, p.34). Gregg (1989) in his review of this instrument, stated that the reliability of the LSI showed good internal reliability using Cronbach's Alpha but that further research is required to answer questions of validity.

The Career Counseling Preferences Questionnaire (CCPQ) was designed for this study to assess offender's preferences for career counseling interventions. The questionnaire contained 50 statements that require the respondent to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement on a six point Likert Scale. A six point scale was used in order to eliminate a middle answer. The response choices range from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". A total of 50 items were developed in five categories that were considered significant to the determination of career counseling preference. The first two categories, the importance of work and the perceived need for counseling, contain five items each and were designed to assess the client's motivation to engage in the workforce and to engage in a career counseling intervention. The third category, group versus individual counseling preference, contains four items which allow the client to indicate which of these two basic approaches are preferable. The fourth category contains 24 items that were constructed to assess client preferences for active (doing) versus reflective (thinking) approaches to career counseling. The final category of 12 items was developed to provide referencing to the six Holland types in order to investigate the questionnaire's ability to detect differentiated Holland personalities through correlations with responses on the SDS-E.

Development of the 50 items took place over several months and involved numerous revisions. As items were added to the questionnaire they were evaluated for literacy-level and face validity by two experienced career counselors who work with offenders. Once the total group of 50 items was obtained, the items were intermixed throughout the questionnaire and adjustments were made to allow reverse scoring on approximately half of the items. This original draft of the questionnaire was reviewed for wording, item construction, face validity and instrument structure by several individuals well-versed in career counseling and research design. Subsequent drafts were then produced as these revisions were incorporated into the design of the instrument.

In order to determine that the items addressed the theories they were designed to address, a "back translation" procedure similar to that used by Boyd and Cramer (1995), was employed. This process is thought to increase validity and involved five judges assigning the items back to the five categories from which they originated. Three of the judges were correctional workers familiar with career counseling and Holland's theory and the other two judges were graduate students trained in career counseling and familiar with the population.

Finally, the CCPQ was pilot tested with offenders to obtain their overall impressions of the instrument as well as an item by item critique. This review attempted to determine readability of each item, their comprehension of the items, their explanation of choices on each item and their sense of face validity. Final revisions were made to alleviate any ambiguities or difficulties encountered.

Interview Process

All participants who had been selected for inclusion in the study sample were contacted by phone or in person. A general description of the study was provided which included a brief summary of the three instruments involved. Potential participants were informed that participation was completely voluntary and anonymous and that refusal to participate would not be reported to their supervisory agency (parole or probation officer). If the individual agreed to participate, an appointment was made for the instruments to be administered at a time convenient for the participant.

Each participant met individually with the researcher in a either private interview room in the prison (for those incarcerated) or in a counseling room of the John Howard Society's C-STEP program in St. John's. This setting was chosen to provide consistency for instrument administration, it's central location and because of the positive client perception of this agency as an offender advocacy organization. The initial part of the meeting was used to describe the purpose of the study, the procedure involved and to answer any questions the participant had. The consent form was then reviewed and signed. The three instruments were administered in the order of the CCPQ first, followed by the LSI and finally the SDS-E. The participant was encouraged to take their time and ask questions if unsure of anything. The researcher moved out of the participant's vision but remained within earshot in case assistance was requested. Responses on each instrument were checked for errors or missed items before the interview ended. This meeting lasted approximately 40 - 60 minutes per participant.

Results

The majority of participants were found to be unemployed, repeat offenders who had not received any form of career counselling previously. Over 70% have been imprisoned at some time, almost 40% for more than two years. The most common Holland personality was found to be the Realistic type in this sample, as indicated by results of both the SDS-E and the CCPQ. Reliability of the SDS-E was found to be .80 and higher, while reliability of the other standardized instrument used in the study, the LSI, was lower (alpha of .33 to .71). The study-designed instrument, the CCPQ, was found to produce reliability alphas ranging from .41 to .76 for this sample.

Strong positive correlations were found between the SDS-E and the CCPQ on each of the six Holland typologies, suggesting a role for the CCPQ in screening for work personality (Table 1). The CCPQ also indicated that the majority of participants perceived a need for career counselling, but that approximately half preferred neither group nor individual interventions, the remainder equally split in their preferences for these two approaches. The only Holland typology found to be correlated with the group/individual preference was the Social type, showing a negative correlation with individual career counselling (r = -.266, p<.05).

TABLE 1

CCPQ and SDS-E Inter-correlations (RIASEC)

	CCPQ R SDS-E R	CCPQ I SDS-E I	CCPQ A SDS-E A	CCPQ S SDS-E S	CCPQ E SDS-E E	CCPQ C SDS-E C
Pearson	604***	.343**	402**	.548***	.534***	.423**
Sig. level	000.	.009	.130	.000	.000	.001**

p<.01 ***p<.001

The Thinker construct of the CCPQ was found to be significantly and positively correlated with four of the Holland types, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Investigative, as displayed in Table 2. The Doer construct, however, was found to be correlated with only the Social typology. The Realistic and Conventional Holland types were not found to be significantly correlated with either of these constructs. Approximately 25% of the sample were found to be 'Thinkers'. An unexpected finding was a positive correlation between the Thinker and Doer scores on the CCPQ (r = .33, p<.05) suggesting the possibility that another construct may be involved in the explanation of these findings.

TABLE 2

CCPQ Thinker/Doer and SDS-E correlations (RIASEC)

	R	I	A	S	E	C
CCPQ Thinker						
Pearson	-.066	.387**	.423**	.347**	.270*	.130
Sig. level	.639	.003	.002	.009	.046	.354
CCPQ Doer						
Pearson	-.011	.126	.081	.282*	.006	-.009
Sig level	.937	.350	.560	.034	.965	.947

*p<.05 **p<.01

Results from the LSI showed a positive correlation (r = .33, p<.05) between the abstract score (AC) and the CCPQ Thinker score. Interestingly, the LSI AC score was also positively correlated with the Investigative typology (r = .35, p<.01) supporting the finding of this Holland type's affinity to the Thinker construct.

Table 3 displays the findings of the relationship between scores on the Holland Self-Directed Search (SDS-E) and scores on the Kolb Learning Style Inventory (LSI) in this offender population. Six significant correlations were found. The Investigative score for participants was found to be positive correlated with the Abstract Conceptualization score (r = .35, p<.01) as well as the Abstract - Concrete (AC - CE) score (r = .30, p<.05) and negatively correlated with the Active Experimentation score (r = -.36, p<.01). The SDS-E Artistic score for participants was negatively correlated with their Reflective Observation score (r = -.28, p<.05). Finally, participants' score for Holland's Conventional typology was found to be negatively correlated with their Active Experimentation score (r = -.33, p<.05) and their Active - Reflective (AE - RO) score (r = -.29, p<.05).

TABLE 3

SDS-E and LSI Inter-correlations

		CE	RO	AC	AE	AC - CE	AE - RO
R	Pearson	-.197	.130	-.015	.084	.088	-.019
	Sig. level	.145	.340	.910	.536	.521	.888
I	Pearson	-.104	.051	.346**	-.355**	.296*	-.254
	Sig. level	.437	.706	.008	.006	.024	.054
A	Pearson	.077	-.275*	.132	-.128	.055	.067
	Sig. level	.578	.042	.337	.353	.692	.627
S	Pearson	.131	-.051	-.016	-.028	-.075	.011
	Sig. level	.326	.703	.905	.834	.573	.935
E	Pearson	-.084	-.110	.187	-.144	.173	-.029
	Sig. level	.530	.410	.160	.280	.194	.827
C	Pearson	-.137	137	.224	-.329*	.226	-.286*
	Sig. level	.315	.315	.097	.013	.094	.032

*p<.05 **p<.01

Finally, significant correlations were found between four Holland typologies and three demographic variables of the sample. Years of education was found to be positively correlated with both the Investigative (r = .29, p<.05) and Artistic types (r = .38, p<.05), but negatively correlated with the Realistic typology (r = -.29, p<.05). On the other hand, the total time incarcerated was found to be positively correlated with the Realistic scores (r = .29, p<.05) but negatively correlated with Investigative scores (r = -.35, p<.01). The last demographic variable found to be significantly correlated with a Holland type was size of home town. This was found to be negatively correlated (r = -.27, p<.05) with the Enterprising typology scores of the CCPQ.

