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20 YEARS ANS 2002-2022

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20 YEARS ANS 2002-2022

FROM THE EDITOR'S DESK

ARTICLES

RESEARCH-IN-MOTION

GRADUATE STUDENT RESEARCH

Volume 21, Issue 1 2022

FROM THE EDITOR'S DESK

Dr. Robert Shea, Founding Editor

I am extremely proud to announce that this is a special anniversary year for the Canadian Journal of Career Development/ Revue canadienne de développement de carrière. It is our 20th anniversary!

In 2002, Volume 1, Number 1 was launched in Ottawa, Canada at the National Consultation on Career Development conference. As they say - the rest is history.

It truly has been a 'field of dreams' experience. From the initial ideation that Canada was the purveyor of significant research, best practices, and leadership in this sector yet we did not have our own Journal of Career Development, to today with in excess of 10,000 loyal readers. In 2002 we had no membership. We did, however, have a lot of goodwill and the vision of career practitioners, researchers, and students who were hungry for such an open-access publication.

In the first editorial I wrote, I have "feelings of awe, honour, and responsibility that 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." I still have those feeling twenty years later.

There will be a forthcoming announcement on how we will celebrate this milestone for the career development community in Canada. Stay tuned!

In this issue, we have a number of sections building on what we started twenty years ago. The sections in this issue include peer-reviewed articles, a section on research in motion, and a focus on graduate student research. In the peer-reviewed articles, Emily Gregory and Heather Kanuka discuss faculty members' perspectives on employability skill development in non-professional schools. A very timely article given the increasing focus on the role of faculty in career development. Another article from Isabelle Langlois and Patrizia Villotti discusses the themes of oppression and barriers to career development services for marginalized populations. Continuing with the Journal's focus on a multi-sector approach to career development, Stephane Moulin discussed the psychosocial risks and well-being in the Canadian workplace. As we navigate a worldwide pandemic this topic and resilience are extremely important. Eddy Supeno, Sabruna Dorcesus, Yann Le Corff, Geneviève Rivard, and Dylvain Bourdon provide a thoughtful reflection on career information practices of guidance practitioners. Finally, in this section, Erica Thomson, Bennett King-Nyberg, Janet Morris- Reade, Cassie Taylor and Roberta Borgen provide an engaging article on the needs of virtual career practitioners. In a period when we have been working remotely, this article is both timely and thoughtful and pauses us all to reflect.

In our research in motion section, we have two engaging thought pieces. One article discusses a pathway model of students' career indecision and the role of emotionally associated predictors. The second article is a reflective piece on the role of sports life balance and well-being on athletic performance. A very timely article as we head in the 2022 winter Olympics.

It gives me great pleasure to reflect on a graduate student research section. When we began the Journal 20 years ago, mentoring, encouraging and supporting graduate students was a primary focus. I am so pleased that this commitment to the next generation of researchers and career

practitioners continues in this issue. Our graduate thought piece focuses on the disconnect between academic institutions and employers.

In conclusion, I want to end with the same words I ended with in the first volume twenty years ago:

> *"A special thank you to the Counselling Foundation of Canada, Contact Point (now CERIC), 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."*

In addition, I would like to thank the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council for their support and funding for the past three years. It is truly motivating to receive their support, and it shows the value of career development research!

Thank you to all of you for your life work to support career development around the world!

Robert Shea

Founding Editor in Chief

Etta St. John Wileman Award

This award is designed to recognize and celebrate individuals who have devoted their lives to enhancing the field of career development. It is given in the name of Etta St. John Wileman, a champion and crusader of career, work and workplace development in Canada in the early 20th century.

Consider nominating a leader who is a lifelong mentor, educator, advisor, advocate and role model.

CERIC is committed to encouraging nominations from equity-seeking groups.

For full information on nominations and selection, as well as profiles of past winners, visit **ceric.ca/wileman_award**.

Congratulations to our latest Wileman Award recipient:

Lynne Bezanson, Executive Director Emeritus of the Canadian Career Development Foundation (CCDF).

Lynne was recognized for a remarkable career, devoting herself to strengthening the reach and impact of career development in Canada and internationally.

NEXT NOMINATION DEADLINE: JUNE 30, 2022

HONOURING CANADA'S LEADERS IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT

HOMMAGE AUX CHEFS DE FILE CANADIENS EN DÉVELOPPEMENT DE CARRIÈRE

Prix Etta-St.-John-Wileman

Ce prix vise à souligner et à célébrer l'apport des personnes qui ont consacré toute leur vie à améliorer le domaine du développement de carrière. Ce prix honore la mémoire d'Etta St. John Wileman, pionnière et fervente militante du développement de carrière et de l'amélioration des conditions de travail au Canada au début du XXe siècle.

Envisagez de proposer la candidature d'un chef de file étant un modèle à suivre, un formateur, un conseiller, un porte-parole et ayant été un mentor tout au long de sa vie.

Le CERIC s'engage à encourager les nominations de la part de groupes soucieux d'équité.

Pour plus d'information sur les nominations et la sélection, ainsi qu'une liste des récipiendaires du prix, visitez **ceric.ca/prix_wileman**.

Félicitations à notre dernière lauréate du prix Wileman :

Lynne Bezanson, Directrice générale émérite de la Fondation canadienne pour le développement de carrière (FCDC).

Lynne a été reconnue pour sa remarquable carrière, se consacrant à renforcer la portée et l'incidence du développement de carrière au Canada et à l'international.

PROCHAINE DATE LIMITE DE NOMINATION : LE 30 JUIN 2022

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ceric.ca

Doing research in career development? Here is a great resource to help!

Use these 60 literature searches to stay up to date on the latest research in key areas of career development.

Also a valuable reference if you are considering a submission to CERIC for project partnership funding.

ceric.ca/literature-searches

- Artificial Intelligence and Career Development
- Assessment Tools for Career Development
- Canadian Career Development Research
- Career Counselling Competencies
- Career Development and Entrepreneurialism
- Career Development and Social Justice
- Career Development Challenges Facing Immigrants
- Career Development During COVID-19 and Beyond
- Career Development Theory and Career Management Models
- Changing Workplace
- Climate Change and Career Development
- Coaching and Career Development
- Corporate Social Responsibility
- Design Thinking for Career Development
- Digital Economy and Career Development
- Diversity and Work
- Early Intervention Career Development for Children and Adolescents
- Economic Benefits of Career Guidance
- Ethical Issues in Career Development
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- Lifelong Learning and Career Development
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- Parental Involvement in Career Development
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- Service Learning
- Social Enterprise and Career Development
- Transformative Workplaces and Leadership
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- Trends in Career Development
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Employability Skill Development: Faculty Members' Perspectives in Non-Professional Programs

Emily Gregory & Heather Kanuka
University of Alberta

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore faculty perspectives about employability and employability skill development through curricular activities in non-professional programs. Using pre and post semi-structured interviews, this study embedded employability skills in three academic courses to gain insight into faculty members' perspectives on employability skill development. Results reveal that the faculty members involved in the study addressed employability to differing degrees in their courses, yet each recognized the importance for students. The outcomes of this study support the need for the development of employability initiatives in higher education and highlights that faculty members can benefit from support in identifying and assessing the employability skills practiced in academic courses.

Universities are increasingly being pressured to provide measures to support attributes such as graduate employment, and access to a well-paying job (Campbell, Cooper, Rueckert, & Smith, 2019). Unfortunately, the ability for institutions of higher education to provide metrics is not entirely straightforward because dimensions of employability have differential foci, relevance and understandings within and between disciplines (Römgens, Scoupe, & Beausaer, 2020). For example, in medicine there is a required residency that ensures their graduates are employment-ready upon graduation versus the humanities where the focus is on the inner world of self through philosophy, language and literature, focusing on the development of critical, creative and complex thinking skills; the construct of being 'employment-ready' typically falls outside the scope of their programs. The differential foci on employment-ready graduates has, in turn, led to the question of how (or whether) to provide metrics in the non-professional programs. As Faculty members are gatekeepers to the process of integrating employability into the curricula, understanding their perspectives on employability is needed in order to understand how to measure employability skills in the non-professional programs.

The aim of this study was to explore Faculty members' perspectives about employability and employability skill development in their non-professional undergraduate courses. An assumption underpinning this study is that it is possible to work with Faculty members in the non-professional faculties to integrate employability skill development into their courses. We begin with providing an overview of the literature, the research design, a discussion of the findings, conclusion and thoughts on further research in this area.

Background to the Study and Overview of the Literature

Institutions of higher education play an important role in the knowledge-based economy through the development of human capital; through their education students develop knowledge, skills, and attributes that they will apply when they enter the workforce (Molla & Cuthbert, 2015; Knight & Yorke, 2002; Yorke, 2004). This perspective presents higher education as an investment for both students and governments, one that will ideally benefit the whole of society through a strong economy. In simpler terms, a university education is expected to lead to positive employment outcomes for students (Yorke, 2006), and is one of many intended and unintended outcomes of a higher education. As Gedye and Beaumont (2015) explain, "massification [of higher education] has led to increased competition for graduate employment and a reduction in the currency of a degree" (p. 406). Securing paid employment post-graduation is dependent on a variety of factors including the labour market, economy, and one's

employability (Gbadamosi, Evans, Richardson, & Ridolfo, 2015). As one might expect, many governments have also questioned the relevancy and quality of publicly funded higher education programs, especially as these programs are funded in part by the public (Molla & Cuthbert, 2015).

Employability Versus Employment: It's More Than Just 'Getting a Job'

Employability is an individual's ability to obtain and maintain employment, and is achieved through employability skill development. It is influenced by a variety of factors, such as interests, preferences, abilities, level of education, and socio-economic variables (Molla & Cuthbert, 2015; Pegg, Waldock, Hendy-Isaac, & Lawton, 2012; Yorke, 2006). Differing perspectives on employability and employability skill development can also incorporate aspects of identity, such as being satisfied and successful, or contributing to the community and economy. This leads to understanding the construct of employability as more than simply getting a job; nor should it be conflated with employment (Artess, Hooley, & Mellors-Bourne, 2017; Yorke, 2006). Hence, graduates' employment rates are not an indicator of their employability; rather they are an indicator of the economic climate and socioeconomic factors influencing these graduates. Employability can also be understood as an individual attribute, which may vary between individuals and is dependent on multiple factors (Molla & Cuthbert, 2015; Pegg, et al., 2012; Yorke, 2006). In this study, employability is the construct/phenomenon under investigation; employability skills are the concepts that explain employability. Hence the acquisition of employability skills determines one's employability.

Employability Within the Context of Higher Education

Although it is debated as to whether or not the employability agenda is welcome in higher education, governments, employers, and students expect that higher education institutions will be involved in preparing graduates for future work (Brown, 2015; Molla & Cuthbert, 2015; Star & Hammer, 2008; Tymon, 2013). Governments who fund higher education expect accountability and a return on investment (where a return on investment results in employed graduates who contribute to the economy) (Molla & Cuthbert, 2015; Tymon, 2013). For example, in Ontario there are currently 10 new measurement metrics for publicly funded universities, seven of which are employment and/or career related (see: https://www.ontario.ca/page/all-college-and-university-strategic-mandate-agreements).

Employers manage their workforce with support from higher education through work experience programs and the recruitment of graduates. Additionally, there appears to be growing rhetoric from employers that many graduates do not possess the appropriate skills required for the workforce (Jackson, 2012; Molla & Cuthbert, 2015; Moore & Morton, 2017; Tymon, 2013). This skill mismatch, whether it is accurate or simply a perception, pushes higher education institutions to address employability. There are many reasons why students continue their education past secondary studies, yet in Canada the primary motivations are career related (Canadian University Survey Consortium, 2016). Data from the Canadian University Survey Consortium also reveals that students expect a university education will help them obtain a rewarding career. Future employment is a crucial priority for many university students, though they also recognize a degree may not guarantee an entry-level job (Tymon, 2013). Tymon suggests that graduates are aware they need to develop additional skills, beyond technical skills and academic knowledge, for career success. This situation is likely to be exasperated by the pandemic – as is illustrated by a report by Statistics Canada (October, 2020; see: https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/daily-quotidien/200508/dq200508a-eng.htm). This report illustrates the devastating effect of the Covid 19 pandemic, with unemployment reaching staggering numbers; though it needs to be noted that the impact varies by sector.

Co-curricular and extracurricular activities are proposed as a key method to increase students' employability, most notably through work experience programs (Artess, Holley, Mel-

lors-Bourne, 2017; Mason, Williams & Cranmer, 2009; Pegg, et al., 2012). Work experience programs provide students with opportunities to enhance their skills in a real-world setting, learn about work settings, and network with potential employers (Mason, et al., 2009; Pedagogy for Employability, 2006). However, not all academic programs offer work experience opportunities to their students and/or some work experience opportunities are of such poor quality the benefits and opportunities are not realized for participating students. Additionally, if programs exist students may not be able to access them for a variety of socioeconomic factors. The prominence of unpaid internships also raises questions about the exploitation of students (Osborne & Grant-Smith, 2017). The problem with pushing employability outside of the classroom is that it assumes all students will have equal access and opportunity to participate. Consequently, the integration of employability initiatives has also been proposed in higher education curricula.

There are ways to embed employability in curricula that will not undermine subject learning (Brown, 2015; Pedagogy for Employability, 2006; Yorke, 2004). Knight and Yorke (2002), for example, argue that employability can be integrated into any academic subjects without compromising academic content or freedom. Employability and subject learning do not need to be oppositional (Pedagogy for Employability, 2006). Embedding employability into the curricula can be as simple as helping students recognize what skills they are learning and how these skills are important outside of academia (Brown, 2015; Pegg, et al., 2012; Knight & Yorke, 2002). Students are likely already developing many skills in their academic courses that will help them in future employment. Skills, such as communication, problem solving and working with others are enhanced through in-class presentations, discussions, assignments, and lab work. Rather than adjusting curricula, faculty members can help students to recognize the skills they are developing and help increase their self-efficacy regarding these skills (Artess, Hooley, & Mellors-Bourne, 2017; Brown, 2015). Although there is a significant amount of research about embedding employability in course curricula, as well as resources to support faculty, there is a gap in how willing and able faculty members are to take this on, in addition to a lack of support services to assist in integrating employability into their curriculum. Top-down approaches also risk ignoring diversity between disciplines and subverting faculty members' academic autonomy (Knight & Yorke, 2002). These issues raise concerns about how to engage faculty members in incorporating employability into their courses.

This study aimed to address this gap in the literature by gaining a better understanding of how to engage faculty members in incorporating employability into their courses. The overarching research question guiding this study was: What are faculty members' perspectives on employability skill development within their non-professional undergraduate courses? The outcomes of this study can be used by academic communities and institutional career services about how to work with faculty to design and implement programs targeted at developing employability skills in non-professional undergraduate programs.

Research Design

The design of this study was based on the Career Integrated Learning project at Memorial University. This project's researchers, Rob Shea and Rhonda Joy, worked with faculty members at Memorial University to identify competencies practiced in courses (informal communication). With some modifications, the Career Integrated Learning project served as a conceptual framework for this study, focusing on employability skills. It was paramount that faculty members had the autonomy to determine what employability skills were relevant to their course and that they did not have to make changes to their course curricula.

As the purpose of our study was to explore the perceptions of Faculty members in non-professional programs, the data collection was designed to elicit in-depth responses from participants on their views of employability and employability skill development in their courses through semi-structured interviews. While unstructured interviews also elicit in-depth re-

sponses, we chose semi-structure interviews to ensure the interviews were guided by the literature, and as such, ensuring we are collecting data that builds on what is already known. The semi-structured questions were conducted using generic qualitative research as described by Merriam (1998): Generic qualitative research is used to "discover and understand a phenomenon, a process, or the perspectives and worldviews of the people involved" (p. 11). Caelli, Ray and Mill (2003) described generic qualitative studies as

> … those that exhibit some or all of the characteristics of qualitative endeavor but rather than focusing the study through the lens of a known methodology they seek to do one of two things: either they combine several methodologies or approaches, or claim no particular methodological viewpoint at all. (p. 2)

The interview questions were designed to draw on the literature with respect to the complexities on employability metrics in the non-professional faculties, faculty resistance to the integration of employability into their courses and in what ways (if at all) are faculty addressing employability skill development in their courses.

Participants

Faculty members were selected as participants for this study because, in many ways, they are the gatekeepers to students. If they are indifferent about employability and/or are unaware of employability development through classes, they may be unlikely to discuss this with students. As such, faculty members' perspectives were considered essential to gaining further insights on how to gain a better understanding on employability skill development within non-professional undergraduate courses.

Purposive sampling was used to select faculty members from three different faculties at the research site. Faculty members were recruited based on two key criteria: must teach a 200- or 300-level undergraduate course (3rd or 4th year course) and must teach in a non-professional faculty. Twenty faculty members were initially contacted and invited to participate in the study, which resulted in the recruitment of two faculty members, both in the natural sciences. To ensure maximal variation sampling a final participant was recruited from the social sciences.

Data collection

Non-professional faculties at the university, where the academic program does not lead to a professional accreditation, were selected as the specific research sites. Semi-structured interview data were collected through two interview sets with faculty members (one at the onset of their courses and one at the end of their courses). The research site was at a large, research-intensive university in Western Canada. To commence data collection, course syllabi were obtained from each of the participating faculty members. Using the Conference Board of Canada's (n.d.) inventory of employability skills, an analysis of each syllabus was undertaken to identify the employability skills that could be addressed in the course. This inventory includes 56 skills organized into three categories: fundamental skills, personal management skills, and teamwork skills. A unique inventory for each course was created.

Next, the faculty members participated in the semi-structured interviews. The interviews asked faculty members: (1) their perspectives on employability skill development in higher education, (2) if employability matters in higher education, (3) the extent to which students develop employability skills through their academic course work, and (4) in what ways they currently address employability in their coursework. The interviews were conducted in person. The project was reviewed and approved by the human research ethics board at the research site.

The faculty members also provided feedback on the employability skills inventory for their course. Faculty members made the final decisions as to which skills were included in their inventory. At the end

of the term, the post interview was conducted with each of the participating faculty members. The post interviews were also semi-structured and similar questions were asked as in the first interview, but included three additional questions based on the analysis of each faculty member's syllabus, which identified the employability skills that could be addressed in their course. The additional questions asked: (1) what did you do to help students recognize their employability skill development, (2) to describe where they think the balance is between what they do for employability and (3) what students need to do, and how they will continue to address employability in their courses. All interviews were audio recorded and transcribed.

Results

Data analysis began with an initial thematic overview of each participant's interviews, followed by a member check. Analysis of interviews used a general qualitative approach (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Quirkos™, a qualitative data analysis software, was used to organize the data in categories and subcategories. Following are participant details and thematic categories with examples from the participants' interview transcripts.

Participant Details

Codes were assigned to each of the faculty members. Faculty members A and C teach in the natural sciences; both are full professors and have previously also held senior administrative roles at the institution. Faculty member A teaches in a field that has industry connections and students can attain employment in this industry at the bachelor's level. Faculty C teaches in an applied field and also has connections to industry. Both A and C have had long teaching careers. Faculty member B teaches in the social sciences and is an Associate Professor. This participant also served as an Associate Undergraduate Chair at the time of data collection.

Employability Perspectives at the Beginning of the Course

In the first interview, five thematic categories emerged: definitions of employability, importance of employability, skills awareness, curriculum and teaching, and career exploration for students. Following is a description of each.

Definitions of Employability

This project asked the participating faculty members to consider a concept that is not often at the forefront of their work: employability. As employability is not the focus of their work, participants were asked to describe their understanding of employability and employability skills. Each of the participants touched on how employability is about getting a job and gaining skills that will help in this pursuit. Participant B responded:

> If I'm forced to, if I'm compelled to, I would think of employability as the capacity to bring skills to a particular job, but I guess that's what employability is. Having a list of skills that you use to convince an employer to take you on.

This participant also described employability as a "catchphrase" focusing on skills that are valuable in work, but also emphasized that these skills are "not the whole point of work" (Participant B).

Participant C expanded on employability to include not only the students' skills, but also their interests: "employability is the ability for a student to be employed in their number one job area … that's different than getting a job at McDonalds. It's getting a job that uses their skill set and captures their interests." These definitions of employability focus on securing work, on becoming employed following graduation. Employability skills, therefore, were perceived by participants A and B as securing work. Participant C's perspective revolved around the notion that students are looking for work in their areas of interest, and that this work will ideally be commensurate with their level of education.

Importance of Employability

All participants addressed the degree to which employability is important to them, and to

students. For participant A, the extent to which employability matters "depends on the program that you're teaching in." Though it was also acknowledged that by participant A that: "From [the students'] perspective it's much more important that they develop these skills to be employable. Particularly given the job market right now, at least at the bachelors level." The importance of employability may vary between academic disciplines and there may be a greater focus on it in more applied areas, as participant C notes: "Most students come into [our faculty] with the expectations of getting an education to work and to be employed in the area of agriculture." Participant B teaches in the social sciences, a less applied field. This participant recognizes that employability is not "part of what we do in the classroom." However, Participant B also recognizes the importance of employability: "I think it matters to entering students, I think it matters to their parents. I think it matters to students in their last term." Participant B also stated that employability is "part of the sales pitch" of higher education.

The value of employability, therefore, varies and we cannot assume all faculty members will recognize, care, or even view employability as their responsibility – though the participants' in this study indicated that they know employability is important for their students. Acknowledging that the sample is small, the data also indicate the possibility of uneven importance between disciplines.

Skills Awareness

During the first interview, the skills inventory was reviewed with the faculty members to adjust and gain further clarity about their courses. Consequently, considerable time was given to discussing skills and the ways in which their students develop, or do not develop, skills in their courses. For participant B: "I think actually the most important skills that they gain from university are probably creativity, hard work, work ethics, and a capacity to roll with the punches of work in the work world." For this participant, recognizing that students develop marketable skills but expressed concern that they are not aware of their skill development. "I don't think they are often aware of the skills that they've learned. Part of this is sort of denigration of the arts and humanities - they sort of capitulate to that idea that it's not skill building." However, participant A, who teaches in the natural sciences, reinforces that his own awareness of students' skill development was minimal: "Given my reaction to your document, it's pretty clear that my awareness was pretty low. Projecting I would like to think they were at least as naive as I am, or they might be more conscious of it." Participant C suggested that skill awareness may also change depending on where students are at in their degree: "Some of these kids in first year aren't even thinking about employability yet … But some of the senior students are actually applying for jobs now, and once that happens, they're totally engaged." Similarly, Participant B acknowledged: "students often don't, until the very end, think carefully about what they're doing. I think they chug through the classes - what class do I need to take next – and they go from class to class".

The skills students are learning in higher education may seem intangible or non-transferable to other contexts, such as work. Participant B explains: "I think that they sometimes throw their hands up in the air and say 'well I learned to read Chaucer but nothing else.' But learning to read Chaucer is a big deal." Participant B described skill translation as meaning understanding what skills are learned when reading Chaucer - as the issue for many students: "I would say that they're probably developing skills that they don't know - there's a problem with translation, how to describe these skills that they've developed in school in a way that makes sense to an employment situation."

Assisting students with skill translation may help to increase their awareness. Participant B explained that "they [students] often do not have the language for it" and could help them with this translation. This participant reflected that "if it's a matter of spending 20 minutes every two weeks on translation" this would be valuable to students and feasible. Participant B feels that students do not recognize that the skills they are learning can be important for future work, such as communication or "taking large bundles of information and turn-

ing them into something useable." The issue, according to participant B, stems from translation; the students do not know how their academic skills transfer to other contexts, such as work.

Participant C tied students' awareness of employability skills to their engagement in his course: "Some students will be quite content with just getting enough to get by, which those ones likely won't gain much employability skills." For participant C: "If you have somebody who just comes to class, just does the exam and the project material, they wouldn't get as much out of it for employability, because they wouldn't have gotten their hands as dirty as the students doing the extra work."

For the faculty who participated in this study, awareness of employability skills was an issue. They noted that in the earlier years of their degrees, students may not yet consider employability and where they want to go next. Or students, and faculty, may lack the language and tools to identify and translate skills to non-academic contexts. Or skill awareness may be connected to students' engagement in their courses. Faculty appear to be aware that increasing their awareness of employability skills, may also help students become more aware of these skills. Specifically, when faculty members are provided with support on how to identify possible employability skills in their courses (e.g., read Chaucer, or complete a lab assignment) they can, in turn, assist their students in translating these skills to non-academic situations, such as employment settings.

Curriculum and Teaching

When asked if and how employability is addressed in their courses, the faculty members answered candidly: "The honest answer to that would be I don't" (participant A). To participant B, employability is not a focus of teaching, but recognizing the role it will play in students' lives:

> I teach in the humanities, and my background is in the humanities, I'm not thinking about jobs. I'm thinking about people, whole people. Who are also workers, right? I don't avoid the fact that students are going to be workers one day. But I'm not in the classroom saying you'll need this so that you can be a good social worker, or a good receptionist.

Conversely, participant C addresses employability throughout his teaching: "Well I talk to them a lot about it … about taking advantage of opportunities." Consequently, employability plays a diverse role in faculty members' teaching: from unintentional to explicit.

For the participants in this study, academic content is king, leaving employability on the sidelines. Participant A explained: "… in the courses we focus exclusively on the academic content." Academic content aims to help broaden students' perspectives and develop a foundation they will need in higher level courses. "We teach students how to pay attention to the world around them, and interpret it, and figure out how to maneuver through it (Participant B)." However, Participant B adds "I don't talk about what we do in the classroom through the lens of employability."

The faculty members considered ways they address employability in their classes, even if this is unintentional. Participant B discussed department pressure to address skill development:

> The chair has asked that, in an ongoing way, we make general references to the skills they're building. So once in a while we'll read a really hard text and I'll say, 'do you see what you did there? And you could do this, you could use this skill of reading Simone De Beauvoir to read a government document. This can be just as obscure and difficult. So, I do that from time to time.

In addition to content being king, there are multiple reasons for not addressing employability in the participants' teaching. Participant A suggested limited time for faculty members. "Where I think we're failing them, and maybe that's too strong of a word, is giving them more opportunities to do the sort of writing they might do once they get out. And that's a logistical issue." This participant suggested providing students with writing assignments they would build on over the semester while receiving ongoing feedback. How-

ever limited time seems to prevent doing this type of assignment. Devoting time to employability would also take away from students' academic work. Participant B explained: "One of the arguments would be that if we devote half of a class to career skills and CV building, students have lost half a class to do something that they'll never do otherwise, which is scholarly work."

In addition to limited time, faculty members also have limited experience in teaching about employability, as participant B explains: "Most of us have had a few crap jobs when we were students and then moved into this environment, which is very specific and it's not like other jobs." Students have a great deal of contact with faculty members, but we cannot assume all faculty are able or willing to teach about employability. Participant B recognized there is value in having faculty do this, but questioned if faculty are well suited to address these areas. "I suspect it would probably work better if faculty were somehow involved, but we're not career counsellors and we do not know much about the world of work."

Career Exploration for Students

Although the participants addressed employability to varying degrees, they all recognized the value in helping students learn about potential career options and in incorporating these options into their teaching. Participant A mused: "to some extent, we need to be cognizant of what our students are doing after they get out." Alternatively, participant B connects current students with alumni from the program: "I'm putting our undergraduates, mostly senior undergraduates [with alumni]… So they're talking to one another and learning about the world of work." These opportunities help students learn about what careers they can pursue post-graduation and how they can apply what they have learned through their degree to the world of work.

Employability Perspectives at the End of the Course

The faculty members each participated in a second interview at the end of the term. The purpose of the post interview was to ask the participant if, and how, their perspectives on employability changed based on the employability skills information and identification provided at the onset of their course.

Definitions of Employability

The faculty members' definitions about employability skills remained consistent between the interviews. However, their perspectives in the second interview expanded to capture experience and technical skills. Whereas their initial definitions focused on demonstrating a specific skill set to secure employment, the definitions at the end of the term expanded on what this skill set needs to include. Participant A explains: "We're looking at things like communication, basic numeracy and literacy sorts of skills, ability to frame problems, a bunch that they label as personal management skills. Looking over those you could actually say that you could group those together as being a responsible adult or sentient being." This expanded definition is possibly the result of a new vocabulary. Specifically, the employability skills inventory prompted the faculty members to reframe their teaching materials to consider students' skill development.

In the post interview, the participants' perspectives on employability also expanded to consider students' futures beyond just getting a job. Participant A touched on the "ability to function competently in a workplace". This expanded the definition from 'getting a job', to also maintaining and succeeding in a job. For participant C, employability moved to involving a "career type position", where students want to be in the long-term. In this sense, employability involves not only securing work, but flourishing in this work.

Career Exploration

Faculty members in the post interview also commented on how they can help students learn about their career options or gain hands-on experience in their field. Participant C described how his course, and notably the experiential learning opportunities (labs, farm visits), helped students learn more about their career interests:

> Other students, their vision is to get to vet school and that

> takes a bit longer. And we have some students who the lights got turned on in this class. There are three or four of them who said 'I thought I wanted to be a vet, and now I want to work in agriculture'.

Through this course, students were exposed to career options outside what they were previously considering. These students could begin to learn about what work would be like in a different area of this industry and what skills they would need to work in this area. Participant A suggested internships as a way to support students and a "good way to improve their employability".

Students in participant B's discipline have a wide variety of career options; their degree does not point to a specific career or lead down a linear career path. For these students, they must consider a variety of options. Often, they seek out support for exploring their options from their faculty members, such as participant B: "I am faced with helping students think about their future as workers and they sit in this office and I need to have the skills to talk to them about the skills they have that can get them employment."

Changes

The project did not prompt significant changes for the faculty members perspectives about employability, or their teaching, rather it nudged them towards considering the non-technical skills students develop in their courses. When asked how his perspective on employability changed over the term, participant A explained:

> It has a little bit, and I think it's mostly because of talking with you and also looking over the handout that you had given the class. It kind of fleshed out more what I had been putting in the soft skills bucket. It made it a little more specific and a little more, a few more dimensions than I had really been thinking about.

For participant C, the project demonstrated the value of developing non-technical skills, in particular, common sense and communications. The project also encouraged these faculty members to be more explicit with their students about what they are learning and practicing in their courses. Participant A suggested adding "maybe another bullet point in the intended outcomes of a lab."

Participant B felt that employability did not change over the semester. This participant had anticipated that the skills inventory would encourage considering, even in minimal ways. Though this participant recognized an increased awareness of employability:

> I think that as a result of you talking to me a couple of times, coming to class, giving me something to put up on [Moodle] about your project, I've begun to think a little more about employability. But just in loose ways.

Despite initial interests, Participant B was unable to devote much thought to employability over the course of the term. As discussed in the first interviews, the faculty felt they had limited time to address all the necessary academic content in their courses. Consequently, discussions about employability, as participant B mused, became "one of the things that fell off the table". It is important to note that the faculty members were not expected to discuss, or even refer to, the skills inventory with their students. Participant B suggested it would be ideal to spend a brief amount of time discussing skill awareness and translation with students:

> In a perfect world, I think that I would spend a bit of time at the end of each class, like in May or December, to talk a little bit about how what we've done in the classroom could translate into something we might call employability. I would like to do that, but I mean maybe what I do is find somebody, like yourself, to come and give a 15-minute thing at the end of every fourth-year class. Just to give students skills, or give them the translation capacity.

Addressing employability does not require significant changes to curriculum or teaching practices. As the participants in this study described, it can include adding skills or intended outcomes to assignments or labs or discussing with students how a skill might help them in future work.

Participant B anticipated more faculty members would be interested in employability, particularly if it does not require them to change their teaching by much.

> I think also probably a lot of faculty would be interested in thinking about employability, just broadly, and the chart that you gave me at the beginning of the semester I had never seen anything like that. It was really, really helpful.

Skill Awareness

The participants agreed that students do develop employability skills in their courses. However, they also agreed that students' awareness of this development is limited, as participant B notes: "I think that they've been told all along that they need to go to university so that they can get skills, or that they can be in a position to be employed. But I think you're right, I don't think they know. I don't tell them". Students' limited awareness may result from not thinking about what they're learning as skill development and not recognizing that their academic work may have value to an employer. Participant A described students' misguided awareness as aspirational that they are getting more out of their studies than just academic knowledge:

> They would like to think they are developing skills, that's why they're here and suffering through 4 years, or five years, or six years of this. They hope they'll get something out of it. That really speaks to why they can't identify the skills they're learning. Part of it is they're not thinking of the subject or the content material that they are learning, or that they're learning to do, as really part of that target skill set. And I don't think they are, again because we haven't really been framing things in that fashion.

Awareness may also result from taking the time to think about skill development, to reflect on what is going on, as participant C explains: "Sometimes I think students, if they are totally passive, they won't stop to think if they will use it, or not. They will just write it down, memorize it, and go through the assignments and exam. That's it." Participant B described the students who will be better off as the ones who "pay attention at a meta level to what's going on." If faculty members are more aware of employability skills, as participant A notes, they are better able to "remind students what they're getting out the course, besides the academic content". Participant A noted further: "We've never really thought about it being necessary to communicate that."

Responsibility

Faculty members, and by extension institutions of higher education, are responsible for the academic development of students. However, where the responsibility for employability development falls is less clear. On this front, participant A asserts: "I would like to think we could all agree that at the end of the day, the academic side of the employability question is our responsibility. Where people will diverge is to what extent our academic program will help students mature in terms of the other side, the soft skills side." The participants in this study expressed diverging opinions about this issue, possibly due to differences in their academic disciplines. Participant A and B both highlighted that students cannot, and should not, rely on them to develop their employability. Participant A literally chuckled:

> Well I think the fact that they are telling you that their university isn't taking any, or much, responsibility is a very realistic perspective that they should have. They look at their professors and think, 'my god, if I have to depend on them to get a job, I'm hooped.'

For participant B, developing and enhancing students' employability simply falls outside of the scope of the role in higher education:

> I don't think it's my responsibility. I think it would be a good thing for me to do to help them translate it. I'm here as an intellectual and an administrator of intellectual programs. I can't do that. Maybe if there are an extra three days a week.

From these perspectives, students need to own their responsibility and not expect their faculty members will enhance their employability. However, participant C's perspective differed, noted that "a bit more empathy for students being employed than do some other people." This participant equated this empathy with the applied nature of his academic studies and his current teaching. Participant C's discipline is targeted towards a very specific industry, and his course incorporates opportunities for the students to engage with this industry. The other courses did not involve industry engagement.

Summary, Discussion and Conclusions

This study aimed to explore faculty member perspectives about employability skill development in non-professional undergraduate programs. Employability is an individual's ability to obtain and maintain employment, and employability skills are the skills that enhance employability. Employability's role in higher education is contested, yet it is, nevertheless, expected that universities will help prepare students for future work (Brown, 2015; Molla & Cuthbert, 2015; Star & Hammer, 2008, Tymon, 2013).

To some degree there is an expectation that a university degree will least help students develop employability skills. Prior literature on this topic also reveals that "career development learning has a demonstrable positive impact on the graduate employability of higher education learners" (p. 56, Bridgstock, Grant-Imaru, & McAlpine; 2019). However, the finding of this study reveals that the responsibility for employability skill development was not wholly considered to be the responsibility of faculty members. On this point, Pegg et al. (2012) argues that a uniform approach will not work as employability is too complex. Students, faculty members, career services, and employers must all be involved in employability development. The model for this project, which was based on Memorial University's Career Integrated Learning, is a valuable opportunity to support faculty members to address employability in their course work. By working with faculty members to identify the employability skills developed in their curriculum, support services (such as career facilities) can help them learn more about employability, and also help students enhance their awareness of their employability skills. Relatedly, prior research by Goodwin, Goh, Verkoeyen and Lithgow (2019; see also Monteiro, Ferreira, & Almeida; 2020).) conclude that "universities should integrate institution-wide, course-level employability skills articulation assignments for students in all years of study and programs" (p. 445). Goodwin et al assert further that policy and funding should be provided to support students in recognizing and articulating their employability skills, in addition to support for Faculty members in the development efforts. For example, research by Leach (2015), showed a positive impact on students with respect to "their feelings of self-confidence, self-worth and enhanced ability to articulate their employment credentials with employers" (p. 53). These studies are in alignment with our findings, in that responsibility does not lie with one group, rather employability development must be a collaborative effort in higher education.