Discussion

One of the primary purposes of this study was to investigate the idea put forward by Riverin-Simard (1999) that in times of occupational stress, individuals tend towards one of two opposite poles, either of clarifying who they are and will become (Thinker) or what they produce (Doer) depending upon their characteristics. Although some support was found for this theory, the results were mixed. Comparisons of the SDS-E scores with the CCPQ Thinker scores revealed that four of Holland's six typologies were significantly correlated with this construct. Three of these four were Artistic, Social and Enterprising (ASE); Holland types proposed by Riverin-Simard to share the Thinker pole. Further, when scores of these three types are totaled for each participant, this combined ASE score on the SDS-E was found to be strongly correlated with the CCPQ Thinker score (r = .41, p<.01). The equivalent combination of Realistic, Investigative and Conventional (RIC) SDS-E scores was found to be not significantly correlated with the CCPQ Thinker scores. Finally, when comparing scores for the CCPQ Doer with the SDS-E ASE combination, the resulting correlation was not significant.

These results then, lend support to the existence of a relationship between Holland's artistic, social and enterprising work personalities and a 'Thinker' approach to career distress or transition. However, other findings from this study suggest this whole postulate to be more complex than first proposed, at least for

this population. One of the greatest detractors is the results regarding the Investigative typology. Scores for this type on the SDS-E were found to be strongly and positively correlated with the Artistic, Social and Enterprising typologies (as well as the Conventional typology). This effect was replicated through the CCPQ results. Additionally, the Investigative scores on the SDS-E were found to be positively correlated with the CCPQ Thinker scores ($r = .39$, $p<.01$). It would appear then, that the Investigative typology does not conform to it's proposed membership in a 'doing' genre. In fact, higher scores in this typology are correlated to higher scores in the 'thinking'typologies (ASE) as well as to the CCPQ Thinker construct.

This notion that the Investigative typology is actually distinct from the Realistic typology, instead of similar, is supported by other results of the study. For example, higher Investigative scores (in both SDS-E and CCPQ) were found to be positively correlated with years of education and negatively correlated (CCPQ scores only) with time spent in jail. Conversely, higher Realistic scores (in both SDS-E and CCPQ) were found to be positively correlated with time spent in jail and negatively correlated (CCPQ scores only) with years of education, the complete opposite. Additionally, scores for the LSI Abstract Conceptualization (AC) learning style were found to be positively correlated with both the SDS-E and CCPQ Investigative scores. The LSI AC - CE (abstraction over concreteness) score was also positively correlated with the SDS-E Investigative score. Furthermore, SDS-E Investigative scores were found to be negatively correlated with the LSI Active Experimentation (AE) scores and the CCPQ Investigative scores were found to be negatively correlated with the LSI Concrete Experience (CE) scores. These findings strongly suggest that the Investigative occupational personality is very much an abstract learner and prefers a "thinkers" approach to career transition and counselling as opposed to a "doers" approach.

Alternatively, no significant correlations were found between any of the Holland Realistic, Investigative and Conventional typologies and the CCPQ Doer scores. Upon examination of the relationship of these three Holland types and LSI learning styles, it was found that the SDS-E Conventional type was negatively correlated with LSI active over reflective (AE-RO) scores. Similarly, the CCPQ Realistic type was negatively correlated with LSI Concrete Experience (CE) scores but positively correlated with LSI Abstract Conceptualization (AC) and Reflective Observation (RO) scores. These findings would not be expected of "doers" and indeed, are somewhat surprising. This is particularly true of the negative correlation between the Realistic type and the LSI Concrete learning style. One possible explanation for this may rest with the LSI's ability to accurately measure this style. The LSI's reliability in CE scores for this sample was very low when all 12 items were included ($\mu = .33$) and was only improved when seven items were dropped ($\mu = .65$). Also, upon examination of the five remaining items that are used to construct the CE score, it is apparent that the respondents feelings are emphasized (eg. "when I learn, I like to deal with my feelings", "I learn by feeling", "I learn best when I rely on my feelings", "I learn best when I trust my hunches and feelings") in this learning style. It may be possible that offenders reacted negatively to these items based on this emphasis and, as Realistic types were the most common in this sample, this significant negative correlation was found. Thus, the usefulness of the LSI instrument to indicate an inclination towards a 'concrete'learning style in this sample is doubtful. In fact, Kolb in defending the LSI, has often argued that the best measure of his instrument was not reliability, but construct validity (Highhouse and Doverspike, 1987). As well, none of the significant correlations found by Highhouse and Doverspike between LSI styles and Holland type were replicated by this study.

Overall, results from the LSI proved to be mixed on finding a means of triangulating evidence in the investigation of Riverin-Simard's theory. Support for the theory and for the CCPQ's ability to identify Thinkers, came from the LSI when a positive correlation was found between the LSI Abstract Conceptualization score and the CCPQ Thinker score for participants. However, the positive correlation of the LSI AC score and the CCPQ Realistic typology contradicts the theory, as mentioned above. The impact of this correlation on the theory is somewhat diminished, however, as it was not replicated by the SDS-E Realistic scores. None-the-less, the correlation is opposite to that expected based on the theory and cannot be dismissed, especially when the relationship between the two measures (SDS-E and CCPQ)of Realistic typology is strong ($r = .60$, $p<.01$).

The LSI Reflective Observation (RO) scores also presented findings contradictory to Riverin-Simard's theory. As mentioned above, the CCPQ Realistic typology was positively correlated with LSI RO scores while the CCPQ Social and SDS-E Artistic typologies (both proposed 'thinkers') were found to be negatively correlated with the LSI RO scores. The Reflective Observation style is described by Kolb (1999) as "learning by reflecting" and involves viewing issues from different perspectives and looking for the meaning of things. It should be noted that the RO scores were the least reliable of the LSI instrument ($\mu = .48$) and perhaps should not receive undue attention here because of this. At the very least however, one may conclude that these Holland typologies are not simply categorized on one continuum, such as thinking-doing, and most probably represent a number of complexities and constructs.

Conclusion

In light of the present findings, it would appear that a place for constructivist approaches, as distinguished by the development of self as a function of construction in the context of social participation, relationships and dialogue (Peavy, 1996), does indeed exist in the area of career interventions for offenders. The four "thinking" Holland types, Artistic, Investigative, Social and Enterprising, would appear to be most suited to this approach. Based upon the characteristics the CCPQ Thinker items attempted to identify, it would seem that these typologies would benefit from an intervention where reflection and meaningful activity are essential processes and the broader perspective of the client's whole life is considered as opposed to simply making a career choice or focusing on the occupational aspect of the client's life.

Approaches such as Peavy's (1992; 1996) outlined earlier, where the intervention will be active, dynamic and reconstructive and the focus of the intervention will be the client's own perception's and personal meanings of what was, is and will be significant for them, would be appropriate to include in career interventions for these typologies. Typical constructivist activities such as counsellor elicited stories, metaphors, narratives and dialogues soliciting the clients'self-reflections would comprise some of the methods used.

Based on the findings regarding thinking versus doing as a response to career transition, it is clear that more research is required to further understand these constructs and to effectively identify these preferences in clients. Future efforts to understand the interaction of learning styles and work personalities could benefit from the utilization of a more reliable assessment tool. Finally, replication of this study with a population other than offenders would assist in determining the generalizability of these findings.

References

Andrews, D. A., Zinger, I., Hoge, R. D., Bonta, J., Gendreau, P., & Cullen, F. J (1990). Does correctional treatment work? A clinically relevant and psychologically informed meta-analysis. *Criminology*, 28, 369-404.

Bonta, J. (1997). *Offender Rehabilitation: From Research to Practice*. Ottawa: Public Works and Government Services Canada.

Boyd, C.J. and Cramer, S.H. (1995). Relationship between Holland high-point code and client preferences for selected vocational counselling strategies. *Journal of Career Development*, 21(3), 213-221.

Ciechalski, J. (1998). *Review of The Self-Directed Search*, Form E-1990 Revision. In J.C. Impara & B.S. Plake (Eds.), 13th Mental Measurements Yearbook. (pp. 893-894). Lincoln, NA: University of Nebraska.

Diamond, E. (1998). *Review of The Self-Directed Search*, Form E-1990 Revision. In J.C. Impara & B.S. Plake (Eds.), 13th Mental Measurements Yearbook. (pp. 894-896). Lincoln, NA: University of Nebraska.

Dunn, R. (1996). *How to Implement and Supervise a Learning* Style Program. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Dunn, R. and Griggs, S.A. (1995). *Multiculturalism and Learning Style: Teaching and Counselling Adolescents*. Westport, Conn.: Praeger.

Galassi, J.P., Crace, R.K., Martin, G.A., James, R.M., and Wallace, R.L. (1992). *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 39(1), 46-55.