The outcomes of this study also show that a uniform approach will not address employability development for all students, which is consistent with prior research (e.g., Pegg, et al., 2012). Also consistent with prior research (e.g., Artess et al., 2017; Paek, Leong, Johnson, & Carleton Moore, 2021), structural, program and curricular changes, along with extra-curricular opportunities, can help students develop their employability. The findings of this study reveal that it is also possible to encourage some Faculty to incorporate employability into their courses with adequate support. While institutional policy could mandate the integration of employability into the curriculum, it would likely be met with resistance alongside substantive support resources. Alternatively, initiatives to enhance employability in higher education could focus on the faculty members who are willing to discuss and consider ways to incorporate employability into their teaching. These faculty members must be provided with both information and support as they cannot be expected to know how their course work relates to employability. Institutional career

services are likely best suited to provide this support.

Limitations and Future Research

This study had a number of limitations, leading to the need for further research. The most obvious limitation is that this project included only three faculty members who teach in non-professional faculties. Recruiting faculty members for this project was challenging given the contentious topic and time commitment required (pre and post interviews as well as the use of class time for a presentation and survey administered to the students). The low participation rate also suggests there could be little interest in involving employability into course work in the non-professional degrees. The first author of this study had a prior relationship with each of the faculty members who participated in the project, two through a professional role in career services, and the third through a previous academic project. The prior relationship most likely influenced the faculty members to participate in the project. Furthermore, they may have had a prior interest in supporting the career interests of their students. Their results, as such, may not be representative of faculty members in higher education.

In future research a large scale, pan Canadian, anonymous survey with open and closed questions might provide an opportunity for generalization across Canadian universities and/or institutions of higher education. Collecting this information is important given the strong opinions on employability in the non-professional faculties. Another area for future research might be to explore the resistance to integrating employability skill development in the non-professional faculties as well as perceptions on employment metrics.

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CANADIAN JOURNAL OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT | REVUE CANADIENNE DE DÉVELOPPEMENT DE CARRIÈRE

Oppressions et barrières systémiques en relation d'aide pour les populations marginalisées : Une revue de la portée

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Résumé

Adoptant une perspective intersectionnelle, cette revue de la portée s'est intéressée à ce que la littérature des derniers cinq ans a identifié en termes de barrières systémiques découlant des différents systèmes d'oppression qui font obstacle à l'inclusivité des services de relation d'aide pour les populations marginalisées. L'analyse des résultats des 13 articles retenus a révélé la présence d'obstacles et discriminations dans les services sociaux et de relation d'aide pour des adultes avec un trouble du spectre de l'autisme sans déficience intellectuelle (barrières découlant du capacitisme); pour des individus en situation d'itinérance et les personnes de classe ouvrière (barrières découlant du capitalisme et du classisme); pour des personnes noires (barrières découlant du racisme); pour des personnes dont l'orientation sexuelle diverge des normes hétéronormatives dont des personnes âgées (barrières découlant de l'hétérosexisme, de l'hétéronormativité, de l'homophobie et de l'âgisme) et pour des personnes dont l'identité ou l'expression de genre divergent des normes cisnormatives (barrières découlant du cissexisme, de la transphobie et de l'enbyphobie). Ce portrait des barrières systémiques émergeant des écrits scientifiques récents soulève un important besoin d'agir pour accompagner les personnes professionnelles en développement de carrière à mieux tenir compte des systèmes d'oppressions afin d'intervenir de façon plus inclusive et intersectionnelle.

Mots clés : Populations marginalisées, barrières systémiques, systèmes d'oppression, inclusivité, services de relation d'aide, intersectionnalité.

Les principales théories et approches fondatrices en psychologie, en travail social et en développement de carrière ont été développées en Amérique du Nord ou en Europe par des personnes représentant la majorité et la culture dominante. Il est aujourd'hui largement reconnu que ces théories et modèles présentent d'importants écueils lorsqu'utilisés avec des populations diverses, notamment marginalisées (p. ex., Sue *et al.*, 1992; Arthur et Collins, 2014; Pope, 2019; Ramsundarsingh, et Shier, 2017; Vallerand, 2016).

La réalité des personnes marginalisées est en effet négativement affectée par les injustices sociales et les systèmes d'oppression comme le racisme (p. ex., Sue *et al.*, 1992; Shin *et al.*, 2016; Rachédi, et Taïbi, 2019; Gouveia et Zanello, 2019), le colonialisme (p. ex., Angelino *et al.*, 2020; Rachédi, et Taïbi, 2019; Nelson, et Wilson, 2018), le sexisme (p. ex., Foster, et May, 2003), le patriarcat (p. ex., hooks, 2000; Foster et May, 2003), l'hétérosexisme et l'homophobie (p. ex., Feugé *et al.*, 2017; Shin *et al.*, 2020), le cissexisme et la transphobie (p. ex., McGeorge *et al.*, 2021; McCullough, *et al.*, 2017), le capitalisme (p. ex, hooks, 2000), le classisme (p. ex., Kugelmass, 2016), le capacitisme (p.ex., Guerrero-Arias *et al.*, 2020), et l'âgisme (p. ex., Bickerstaff Charron, 2011). L'impact des discriminations vécues par les personnes marginalisées en termes d'accès à l'emploi et au logement, de même que d'état de santé physique et mental a été abondamment étudié dans les dernières décennies (p. ex., Arthur, *et al.*, 2009; Arthur et Collins, 2014; Rachédi, et Taïbi, 2019; Pope, 2019).

Différents modèles et stratégies d'interventions ont conséquemment été développés pour mieux adapter l'intervention en développement de carrière et répondre aux besoins de différentes populations marginalisées (p. ex., Multicultural Counseling Competencies, Sue *et al.*, 1992; Career Counseling Model, Fouad et Bingham, 1995; Critical Disability Theory, Devlin et Pothier, 2006; Culture-infused counseling, Arthur et Collins, 2010; Multicultural and Social Justice Counseling Compe-

tencies, Ratts, Singh, Nassar-McMillan, Butler, et McCullough, 2015; Modèle interculturel systémique, Rachédi et Legault, 2019; Sociological Career Theory, Bimrose, 2019; Career Development Practices from the Capabilities Perspective of Social Justice, Picard *et al.*, 2019; The Career Counseling Whith Underserved Populations Model, Pope, 2019).

Par ailleurs, ces modèles ne tiennent pas toujours compte de l'effet combiné du positionnement identitaire (privilège ou oppression) d'une même personne sur différents axes comme la race, l'origine ethnique, l'identité de genre, la classe sociale, le revenu, l'âge, la religion, l'orientation sexuelle, les capacités physiques et psychologiques. La prise en compte de la globalité de l'expérience des personnes marginalisées représente donc un défi que le cadre théorique de l'intersectionnalité, développé par des féministes afro-américaines dans les années 1980-1990 (dont bell hooks, Kimberley Crenshaw et Patricia Collins), permet d'appréhender. En effet, « l'approche intersectionnelle va au-delà d'une simple reconnaissance de la multiplicité des systèmes d'oppression opérant à partir de ces catégories et postule leur interaction dans la production et la reproduction des inégalités sociales » (Crenshaw, 1989 ; Collins, 2000 ; Brah et Phoenix, 2004 cités dans Bilge, 2009 p.70).

> Au niveau microsocial, par sa considération des catégories sociales imbriquées et des sources multiples de pouvoir et de privilège, [l'analyse intersectionnelle] permet de cerner les effets des structures d'inégalités sur les vies individuelles et les manières dont ces croisements produisent des configurations uniques. Au niveau macrosocial, elle interroge les manières dont les systèmes de pouvoir sont impliqués dans la production, l'organisation et le maintien des inégalités (Henderson et Tickamyer, 2009 ; Weber, 2001 cités dans dans Bilge, 2009, p.73).

De plus en plus de recherches s'intéressent donc à l'impact simultané de plusieurs formes d'oppressions (définies comme le mauvais traitement ou la discrimination d'un groupe social, l'action du fort d'opprimer le faible, avec ou sans le soutien des structures d'une société) en adoptant une approche intersectionnelle (Young, 2020; Guerrero-Arias *et al.*, 2020; Jackson *et al.*, 2020; Gaborean *et al.*, 2018). Par ailleurs, la littérature récente s'est moins fréquemment et moins systématiquement intéressée à comment les services sociaux et de relation d'aide peuvent reproduire ou exacerber les différentes oppressions (Shin *et al.*, 2016). Or les services de relation d'aide n'évoluent pas de façon distincte du reste de la société et ne sont donc pas à l'abri des biais, stéréotypes ou croyances essentialistes (définies par Medin (1989) comme l'attribution d'une propriété inhérente et non évidente (l'essence) et des propriétés typiques à une «catégorie» de personnes, par exemple les femmes) à propos des groupes minoritaires (Ramsundarsingh, et Shier, 2017; Shin *et al.*, 2016) et ce, malgré leur intention louable de venir en aide à tout le monde. Les personnes professionnelles du développement de carrière, comme des autres domaines de la relation d'aide, doivent donc être informées des impacts du maintien de cadres d'interventions qui reproduisent les dynamiques de pouvoirs présentes dans nos sociétés et qui marginalisent et maintiennent le « statu quo dominant » (Paré, 2014, cité dans Arthur et Collins, 2014; Shin *et al.*, 2016; Gouveia et Zanello, 2019).

Comment les systèmes d'oppression affectent-ils les services de relation d'aide du point de vue des personnes marginalisées? Adoptant une perspective intersectionnelle, cette étude s'est justement intéressée aux barrières systémiques réduisant l'inclusivité des services sociaux et de relation d'aide identifiées par la littérature des derniers cinq ans. On entend ici par barrières systémiques qu'elles relèvent de l'organisation des différents systèmes sociaux, des services publics et privés, des politiques, lois et cadres qui sont en vigueur dans une société donnée. Au-delà des barrières identifiées, cet article permet aussi de soumettre des pistes de solutions à explorer pour accompagner les personnes professionnelles en développement de carrière à mieux tenir compte des systèmes d'oppressions afin d'intervenir de façon plus inclusive et intersectionnelle.

Méthodologie

Un examen (ou revue) de la portée d'articles publiés dans des revues scientifiques révisées par les pairs a été réalisé pour synthétiser les données de recherche existantes à propos des barrières découlant des différents systèmes d'oppression affectant l'inclusivité des services de relation d'aide pour les populations marginalisées. L'objectif des examens de la portée est de cartographier les concepts clés d'un domaine de recherche (Arksey et O'Malley, 2005), surtout lorsqu'il est encore peu étudié. La méthode de l'examen de portée permet en effet de visualiser l'éventail du matériel ou des résultats existants, de les résumer et de les diffuser plus largement. Les recommandations de Arksey et O'Malley (2005) et de PRISMA (Tricco *et al.*, 2018) ont été suivies dans la réalisation de cet examen de la portée :

Étape 1 : Identifier la question de recherche
Étape 2 : Identifier les études pertinentes
Étape 3 : Sélectionner les études qui répondent aux critères d'inclusion
Étape 4 : Cartographier les données (extraction des résultats)
Étape 5 : Rassembler, résumer et rapporter les résultats (conclusions et implications) (Arksey et O'Malley, 2005).

Stratégie de recherche

Les articles pertinents ont été identifiés en effectuant des recherches dans les bases de données suivantes le 5 février 2021: EBSCO (SocINDEX, Educational source, LGBT Life), APA PsycNET, Scopus, Érudit, et Cochrane. La requête de recherche a été développée en collaboration avec un bibliothécaire universitaire. Afin d'identifier les défis les plus récents auxquels sont confrontées les populations marginalisées en matière d'inclusivité des services, nous avons limité notre recherche aux publications des cinq dernières années. Les termes de recherche ont été soumis à des procédures standardisées, dont la troncature du terme de recherche permettant la recherche de pluriels et autres suffixes. Toutes les bases de données ont été questionnées à l'aide des critères d'inclusion suivants: *barrier* / obstacle* /oppressi** et *inclusi* / discrim/ stigma** et *«relation* d'aide*» / «conseil* de développement* de carrière*»/ orient** et *population** / *minorit*/ «personne* marginal*»* (voir en annexe pour la requête complète en français et en anglais). La sélection a ensuite été complétée manuellement par des recherches connexes d'articles ou chapitres de livres de personnes auteures ou chaires de recherches connues par les auteures, par l'examen des listes de référence des études incluses et par le suivi des citations.

Sélection des articles

Les deux auteures ont examiné de manière indépendante les titres et les résumés des publications trouvées et ont sélectionné les articles pertinents en vue d'une éventuelle inclusion. Les critères d'inclusion suivants ont été utilisés: 1) les articles retenus devaient traiter directement de barrières découlant d'un ou de plusieurs systèmes d'oppression affectant l'inclusivité de services sociaux ou de relation d'aide (dès que la personne entre en relation avec la personne professionnelle de relation d'aide), 2) la ou le(s) populations cible (s) devaient être de 18 ans et plus et être considérée(s) comme marginalisée(s) parce qu'oppimée(s) seulement par un système d'oppression, 3) les articles devaient être en anglais ou en français, 4) Les études devaient être originales (type de devis qualitatif, quantitatif et mixte). Les textes complets des articles restants (n = 30) ont ensuite été examinés de manière indépendante par les deux mêmes auteurs. Les désaccords sur l'inclusion ou l'exclusion d'articles en texte intégral (<15%) ont été discutés par les auteures jusqu'à ce qu'un consensus soit atteint. Les principales raisons pour exclure les articles après l'examen du texte intégral étaient l'objet de l'article (p. ex., articles de fond), l'accent sur des services de santé et non sociaux ou de relation d'aide et la nature des barrières identifiées (barrières strictement à l'accessibilité des services et non à leur inclusivité).

Positionnement des auteures

Cette recherche s'inscrivant dans une perspective intersectionnelle, il importe aux auteures d'identifier leur positionnement par rapport aux systèmes d'oppression répertoriés. Ces derniers influencent en effet leurs expériences du monde et leurs biais inconscients malgré leur désir d'inclusivité. La première auteure est une femme blanche cisgenre qui s'identifie comme pansexuelle et Queer. Elle est neurotypique, n'est pas en situation de handicap et est de classe moyenne. La seconde auteure est une femme blanche, immigrante, cisgenre et hétérosexuelle. Elle est neurotypique, n'est pas en situation de handicap et est de classe moyenne.

Résultats

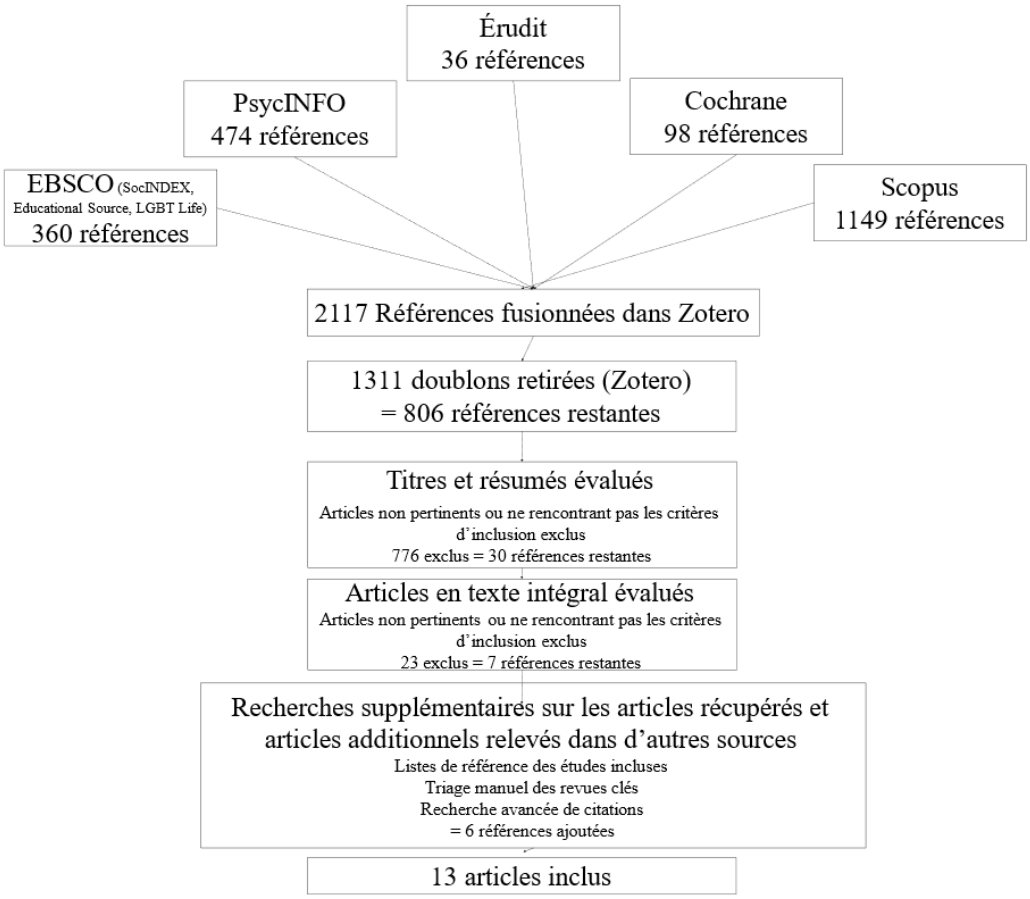
La recherche dans les bases de données a permis d'identifier 2117 articles. Après l'élimination des doublons, il restait 806 références. 776 articles ont été exclus sur la base du titre et du résumé. Les textes complets des 30 articles restants ont été récupérés et examinés intégralement et 23 articles ont été exclus. Grâce à des recherches manuelles (par exemple, le suivi des citations), 6 articles supplémentaires ont été inclus. Au total, 13 articles publiés entre 2016 et 2021 ont été inclus dans cette revue de la portée (voir figure 1 pour la procédure complète d'identification et de sélection des articles). Les principales caractéristiques des études incluses (c.-à-d. auteurs, année de publication, pays, méthodologie, population cible, échantillon, type de services de relation d'aide et barrières systémiques affectant l'inclusivité des services) sont présentées dans le tableau 1. Mentionnons que bien que les articles retenus traitent tous de services sociaux ou de relation d'aide, dont des services de counseling, aucun article ne focusse exclusivement sur des services d'orientation et de développement de carrière. De plus, les articles provenaient principalement d'Amérique du Nord (n = 84, 62 %).