Gregg, N. (1989). *Review of the Learning-Style Inventory*. In J.C. Conoley & J.J. Kramer (Eds.), 10th Mental Measurements Yearbook. (441-442). Lincoln, NA: University of Nebraska.

Gregorc, A. (1979). *Learning styles: their nature and effects*, Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals, pp.19-26.

Hewitt, R.L. (1995). *The nature of adult learning and effective training guidelines*. In R.R. Sims and S.J. Sims (Eds.) The Importance of Learning Styles. (pp. 162-178) Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press.

Hickcox, L.J. (1995). *Learning styles: a survey of adult learning style inventory models*. In R.R. Sims and S.J. Sims (Eds.) The Importance of Learning Styles. (pp.25-47) Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press.

Highhouse, S. & Doverspike.(1987). The validity of the LSI 1985 as a predictor of cognitive style and occupational preferences. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 47, 749-753.

Holland, J. (1966). *The Psychology of Vocational Choice*. Waltham, MS: Blaisdell Publishing Company.

Holland, J. (1973). *Making Vocational Choices: a theory of careers*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Holland, J.L. (1985). *Making Vocational Choices. A theory of vocational personalities and work environments* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Holland, J. (1991). *The Self-Directed Search Professional Manual*-1985 Ed. Canadian Edition. USA: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.

Jung, C. (1921). *Psychological Types.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Kagan, J. (1965). Impulsive and reflective children: significance of conceptual tempo. In J.D. Krumboltz (ed.) *Learning and the Educational Process*. Pp.131-161. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

Keefe, J.W. (1987). *Learning Style Theory and Practice*. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Kolb, D.A. (1984). *Experiential Learning: Experience as a Source of Learning and Development*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

Kolb, D.A. (1999). *Learning Style Inventory*, version 3. Boston: Hay/McBer.

Messick, S. & Assoc. (1976). *Individuality in Learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Murphy, L., Impara, J. & Plake, B. (Eds.) (1999). *Tests in Print 5, V.1.* Lincoln, NA: Buros Institute of Mental Measurement, University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

Myers, I. (1962) *Introduction to Typel.* Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Niles, S.G. (1993). The relationship between Holland types preferences for career counselling. *Journal of Career Development*, 19(3), 209-220.

Peavy, V. (1996). Constructivist Career Counselling and Assessment. *Guidance and Counselling*. Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 11(3), 8-14.

Peavy, V. (1992). A constructivist Model of Training for Career Counselors. *Journal of Career Development*, Vol. 18(3), 215-228.

Reiff, J.C. (1992). *Learning Styles*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.

Riverin-Simard, D. (1999). *Key Roles in*

the Revolution of Work. Ottawa: Canadian Career Development Foundation.

Rosenberg, H.G. and Smith, S.S. (1985). Six strategies for career counselling. *Journal of College Placement*, 45, 42-46.

Sims, S.J. and Sims, R.R. (1995). Learning and Learning Styles: A Review and Look to the Future. In R.R. Sims and S.J. Sims (Eds.) *The Importance of Learning Styles*. (pp. 193-210) Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press.

Witkin, H. (1976). Cognitive style in academic performance in teacher-student relations. In S. Messick and Associates (eds.) *Individuality in Learning*, pp.38-72. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Research Brief

Psychodynamics of Student Work in a Context of Job Scarcity and Economic Insecurity

Marie-France Maranda
Université Laval
Chantal Leclerc
Université Laval

Abstract

This paper provides an overview of the results of a survey on the psychodynamics of student course work (Dejours, 1993) conducted over a three-year period with some one hundred university students in twelve programs[1]. In addition to the high dropout rates during the first years of university, certain signs of distress observed by guidance counsellors prompted us to attempt to understand the anxiety that students feel about their future.

Introduction

Young people from Quebec have been particularly affected by the numerous rounds of restructuring in the world of work. The unemployment rate for the 15-29 year old age group is 13,4% compared with 9,0% for the general population (Maranda and Leclerc, 2000). The comparative advantage enjoyed by university students over people with a lower education level does not stop them from feeling insecure because what awaits many of them is an immediate future of underemployment, student loan repayments, and temporary jobs.

This research led to discussions on the pleasures and sufferings related to studies and to the recognition of a number of defensive mechanisms inherent to the type of training chosen. As Dejours states (1993), work is an activity that is performed by people in order to achieve certain production goals. In the case of student work, this means the production of knowledge or skills, the production of social relations and the production of the self. Marks, credits and a diploma are the equivalent of compensation.

Ten programs have been examined to date. They are: architecture, biology, communication, computer sciences, literature, physical education, physiotherapy, occupation therapy, sociology and visual arts. By encouraging the formation of groups of students who are in the same program, we have created spaces for discussion in which students can reveal, discuss and question the constraints and rules of work associated with the pursuit of studies in a context of fierce competition and performance. Two situations related to common issues have been selected.

Silence and Repression of Anxiety

In programs where job scarcity is well known, such as sociology, visual arts, literature, communication, love for the discipline is an overriding condition of integration. Passion is both vital and indispensable. Like any person who works, students in those programs are concerned about how the usefulness of what they do is valued, that is, they hope for living conditions, a recognition of the beneficial effect of their work and its marked value. However, these hopes are dampened by the image that society conveys to them of the thinker, the intellectual and the useless artist (old clichés that resurface in the race for high-paying jobs). This is heightened by the doubts that families and friends have about their future and by the taboos which block communication. In many programs, passion becomes an implicit and explicit norm: “You have to be born with it”. In this message conveyed by employers, teachers and the media, enthusiasm and passion are prescribed as an antidote to moroseness. This motivation discourse takes the form of a paradoxical command. Thus, this context leaves no room for students to express doubts about the purpose of their studies, and even less room for them to criticize the training and the institution.

Silence on this subject becomes a burden, a suffering that is borne alone and which can become increasingly oppressive over time. To avoid bringing up these questions, students choose not to discuss the worrying factors because, for many of them, anxiety is something to be hidden. Students decide to not bring up these topics that are considered to be personal because they fear being judged by their peers and future employers. It is better to “appear to be motivated” in order to believe in the future and not be identified, or even labelled, as not being passionate enough, even if it means that you do not truly feel this at all. Passion could become instrumental in a quest for effectiveness and productivity.

Performance and endurance

We now turn to the context in which employment is almost guaranteed but where competition and selection still prevail: computers and health sciences programs. Students are rigorously selected on the basis of academic results. For example, in occupational therapy, only 60 out of 500 applicants are chosen per year. Thus, those students are the symbols of excellence and have been the pride and joy of their families and friends since childhood. Although honours give the greatest of pleasure, the downside is that they include the requirements to perform. This requirement comes first from the education system whose practices are heavily focused on measuring results, and then from parents for whom marks are very important. Students have internalized these norms and are in the habit of setting extremely high targets for themselves and continuously keeping themselves above average, which gives them an immediate feeling of euphoria that must be constantly renewed. The pressure exerted in this way has led to brilliant results but also to bouts of intense stress and even exhaustion.

A new requirements is added to the results-related requirements, that is, to be a well-balanced person. In wishing to project an almost perfect image as students and future professionals in the helping relationship, there is a risk of doubling the academic results performance with performance related to psychological balance. It is no longer enough to succeed, one must project the image of a well-balanced person, show self-confidence in the face of uncertainty, manage one's stress, etc. These students are aware of the dangers inherent in a productivity-centred work organization, having read academic studies on stress and burn-out. In this sense, they believe that they are on a well-balanced path because they have the information that allows them to develop an objective knowledge of these issues. However, this is but a narrow line. Within this ideal, there is little room for fatigue, bad mood, disagreement or mistake and there is a real risk of slipping towards a defensive ideology which over-values the individual's responsibility to adjust at the expense of a critique of systemic constraints. This defensive strategy means keeping one's problems to oneself, subjecting oneself to a harsh discipline, working without complaining, gritting one's teeth and … often putting one's desire on the back burner. Students agree to subject themselves to this in the hope that, one day, they will no longer be forced to make so many sacrifices for their work. This second nature is laden with after-effects. Over time, they become experts in enduring and come to believe and say that they have no choice but to adjust to the situation.

Conclusion

This approach of psychodynamics of work can play a preventive role in counselling and guidance. In speaking out about work organization, concrete courses of action and intervention areas can be developed in the education community.