Barrières systémiques affectant l'inclusivité des services de relation d'aide

Les articles retenus ont recensé des barrières systémiques affectant l'inclusivité des services sociaux et de relation d'aide pour des adultes avec un trouble du spectre de l'autisme (TSA) sans déficience intellectuelle (n=1, Vogan *et al.*, 2017); des individus

Figure 1

Organigramme de la sélection des articles



en situation d'itinérance (n=1, Ramsey *et al.,*2019); des personnes de classe ouvrière (n=1, Kugelmass, 2016), des personnes noires, majoritairement femmes (n=3, Kugelmass, 2016; Shin *et al.*, 2016; Gouveia et Zanello, 2019); des personnes dont l'orientation sexuelle diverge des normes hétéronormatives (n=3, Blais *et al.*, 2018; Feugé *et al.*, 2017; Shin *et al.*, 2020); des personnes âgées s'identifiant comme minorités sexuelles (n=3, Smith *et al.,* 2019; Rosati *et al.,* 2020; Blais *et al.*, 2018) et des personnes dont l'identité ou l'expression de genre divergent des normes cisnormatives (n=5, Feugé *et al.*, 2017; Blais *et al.*, 2018; McCullough, *et al.*, 2017; Mizock et Lundquist, 2016; Kattari et Hasche, 2016).

Barrières découlant du capacitisme

La Commission ontarienne des droits de la personne définit le capacitisme comme des attitudes sociétales qui dévalorisent et limitent le potentiel des personnes en situation de handicap; de la discrimination à l'égard des personnes ayant des troubles mentaux ou des dépendances; ainsi qu'à leur stigmatisation. Il peut s'exercer de façon consciente ou inconsciente et être inscrit dans les institutions, les systèmes ou la culture d'une société. Il peut restreindre les possibilités offertes aux personnes en situation de handicap (Commission ontarienne des droits de la personne, s.d.).

Vogan *et al.* (2017) rapportent que les adultes avec un TSA sans déficience intellectuelle sont 47.4% à avoir des expériences négatives de relation d'aide avec une personne professionnelle et 31.6% à n'avoir aucune confiance envers l'aide professionnelle. Alors que beaucoup de ces adultes ont des difficultés à décrire leurs problèmes et besoins (47.4%), 23.7% d'entre elleux[1] ont peur de l'étiquetage et de la stigmatisation (Vogan *et al.*, 2017). On peut ainsi voir l'impact négatif du capacitisme quant à l'inclusivité des services sociaux pour ces personnes en situation de handicap intellectuel.

Barrières découlant du capitalisme et du classisme

Le capitalisme est un système économique et même une forme d'organisation sociale marqué par l'accumulation de ressources, la maximisation des profits par l'exploitation, une stratification et une hiérarchisation sociale (Marx et Engels, 1907; Barnes, 2016; Fédération des maisons d'hébergement pour femmes, 2018).

> Ainsi, il contribue à générer des classes sociales qui sont plus privilégiées, au détriment d'autres groupes sociaux, et à en faciliter l'exploitation. Ce système encourage le libre marché et l'expansion de l'entreprise privée, aux dépens d'infrastructures sociétales favorisant l'égalité des chances. (Fédération des maisons d'hébergement pour femmes, 2018, p.20).

Pour bell hooks (2000), le capitalisme est un système d'oppression en soi. À ce titre, il impacte négativement l'inclusivité des services de relation d'aide pour les populations qu'il marginalise au bas de sa hiérarchie sociale et qui se retrouvent avec des opportunités et des ressources moindres.

L'étude d'audit performée par Kugelmass (2016) identifie que les personnes de classe ouvrière vivent de la discrimination par les personnes professionnelles qui leur offrent un rendez-vous 70% moins souvent comparativement aux personnes de classe moyenne. Pour leur part, Ramsey *et al.* (2019) rapportent des barrières réduisant l'inclusivité des services pour des personnes en situation d'itinérance quand ces derniers ne sont pas inaccessibles en raison de leur coût : mauvaises relations thérapeutiques (manque d'écoute par les personnes professionnelles, communication inefficace, évitement des enjeux, personnes professionnelles qui sont impolies ou méchantes); manque ou d'une perte de confiance envers les personnes professionnelles et manque d'empathie et de compréhension par les personnes professionnelles par rapport à l'itinérance.

1 Dans une vision d'inclusion et de démonstration de la diversité des genres en dehors du mode binaire habituel, des néologismes seront utilisés dans le cadre de cet article. Dans ce cas-ci, « elleux » fait référence à une combinaison des pronoms elles et eux.

Tableau 1

Description des articles retenus

Auteurs (Année de l'article)	Pays	Méthodologie	Population cible	Échantillon	Type de services de relation d'aide	Barrières systémiques affectant l'inclusivité des services
Vogan, V., Lake, J. K., Tint, A., Weiss, J. A., Lunsky, Y. (2017)	Canada (Ontario)	Recherche quantitative : sondages complétés aux 2 mois pendant 12 à 18 mois	Adultes avec un trouble du spectre de l'autisme (TSA) sans déficience intellectuelle (DI) vivant en Ontario	40 adultes de 18 à 61 ans avec un diagnostic de TSA sans DI dont 87.5% de Blancs / Caucasiens et 45% d'hommes.	Services sociaux et de santé etc. (médecine familiale, dentisterie, psychologie, psychiatrie, thérapie professionnelle, gestion de cas, thérapie behaviorale, counseling individuel, thérapie de groupe, thérapie familiale, équipes interdisciplinaires, orthophonie, neurologie et physiothérapie).	• **Expériences négatives de relation d'aide avec un.e professionnel.le (rapportées par 47.4% des répondant.e.s)** • **Difficultés à décrire ses problèmes et besoins (rapportées par 47.4% des répondant.e.s)** • **Crainte d'être un fardeau trop lourd (rapportées par 36.8 % des répondant.e.s)** • **Aucune confiance envers l'aide professionnelle (rapportées par 31.6% des répondant.e.s)** • **Peur de l'étiquetage et de la stigmatisation (rapportées par 23.7% des répondant.e.s)**
Ramsay, N., Hossain, H., Moore, M., Milo, M., et Brown, A. (2019)	Canada (Ontario)	Recherche descriptive qualitative : entrevues en personnes semi-structurées	Individus de la région de Niagara identifiant qu'ils vivent de l'itinérance	16 participant.e.s âgé.e.s de 18 à 54 ans dont 13 hommes et 3 femmes.	Services sociaux et de santé	• **Manque d'accessibilité financière (pour services non couverts par l'assurance-maladie provinciale comme les conseiller.e.s privés)** • Difficultés à trouver un.e médecin de famille qui accepte de les suivre (porte d'entrée pour les services sociaux et de santé) • **L'inadéquation du modèle de soins psychiatriques** • Gestion inappropriée (manque continuité dans les soins et manque de suivis en santé mentale) • **Manque / perte de confiance envers les professionnel.le.s ou le système de santé et services sociaux** • **Mauvaises relations thérapeutiques** • Enjeux systémiques (manque de ressources qui augmente le temps d'attente, surtout pour les services en santé mentale) • Difficultés de transport et inaccessibilité géographique • **Manque de compréhension et d'empathie par rapport à l'itinérance**
Kugelmass, H. (2016)	États-Unis	Recherche quantitative expérimentale : étude terrain téléphonique. Les résultats extraits sont statistiquement significatifs.	Psychothérapeutes de la ville de New York	320 psychothérapeutes agréé.e.s de la ville de New York dont 56% de femmes.	Psychothérapie	**Discrimination raciale :** • **L'obtention d'un rendez-vous a été de 39% moins probable pour les personnes noires que les personnes blanches.** **Discrimination de classe :** • **L'obtention d'un rendez-vous a été de 70% moins probable pour les personnes de classe ouvrière comparativement aux personnes de classe moyenne.** • **La discrimination de classe a impacté davantage l'obtention d'un rendez-vous que la discrimination raciale puisque les personnes noires de classe moyenne ont eu un avantage considérable par rapport à toutes les personnes de classe ouvrière, qu'elles soient blanches ou noires.**
Shin, R.Q., Smith, L. C., Welch, J. C. et Ezeofor, I. (2016)	États-Unis	Recherche quantitative expérimentale : étude d'audit terrain inter-sujets. Les résultats extraits sont statistiquement significatifs.	Psychologues et conseiller.ère.s, professionnel.le.s agréé.e.s d'un Etat de la côte est.	371 psychologues et conseiller.ère.s, professionnel.le.s agréé.e.s d'un Etat de la côte est.	Services de counseling (conseiller.ère.s et psychologues)	**Discrimination raciale :** • **Une personne avec un prénom à consonance blanche et non-latino (Allison) a eu 12 % plus de chance qu'une personne avec un prénom à consonance noire (Lakisha) de recevoir une invitation à une conversation à propos des services de counseling.**
Gouveia, M. et Zanello, V. (2019)	Brésil	Recherche qualitative : entrevues mixtes (non dirigées et semi-structurées)	Personnes noires suivant ou ayant suivi un traitement psychothérapeutique avec une personne professionnelle blanche	7 femmes noires de 22 à 30 ans, dont 3 hétérosexuelles et 4 bisexuelles.	Psychothérapie	**Préoccupations dans le cadre du processus thérapeutique :** • **« Mur de verre » ou stagnation du processus de psychothérapie en raison de :** o **L'inconscience du psychothérapeute face aux enjeux raciaux (approche des enjeux raciaux non existante, ignorance ou méconnaissance de l'impact de la race sur la santé mentale, désorientation, manque de perspective raciale, impact du racisme sur la santé mentale non exploré);** o **La réaction d'ignorer, minimiser ou universaliser le sujet lorsqu'il est abordé par la participante;** o **L'évitement de l'enjeu racial par la participante qui ne l'aborde pas par crainte que le/la psychothérapeute ne sache pas comment le traiter.** • **Transfert inter/intraracial (espoir d'un partenariat racial avec un.e psychothérapeute noir et/ou peur d'être mal compris par le/la psychothérapeute blanc.he ou crainte que leurs perceptions et expériences ne soient pas légitimées.) L'impact du genre a aussi été mentionné.**

Auteurs (Année de l'article)	Pays	Méthodologie	Population cible	Échantillon	Type de services de relation d'aide	Barrières systémiques affectant l'inclusivité des services
						Besoin de formation des psychothérapeutes pour travailler avec des personnes noires (notamment à propos de l'impact de l'enjeu fondamental de la « race » sur la santé mentale des gens): • **Violence causée par l'universalisation des théories euroaméricaines adoptées par les psychothérapeutes qui considèrent les blancs comme le modèle humain;** • **Effet limitatif du manque de formation spécifique sur les enjeux raciaux pour l'efficacité de la psychothérapie (la responsabilité d'éduquer ne devrait pas revenir à la personne cliente);** • **Manque d'empathie.**
Smith, R. W., Altman, J. K., Meeks, S. et Hinrichs, K. LM. (2019)	États-Unis	Recherche quantitative : sondages en ligne	Fournisseur.e.s de soins de santé mentale dans des établissements de soins de longue durée	57 fournisseur.e.s de soins de santé mentale dans des établissements de soins de longue durée dont psychologues (63%), travailleur.euse.s sociaux (16%), psychiatres (14%) et infirmièr.e.s (6%). 11% de ces personnes s'identifiaient comme LGBT.	Soins de santé mentale dans des établissements de soins de longue durée	**Barrières à travailler avec des résident.e.s LGBT :** • **Manque de formation à propos des enjeux LGBT (pour 85% des répondant.e.s);** • **Manque de connaissance (pour 76% des répondant.e.s) ou de disponibilité (pour 79% des répondant.e.s) de traitements fondés sur des données probantes;** • **Résident.e.s réticent.e à s'identifier comme LGBT (pour 94% des répondant.e.s);** • **Autres enjeux liés à la stigmatisation (pour 91% des répondant.e.s);** • **Manque de confort personnel à travailler avec cette population (pour 21% des répondant.e.s).**
Rosati, F., Pistella, J. Baiocco, R. (2020)	Italie	Recherche qualitative phénoménologique: entrevues semi-structurées	Personnes s'identifiant comme minorité sexuelle de 60 ans et plus	23 personnes gai.e.s (52%) ou lesbiennes (48%) blanches et italiennes de 58 à 71 ans.	Services de santé physique et mentale	• **Inconfort à divulguer son orientation sexuelle à des professionnel.le.s ne s'identifiant pas comme des minorités sexuelles;** • **Moindre satisfaction, confiance et moins bonne expérience des services généraux versus des services de professionnel.le.s spécialisé.e.s auprès des populations non hétérosexuelles;** • **Anticipations de discrimination basées sur des expériences antérieures de discrimination, l'observation d'attitudes négatives des professionnel.le.s face à l'homosexualité;** • **Manque de confiance envers les professionnel.le.s;** • **Expériences directes de discrimination (attitude négative explicite comme le refus de services en raison de l'orientation sexuelle);** • **Manque de compétences liées aux enjeux des minorités sexuelles qui nuisent à la qualité des services;** • **Manque de services spécialisés et de professionnel.le.s formé.e.s aux besoins des minorités sexuelles;** • **Manque d'appui sur des connaissances informées à propos des minorités sexuelles (plutôt que des attitudes hétérosexistes basées sur des opinions et croyances personnelles);** • **Sentiment de ne pas être compris.es par les professionnel.le.s ne s'identifiant pas comme des minorités sexuelles;** • Préoccupation à l'idée d'être dépendant.e de services de santé non adaptés aux minorités sexuelles en vieillissant.
Shin, R., Smith, L. C., Vernay, C. N., Welch, J. C., Sharma, R., et Eberhardt, M. (2020)	Etats-Unis	Recherche quantitative expérimentale : étude d'audit terrain inter-sujets. Les résultats extraits sont statistiquement significatifs.	Professionnel.le.s agréé.e.s : conseiller.ère.s, psychologues et travailleur.euse.s sociaux provenant d'un État du Nord Est, supporteur des droits des minorités sexuelles et de deux États (Midwest et Sud) hostiles envers les minorités sexuelles	425 professionnel.le.s agréé.e.s : conseiller.ère.s, psychologues et travailleur.euse.s sociaux.	Services de santé mentale	**Discrimination hétérosexiste dans les États « hostiles » envers les minorités sexuelles :** • **Les appels de demande de services pour des difficultés de couple ont reçu 13% moins de retours lorsqu'il s'agissait d'un couple gai comparativement à un couple hétérosexuel.** • **Les appels provenant d'un « appelant à consonance gai » ont reçu encore moins de retours : 21% de moins que « l'appelant hétérosexuel ».**
Feugé, A., Chamberland, L., Kamain, O., et Dumas, J. (2017)	Canada (Québec)	Recherche qualitative : enquête en ligne (questionnaires) dans le cadre d'une recherche-action participative	Usager.ère.s LGBT du réseau québécois de la santé et des services sociaux	736 participant.e.s dont 50,3% de femmes et 49,7% d'hommes. 8,7% des participant.e.s s'identifiaient comme des personnes trans et 1,8% comme des personnes intersexuées. 6,7% de l'échantillon s'identifiait aussi comme queers.	Services sociaux et de santé des Centres de Santé et de Services Sociaux (CSSS)	**Barrières pour les femmes cisgenres et trans s'identifiant comme lesbiennes, bisexuelles ou queers :** • **Présomption de l'hétérosexualité;** • **Manque d'établissement d'un climat facilitant l'échange sur les diverses dimensions de l'orientation sexuelle :** o **Malaise à discuter de l'orientation sexuelle en raison du fait qu'elle est en questionnement ou qu'elle ne répond pas à des catégories prédéfinies;** o **Crainte d'être jugée, rejetée ou traitée différemment;** o **Crainte que la confidentialité ne soit pas respectée, surtout dans les petits milieux ou les professionnel.le.s de la santé côtoient de près des personnes auprès desquelles les usager.ère.s ne sont pas « out »;**

Auteurs (Année de l'article)	Pays	Méthodologie	Population cible	Échantillon	Type de services de relation d'aide	Barrières systémiques affectant l'inclusivité des services
						• L'inadéquation des services de dépistage et de prévention des ITSS; • **Inconfort des professionnel.le.s face à une expression de genre non traditionnelle qui met en péril le lien de confiance:** o **Déni de l'identité (expérience intime du genre ou expression du genre) par les professionnel.le.s de la santé et des services sociaux;** o **Expériences négatives en lien avec l'aspect corporel (par exemple la pilosité);** • **Méconnaissance de la diversité des parcours trans qui n'impliquent pas tous un désir de modifier son corps ou une transition médicale.**
Blais, M., Baiocco, M., Philibert, M., Chamberland, L et l'Equipe de recherche de SAVIE-LGBTQ (2018)	Canada (Québec)	Recherche qualitative : consultation anonyme en ligne	Personnes dont l'orientation sexuelle, l'identité de genre, l'expression de genre ou l'expérience d'un parcours trans divergent des normes hétérocisnormatives.	205 participant.e.s âgé.e.s de 18 à 75 ans, dont des personnes racisées ou en situation de handicap (le nombre n'est pas précisé).	Services sociaux et de santé	Dans les institutions : • Refus d'offrir des formations sur les réalités LGBTQ+; • Absence de services spécialisés ou de personnel formé à la santé LGBTQ+; • **Formulaires qui ne permettent pas de déclarer les prénoms, les noms et l'identité de genre privilégiés, ou les conjoint.e.s ou les parents de même sexe/genre.** • **Absence de signes inclusifs, ou matériel d'information ou de sensibilisation ne présentant que des personnes en couple hétérosexuel ou cisgenres;** • Invisibilisation de la diversité sexuelle, la pluralité des genres et les parcours trans dans les institutions d'accueil, en particulier pour les jeunes et les personnes vieillissantes; • **Toilettes non genrées non disponibles;** • Refus des visites de partenaires de même sexe/ genre; • Traitement différent des partenaires de même sexe/genre; Chez les professionnel.le.s de la santé : • Refus de participer aux formations sur les réalités LGBTQ+; • **Refus de services aux personnes LGBTQ+, en particulier aux personnes trans;** • **Personnes LGBTQ+ en position de devoir éduquer les professionnel.le.s de santé;** • **Présomption de l'hétérosexualité et du parcours cisgenre des personnes;** • **Entretien de stéréotypes sur les personnes LGBTQ+ qui peuvent compromettre la relation thérapeutique** ou la qualité des soins (par exemple, contraception, ITSS); • **Minimisation de l'importance des choix terminologiques relatifs à l'orientation sexuelle (par exemple, pansexuel.le.s, bisexuel.le.s) et à l'identité de genre (par exemple, queer, non binaire, agenre);** • **Refus d'utiliser les informations d'identification indiquées, mégenrage des personnes trans ou non binaires;** • **Invalidation des décisions, préférences ou besoins des personnes LGBTQ+** (par exemple, en remettant en question la méthode de formation d'une famille ou le choix d'un type de donneur); • **Bris de confidentialité des renseignements concernant les personnes LGBTQ+;** • **Questions inutiles, indiscrètes ou non pertinentes par rapport aux motifs de consultation (par exemple, s'enquérir de l'anatomie des personnes trans** présentant des symptômes grippaux); • **Minimisation ou banalisation de certains enjeux dans les couples de même sexe/genre (par exemple, le désir d'avoir un enfant, la violence conjugale);** • **Expression de réactions de malaise, de surprise ou de déni face aux personnes LGBTQ+;** Dans les politiques : • Exclusion de la participation à la santé collective (par exemple, dons de sang ou de cellules souches); • Couverture inadéquate des frais de procédures touchant les personnes LGBTQ+ (par exemple, procréation assistée, préservation des gamètes chez les personnes trans, procédures et soins médicaux d'affirmation du genre).
McCullough, R., Dispenza, F., Parker, L. K., Viehl, C. J., Chang, C. Y., et Murphy, T. M. (2017)	Etats-Unis	Recherche qualitative phénoménologique: entrevues semi-structurées en profondeur	Individus transgenres et non conformes dans le genre	13 participant.e.s âgé.e.s de 21 à 54 ans, dont 4 Noirs africains-américains, 4 Blancs, 4 multiethniques et 1 Latino.	Counseling (services de professionnels de la santé mentale : conseiller.e.s, psychologues, thérapeute familial ou de couple ou travailleur.se.s sociaux)	**Approche « transnégative » :** • **Manque de connaissance sur les enjeux vécus par les personnes transgenres et non conformes dans le genre (affecte négativement l'alliance thérapeutique).**

Auteurs (Année de l'article)	Pays	Méthodologie	Population cible	Échantillon	Type de services de relation d'aide	Barrières systémiques affectant l'inclusivité des services
						• **Invalidations expérientielles (évitement, biais interpersonnel, manque de soutien et découragement (ex. décourager la personne de faire son « coming out »), refus de prendre les choses au sérieux, micro-agressions, mégenrage, refus d'utiliser les pronoms corrects, inconfort, assomption de l'orientation sexuelle ou considération que d'être transgenres et non conformes dans le genre est pathologique).** • **Manque de sensibilité intersectionnelle (incapacité du thérapeute à s'intéresser, comprendre et prendre en compte les intersections des différentes identités marginalisées des personnes clientes (ex. être un homme trans noir aux Etats-Unis) et de comment cela affecte de façon spécifique leur expérience).**
Mizock, L., et Lundquist, C. (2016)	Etats-Unis	Recherche qualitative : entrevues semi-structurées analysées selon la théorisation ancrée.	Personnes s'identifiant comme transgenres ou non conformes dans le genre	45 participant.e.s âgé.e.s de 21 à 71 ans, dont 34 Blancs, 7 biraciaux, 1 Africain-Américain, 1 Américain d'origine asiatique, 1 Latino-Américain et 1 Autochtone.	Psychothérapie et services de santé mentale	• **Charge de l'éducation : compter sur la personne cliente pour éduquer le/la psychothérapeute sur les questions relatives aux personnes transgenres.** • **Inflation du genre : trop focusser sur le genre et sous-estimer d'autres aspects importants de la vie d'un.e client.e transgenre.** • **Étroitesse du genre : Avoir des notions préconçues et restrictives du genre et les imposer aux client.e.s transgenres.** • **Évitement du genre : Ne pas s'attarder suffisamment aux enjeux du genre dans une psychothérapie avec personnes clientes transgenres.** • **Généralisations : Assumer que tous les individus transgenres sont pareils.** • **Réparation du genre : Mener la psychothérapie comme si l'identité transgenre d'une personne cliente était un problème à régler.** • **Pathologisation du genre : Stigmatiser l'identité transgenre comme s'il s'agissait d'une maladie mentale à traiter parce que causant tous les problèmes.** • **Portail d'accès : Psychothérapeute trop focussé.e sur son rôle de contrôler l'accès aux ressources médicales d'affirmation du genre.**
Kattari, S. K., et Hasche, L. (2016)	Etats-Unis	Recherche quantitative : Analyse secondaire des données de la « 2010 National Transgender Discrimination Survey (NTDS) »	5885 personnes résident.e.s des 50 Etats américains, Puerto Rico et Gam de 18 ans et plus s'identifiant comme transgenre ou non conformes dans le genre	5885 personnes dont 69% Blanches, 5,9% Noires, 1,1 % Autochtones, 4,6% Latinos, 3,4% Asiatiques, 0,2% du Moyen-Orient et 15,8% multiethniques.	Services de santé mentale utilisés pour 3 532 personnes	• **10,6% des personnes ont rapporté avoir vécu de la discrimination, définie comme un traitement inéquitable d'un individu ou d'un groupe dans des contextes sociaux dû à l'identité sociale de la personne ou de son groupe d'appartenance.** • **11,1% des personnes ont rapporté avoir vécu du harcèlement ou de l'abus verbal, défini comme des actions indésirables et agaçantes envers une personne ou un groupe comme des demandes, menaces ou autres expériences de harcèlement verbal.** • **1,1 % des personnes ont rapporté avoir vécu de la victimisation définie comme de l'abus physique perpétré par un individu envers un autre individu pour différentes raisons comme la colère, la violence sexuelle, etc.**

N.B. Le gras est de nous pour indiquer les barrières plus spécifiques aux services de relation d'aide

Barrières découlant du racisme

Le racisme amène lui aussi de la discrimination quant à l'obtention d'un rendez-vous (39% moins fréquente pour les personnes noires comparativement aux personnes blanches, Kugelmass, 2016) ou d'une invitation à une conversation à propos des services de counseling (12 % plus de chance pour une personne avec un prénom à consonance blanche et non-latino qu'une personne avec un prénom à consonance noire, Shin *et al.*, 2016). Une fois suivies en psychothérapie, plusieurs femmes noires sont confrontées à la violence causée par l'universalisation des théories euroaméricaines adoptées par les psychothérapeutes qui considèrent les personnes blanches comme le modèle humain (Gouveia et Zanello, 2019). Elles se plaignent en effet de l'inconscience du psychothérapeute face aux enjeux raciaux (approche des enjeux raciaux non existante, ignorance ou méconnaissance de l'impact de la race sur la santé mentale, désorientation, manque de perspective raciale, impact du racisme sur la santé mentale non exploré). De nombreuses femmes rencontrées dans le cadre de l'étude de Gouveia et Zanello (2019) évitent souvent d'aborder elles-mêmes l'enjeu racial en thérapie par

crainte que les psychothérapeutes ne sachent pas comment le traiter, l'ignorent ou le minimisent. Lorsqu'elles sont suivies par un personne psychothérapeute blanche, elles appréhendent aussi que leurs perceptions et expériences de femmes noires soient mal comprises et délégitimées. Elles rapportent en ce sens la barrière du manque d'empathie. Leurs propos mettent aussi en lumière le manque de formation spécifique des psychothérapeutes sur les enjeux raciaux puisque la responsabilité d'éduquer les personnes professionnelles ne devrait pas revenir aux personnes clientes (Gouveia et Zanello, 2019).

Barrières découlant de l'hétérosexisme, de l'hétéronormativité et de l'homophobie

De nombreux articles soulèvent aussi le manque de formation ou de compétences liées aux besoins et enjeux des minorités sexuelles des personnes professionnelles, ce qui nuit à la qualité des services (Smith *et al.,* 2019; Rosati *et al.,* 2020; Blais *et al.*, 2018). Comme relevé par Gouveia et Zanello (2019) pour de nombreuses femmes noires, plusieurs personnes dont l'orientation sexuelle diverge des normes hétéronormatives se retrouvent elles aussi à souvent devoir combler ce manque de connaissances des personnes professionnelles (Blais *et al.*, 2018). L'absence de signes inclusifs, la présomption de l'hétérosexualité et le fait que le matériel d'information ou de sensibilisation ne présente que des personnes en couple hétérosexuel contribuent à invisibiliser la diversité, en particulier pour les personnes âgées s'identifiant comme minorités sexuelles dans les institutions d'accueil (Feugé *et al.*, 2017; Blais *et al.*, 2018), ce qui témoigne de l'importance d'aborder les oppressions de façon intersectionnelle. Une autre conséquence de cette invisibilisation est l'installation d'un climat peu propice à l'échange sur les diverses dimensions de l'orientation sexuelle et un inconfort de la personne à divulguer son orientation sexuelle par crainte d'être jugée, rejetée ou traitée différemment (Feugé *et al.*, 2017; Blais *et al.*, 2018).

Cette anticipation de discrimination est aussi rapportée par Rosati *et al.* (2020) et mène à un manque de confiance envers les personnes professionnelles. L'étude de Smith *et al.,* (2019) révèle pour sa part que 21% des personnes fournisseuses de soins de santé mentale dans 57 établissements de soins de longue durée aux États-Unis ont un inconfort personnel à travailler avec les personnes résidentes lesbiennes, gays, bisexuelles ou trans (LGBT).

D'autres études identifient plusieurs types de discrimination rencontrée dans les services de relation d'aide par de nombreuses personnes dont l'orientation sexuelle diverge des normes hétéronormatives (Rosati *et al.,* 2020; Shin *et al.*, 2020; Blais *et al.*, 2018) : attitudes hétérosexistes basées sur des opinions et croyances personnelles, formulaires qui ne permettent pas de déclarer les personnes conjointes ou les parents de même genre, minimisation de l'importance des choix terminologiques relatifs à l'orientation sexuelle (par exemple les termes pansexuel et bisexuel), refus de services, bris de confidentialité des renseignements personnels qui peuvent être lourds de conséquence, surtout dans les petits milieux où les personnes professionnelles côtoient de près des gens auprès desquels les personnes usagères ne sont pas « out », etc.

Barrières découlant du cissexisme, de la transphobie et de l'enbyphobie

Blais *et al.* (2018) rapportent aussi de nombreuses barrières rencontrées par des personnes dont l'identité ou l'expression de genre divergent des normes cisnormatives. Mentionnons l'invisibilisation de la pluralité des genres et des parcours trans dans les institutions d'accueil, l'absence de signes inclusifs, un matériel d'information ou de sensibilisation ne présentant que des personnes cisgenres, la présomption du parcours cisgenre des personnes et la non-disponibilité de toilettes non genrées. Comme pour les autres populations marginalisées, le manque de connaissance des personnes professionnelles à propos des réalités et enjeux vécus par les personnes trans et non conformes dans le genre est aussi une barrière qui affecte négativement l'alliance thérapeutique (Feugé *et al.*, 2017; Blais *et al.*, 2018; McCullough, *et al.*, 2017). Cela rejoint ce que Mizock et Lundquist

(2016) conceptualisent comme l'étroitesse du genre, c'est-à-dire d'avoir des notions préconçues et restrictives du genre et les imposer aux personnes clientes trans ou non binaires (aussi rapporté par Blais *et al.*, 2018). Pour cette population marginalisée comme les précédentes, cette barrière à l'inclusivité a pour conséquence de mettre les personnes concernées en position d'avoir à éduquer les personnes professionnelles, ce qui constitue une charge (Blais *et al.*, 2018; Mizock et Lundquist, 2016).

En plus de devoir faire face à des réactions d'inconfort ou de malaise des personnes professionnelles face à une expression de genre non traditionnelle (Feugé *et al.*, 2017; Blais *et al.*, 2018; McCullough, *et al.*, 2017), plusieurs personnes dont l'identité ou l'expression de genre divergent des normes cisnormatives vivent de la discrimination directe et des microagressions très fréquentes (Feugé *et al.*, 2017; Blais *et al.*, 2018; McCullough, *et al.*, 2017; Kattari et Hasche, 2016). Mentionnons à titre d'exemple les formulaires qui ne permettent pas de déclarer les pronoms, les noms et l'identité de genre privilégiés, la minimisation de l'importance des choix terminologiques relatifs à l'identité de genre (par exemple, queer, non binaire, agenre), le refus d'utiliser les informations d'identification indiquées ou les pronoms corrects, le mégenrage des personnes trans ou non binaires et les questions inutiles, indiscrètes ou non pertinentes par rapport aux motifs de consultation. La discrimination va même jusqu'au refus de services, au bris de confidentialité, au déni de l'identité par les personnes professionnelles ou à l'abus physique (Feugé *et al.*, 2017; Blais *et al.*, 2018; Kattari et Hasche, 2016).

Selon Mizock et Lundquist (2016), les services de santé mentale sont aussi moins inclusifs lorsque les thérapeutes focussent trop sur le genre et sous-estiment d'autres aspects importants de la vie d'une personne cliente trans (inflation du genre), ne s'attardent pas suffisamment aux enjeux du genre dans une psychothérapie avec des personnes trans (évitement du genre), assument que tous les individus trans sont pareils (généralisations), mènent la psychothérapie comme si l'identité trans d'une personne cliente était un problème à régler (réparation du genre) ou stigmatisent l'identité trans comme s'il s'agissait d'une maladie mentale à traiter parce que causant tous les problèmes (pathologisation du genre, barrière aussi relevée par McCullough, *et al.*, 2017). McCullough, *et al.*, 2017 relèvent aussi l'intrusion dans la décision de certaines personnes à faire ou non leur «coming out», le manque de soutien, de prise au sérieux et de sensibilité intersectionnelle comme obstacles à l'inclusivité des services.

Discussion

À la lumière de cette revue de la portée, force est de conster que de nombreuses barrières réduisent l'inclusivité des services de relation d'aide au sens large. Rappelons en effet que les articles retenus ne focussaient pas exclusivement sur des services d'orientation et de développement de carrière, mais sur des services sociaux ou de relation d'aide, dont des services de counseling. Le manque de formation sur les défis et réalités vécues par les populations marginalisées selon différents axes d'oppression est relevé comme une barrière importante pour plusieurs personnes noires, personnes dont l'orientation sexuelle diverge des normes hétéronormatives et personnes dont l'identité ou l'expression de genre divergent des normes cisnormatives. C'est une réalité présente aussi pour d'autres populations marginalisées. Par exemple, une étude révèle que 60% des personnes professionnelles rencontrées dans des centres d'emplois destinés aux personnes en situation de handicap considéraient ne pas avoir de bonnes connaissances à propos du TSA (Sénéchal *et al.*, 2011). Plusieurs articles de cette revue mentionnent pour leur part que ce manque de formation fait en sorte que beaucoup de personnes marginalisées utilisatrices de services se retrouvent en position de devoir éduquer les personnes professionnelles, ce qui inverse le rôle de personne aidante et aidée en plus de représenter une charge qui ne devrait pas reposer sur les épaules des personnes marginalisées (Gouveia et Zanello, 2019; Smith *et al.,* 2019; Rosati *et al.,* 2020; Blais *et al.*, 2018; Feugé *et al.*, 2017; McCullough, *et al.*, 2017; Mizock et Lundquist, 2016). Ce manque d'informations et de connaissances contribue au maintien d'idées reçues et arrêtées à propos du genre,

de l'orientation sexuelle, des personnes noires, en situation d'itinérance, neuroatypiques, etc. Les préjugés, le manque de compréhension de la réalité des personnes marginalisées, l'inconfort des personnes professionnelles et leur manque d'empathie représentent en effet des barrières à l'inclusivité relevées par neuf articles de cette recherche (Ramsey *et al.,*2019; Gouveia et Zanello, 2019; Rosati *et al.,* 2020; Shin *et al.*, 2020, Blais *et al.*, 2018; Smith *et al.,* 2019; Mizock et Lundquist, 2016; Feugé *et al.*, 2017; McCullough, *et al.*, 2017).

L'article de Gouveia et Zanello (2019) soulève le problème de fond de l'universalisation des théories et cadres d'intervention occidentaux considérant les personnes blanches comme le modèle de référence humain qui invisibilise les vécus et réalités des personnes racisées. Cela rejoint les préoccupations de la présente étude et de celles de Sue (1981; Sue et Sue, 2003; Sue *et al.*, 1992). En plus de nier l'expérience de millions de personnes racisées, cette hégémonie culturelle relègue aussi dans un angle mort toute autre différence culturelle en termes d'orientation sexuelle, d'identité de genre, de statut social ou économique, de « capacité » physique ou psychologique, etc. Près de trente ans plus tard, l'appel à la profession de personnes conseillères en développement de carrière de Sue *et al.* (1992) à propos de l'importance de remettre en question nos croyances ethnocentriques à l'effet que les gens sont tous les mêmes aurait peut-être besoin d'être réitéré et actualisé afin que les approches d'interventions reconnaissent enfin toute la diversité des expériences de vies humaines.

Les manques de respect, les abus verbaux, le refus d'adapter les services et les formalités aux réalités des personnes marginalisées sont en effet d'autres importantes barrières à l'inclusivité des services rapportées par plus de la moitié des articles de cette étude (Rosati *et al.,* 2020; Blais *et al.*, 2018; Feugé *et al.*, 2017; McCullough, *et al.*, 2017; Kattari et Hasche, 2016), particulièrement pour des personnes dont l'orientation sexuelle, l'identité ou l'expression de genre divergent des normes hétérocisnormatives.

Un autre obstacle soulevé est le fait d'éviter ou encore de trop focusser sur les différences en termes de « race » ou de genre jusqu'à les pathologiser (Gouveia et Zanello, 2019; Mizock et Lundquist, 2016; McCullough, *et al.*, 2017). Les discriminations directes comme le refus de service (Kugelmass, 2016; Shin *et al.*, 2016; Shin *et al.*, 2020; Blais *et al.*, 2018), le bris de confidentialité (Blais *et al.*, 2018) et l'abus physique (Kattari et Hasche, 2016) sont aussi à clairement à abolir.

Face à l'existence de l'ensemble de ces discriminations, il n'est pas étonnant de relever la peur de la stigmatisation, le manque ou la perte de confiance de plusieurs populations marginalisées envers les personnes professionnelles de la relation d'aide à titre d'autres barrières à l'inclusivité de leurs services (Vogan *et al.*, 2017; Ramsey *et al.,*2019; Gouveia et Zanello, 2019; Feugé *et al.*, 2017; Blais *et al.*, 2018; Rosati *et al.,* 2020).