We conducted this study in partnership with the Counselling and Psychological Assistance Service and the Guidance and Counselling Clinic of the University. Their respective directors participated actively in the study as co-researchers. They were involved at all stages of the research, including the writing of the final report. Thus, the psychodynamics of work may well have a future in the academic environment (high school, college, university, etc.) because its theoretical and methodological approach can be used to support students as they construct their identity by helping them to recognize, at an early stage, the sources of pleasure and suffering linked to their occupational choice as well as the defence mechanisms being constructed at the same time. Through this approach, it is also possible to identify institutional shortcomings or problems linked to training programs. In this respect, this approach may prove to be a useful tool for student associations fighting for improvements in these areas. In short, the psychodynamics of work is an approach that allows for innovative actions in the relationship of students to their studies and to institutions.

Bibliography

Dejours, C. (1993). Contributions of the Psychodynamic Analysis of Work Situations to the Study of Organizational Crises. Industrial and Environmental Crisis Quarterly, 7, 2, 77-89.

Maranda, M.F. and C. Leclerc (2000). “Les jeunes et le discours morose sur l'emploi, perspective de la psychodynamique du travail”, L'insertion socioprofessionnelle: un jeu de stratégie ou un jeu de hasard? G. Fournier et M. Monette (eds.) Les Presses de

[1]This research study was subsidized by the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada. Research reports can be obtained from the Centre de recherches sur l'éducation et la vie au travail, Faculté des sciences de l'éducation, Université Laval, Québec, Canada, G1K 7P4.

Research Brief

Psychodynamique du travail étudiant dans un contexte de resserrement des conditions d'acces à l'emploi et d'insécurité économique

Marie-France Maranda
Université Laval
Chantal Leclerc
Université Laval

Résumé

Cet article abrégé donne un aperçu des résultats d'une enquête de psychodynamique du travail[1] (Dejours, 1993) réalisée sur une période de trois ans auprès d'une douzaine de programmes universitaires et d'une centaine d'étudiants. Outre les taux élevés d'abandon dans les premières années universitaires, ce sont certains signes de détresse observés par les intervenants des services de counseling et d'orientation qui nous amenèrent à tenter de comprendre l'angoisse des étudiants associée à l'anticipation de l'avenir.

Au Québec, les jeunes sont particulièrement affectés par les restructurations de l'univers de travail. Le taux de chômage des 15-29 ans est de 13,4% comparativement à 9,0 pour l'ensemble de la population (Maranda et Leclerc, 2000). L'avantage relatif dont jouissent les étudiants universitaires par rapport aux personnes moins scolarisées ne les immunise pas contre l'insécurité. Un avenir immédiat fait de sous-emplois, d'endettement relié à la poursuite des études, et d'emplois temporaires, en attend plusieurs..

Le travail est une activité déployée par les personnes pour atteindre certains objectifs de production (De Bandt, Dejours et Dubar (1995). Dans le cas du travail étudiant il s'agit de la production des savoirs ou des connaissances, la production des rapports sociaux et la production de soi. Les notes, les crédits et le diplôme représentent l'équivalent de la rémunération.

À ce jour, dix programmes ont été investigués: architecture, arts visuels, biologie, communication, éducation physique, ergothérapie, informatique, littérature, physiothérapie et sociologie. En suscitant la constitution de groupes d'étudiants de la même formation, nous créons des espaces de parole dans lesquels les contraintes et les règles du travail associées à la poursuite d'études, dans un contexte de rareté ou de précarité d'emploi, peuvent être révélées, discutées et remises en cause. Nous retenons deux situationspour les fins de ce texte: une situation de rareté de l'emploi et une autre où l'emploi est quasi assuré, mais la compétition vive et la sélection déterminante.

Le silence et la répression de l'angoisse

Dans les programmes où la rareté de l'emploi est connue, tels sociologie, arts visuels, littérature et communication, l'amour de la discipline doit primer comme condition d'intégration. La passion est à la fois vitale et obligée. Comme toute personne qui travaille, les étudiants des sciences humaines et des arts sont préoccupés du jugement d'utilité qu'ils méritent, c'est-à-dire qu'ils espèrent des conditions de vie décentes, une reconnaissance du bienfait de leur travail et de sa valeur marchande. Ces espoirs sont toutefois refroidis par l'image que la société leur renvoie du penseur, de l'intellectuel ou de l'artiste inutile (ce sont là de vieux clichés actualisés dans la course aux emplois payants). Celle-ci est exacerbée par les doutes de leur entourage à propos de leur avenir et par les tabous qui bloquent la communication.

Dans plusieurs programmes, la passion devient une normequ'il faut intériser et afficher: “Il faut avoir le métier dans le sang”, leur dit-on. Cette condition implicite est inquiétante, car comment savoir si l'on possède en soi, presque dans ses gênes, ce potentiel pour supporter les contraintes associées à cette profession? Dans ce message véhiculé par les parents, les enseignants, les employeurs, les médias, l'enthousiasme et la passion sont prescrites comme un antidote à la morosité. Mais ce discours de la motivation prend la forme d'une injonction paradoxale. Il n'y a pas de place, dans ce contexte, pour exprimer des doutes sur les finalités des études, et encore moins pour exercer une critique de la formation et de l'institution. Le silence à ce propos devient un poids, une souffrance que l'on porte seul et qui, avec le temps peut devenir de plus en plus oppressante. Pour éviter de soulever ces questions, on préférera taire certains éléments angoissants. Car pour plusieurs étudiants, l'angoisse est quelque chose à éviter ou à contrer, pour ne pas prêter flan aux remises en question. Même dans les cas où la sociabilité est fortement présente, les étudiants n'abordent pas ces thème considérés intimes, car ils craignent le jugement des pairs ou celui des futurs employeurs.

La performance et l'endurance

Abordons maintenant un contexte où l'emploi est quasi assuré où règne toutefois la compétition et la sélection: en informatique et en sciences de la santé. La performance scolaire exigée pour se faire admettre en sciences de la santé, par exemple, a des effets sur le rapport actuel aux études. Les étudiants sont rigoureusement sélectionnés sur la base des résultats scolaires: sur cinq cent demandes par année, une soixantaine de candidats sont retenus en ergothérapie, à titre d'exemple. Symboles d'excellence ils font la fierté de leur entourage depuis leur enfance. Si les honneurs font plaisir, ils comportent toutefois un revers, celui de l'exigence de la performance. Cette exigence provient d'abord du système d'éducation dont les pratiques sont fortement axées sur la mesure des résultats, puis des parents qui ont accordé beau-

coup d'importance aux notes. Les étudiants ont intériorisé ces normes. Ils ont pris l'habitude de se fixer des objectifs extrêmement élevés et de se maintenir constamment au dessus de la moyenne, ce qui leur procure une sensation immédiate d'euphorie qu'il faut renouveler sans cesse. La pression ainsi exercée a pu amener à de brillantes réussites mais aussi à vivre des épisodes de stress intenses, voire d'épuisement.

Aux exigences reliées aux résultats, s'en ajoute une nouvelle: celle de montrer un état d'équilibre. Dans le désir de projeter une image quasi parfaite en tant qu'étudiants et futurs professionnels de la relation d'aide, il existe un risque: celui de doubler la performance liée aux résultats scolaires par une performance d'équilibre psychologique. Il ne suffit plus seulement de réussir, il faut présenter une image d'équilibre, démontrer de l'assurance face à l'incertitude, gérer son stress... Ces étudiants sont conscients des risques inhérents à une organisation du travail axée sur le productivisme. Ils lisent des écrits scientifiques sur le stress et l'épuisement professionnel. En ce sens, ils se croient sur le chemin de l'équilibre car ils détiennent l'information leur permettant de développer une connaissance objective de ces problématiques. Mais le fil est mince. Dans cet idéal, il y a peu de place pour la fatigue, la mauvaise humeur, le désaccord ou l'erreur et il existe un risque réel de glisser vers une idéologie défensive qui sur-valorise la responsabilité individuelle d'adaptation au détriment d'une critique des contraintes systémiques.

La stratégie défensive consiste à garder ses problèmes pour soi, à se soumettre à une dure discipline, à travailler sans se plaindre, à serrer les dents et … à mettre en veilleuse son désir bien souvent. Les étudiants acceptent de se soumettre dans l'espoir, qu'un jour, ils ne soient plus forcés de tant sacrifier pour leur travail. Cette seconde nature n'est pas sans laisser de séquelles. À la longue, ils deviennent des experts d'endurance et ils en viennent à croire, et à dire, qu'ils n'ont pas le choix de s'adapter ainsi.

Conclusion

Le travail de réflexion fait auprès des étudiants universitaires permet d'échanger sur les plaisirs et souffrances liés aux études, de reconnaître certains mécanismes défensifs inhérents au type de formation choisie, et de transposer cette réflexion dans les instances représentatives ou décisionnelles, lorsqu'ils le décident. En ce sens, nous estimons que l'approche de la psychodynamique du travail peut aussi agir sur un plan préventif. La prise de parole autour de l'organisation du travail ouvre la voie sur l'élaboration de pistes concrètes d'action en milieu éducatif et promet de nouveaux créneaux de recherche et d'intervention.

Nous avons réalisé cette enquête, en partenariat avec le Service d'orientation et d'aide psychologique et la Clinique d'orientation et de counseling de l'Université. Les directeurs respectifs ont participé concrètement à l'enquête à titre de co-chercheurs. Ils ont été présents à toutes les étapes de la recherche jusqu'à la production du rapport écrit. On peut donc penser que la psychodynamique du travail a un avenir en milieu scolaire (secondaire, collégial, universitaire, etc.) car cette approche théorique et méthodologique permet d'accompagner les étudiants dans leur construction identitaire en les aidant à reconnaître, tôt, les sources de plaisir et de souffrance liées à leur choix professionnel, de même que les mécanismes de défense qui se construisent au même moment. Elle permet aussi d'identifier des lacunes institutionnelles ou des problèmes liés aux programmes de formation. En cela, elle peut s'avérer un outil intéressant pour les associations étudiantes qui luttent sur ces plans. Bref, la psychodynamique du travail constitue une voie d'action novatrice dans le rapport des étudiants à leurs études et aux institutions.

Bibliographie

Dejours, C. (1993). *Travail, usure mentale, De la psychopathologie à la psychodynamique du travail*, Paris: Bayard Éditions, 263 p.

De Bandt, J., C. Dejours et C. Dubar, *La France malade du travail*, Paris: Bayard Éditions, 207 p.

Maranda, M.F. et C. Leclerc (2000). "Les jeunes et le discours morose sur l'emploi, perspective de la psychodynamique du travail", L'insertion socioprofessionnelle: un jeu de stratégie ou un jeu de hasard?, sous la dir. de G. Fournier et M. Monette, Les Presses de l'Université Laval.

[1]Cette recherche est subventionnée par le Conseil de recherche en sciences humaines du Canada. Il est possible de se procurer les rapports de recherche au Centre de recherche sur l'éducation et la vie au travail, Faculté des sciences de l'éducation, Université Laval, Québec, Canada. G1K 7P4

Commentary

Formula for Success in Career Building

Phillip S. Jarvis
National Life/Work Centre

Address correspondence to Phillip S. Jarvis, Vice-President, Partnership Development, National Life/Work Centre, 240 Catherine Street, Suite 110, Ottawa, Ontario CANADA, K2P 2G8, Tel: 1-613-234-9339 (Ext 224), Fax: 1-613-234-7479; Website: www.lifework.ca

Abstract

In the author's opinion, traditional education and training systems have failed to equip youth and adults for the continual life and work transitions they will face beyond graduation. The way people prepare for life and work transitions is changing, as are the goals of career education and counselling. The focus is shifting from an emphasis on helping people choose an occupational goal, then develop plans to meet its educational and training prerequisites, to also helping them learn essential life/work skills they need to be satisfied, self-reliant citizens, able to make the most of the myriad transitions life will present.

Formula for Success in CAREER BUILDING

Prevailing wisdom in the twentieth century held that given reasonable access to good career information and guidance citizens will make good career decisions. The result will be improved human resource allocation, labour force mobility and productivity, and improved cost-effectiveness of employment, education and training programs (Krumboltz & Worthington, 1999). Many countries have invested heavily in developing and distributing print, video, computer and web-based resources on this premise. Watts (1999) made a good case for "The Economic and Social Benefits of Career Guidance." Recent analysis of school-to-work and work-to-work transition processes raises doubts about whether simply providing good information and guidance, which remains vital, is sufficient to reap the benefits Watts describes (Blustein, et.al., 1997; Krumboltz & Worthington, 1999; Lent, Hacektt, & Brown, 1999; Savickas, 1999; and Worthington & Juntenen, 1997).

In addition to academic and technical skills, youth and adults need to learn essential life/work skills that empower them to become healthy, productive and self-reliant citizens. Gysbers (1997) refers to this concept as life career development, defined as "self-development over a person's life span through the integration of the roles, settings, and events in a person's life". An important part of "life career development" is giving individuals life/work skills that empower them to locate and process information, and to make good choices at the many transition points they will inevitably encounter on their life journey. The Conference Board of Canada (2000), representing many of the largest employers in Canada, insist that employability (life/Work) skills are as important to employers as the communications, mathematics and science skills all students are expected to acquire before leaving formal education. Krumboltz and Worthington (1999) state that "The goals of career counseling and of the school-to-work movement should be to facilitate the learning of skills, interests, beliefs, values, work habits, and personal qualities that enable each participant to create a satisfying life in a constantly changing work environment" and Savickas (1999) suggests that students need to learn to "look ahead" and "look around" before they leave school to develop competence and skill in the following five domains: (a) self-knowledge, (b) occupational information, (c) decision making, (d) planning, and (e) problem solving. According to Worthington and Juntunen (1997) "When employers are asked why they prefer not to hire youth, or why there are high turnover rates among youthful workers, they will tell you that today's youth frequently fail to demonstrate essential employability skills." Employers implore educators to ensure students "don't leave school without them," yet life/work skills have not found the prominence they deserve in "mainstream" curricula.

Canada prides itself in the quality and quantity of career and labour market information available for youth and adults. Excellent resources like the National Occupational Classification, Job Futures, Work*info*NET, Choices, Career Explorer, Career Cruising, Career Directions, Canada Prospects, The Realm and The Edge magazines, Destination 2020, Smart Options and many more are readily available to citizens of all ages across Canada. Yet, although most students have ready access to quality career information and guidance:

- 70% of secondary students expect to go on to post-secondary studies (university, college, technical or trade school) and 80% of their parents have the same expectation, but only 32% go directly to post-secondary, and only about 50% of them will graduate
- Nationally 26% of secondary students drop out of secondary school before graduation
- 9% of secondary students expect to work after they leave secondary school, yet 64% of secondary students actually do go to work before any other career destination
- 47% of post-secondary students change programs or drop out by the end of their first year, and 50% of those who graduate are not in work closely related to their programs two years after they complete their programs

These statistics (Statistics Canada School Leavers Survey, 1997) suggest that fewer than 25% of Canadian youth arrive at their short-term career goals, let alone longer term goals.

Are the 64% of secondary students who go directly to work ready? Perceptions vary. One recent survey (Environics Alberta, 1995) yielded the following results to the question, "Are secondary students ready for work when they leave school?"

Response from:	Ready for the Workplace	Ready for Post-Secondary
High Sch. Students	80%	87%
Parents (K-12 Students)	40%	65%
Post-Secondary Teachers	35%	53%
Employers	35%	70%

Secondary curricula focus on preparing students for post-secondary studies, yet most will not go on to post-secondary studies. To receive a secondary diploma, students are expected to master complex academic material many will not need in the short term, if ever. At the same, few students systematically learn essential life/work skills all will need as young adults. In short, the majority of Canadian youth are not adequately prepared for life after secondary school. The system is not meeting their needs as well as it might. It is testimony to their personal resourcefulness that most students eventually find their way to acceptable, if not optimal, employment and lifestyles.

Adults are often ill prepared for their career transitions. Many encounter involuntary career transitions due to privatization and "right-sizing," especially older workers, must overcome larger obstacles in re-connecting with work and learning opportunities. Many have responsibility for dependents, while dealing with issues of lost income, shock, anger, fear,uncertainty, diminishing self-esteem and dignity, ageism, loss of identity, and emotional and financial risks as they cope with transitions (Newman, 1995).

The traditional goal of career interventions has been "to help people make informed career decisions." It was assumed that at some point, usually between their 9th to 12th year of education, students could assess their interests and abilities, analyze their options, choose a suitable occupational goal, then develop and implement plans to reach their goal. Recent projections in Canada suggest that young people now entering the labour market are likely to experience a succession of different work roles, with as many as twenty-five jobs (with elements of multiple occupations) in up to five different industry sectors during their lives (Alberta Learning, 1999). At times they may have concurrent part-time jobs, while at other times they may have no paid work. Work periods will be interspersed with periods of learning, either full- or part-time while holding one or more jobs. Krumboltz and Worthington (1999) describe a future where

> " . . . there will be more of a need for worker flexibility as worker requirements change more frequently and new teams are formed to work on specific projects. Workers will increasingly be expected to move from project to project doing whatever work needs to be accomplished, and not merely to fulfill a written job description."