Finalement, deux études ont aussi parlé du manque de sensibilité intersectionnelle des thérapeutes puisqu'ils n'ont pas su s'intéresser, comprendre et prendre en compte les intersections des différentes identités marginalisées des personnes clientes et de comment cela affecte de façon spécifique leur expérience (transphobie et racisme pour McCullough *et al.*, 2017, et racisme et sexisme pour Gouveia et Zanello, 2019). Cela rejoint aussi le constat de Shin *et al.* (2020) qu'il serait intéressant d'adopter une lecture intersectionnelle pour de futures recommandations.

À la lumière du portrait des barrières systémiques qui ont émergé de la littérature récente, le besoin d'agir devient évident d'abord pour que les personnes professionnelles de la relation d'aide prennent acte de ces obstacles pour ensuite identifier des façons d'y remédier. Or cela implique une importante prise de conscience chez les personnes professionnelles puisqu'il n'est pas question ici de leur rôle d'outiller les populations marginalisées à surmonter les obstacles qu'elles rencontrent dans la vie de tous les jours (Turnbull & Stokes, 2011). Il s'agit de reconnaître que les services de relation d'aide produisent, maintiennent et exacerbent des inégalités sociales pour de nombreuses populations marginalisées. Un examen critique des privilèges (Arthur et Collins, 2014) et une

remise en question des pratiques sont nécessaires pour s'attaquer à ces barrières et les éliminer.

Le développement d'une conscience critique à propos des barrières systémiques qui affectent de nombreux membres des populations marginalisées et à propos de ses propres biais et stéréotypes est au centre de la perspective de la justice sociale en counseling (Shin *et al.*, 2016; Arthur et Collins, 2014; Arthur, *et al.*, 2009; Arthur, 2019). Selon Arthur et Collins,

> « Le professionnel est politique »; dans une société où l'on observe de l'oppression culturelle, il n'y a pas de place pour une position de neutralité. Ne rien faire pour régler les injustices sociales constitue à la fois un choix et une forme d'intervention et, en l'occurrence, c'est un geste directement ou indirectement en faveur desdites injustices sociales. (Arthur et Collins, 2014, p.180).

En effet, les personnes professionnelles du développement de carrière, à titre elles aussi de professionnelles de la relation d'aide, ont un rôle social, politique et éthique à jouer en faveur du respect des droits de la personne et du respect de la dignité de tout le monde. Selon leurs règles éthiques et déontologiques, iels[2] doivent s'abstenir de toute forme de discrimination notamment liée à la race, l'âge, la couleur, l'orientation sexuelle, l'identité de genre, les mœurs, l'état civil, la religion, les convictions politiques, la situation de handicap, etc. (Guide canadien des compétences pour les professionnels en développement de carrière, 2004; Et dans le cas particulier du Québec : Ordre des conseillers et conseillères d'orientation du Québec, s.d; Ordre des conseillers et conseillères d'orientation du Québec, 2020). Au-delà de ne pas discriminer, plusieurs s'entendent pour dire que les personnes professionnelles de la relation d'aide ont aussi un rôle d'advocacie sociale à jouer pour revendiquer l'abolition des barrières systémiques (Supeno *et al.*, 2020).

L'approche antiraciste rejoint la perspective d'advocacie sociale dans la mesure où elle invite à « lutter contre les structures économiques, politiques et sociales des sociétés occidentales du centre, constituées au détriment de celles dites périphériques. » (Rachédi, et Taïbi, 2019, p. 117). Elle va plus loin que les approches inter ou transculturelles puisqu'elle implique une reconnaissance et une forme de réparation des préjudices causés par la discrimination et le profilage racial, les microagressions et le racisme (Cénat, 2020). Un outil de mesure a même été développé pour évaluer la sensibilisation et le comportement antiraciste de personnes étudiantes en counseling et psychologie aux États-Unis (anti-racism behavioral inventory (ARBI), Pieterse, *et al.*, 2016).

Une autre piste intéressante pour permettre de relever le défi de l'élimination des barrières systémiques présentes dans les services de relation d'aide est la perspective anti-oppressive, qui « vise à qui à contester et à changer les structures d'oppression et de domination dans une visée de justice sociale » (Pullen-Sansfaçon, 2013). L'adoption d'une pratique anti-oppressive permettrait d'inclure les principes de diversité, d'inclusion sociale et de justice sociale avec les populations marginalisées (Sakamoto and Pitner, 2005; Barnoff and Moffat, 2007).

Les personnes dont l'identité ou l'expression de genre divergent des normes cisnormatives étant l'une des populations marginalisées pour laquelle cette revue a identifié le plus de barrières à l'inclusivité des services, il importe de parler des approches à privilégier pour corriger la situation. De plus en plus de personnes auteures et d'associations professionnelles en relation d'aide prennent acte de l'impact négatif des discriminations et se positionnent en faveur de l'abandon des tendances à la pathologisation et à la « guérison » de diverses identités et expressions de genre pour favoriser une approche transaffirmative (Competencies for Counseling with Transgender Clients, American Counseling Association, 2010; Guideline for Psychological Practice With Transgender and Gender Non Conforming People, APA, 2015; Association canadienne des travailleurs sociaux, Pullen Sansfaçon, 2015; Transgender and Nonbinary Affir-

2 Dans une vision d'inclusion et de démonstration de la diversité des genres en dehors du mode binaire habituel, des néologismes seront utilisés dans le cadre de cet article. Dans ce cas-ci, « iels » fait référence à une combinaison des pronoms elles et ils.

mative Therapy, McGeorge *et al.*, 2021).

Finalement, l'application pratique de l'approche intersectionnelle est l'une des pistes incontournables mises de l'avant par cette recherche pour prendre en considération l'effet combiné du positionnement (privilège ou oppression) d'une même personne sur différents axes identitaires comme la race, l'origine ethnique, l'identité de genre, la classe sociale, le revenu, l'âge, la religion, l'orientation sexuelle, les capacités physiques et psychologiques, etc.

Certains modèles mentionnés plus tôt offrent des pistes de solutions pour prendre en compte réalités de populations diverses et marginalisées de façon davantage intersectionnelle (Culture-infused counseling, Arthur et Collins, 2010; Multicultural and Social Justice Counseling Competencies, Ratts, Singh, Nassar-McMillan, Butler, et McCullough, 2015; Sociological Career Theory, Bimrose, 2019; Career Development Practices from the Capabilities Perspective of Social Justice, Picard *et al.*, 2019; The Career Counseling Whith Underserved Populations Model, Pope, 2019).

À titre d'exemple, le modèle du counseling tenant compte des références culturelles (Culture-infused counselling; Arthur et Collins, 2010) propose d'accompagner les personnes clientes à reconnaître les systèmes sociaux octroyant inégalement les opportunités et encourage les personnes professionnelles du développement de carrière à s'attaquer aux barrières systémiques au travail et en éducation qui touchent défavorablement les gens en raison de leurs différents positionnements quant à leur origine ethnique, leur âge, leur religion, leur orientation sexuelle, leurs capacités et leur classe sociale (Arthur, 2019). S'inspirant du constructivisme quant à la subjectivité de l'expérience humaine et du rejet de la « vérité absolue », les auteures considèrent central que les personnes professionnelles du développement de carrière prennent conscience de leur propre socialisation et explorent la vision du monde des personnes clientes qui diffère de la leur (Arthur, 2019; Arthur et Collins, 2014; Arthur, *et al.*, 2009).

Peu importe l'approche privilégiée, les résultats de cette recherche soulèvent le besoin d'accroître la sensibilisation des personnes professionnelles du développement de carrière et d'offrir de la formation afin d'augmenter leur compétence pour concevoir l'intervention et intervenir auprès des populations marginalisées de façon inclusive. Une mise à jour des compétences de toutes les personnes professionnelles, incluant celles qui ont davantage d'expérience, serait des plus pertinentes pour que les interventions prennent dorénavant les problèmes soulevés en considération.

Forces et limites

Alors que plusieurs études se sont intéressées aux impacts de la discrimination et de l'oppression dans différents domaines de la vie des personnes marginalisées comme l'emploi, le logement, l'état de santé, etc., la littérature s'est moins fréquemment et moins systématiquement intéressée à comment les services sociaux et de relation d'aide peuvent reproduire ou exacerber ces oppressions. C'est pourquoi nous nous sommes intéressées à cet aspect pour synthétiser quelles barrières à l'inclusivité avaient déjà été identifiées. Le nombre d'articles trouvés témoigne d'un intérêt sur la question de même que de la nécessité de poursuivre les réflexions et la recherche pour identifier des solutions pour éliminer ces nombreuses barrières.

Une autre force de cette revue de la portée est que seulement les études récentes ont été incluses, ce qui fait en sorte que les oppressions et barrières identifiées sont très actuelles. D'un autre côté, cela fait aussi en sorte que d'autres barrières identifiées il y a plus longtemps n'ont pas été relevées par cette revue alors qu'elles peuvent encore aujourd'hui influencer négativement l'inclusivité des services de relation d'aide. Par ailleurs, il est possible que les efforts consentis par la société pour une meilleure cohabitation multiculturelle expliquent, du moins en partie, pourquoi nous avons trouvé moins d'articles à propos des discriminations pour les personnes immigrantes ou racisées dans les services de relation d'aide. Si tel est effectivement le cas, cela démontre que ces efforts doivent être maintenus et élargis à l'ensemble des barrières systémiques repérées.

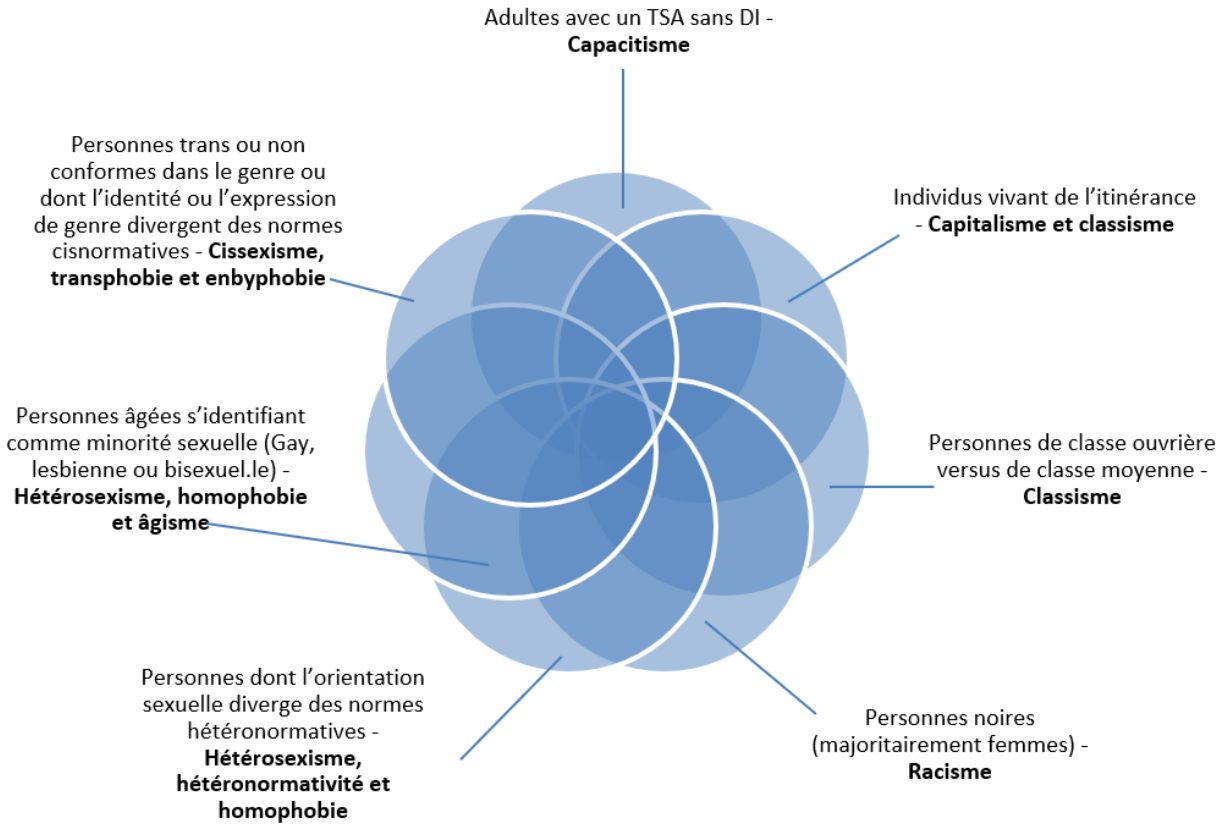
À titre de limite, notons aussi que plusieurs populations

marginalisées non couvertes par cette étude rencontrent elles aussi de nombreuses barrières systémiques affectant l'inclusivité des services sociaux et de relation d'aide. Malgré le fait qu'elles n'ont pas été relevées par cette revue de la portée, les femmes peuvent rencontrer certaines barrières systémiques découlant du sexisme ou du patriarcat. Mentionnons aussi les populations autochtones, les personnes racisées (au-delà des personnes noires pour qui certaines barrières ont été identifiées dans la présente étude), les personnes en situation de handicap (au-delà des adultes avec un TSA sans déficience intellectuelle pour qui certaines barrières ont été identifiées dans la présente étude), les personnes travailleuses du sexe, etc. D'autres recherches sont donc nécessaires pour s'intéresser à ces populations sous-étudiées et documenter les barrières qu'elles rencontrent dans les services de relation d'aide. Cette limite pourrait s'expliquer, du moins en partie, par le fait que les recherches ont été réalisées dans sept bases de données spécifiques (SocINDEX, Educational source, LGBT Life, APA PsycNET, Scopus, Érudit, et Cochrane).

De plus, il est important de mentionner que les résultats de cette étude ne sont pas exhaustifs puisque cette dernière ne prétend pas lister toutes les barrières rencontrées par les personnes concernées. Notre étude démontre tout de même qu'il existe de nombreuses barrières et que les milieux professionnels de relation d'aide ont intérêt à être davantage à l'écoute des critiques des personnes marginalisées par rapport au manque d'inclusivité de leurs services s'ils souhaitent les améliorer.

Figure 2

Représentation intersectionnelle des données extraites



Finalement, bien que cette étude adopte une perspective intersectionnelle, les articles qu'elle a recensés abordaient les barrières à l'inclusivité des services d'un point de vue de populations marginalisées un système d'oppression à la fois la plupart du temps. Cela découle du fait qu'il existe encore peu de recherches réalisées dans une perspective intersectionnelle. Afin de pallier, du moins en partie, à cette limite, la figure 2 propose une représentation visuelle des données extraites permettant l'intersection de plusieurs systèmes d'oppression.

Conclusion

Les personnes professionnelles de la relation d'aide partagent une volonté commune d'aider les autres. Dans ce contexte, il peut être difficile de prendre conscience de ce que cette revue de la portée fait ressortir : malgré leurs bonnes intentions, les personnes professionnelles contribuent aussi à reproduire ou exacerber différentes oppressions. Ce constat est pourtant nécessaire pour amener une prise de conscience et une certaine remise en question qui permettront d'ajuster les pratiques pour graduellement éliminer les barrières à l'inclusivité des services dans le domaine de la relation d'aide identifiées par la littérature récente. Il importe de comprendre qu'il ne s'agit pas d'une attaque à propos des pratiques actuelles des personnes professionnelles de la relation d'aide dont font partie celleux[3] en développement de carrière, mais d'un constat qu'elles doivent être ajustées afin d'être inclusives pour les populations marginalisées. Cet article permet une sensibilisation des personnes professionnelles à l'importance d'agir à propos de ces enjeux. Certaines approches et pistes ont été soumises, mais de plus amples recherches seront nécessaires pour identifier les meilleures façons d'éliminer les barrières découlant des différents systèmes d'oppression affectant l'inclusivité des services de relation d'aide pour les populations marginalisées.

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Annexe

Requête en anglais :

("systemi* barrier*" OR obstacle* OR barrier* OR oppressi* OR racis* OR colonialis* OR heterosexis* OR cissexis* OR classis* OR capacitis* OR sexis*)
- recherchée dans les titres

+
((inclusi* OR integration* OR acces* OR discrim* OR stigma* OR exclu*

OR victim*) AND ("service* de relation* d'aide*" OR "relation* d'aide*" OR "service* social*" OR "travail* social*" OR "social* work*" OR help* OR aide* OR conseil* OR "career* counsel*" OR "conseil* de développement* de carrière*" OR counseling OR counselling OR orient* OR psychotherap* OR therap* OR interven* OR psycholog*) AND (population* OR vulnerab* OR immigra* OR minorit* OR women OR woman OR femme* OR "marginal* person*" OR "personne* marginal*" OR handicap* OR disabilit* OR lesbi* OR gay* OR gai* OR homo* OR pansexu* OR bisexu* OR trans* OR queer* OR racisé* OR racial* OR aboriginal* OR indigenous OR autochtone* OR "première* nation*" OR "First* nation*" OR diversit* OR "sexual* orientation*" OR "orientation* sexuelle*" OR "sexual* identit*" OR "identité* sexuelle*" OR LGB* OR "non-binar*" OR "non binar*")) NOT ("child abus*" OR "enfant* abus*" OR pedophil* OR "alcohol* abus*" OR "abus d'alcool" OR "drug* abus" OR "substance* abus*" OR addict* OR Perinatal* OR "medical* care*" OR "medical* personnel*"OR veteran* OR milita* OR sport* OR "physical* activit*" OR "activité* physique*")

– recherchée dans les résumés

Requête en français – recherchée dans les résumés :

(«systemi* barrier*» OU obstacle* OU barrier* OU oppressi* OU racis* OU colonialis* OU heterosexis* OU cissexis* OU classis* OU capacitis* OU sexis*)ET((inclusi* OU integration* OU acces* OU discrim* OU stigma* OU exclu* OU victim*) ET («service* de relation* d'aide*» OU «relation* d'aide*» OU «service* social*» OU «travail* social*» OU «social* work*» OU help* OU aide* OU conseil* OU «career* counsel*» OU «conseil* de développement* de carrière*» OU counseling OU counselling OU orient* OU psychotherap* OU therap* OU interven* OU psycholog*) ET (population* OU vulnerab* OU immigra* OU minorit* OU women OU woman OU femme* OU «marginal* person*» OU «personne* marginal*» OU handicap* OU disabilit* OU lesbi* OU gay* OU gai* OU homo* OU pansexu* OU bisexu* OU trans* OU queer* OU racisé* OU racial* OU aboriginal* OU indigenous OU autochtone* OU «première* nation*» OU «First* nation*» OU diversit* OU «sexual* orientation*» OU «orientation* sexuelle*» OU «sexual* identit*» OU «identité* sexuelle*» OU LGB* OU «non-binar*» OU «non binar*»)) SAUF («child abus*» OU «enfant* abus*» OU pedophil* OU «alcohol* abus*» OU «abus d'alcool» OU «drug* abus» OU «substance* abus*» OU addict* OU Perinatal* OU «medical* care*» OU «medical* personnel*»OU veteran* OU milita* OU sport* OU «physical* activit*» OU «activité* physique*»)

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Louis Cournoyer (UQAM) assure la coordination du projet de traduction et de révision francophone de l'ouvrage, avec la collaboration de Patricia Dionne (Sherbrooke) et de Simon Viviers (Laval), ainsi que le soutien d'une équipe universitaire internationale de personnes réviseures.