The oft-heard question from parents, teachers and counsellors, "What do you want to be?" looses relevance in labour markets characterized by this magnitude and frequency of change. It is unrealistic, even self-defeating, to expect students to commit to one occupation for a lifetime. Any answer they give will be either incomplete, or wrong. "Learning how to adapt to changing conditions in the workplace will be one of the essential skills for success" (Krumboltz & Worthington, 1999). It is difficult for teachers and counsellors, who may work in the same building for much of their careers, to imagine this new work world let alone prepare students for it.

The end of work is not in sight. With all our "labour-saving" technologies, people have never worked harder. The notion of jobs is shifting dramatically. Except in unionized settings, those who say "That is not my job!" may not keep their jobs for long! Career is increasingly being viewed as something every human has, and the word is not being used as often synonymously with profession, occupation or job (Gysbers, 1997). The concept losing ground most rapidly is "occupation," yet it remains the cornerstone of most career information systems and databases, guidance processes and tertiary education and training.

Society expects youth and adults to define themselves in terms of an occupational goal, then choose education and training to prepare and qualify for their goal. Once on the path to their goal they are graded on acquisition of academic and technical skills, not essential life/work skills. Academic and technical qualifications are needed to get an employer's attention, but life/work skills determine subsequent success and advancement (Krumbotz & Worthington, 1999 and Worthington & Juntenen, 1997). Job seekers who market themselves as skilled in a narrow occupational specialty do themselves a disservice. Those who can describe the skills they bring to helping the organization meet it's immediate challenges and achieve long term success, in whatever combination of roles, are more in demand (Worthington & Juntenen, 1997).

People need to identify broad work sector destinations and secure foundation skills that will equip them to take on multiple roles within them. This is more about education than counselling. Mastery of the skills essential to realization of their goals should be learned in mainstream curricula.

According to the school-to-work transition literature, a good school intervention would: include simulated work experiences that excite students with the opportunities presented and motivate them to explore their occupational possibilities with more enthusiasm (Krumboltz & Worthington, 1999); teach them about the consequences of making decisions in life (Varenhorst, 1968,1973); allow them to test the adequacy of various decision making models (Krumboltz, Scherba, Hamel & Mitchell, 1982); allow students to sample various work roles (Krumboltz, 1970); incorporate role-playing, which is deemed the most useful intervention technique (Krumboltz & Worthington, 1999); facilitate the learning of skills, interests, beliefs, values, work habits, and personal qualities that enable participants to create a satisfying life in a constantly changing work environment (Krumboltz & Worthington, 1999); be developmentally appropriate and be distributed throughout the school years (Lent, Hackett, & Brown, 1999); and, allow students to develop employability skills (Worthington & Juntenen, 1997). Mastering the skills needed to find and maintain fulfilling employment also equips people to be better students, marriage partners, parents and citizens.

What are these skills?

The Blueprint for Life/Work Designs

Pioneering work on an essential life/work skills framework was begun by the National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee in the United States in 1988, under the leadership of Juliette Noone-Lester. In 1998, the process of adapting the US National Career Development Guidelines for Canada began, resulting in the Blueprint for Life/Work Designs. Blueprint partners include the National Life/Work Centre, Human Resources Development Canada, Provincial Governments (Departments of Education and Labour) and national professional associations. Thousands of American and Canadian career practitioners and researchers have spent thirteen years developing, piloting, evaluating, revising and implementing this North American career building skills framework,

The Blueprint core competencies are sorted into three areas (A. Personal Management; B. Learning and Work Exploration; and C. Life/Work Building). These competencies are further defined for four levels:

Level One	Early Years (Primary/Elementary)
Level Two	Middle Years (Junior High
Level Three	Senior Years (High School)
Level Four	Adult (including Post-secondary)

There are 10 or more *performance indicators* for each competency, at each level, organized by "learning stages."

Measurable standards are developed by implementing agencies for each indicator. For the full framework of competencies and indicators, refer to: *www.blue - print4life*.

BLUEPRINT COMPETENCIES
AREAA: PERSONAL MANAGEMENT
1. Build and maintain a positive self-image.
2. **Interact positively and effectively with others [SEE COMPETENCY 2]**
3. Change and grow throughout ones'life.
AREA B.: LEARNING AND WORK EXPLORATION
4. Participate in life-long learning supportive of life/work goals.
5. Locate and effectively use life/work information
6. Understand the relationship between work and society/economy
AREAC. LIFE/WORK BUILDING
7. Secure or create and maintain work
8. Make life/work enhancing decisions
9. Maintain balanced life and work roles
10. Understand the changing nature of life and work roles
11. Understand, engage in and manage one's own life/work building process

To illustrate, the indicators for competency 2 at the high school level follow:

COMPETENCY 2: Interact positively and effectively with others
Level Three (High School): **Develop abilities for building positive relationships in one's life and work**
Learning Stage I B Acquisition: acquiring knowledge • Discover the skills, knowledge and attitudes needed to work effectively with and for others. • Explore helping skills such as facilitating problem solving, tutoring and guiding. • Examine appropriate employee-employer interactions and client-contractor interactions in specific situations. • Explore personal management skills such as time management, problem solving, personal financial management, stress management, life-work balance, etc.
Learning Stage II B Application: experiencing acquired knowledge • Demonstrate behaviours and attitudes required for working with and for others. • Demonstrate personal management skills such as time management problem solving, personal finances, stress management, life/work balance, etc. • Express feelings, reactions and ideas in an appropriate manner. • Demonstrate helping skills such as facilitating problem solving, tutoring and guiding.
Learning Stage III B Personalization: integrating acquired and applied knowledge • Determine the helping skills one feels comfortable with and wishes to contribute in relationships with others. • Acknowledge the positive effects of expressing one's feelings, reactions and ideas. • Integrate personal management skills such as time management, problem solving, stress management and life/work balance to one's life and work.
Learning Stage IV B Actualization: striving towards full potential • Engage in further learning experiences that help build positive relationships in one's life and work.

The Blueprint maps essential life/work skills all citizens would be well-served to master in order to proactively manage their life/work building process. It also provides administrators and practitioners with a systematic process for developing, implementing, evaluating and marketing career development programs or redesigning and enhancing existing programs.

A national framework of essential life/work competencies and indicators helps service providers achieve a number of aims:

- Clarity of outcomes: The Blueprint framework enables practitioners (and their funders) clearly to articulate, and measure, the outcomes they are seeking and achieving.
- Service consistency: A common language within and between services and products helps citizens know what they need, and get what they need, as they move from one service or product, agency or organization, or geographic region to another.
- Efficiency: A common language for life/work skills helps clients and practitioners more efficiently review, compare and select programs and products.
- Reduced ambiguity: Assumptions abound regarding the meanings of terms such as *career planning* or *self-awareness.* Spelling out these assumptions for all to review enhances communication significantly.
- Career development culture: Having a common structure by which to discuss career development issues and aims helps all citizens become more conscious of career development and life/work issues.

The Real Game Series

Essential life/work skills, like literacy and numeric skills, should be mastered by students at all stages of their education (Lent, Hackett & Brown, 1999; Fouad, 1997; and Savickas, 1999) and by adults. Increased attention to these skills helps students see the relevance of their school studies, and can positively impact attendance, achievement and completion rates. Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Australia, New Zealand, Hungary and Denmark are working together on The Real Game Series to help learners at all ages master essential life/work skills. The Real Game Series is everything the career transitions literature suggests (above) a good intervention program should be.

The are six programs in Real Game Series:

- The Play Real Game — Ages 6-8 — Grades 3/4
- The Make It Real Game — Ages 8-10 — Grades 5/6
- The Real Game — Ages 11-13 — Grades 7/8
- The Be Real Game — Ages 14-15 — Grades 9/10
- The Get Real Game — Ages 16-18 — Grades 11/12
- Real Times, Real Life — Adults — Post-secondary to Retirement

All programs involve role-playing and are set in participants' futures. Realistic scenarios, based on contemporary labour market realities, are so engaging that participants don't realize they are learning. Participants establish lifestyles, budget time and money, transition through job-loss and acquisition scenarios, plan business trips and vacations, balance family and work, engage in community activities, for example, in safe roles allowing them to experiment risk-free. Students see clear connections between adult life and work roles and the subjects there are learning in school. "Students who believe that high school education has relevance for their future success are strongly and significantly more likely to work hard in school, even after parent, peer, school, and psychological variables are controlled" (Rosembaum & Nelson, 1994). Teachers also learn about a broad cross section of contemporary life and work roles, and have fun with their students!

These programs lend themselves to team-teaching, involvement of student mentors, and participation by community members and parents. Participants are more motivated to seek out, process and absorb traditional career and labour market information resources (print, computer, video, Internet). For more information see: www.realgame.com.