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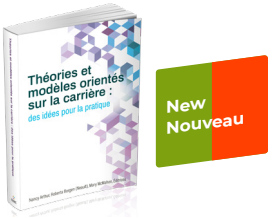

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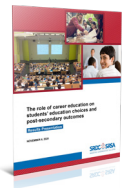

Role of Career Education on High School Students' Education Choices and Post-Secondary Outcomes

CANADIAN JOURNAL OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT | REVUE CANADIENNE DE DÉVELOPPEMENT DE CARRIÈRE

Psychosocial Risks and Subjective Well-Being in the Canadian Workplace. Overlapping Risk Exposure, Work Ethic, and Resilience.

Stephane Moulin
University of Montreal

Abstract

This article puts forward a new typology of workers, based on an enhanced set of indicators of psychosocial risks and well-being, and examines the character traits associated with each class membership. This article innovates by simultaneously taking into account how hostile behaviours, poor working conditions, and employment precariousness are associated with different subjective measures of well-being. This study uses a person-centered approach by conducting latent class analysis on a representative sample of 5,867 Canadian employees. Six distinct clusters are revealed: "heavily suffering", "unfulfilled precarious", "unhealthy stressed", "untroubled harassed", "optimistic precarious" and "not exposed". This article thus shows that it is not harassment or lack of social benefits *per se* that affect workers' well-being. It demonstrates that workers' well-being deteriorates only when hostile behaviours/conflicts and poor working/employment conditions overlap. Binary logistic regression analyses reveal that, controlling for other worker characteristics, this typology of workers is related to work ethic and resilience. The results suggest two key trends: overlapping exposure to precariousness, procedural injustice and poor prospects for career advancement reduces hard work ethic, while overlapping exposure to hostile behaviour/conflicts and competition reduces resilience.

Keywords: well-being, precariousness, harassment, work ethic, resilience

Psychosocial risks are among the most challenging issues in the workplace, affecting both workers' performance and satisfaction and causing serious health problems (Sparks et al., 1997; Stansfeld & Candy, 2006; Sverke et al., 2002). The literature on psychosocial risks shows that workers' well-being is influenced by a wide range of contexts and behaviours such as harassment and bullying (Einarsen et al., 2020), micro-aggressions (Pettigrew & Martin, 1987) or everyday discrimination (Deitch et al., 2003), procedural injustice (Schmitt & Dörfel, 1999), job strain (Karasek, 1979; Theorell et al., 2015), precarious employment (Benach et al., 2014; Benavides et al., 2000), irregular work schedule (Martens et al., 1999), and over-qualification (Johnson & Johnson, 1996).

However, different measures of subjective well-being impact research findings and conclusions regarding the associations between psychosocial risks and workers' well-being. Subjective well-being in organizations (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011) covers different aspects of workers' perceptions such as overall job satisfaction (Wanous et al., 1997), standard of living (Bérenger & Verdier-Chouchane, 2007), work-life balance (Kalliath & Brough, 2008), or self-reported physical or mental health (Mossey & Shapiro, 1982). Certain findings suggest that bullying/conflicts and working/employment conditions have distinct relationships with well-being (Mayerl et al., 2017; Notelaers et al., 2018; Vanroelen et al., 2010). While multi-foci approaches to hostile behaviours show less deleterious effects of outside-initiated aggression (Hango & Moyser, 2018; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010), Peckham et al. (2019) identifed "optimistic precarious workers" who do not significantly report lower well-being. In a study based on a survey of managers employed by a large Canadian organization, optimism was found to be a significant predictor of both career success and job satisfaction (Neault, 2002). Many authors also suggest that a strong work ethic (Furnham, 1984; Khan et al., 2015) and resilience (Hartmann et al., 2020; Rees et al., 2015) can play a powerful protective role against hostile behaviours and procedural injustice. The contribution of the

different psychosocial factors to well-being is thus still unclear.

While most of the literature on psychosocial factors adopts a standard variable-centered approach, this article uses a person-centered strategy based on latent class analysis (LCA; Wang & Hanges, 2011). Focusing on similarities among workers, this approach has previously been used to identify a new typology of workers who share similar patterns of response to hostile behaviours (Leon Perez et al., 2013; Notelaers et al., 2006, 2018), occupational stressors (Mayerl et al., 2017; Vanroelen et al., 2010), or poor employment conditions (Gevaert et al., 2020; Peckham et al., 2019; Savage et al., 2013; Van Aerden et al., 2016; Van Aerden et al., 2017). This article innovates by simultaneously taking into account how hostile behaviours, poor working conditions, and employment precariousness are associated with different subjective measures of well-being. It has a twofold objective: 1) to identify distinct subgroups of subjects with similar profiles, based on the different indicator variables for psychosocial risks and well-being; and 2) to explore the character traits associated with each class membership.

This article is divided into five sections. The first section identifies the main psychosocial risks in the workplace. The second section reviews existing typologies of individual workers with similar psychosocial profiles based on Latent Class Analysis (LCA). The third describes the data, measures, and analytical strategy used in the current study, while the fourth presents the main results. The fifth and concluding section discusses the results and identifies the limitations of the study.

Theoretical frameworks of Psychosocial Risks in the Workplace

This section highlights the impact of three different sets of psychosocial risks on workers' well-being: hostile behaviours of three specific perpetrators, namely supervisors, co-workers and clients; working conditions such as job demands, decision latitude, procedural justice, conflicts, and social support; and employment conditions such as terms of employment, work schedules, social benefits, prospects for career advancement, and job mismatches.

Studies using the "hostile behaviours" approach examine specific deviant behaviours such as bullying, harassment and discrimination (Huang et al., 2018). Harassment and bullying manifest in different forms such as verbal abuse, humiliating behaviour, threats, physical violence, and sexual harassment (Hango & Moyser, 2018). Translating into occupational segregation and stagnant careers, employer favoritism locks workers into under-challenging tasks or work overload and puts them at greater risk for both physical and mental health problems (Krieger, 2014; Roberts et al., 2004). Low-intensity deviant workplace behaviour such as "micro-aggressions" (Pettigrew & Martin, 1987), "everyday discrimination" (Deitch et al., 2003), and "workplace incivility" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Schilpzand et al., 2016) are more subtle, pervasive or ambiguous hostile behaviours. Health problems result from harassment (Leymann, 1996; Leymann & Gustafsson, 1996) and from subtle everyday discrimination (Pavalco et al., 2003). Multi-foci approaches to hostile behaviours have shown that aggression outcomes differ in magnitude by source: a weaker association exists between workplace harassment and well-being in the case of harassment by a client or customer than in the case of harassment by a supervisor or co-worker (Hango & Moyser, 2018; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010).

Beyond the factors related to hostile behaviours, many working conditions have been shown to affect employees' well-being. The reference epidemiological model for analyzing the links between work strains and health and well-being is Karasek's Job Demand Control Model (JDC) model (Karasek, 1979). Various meta-analyses suggest that low decision latitude combined with high psychological demand constitutes a risky situation for health and well-being (Stansfeld & Candy, 2006; Theorell et al., 2015). Among job demands, longer working hours in particular may be associated with lower well-being, causing stress, fatigue, sleeping problems, and anxiety (Afonso et al., 2017). Conflicts at work can have negative long-term consequences for individual health

and well-being (De Dreu et al., 2004), and a competitive psychological atmosphere is associated with greater stress (Fletcher et al., 2008). Greater procedural justice (Schmitt & Dörfel, 1999), higher levels of involvement (Boxall & Macky, 2014), and employee participation (Knudsen et al., 2011) are also particularly predictive of higher well-being in workers. Supervisory support reduces daily conflicts between work and family life (Goh et al., 2015) and co-worker support appears to play a protective role against some of the negative effects of mistreatment (Sloan, 2012). While teleworkers have more work autonomy and better career prospects, telework can also intensify work-family conflicts and increase stress because it blurs the boundaries between home and workplace (Song & Gao, 2020; Sullivan & Lewis, 2001; Tavares, 2017). Empirical evidence also suggests that workplace isolation has an impact on employee well-being (Sahai et al., 2020).

Employment conditions are also a focal point in any analysis of employees' health and well-being. The different ways in which employment is secured help explain the emergence of a wide range of serious and chronic health problems such as depressive disorders, musculoskeletal disorders, back pain and stroke (Benach et al., 2014). Workers tend to be happier when work is less precarious (Inanc, 2020). Those with a permanent contract have more information about the workplace hazards, experience less hazardous working conditions and tend to have better health outcomes (Benavides et al., 2000). Workers with irregular work schedules tend to have more health problems and to report lower well-being than workers with non-flexible work schedules (Martens et al., 1999). Overqualified workers also tend to report lower psychological well-being (Johnson & Johnson, 1996). To incorporate these elements into a model of psychosocial risks, certain researchers developed the idea of "employment strain" (Bosmans et al., 2017; Lewchuk et al., 2003).

Typologies of Psychosocial Profiles and Research Objectives

Since workers encounter various forms of exposure to a wide variety of psychosocial factors, current research shows special interest in LCA as a means of identifying different profiles and exploring the factors that explain class membership.

We identified three sets of research findings. The first set focused on identifying classes based on a set of measures of conflicts and hostile behaviours within the workplace. Notelaers et al. (2006) distinguished six latent classes of individual workers based on the level and nature of their exposure to bullying: not bullied, limited work criticism, limited negative encounters, sometimes bullied, work-related bullying and victims. While respondents who were "not bullied" reported a higher level of pleasure at work, victims reported much less pleasure at work and more worries. Leon Perez et al. (2013) proposed a bullying typology distinguishing six different groups according to the nature and intensity of the reported bullying behaviours: not exposed, rarely exposed, negative working conditions, work-related bullying, severe bullying, and bullying and aggression. More recently, Notelaers et al. (2018) found conflict-aggression and bullying to have distinct relationships with well-being and strain outcomes.

The second set of research findings focused on stress profiles. This literature not only supports the existence of different clusters of psychosocial risks, but also suggests a complex relationship between social position and well-being. Using a large number of occupational stressors and working conditions, Vanroelen et al. (2010) identified five different stress clusters: low stress, passive-manual, human contact, high stress and high demand. These clusters showed distinct associations with emotional problems and musculoskeletal complaints. Using LCA separately for health symptoms and job demands, Mayerl et al. (2017) identified four symptom clusters (healthy, tensed up, exhausted and heavily suffering) and four stress clusters (low burden, psychosocial burden, physical burden and high burden). They found diverse constellations of job demands to be differentially associated with specific symptom clusters.

Lastly, the third set of LCA research findings tended to focus on employment conditions.

Savage et al. (2013) demonstrated that, alongside an ageing traditional working class, there is a "precariat" class characterized by high levels of insecurity. European studies have reported a significant association between employment quality types and general health indicators, indicating that de-standardized employment tends to be related to lower job satisfaction, and to general and mental health problems (Van Aerden et al., 2016; Van Aerden et al., 2017). Gevaert et al. (2020) also found clear evidence of a health gradient in employment quality types. However, examining the association of health outcomes with different types of employment in the contemporary U.S. labour market, Peckham et al. (2019) found a more differentiated pattern: while precarious job holders are more likely to report lower well-being, "optimistic precarious job holders" are no different from workers in standard employment relationships on any of the indicators of well-being.

These studies focused on one of the three dimensions of psychosocial risks – i.e. hostile behaviours, poor working conditions, or employment precariousness – to respectively identify bullying, stress and employment profiles. This article innovates by simultaneously taking into account these three different dimensions of psychosocial risks. Its main purpose is to propose a general typology of workers, based on an enhanced set of indicators of psychosocial risks and well-being, and examine the character traits associated with each class membership. The objective of the current study is thus twofold: 1) to identify psychosocial profiles based on a wide range of psychosocial factors (conflicts and hostile behaviours from supervisors, co-workers or clients, job strains, discrimination, working and employment conditions) and on subjective well-being (job satisfaction, sense of accomplishment, standard of living, work-life balance, stress, self-reported physical or mental health), and 2) to explore the character traits (resilience and work ethic) associated with each class membership.

Methods

Data

This article uses data from the 2016 General Social Survey (GSS) on Canadians at work and home. The overall survey response rate was 50.8%, while the total sample size was 19,609. The article focuses on respondents aged 15 to 64 who worked for pay during the preceding 12 months (i.e. approximately 9,000 respondents). The resulting sample size, after deleting cases with missing data, was 5,867.

Measures

Well-being, Stress and Satisfaction

Respondents were asked to rate their level of satisfaction with their job in general, the degree to which they felt a sense of accomplishment or a sense of doing useful work, and the degree to which they felt a sense of belonging to the organization they worked for. Self-ratings of health and mental health, including 5-point Likert-scaled single items, were used as general health indicators. Respondents were also asked whether they had psychological difficulty (learning, remembering or concentrating), mental health conditions and permanent or recurring pain. Stress was assessed using a single-item measure of experienced stress feelings: when respondents said that most days were "quite stressful" or "extremely stressful," they were regarded as experiencing a high level of stress. Respondents were also asked to rate their level of satisfaction with the balance between their job and home life, with their life as a whole, with their standard of living and with what they were achieving in life: when respondents rated 7 or more on the scale from 0 to 10, they were regarded as satisfied.

Hostile Behaviour

Five types of workplace harassment were examined in the GSS survey: verbal abuse, humiliating behaviour, threats, physical violence, and sexual harassment (Hango & Moyser, 2018). Three different perpetrators were also listed as potentially responsible for each of the categories of harassment in the workplace: supervisor or manager, co-worker or peer, and client or customer. The five different types of harassment were combined to derive three general measures of hostile behaviours

from supervisors, peers and clients. Two indicators were derived from the different types of unfair treatments at work, namely subtle discrimination or micro-aggression (being ignored by others, made to feel uncomfortable, or being talked about behind your back) and employer favoritism (denying promotions or training or giving too much work or less challenging work).

Working Conditions

Participants were asked how often they considered their workload manageable and how often they were able to complete their assigned workload during their regular working hours. Respondents were also asked how often they were able to choose the sequence of their tasks and how easy it was for them to take an hour or two off for personal or family matters during working hours. To measure organizational procedural injustice, respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with the two following statements: "I have opportunities to provide input into decisions" and "Work is distributed fairly in my workplace." Respondents were also asked how often in the previous month their co-workers had tried to take credit for work that they had done or tried to give them work that was their responsibility. Indicators were derived for level of help and support and for level of conflicts with both co-workers and supervisors. An overtime indicator was used when they reported working more than 48 hours a week. Respondents who reported usually working even some of their scheduled hours at home were regarded as teleworkers. Lastly, two additional indicators of poor relationships with co-workers were used: no friends at work and competition with co-workers.

Employment Conditions

Eight different indicators were used to measure poor employment conditions or employment strains: irregular employment term (seasonal, temporary, casual or on call); insurance benefits (pension plan, disability insurance or supplemental medical or dental care); leave benefits (paid sick leave, vacation leave or maternity/parental leave); atypical work schedule (evening or night shift, rotating or split shift, compressed work week, on call or irregular); non-coverage status (not covered by a collective agreement); self-reported over-qualification; inadequate match between skills and duties (when respondents declared having the skills to handle more demanding duties); and poor prospects for career advancement.

Hard Work Ethic

To measure hard work ethic, this study used a one-dimension (3-item) scale derived from the Blau and Ryan (1997) Protestant Work Ethic multidimensional scale. Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with the three following statements: "I am happiest when I work hard"; "I am willing to put in the extra effort to get the job done, even if I am not rewarded for it"; and "The best reward from working is a sense of accomplishment." Item responses ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 10 (strongly agree). The Cronbach alpha for hard work ethic was 0.63. Raw item scores were summed and averaged. A four-level ordinal variable was derived: very high, high, fair and low level of hard work ethic.

Resilience

To measure resilience, this study used a one-dimension (5-item) scale derived from Wagnild and Young (1993). Respondents were asked to rate how often they a) had enough energy to meet life's challenges, b) had a hopeful view of the future, c) were confident in their abilities, even when faced with challenges, d) had something to look forward to in life and e) were able to bounce back quickly after hard times. The Cronbach alpha for resilience was 0.79. Raw item scores were summed and averaged. A four-level ordinal variable was derived: very high, high, fair and low level of resilience.

Covariates

Educational status and personal income were classified on a five-level hierarchy. Occupation was used to derive a six-group nominal variable: managers, experts, technicians, supervisors, white-collar workers, and blue-collar workers. A dummy variable comparing women to men was used. Ethnic identity was

simply measured by a three-group nominal variable: visible minority, aboriginal and white. Three age groups were distinguished: 15-34; 35-54; 55-64. One indicator of physical disability was also used to identify those who reported being "sometimes," "often" or "always" limited in their daily activities due to a physical difficulty (seeing, hearing or mobility-related).

Analytical Strategy

Our analysis consisted of two main steps. In the first step, LCA was used to identify subgroups of individuals showing similar profiles. In the second step, logistic regressions were performed to predict latent class membership. All statistical analyses were performed using Stata software.