Conclusion

Canada's school-to-work transition efforts have failed too many youth and adults because we have not had a national framework of essential life/work skills to be learned by all. These essential life/work skills complement the academic and technical skills now required for completion of formal education and training. Adopting such a framework, and implementing curricula and resources such as The Real Game Series to help citizens master these skills, help more youth and adults become fulfilled and self-reliant citizens.

As the title of this paper suggests, a new formula for success in career building is:

Acquisition of Good Foundation Academic and Technical Skills
\+ **Mastery of Essential Life/Work Skills**
\+ **Access to Quality Career and Labour Market Information and Guidance**
= **GREATER SUCCESS IN CAREER BUILDING, AND IN LIFE!**

References

Alberta Learning (1999). What Works: Career Building Strategies for Special Needs Groups.

Blustein, D.L., Phillips, S.D., Jobin-Davis, K., Finkelberg, S.L, & Roarke, A.E. (1997). A Theory-Building Investigation of the School-to-Work Transition. *The Counseling Psychologist,* 25(3), 364-402.

Conference Board of Canada, The (2000). Employability Skills 2000+

Fouad, N.F. (1997). School-to-Work Transition: Voice From an Implementer. *The Counseling Psychologist,* 25(3), 403-412.

Gysbers, N.C. (1997). Involving Counseling Psychology in the School-to-Work Movement: An Idea Whose Time Has Come. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 25(3), 413-427.

Krumboltz, J.D. (1970). Job experience kits. *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 49, 233.

Krumboltz, J.D., Scherba, D.S., Hamel, D.A., & Mitchell, L.K. (1982). Effect of training in rational decision making on the quality of simulated career decisions. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 29, 618-625.

Krumboltz, J.D., & Worthington, R.L. (1999). The School-to-Work Transition From a Learning Theory Perspective. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 47, 312-325.

Lent, R.W., Hackett, G., & Brown, S.D. (1999). A Social Cognitive View of School-to-Work Transition. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 47, 297-311.

Newman, B.K. (1995). Career Change for Those Over 40: Critical Issues and Insights. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 44, 64-66.

Rosembaum, J.E., & Nelson, K.E. (1994). *The Influence of Perceived Articulation on Adolescents' School Effort*. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

Savickas, M.L. (1999). The Transition From School to Work: A Developmental Perspective. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 47, 326-336.

Varenhorst, B.B. (1968). Innovative tool for group counseling: The life career game. *The School Counselor*, 5, 357-362.

Varenhorst, B.B. (1973). Game theory, simulation and group counseling. In J. Vriend & W. Dyer (Eds.), *Counseling effectively in groups* (pp 226-233). Eknglwood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology.

Watts, A.G. (1999). *The Economic and Social Benefits of Career Guidance*. Paper presented at the International Association for Educational and Vocational guidance conference, Wellington, NZ.

Worthington, R.L., & Juntunen, C.L. (1997). The Vocational Development of Non-College-Bound Youth: Counseling Psychology and the School-to-Work Transition Movement. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 25(3), 323-363.

Interview
Richard Young, University of British Columbia

Telephone Interview on August 22, 2001 with Richard Young, University of British Columbia for the Canada Journal of Career Development, Volume 1 #1

CJCD:

Richard, thank you for agreeing to do this interview this afternoon.

As this is our inaugural edition we wanted to begin to profile leaders in the field in Canada. So let us begin. Can you tell me a little about your own career development?

Richard:

I think that my career development mirrors, if you will, what I believe about careers. In that sense, career isn't something you can plan absolutely in advance and then just pursue that goal without changing and altering it. Even though I have been a professor for more than 25 years, I really didn't aspire to be a university professor; it grew on me. Initially, I thought I would be a counsellor and work in counselling, etc. It was only through having the opportunity and actually doing this work that the goal of being a university professor emerged for me. Even as a university professor, within that perspective, goals are modified and changed as you engage in your work. When I first started teaching at the university, I didn't think I would be involved in research as much as I am. So that is a goal that emerged for me as I engaged in the work. And I actually think that's very reflective of how people develop their career, their goals. They get engaged in something and the goals emerge from the kind of activities they are engaged in. Then they form those goals into patterns across their life span.

CJCD:

Have there been mentors in your life that you can point to?

Richard:

Certainly as a graduate student, there are professors whom you model yourself after whom you look to, etc. But there has been for me some people outside - other universities and other places that have been particularity helpful to me, encouraging my work, showing interest in my work.

CJCD:

What do you consider some milestones in Canadian career development?

Richard:

I can give you my idea of what I think the milestones are. I am sure other people have different perspectives, and my perspective is limited in the sense that there are other things that are going on in Canada that I'm not going to say to you and I don't want to slight any of those developments. So I'm just going to mention some of the things that I believe to be instrumental.

One of the things that was very instrumental was the founding of the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association which, of course, is now known as the Canadian Counselling Association. That really gave a push to people who were looking to bring career development onto the national scene in Canada as a kind of domain of practice and study. When we think of the founding of CGCA, which happened in the 60s, it was largely focused around career issues. I won't say only around career issues, but that was one of the big focuses of that association. So career counselling generally and then the career development part of it came together in that particular organization. I think it has been instrumental over the years through its journal and conferences, etc. That's one of the big ones.

Another big one was the Social Science Humanity Research Council of Canada with its Research Grant Program and its strategic grant program. They had one special grant program, for example, a number of years ago on women in the world of work; and they had one on family and the socialization of children which dealt with some issues related to career development. That kind of funding, with the regular research funding at SSHRC, allows people in Canada to do some career research. I think that has been a very important milestone in terms of our reputation internationally, as a country, which not only consumes career development materials, but actually creates it at national research level.

I think another would be the fact that the universities and the people who were involved professionally in Canada got behind university programs, to prepare counsellors who were actually doing all this career development work. A lot of these programs actually began in the 60s and some in the 70s in various universities in Canada, some offering master degrees, others offering doctoral degrees. The development of the professional training of counsellors at the graduate level would be a significant milestone for counselling and career development in Canada.

CJCD:

From your perspective, what is some of the current thinking and/or research ongoing in Canada today?

Richard:

I want to mention a few things that I see going on generally. I think what the University of Montreal is doing and has done with respect to career and values has been very profitable work. At Laval University, they have several professors working on various funded projects dealing with career development, which are quite innovative. For example, there are people doing work on the relationship between addictions and work place, counselling issues related to career, etc. I think that is quite useful. The work at Laval University on the use of narrative in career development is pointing to the future about how narrative has to be incorporated into career work. The work that Vance Peavey has done at the

University of Victoria on what he calls the social dynamic theory of counselling, which involves career quite explicitly, is a positive representation of current thinking and research that is going on across Canada.

I look at my own university, University of British Columbia. We have and have had several people here who have been doing some excellent work in career development. For example, Larry Cochran has developed a narrative approach to career counselling which is really quite forward looking and innovative. Norm Amundson has done and is doing work on the notion of thinking action as part of a career journey. Again, it is very forward looking and Norm has received a lot of international press over it. Bill Borgan has done some work on transition and careers, and that is representative of some of the very current issues in career, development. Some of the work I have been doing on the action theory of career as a concept, that incorporates more than occupation is, I believe, very interesting.

We have been working specifically, or I have been working specifically, with the notion of a career development project and how families actually work together on career development issues. That is quite a shift from the notion that these influences were more incidental and unplanned. We are looking at a much more common project that parents and adolescents work on together that links back to the notion of looking at family as an active group instead of a passive group. From the newspaper and the media we get the impression that when families come to have adolescent children the family cannot do anything to influence these children anymore. This is really a model that looks at the way people actively engage and influence together. It doesn't mean that we're back to the model where parents have all the influence and telling children what to do, but actually looking at it as a common project between parents and their children. We can actually see how parents and adolescents can work together.

CJCD:

Anything else you would like to add to your perspective on current thinking or research piece?

Richard:

I think I have covered a lot the areas that are going on in Canada right now. I'm sure there are others that I'm not thinking about at this moment, but those are the ones that stand out for me.

CJCD:

If you can look into a crystal ball and see what the future will hold for career development in Canada, what kind of future do you think you would see in that crystal ball?

Richard:

We are in the process of very dramatic change in our society: technological change, globalization of the economy and political changes. All will have a great impact on what career is and what career means. One of the things with the future landscape is some kind of redefinition or re-evaluation on what we call career. In the past, and even perhaps today to a large extent, people generally think career means occupation. Even as it means occupation, it may mean for some people a good occupation, an elite occupation, or a professional occupation. Some people may not even think that they have a "career". In the future we are going to be changing that.

Whether the word career actually survives is very difficult for me to know, but there is something important in what career represents that will survive and that is the real challenge for people in counselling and people in education. What needs to survive is what we as people, use to organize meaning in our lives across time. I think that is the critical feature if you will. In the industrial society we came out of, career or occupation was what gave meaning to your life across time - I was a teacher or I was a nurse. That is going to be less so in the future, but we still have the need to make meaning across time in our lives activities.

The future will construct career in a different way than being tied very closely to occupation. Career research, career ideas and career thinking, in the future are not going to be the domain of people in the counselling area solely. We have to work at a much more interdisciplinary level. Recognizing at the same time that the counselling of people will have a unique contribution to make. And I think the unique contribution to make is that we are dealing with people who are actually engaged in making decisions about that. That's sort of very front line, if you will.

I see career as a Eurocentric construction that came out of the industrial revolution that was European and came to North America that way. When I am looking into a future landscape, I'm seeing a much more culturally diverse Canada, and a world in which there is greater communication so people are aware of career in many, many countries. The challenge is how we, as counsellors, use this construct of career to respond to issues of cultural diversity. Is this construct, as useful as it was for us, relevant for people who come from quite different cultures? I think that is one of the real challenges.

Another aspect that I see in terms of the future, is that there is going to be a shift from people thinking of engaging in long term careers, as we have known them in the past, and more so engaging in shorter term projects. Being employed in this kind of area for a couple of years and moving into something quiet different and moving on to a third thing, etc. And seeing those projects in different domains of life. One, may be work, but other projects are related to family and leisure time as a citizen, etc. There will be a shift away from one big defining occupation as a way to organize meaning in life, to several things that together make meaning. But of course the challenge for counselling is how do we help people join those various kind of things together.

CJCD:

It's interesting when we look at the new maternity programs that enable people to take a year off compared to 6 months. I think that's going to be very interesting as an indicator of many changes to come.

Richard:

Exactly! We can think of the maternity project and the work project being in relationship to each other, not necessary sequential, but overlapping to some extent. So both are the kinds of things that are creating the way the world is going to look and how we are going to look at this world. The job of counsellors is not just helping people determine one occupational choice, but really how will

this work for me and what meaning can I make out of it. At the same time there's going to be a greater emphasis on relationship and how relationships work in the work place. That is a main point we have missed in the past. We have looked at it as an individual phenomena, and I think we have to see it in terms of a relationship phenomena; as a matter of fact, I would go as far to suggest we are coming to a period of time where a relationship creates the career that we are involved in. I mean, create, in the sense of how do we make meaning across time of the relationships that we have with employers, with teachers, with family, etc. It has always been there, but I think it is going to be more explicit in the future.

CJCD:

Great! Challenges? You have mentioned one with respect to culture and diversity.

Richard:

Diversity is an issue of relationship. I think the challenge is getting people involved in agency oriented active projects, goal oriented projects, and making those explicit. In recent research, for example, on dealing with adolescence - how adolescents become more mature. They were finding that when adolescents engaged in out of school projects with adults, for example: putting on play or coaching a baseball team or something of that nature, when they engage in those kinds of activities, their level of talk changes from a more of passive type of talk to that of an active person.

It is not an occupational decision that we are interested in ultimately, its what kind of things you are doing right now from which goals for your life will emerge. I can imagine a situation where my goal as a counsellor is not to help the person make an occupational decision, but really look at what are you doing right now that is meaningful for you; how are you an agent in that? When it comes to young people we want to encourage that. It will be a shift in thinking for counsellors. That is one of the challenges: to reconceptualize career development. There is still a lot of traditional career things going on in terms of testing and trying to identify the right occupation.

Another challenge for us is to recognize the importance of career as a construct in the field of counselling and education. There is a real tendency to let go of this idea. I know, for example, that at some universities in their counsellor training programs, at the masters level, you don't actually have to take a course in career development or career counselling. The challenge is to make career courses relevant and how to make them relevant, of course, is to understand that the word career is not tied to occupation. The word career is a way of trying to organize something at a broader level in ones life and that's critical in counselling. One of the challenges is to keep career, the construct, and not let it revert to the kind of notion that career equals occupation.

CJCD:

Any other challenges for the future?

Richard:

I'm sure there will be many. Generally speaking, I think one of the areas we need to be more explicit about is policy. The Career Development Foundation is doing some work on policy and I think there has to be more work done. It seems to be one of the areas that is lacking when it comes to career. There is a continued need for the development of social policy in the career area.

CJCD:

Richard, thank you for your time in answering these questions.

INSTRUCTIONS TO CONTRIBUTORS

1. Manuscripts should be typed double-spaced on 8 ½ x 11 quality paper. The length of the paper should be 25 to 30 pages.

2. The first page should contain the article title, author's name, affiliation, mailing address and e-mail address to which correspondence should be sent, and acknowledgments (if any). To ensure anonymity in the reviewing process, the author's name should not appear anywhere else on the manuscript.

3. The second and third pages should contain an English/French version of an abstract not exceeding 200 words.

4. Language and format (headings, tables, figures, citations, references) must conform to the style of the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA).*

5. All figures and tables must appear on separate sheets and be camera-ready.

6. Manuscripts should be submitted to the Editor, indicating the word procession program used, accompanied by four printed copies from that disk. One of the four copies will not be returned to the author under any circumstances.

7. A final version of the accepted paper must be submitted indicating word processing program used, accompanied by two printed copies from that disk.

8. The evaluation of manuscripts include criteria such as: significance and currency of the topic; contribution to new knowledge in the field, appropriateness of the methodology or approach; and the clarity of presentation. The review process normally does not exceed three or four months.

9. Submission of a manuscript to the *Canadian Journal of Career Development* implies that this manuscript is not being considered for publication elsewhere.

REMARQUES AUX AUTEURS

1. Les manuscrits devront être dactylo-graphiés à double interligne sur du papier de format 8 ½ x 11 de bonne qualité.

2. La première page devra contenir le titre de l'article, le nom de l'auteur, l'affiliation, l'adresse postale, le courrier électronique et les remerciements (s'il y a lieu). Pour assurer l'anonymat du processus d'évaluation, le nom de l'auteur ne devra apparaître à aucun autre endroit sur le manuscrit.

3. Les deuxième et troisième pages devront contenir une version française et une version anglaise du résumé dont la longueur ne dépassera pas 200 mots.

4. Le style et le format (titres, tableaux, graphiques, citations, références) devront être conformes au style décrit par le *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA).*

5. Les graphiques et tableaux devront être présentés sur des feuilles séparées et prêts pour le processus de photographie.

6. Les manuscrits devront être soumis en indiquant le programme de traitement de texte utilisé. Quatre exemplaires imprimés des manuscrits devront accompagner la copie sur la disquette. Une des copies sera conservée de façon permanente et ne pourra être renvoyée à l'auteur pour quelque raison que ce soit.

7. La version finale des textes qui auront été acceptés pour publication devra être soumise tout en indiquant le programme de traitement de texte utilisé. Deux copies imprimées devront accompagner la disquette.

8. L'évaluation des articles se fera selon des critères tels que: l'importance et l'actualité du sujet, la contribution à l'avancement des connaissances dans le domaine, une approche méthodologique adéquate et la clarté de présentations. En général, le processus d'évaluation n'excédera pas quatre mois.

9. La soumission d'un manuscrit à la *Revue canadienne de développement de carrière* signifie que cet article n'est pas présentement soumis ailleurs pour fin de publication.

the Canadian Journal of Career Development

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

Volume 1, Number 1 2002

CONTENTS

Number 1

Editorial

Articles

The Relational Career Values of Post-secondary Women Students
Sharon Crozier and Cynthia Dorval

Thriving in the New Millennium: Career Management in the Changing World of Work
Roberta A. Neault

A Career Development Course for Academic Credit: An Outcome Analysis
Jeanette Hung

Effective Career Counselling: Relationship Between Work Personality, Learning Style and Client Intervention Preferences
Randy B. Penney and Mildred Cahill

Research Brief

Psychodynamics of Student Work in a Context of Job Scarcity and Economic Insecurity
Marie-France Maranda and Chantal Leclerc

Psychodynamique du travail étudiant dans un contexte de resserrement des conditions d'acces à l'emploi et d'insécurité économique
Marie-France Maranda and Chantal Leclerc

Commentary

Formula for Success in Career Building
Phillip S. Jarvis

Interview
Richard Young

The Counselling Foundation of Canada

Contact Point

Memorial University of Newfoundland

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