LCA was applied to psychosocial risks and well-being profiles to identify the different clusters. For the purpose of statistical model selection, we used the relative improvement in model fit (based on the log-likelihood-function) between the k-class and the (k + 1)-class model, the Akaike information criterion (AIC; Akaike, 1998) and the Bayesian information criterion (BIC; Schwarz, 1978), which are the most frequently used indicators for defining the number of latent classes. Stata's command gsem (generalised structural equation modelling) was used to fit the latent class models. For the analysis of each latent class model, constraints were applied to set the logit intercepts of problematic variables at -15 or +15, and the model with the usual tolerance options was run to ensure a stable globally maximum likelihood model fit.

Binary logistic regression analyses were performed on the modal latent class values associated with each respondent. The indicators of social positions, identities, and workers' character traits were used as independent variables. Cross-tabulation was used to describe the statistical associations between the modal latent class and the two character traits (resilience and hard work ethic). The gross and net odd ratios were calculated to study the latent class membership. Weighted estimates and bootstrap variance estimates were used to take into account the complex survey design in the prediction of latent class membership.

Results

Table 1 shows the results of the latent class modelling for the data when one to seven latent class solutions were specified as possible model solutions. The likelihood increased only slightly from the 3-class model to the 7-class model, and the BIC and CAIC values pointed to the 5- or 6-class solution. The 6-class solution seemed both to best fit the data and permit good differentiation of the posterior probability profiles.

The model divided the GSS respondents into six profiles, which constituted approximately 8% (Cluster 1), 12% (Cluster 2), 13% (Cluster 3), 11% (Cluster 4), 32% (Cluster 5) and 24% (Cluster 6) of the population. Table 2 presents the estimated mean for 19 items in the six-class model based on the median latent class values of posterior probabilities. These 19 items have been selected amongst the 41 items used in the latent class modeling to illustrate the most striking differences between the various clusters.

The first and fifth profiles were the two most diametrically opposed clusters: 32% of the Canadian employees (Cluster 5) were "not exposed" and had a sense of overall satisfaction, while 8% of them (Cluster 1) were "heavily suffering," exposed to an overlapping set of psychosocial risks and reported a lower overall well-being. Workers from Cluster 1 reported the lowest level of well-being on nine indicators and the highest psychosocial risks on 21 indicators. While 37% of the employees in Cluster 1 had been humiliated in the previous year and 41% had experienced harassment from supervisors, no employees from Cluster 5 had been exposed to hostile behaviour. Poor prospects for career advancement were faced by 66% of these "heavily suffering" employees compared to only 18% of the workers in the "not exposed" Cluster.

While Cluster 1 scored higher on three indicators of harassment (humiliating behaviour, harassment from supervisors and peers), Cluster 4 scored higher on three others (verbal abuse, threats, physical violence, and harassment from clients). However, the workers from Cluster 4 did not report significantly lower well-being; instead, they had a probability of

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Table 1

Model selection criteria of the seven models (N=5867)

	LL	Δ LL	BIC	Δ BIC	AIC	Δ AIC
Model 1 - 1 class	-121258,1		242932,7		242612,2	
Model 2 - 2 class	-114052,5	6,32	228946,6	6,11	228299	6,27
Model 3 - 3 class	-112684,2	1,21	226574,5	1,05	225646,4	1,18
Model 4 - 4 class	-111038	1,48	223663,9	1,30	222442	1,44
Model 5 - 5 class	-109854,7	1,08	221644,4	0,91	220155,4	1,04
Model 6 - 6 class	-109155,1	0,64	220522,9	0,51	218820,2	0,61
Model 7 - 7 class	-108627,6	0,49	219875,6	0,29	217859,1	0,44

LL: Log-likelihood. Δ LL = $((-2 \cdot LLk-1) - (-2 \cdot LLk))/(-2 \cdot LLk) \cdot 100$.
BIC: Bayes Information Criterion.
AIC: Akaike Information Criterion.

overall satisfaction with their jobs (94%) that significantly exceeded the overall relative frequencies of all workers in the sample (85%). Workers from this fourth cluster can thus be labelled as "untroubled harassed." The differential of well-being between the fourth and first clusters can be explained by the type of perpetrator (58% were harassed by clients in Cluster 4 compared to only 29% in Cluster 1), as well as by the other differentials of psychosocial risks, particularly poor prospects for career advancement (22% compared to 66%), opportunities to provide input (93% compared to 52% respectively) and supervisor's social support (89% compared to 56% respectively). These harassed workers thus appeared to be "untroubled" because they had relatively good working and employment conditions.

Clusters 2 and 6 can both be labelled as "precarious" clusters: while Cluster 6 was defined by the high probability of people in this group getting no social benefits, Cluster 2 workers were characterized by higher rates of irregular work schedules and poorer terms of employment. However, Cluster 6 workers are identified here as "optimistic precarious" job holders since they were no different from the "not exposed" workers on any of the indicators of well-being. Comparatively, Cluster 2 workers not only reported lower job satisfaction (45% compared to 99%), but also the lowest sense of accomplishment (14%), of usefulness at work (41%) and of belonging to the organization (36%). This cluster of workers is thus labelled here as "unfulfilled precarious." Their much lower sense of accomplishment can be attributed to overlapping exposure to different poor working and employment conditions, such as lack of procedural justice, poor prospects for career advancement and an inadequate match between their skills and knowledge.

A last cluster is labelled as "unhealthy stressed." This cluster indeed turned out to be the unhealthiest cluster of workers, as they reported the lowest self-ratings on physical and mental heath indicators and were as likely to experience psychological difficulty, pain and stress in life as the

Table 2

Latent class analysis profile (%)

	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six	Total
Cluster size	**8**	**12**	**13**	**11**	**32**	**24**	**100**
Well-being indicators							
Job satisfaction	34,5	45,3	86,2	94,2	99,1	98,6	85,1
Achievements in life	29,6	50	47,9	85	94,3	89,4	75,6
Sense of accomplishment	22,8	14,1	74,8	82,8	88,4	90,1	72.3
Sense of belonging	40,2	36,2	85,9	89	96	94,5	82,6
Good mental health	24,1	62	19	61,1	77	81,8	62,7
Stress in life	49,4	15,2	45,1	25	16,3	10,8	22,3
Hostile behaviour/conflicts							
Verbal abuse	56	0	0	69,6	0	0	12,4
Humiliating behaviour	37	0	0	19,2	0	0	5,2
Harassment from supervisors	40,7	0	0	17,8	0	0	5,3
Harassment from clients	28,7	0	0	58	0	0	8,9
Micro-aggressions	29,1	4,1	5,7	12,1	0	0	5,0
Conflicts with supervisor	56,5	19,3	30	23,3	8,7	6,6	17,8
Working/employment conditions							
Opportunity to provide input	51,9	68	92,9	93,3	95,9	96,8	88,5
Supervisor support	55,5	74,6	89,1	88,7	96,6	95,5	88,5
Competition	47,4	23,4	40,3	31,6	23,2	15,9	26,6
Insurance benefits	35,7	39,8	47	62,3	100	6,1	54,1
Bad prospects for careers	65,5	58,6	27,9	22,1	17,9	18,2	28,4
Job mismatch	38,7	33,8	14	17,9	8,9	10,5	16,3
Irregular term	13,8	21,7	13,7	12,4	6,5	17,2	13,0

"heavily suffering" workers from Cluster 1. While these workers did not experience any harassment behaviours in their workplace, they nonetheless faced higher levels of conflicts and competition.

Table 3 shows the distribution of the modal latent class values over the two character traits: hard work ethic and resilience. The results highlighted a clear and substantial statistical association between the modal latent class values and the workers' character traits. Workers with a stronger work ethic and resilience tended to be overrepresented in the two "most satisfied" and "less exposed" clusters, but underrepresented in the three "most unsatisfied" and "exposed" clusters. The prevalence of non-resilient workers was found to be particularly low in the "not exposed" (9%) and "optimistic precarious" clusters (12%), and very high among the "heavily suffering" employees (61%) and the "unhealthy stressed" workers (40%). Similarly, the prevalence of workers with a weak work ethic was found to be very low in the "not exposed" (8%) and "optimistic precarious" (12%) clusters, but very high in the "heavily suffering" (31%) and "unfulfilled precarious" clusters (36%).

The analysis of the net effects of the character traits and covariates makes it possible to confirm the central role of work ethics and resilience in explaining each class membership. A gender effect was clear, in that women were more likely than men to be classified as "untroubled harassed" and less likely to be classified as "unfulfilled precarious." There was also clear evidence of systematic inequalities due to physical limitations: 20% (16%) of the "heavily suffering" employees ("unhealthy stressed") were "often" or "always" limited in their daily activities due to a physical difficulty (seeing, hearing, or mobility-related), compared to only 4-5% in the other clusters. Young employees were more likely to fall into the two precarious clusters. A social gradient was observed, albeit reduced and confined only to the "unfulfilled precarious" and "not exposed" clusters. After controlling for all these covariates, there is still a significant net effect of hard work ethic and resilience (Table 3). When all other covari-

ates are controlled for, the very highly resilient worker is twelve (eight) times less more likely to fall into the "heavy suffering" ("unhealthy stressed") cluster compared to a low resilient worker. Similarly, a worker with a very strong work ethic is six times less likely to fall into the "unfulfilled precarious" clusters compared to a worker with a weak hard work ethic.

Discussion and Conclusion

The first result of our study pertains to the impacts of workplace harassment, which were found to differ depending on the characteristics of two clusters: while there was a cluster of "heavily suffering" workers who were more exposed to all psychosocial risks (including workplace harassment), there was another cluster of "untroubled harassed" workers who were more frequently victims of verbal abuse and physical violence and more frequently harassed by clients, yet who did not report significantly lower well-being. This result confirms the findings of the multi-foci approaches to hostile behaviours, which show less deleterious effects of outside-initiated aggression (Hango & Moyser, 2018; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). However, this study innovates by showing that it is neither the type of perpetrator nor the form of harassment that is most predictive, but rather the overlapping of hostile behaviours, procedural injustice, lack of social support, and employment precariousness that substantially deteriorates workers' well-being. Harassment is thus negatively associated with workers' well-being when it is perceived as a breach of trust with the entire organization and society.

The second salient result concerns the impact of working and employment conditions on workers' well-being. The LCA pointed to two distinct "precarious" clusters. On the one hand, the "unfulfilled precarious" workers tended to be less often employed

Table 3. Latent class frequencies and net effects of hard work ethics and resilience

	Cluster 1 Heavy suffering		Cluster 2 Unfulfilled precarious		Cluster 3 Unhealthy stressed		Cluster 4 Untroubled harassed		Cluster 5 Not exposed		Cluster 6 Optimistic precarious		Total
Cluster size	8%		12%		13%		11%		32%		24%		-
	%	Net effect	%	Net effect	%	Net effect	%	Net effect	%	Net effect	%	Net effect	%
Hard work ethic													
Low	31	ref	36	ref	17	ref	15	ref	8	ref	12	ref	16
Fair	46	0,65**	42	0,42***	42	1,09	15	0,85	38	2,33***	41	1,37*	40
High	17	0,37***	16	0,2***	31	1,36	37	1,17	36	3,12***	30	1,19	30
Very high	6	0,35***	6	0,17***	10	1,03	13	0,97	18	3,3***	17	1,45*	14
Resilience													
Low	61	ref	30	ref	40	ref	17	ref	9	ref	12	ref	21
Fair	24	0,27***	28	0,73*	36	0,57***	33	1,4	29	2,44***	31	2,07***	30
High	12	0,13***	31	0,84	19	0,24***	38	1,5*	41	3,4***	37	2,28***	34
Very high	3	0,08***	11	0,64	5	0,12***	12	1,1	20	3,74***	20	3,15***	15

Estimation Method: maximum likelihood estimation. Bootstrapping was used to determine statistical significance.

Significance level: * for p < .05; ** for p < . 01; *** for p < .001.

as permanent workers with regular work schedules, and to have poorer prospects for career advancement, worse job matches, low procedural justice and low job latitude. They also reported a particularly low sense of accomplishment, of usefulness at work and of belonging to the organization. On the other hand, the "optimistic precarious" workers reported much lower social benefits yet did not report lower well-being. This result confirms recent findings that identify "optimistic precarious" job holders who are no different from workers in standard employment relationships on any of the indicators of well-being (Peckham et al., 2019). While this emerging literature suggests that these optimistic precarious workers may have other sources of health-protecting resources, our study shows that these workers have good reason to be "optimistic" since they are less exposed to irregular work schedules, lack of social support and procedural injustice, have better prospects for career advancement and jobs that match their skills and knowledge.

The last salient result pertains to the positive association between workers' character traits and their well-being: workers with a weaker work ethic and resilience tended to be overrepresented in the three "less satisfied" and "more exposed" clusters. This confirms the positive association between well-being and work ethic and resilience. This positive association is often seen as reflecting social selection or mediation, i.e. the process by which individuals with certain character traits are able to better select or shape their work environments through their higher work ethics (Furnham, 1984; Khan et al., 2015) or their higher resilience (Hartmann et al., 2020; Rees et al., 2015). Our results tend rather to suggest that hard work ethics and resilience are substantially reduced through distinct sensitization effects: overlapping exposure to precariousness, procedural injustice and poor prospects for career advancement reduces the hard work ethic, while overlapping exposure to hostile behaviour/conflicts and competition reduces resilience. However, the identification of a non resilient "unhealthy stressed" cluster of workers was somewhat unexpected since these workers did not experience any harassment behaviours in their workplace. Their lower resilience could be imputed to their experience of higher levels of conflict and competition. However, they might also tend to be oversensitive to conflicts and competition due to pre-existing lower resilience or mental conditions.

One limitation of our study is that it is based on data from a cross-sectional design. The relationships revealed thus do not allow for claims concerning causality between character traits or mental conditions and class membership (De Witte et al., 2016). Future research should therefore propose a general typology of workers, based on longitudinal measures of psychological risks and well-being. This typology could be used to control for pre-existing character traits or mental conditions or changing levels of well-being, work ethic and resilience over time due to exposure to psychosocial risks. The issue of causality also points to the need for future in-depth qualitative research based on life-story interviews. While a majority of studies have examined subjective data obtained from self-administered questionnaires, only a few studies have applied techniques such as observation or interviews (Häusser et al., 2010). Qualitative research might well reveal the mechanisms relating certain employment and working conditions to poor well-being.

Another limitation relates to the fact that the data were collected in a pre-COVID period. Psychosocial risks and well-being have become even more relevant in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic. Many people have experienced long-term unemployment in the personal services sector (such as retail, restaurant, and hospitality work), which precludes remote service delivery (Blustein et al., 2020). Certain workers have had to deal with the loss of childcare and with homeschooling requirements, both of which generate job uncertainty and anxiety, especially among working mothers (Petts et al., 2020). Even though essential workers have been at higher risk of contracting COVID-19, far too many of them have lacked adequate personal protective equipment (PPE), paid sick leave, and childcare services (Gaitens et al., 2021). Among essential workers, front-line healthcare workers have also had to deal

with COVID-19 patients' feelings of distress, which has been identified as a significant psychosocial risk factor affecting these workers' mental health (Franklin & Gkiouleka, 2021; Zaka et al., 2020). Remote workers have been forced to face the difficulties that come with switching to remote working, especially the effect of a work overload and social isolation (Prado-Gascó et al., 2020). Further research is thus needed to investigate how macro-events such as the COVID-19 crisis impact the relationships between psychosocial risks and well-being within organizations.

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Career Information Practices of Guidance Practitioners

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Abstract

Although career development theories underline the central role of information in career choice and studies show that guidance practitioners are among the main information sources of people making career choices, the actual information practices of these practitioners in their interventions remain fragmented. Moreover, the studies on the theme of career choice associating information, information sources and information practices (whether it is among guidance practitioners or individuals in career choice) offer little conceptualization on these notions. To fill this gap, an online survey of 330 guidance practitioners in Québec was conducted to specifically document their career information practices (information sources consulted and categories of career information sought). Statistical analysis showed that the main career information sought relates to central elements of career choice (training programs and occupations) and the main information sources consulted are non-human and institutional. In addition, some contextual elements are associated with seeking and selecting certain categories of information and sources. The discussion highlights the importance of digital sources in their information practices, the association between the populations served and the choice of information sources and categories of career information and the role of co-workers as information support on career and beyond.

Résumé

Bien que les théories du développement de carrière soulignent le rôle central de l'information dans le choix de carrière et que les études montrent que les praticiens de l'orientation figurent parmi les principales sources d'information des personnes en choix de carrière, les pratiques informationnelles effectives de ces praticiens restent fragmentées. Également, les travaux sur le choix de carrière associant information, sources d'information et pratiques informationnelles (chez les praticiens de l'orientation ou les individus en choix de carrière) conceptualisent peu ces notions. Un sondage en ligne a donc été réalisé auprès de 330 praticiens de l'orientation au Québec pour documenter spécifiquement leurs pratiques informationnelles (sources d'information consultées et catégories d'information sur la carrière recherchées). Les analyses statistiques montrent que les principales informations recherchées portent sur des éléments centraux du choix de carrière (programmes de formation et professions) et les principales sources d'informations consultées sont non-humaines et institutionnelles. Également, certains éléments contextuels sont associés au choix de certaines sources et catégories d'informations. La discussion soulignent l'importance des sources numériques, l'association entre les populations desservies et le choix des sources d'information et des informations recherchées et le rôle des collègues de travail comme support informationnel sur la carrière et au-delà.

Guidance practitioners in Québec – career, school, educational and occupational counsellors[1] (Emploi-Québec 2020a, 2020b; Ordre des conseillers et conseillères d'orientation du Québec [OCCOQ], 2020) – use career information to support people in career choice (Goudet et al., 2010; Gouvernement du Québec, 2017). The interventions of those members of the OCCOQ are framed by a general competency profile, and

1 Career counsellors are members of a professional association and are responsible for assessing and counseling individuals to help them define their educational and occupational path. Employment counsellors help individuals integrate or adapt to the labour market. Educational and occupational counsellors have the role of informing individuals about educational and occupational issues.

one sub-competency concerns the use of career information (OCCOQ, 2010). The development of skills associated with career information among guidance practitioners is also stressed by various stakeholders (Dislere & Vronska, 2020; Gacohi et al., 2017). A relevant, accurate and recent career information has a decisive influence on individuals' career choice (Gati & Levin, 2015; Jakšić & Perin, 2020; Owen et al., 2020). A lack of information is a major obstacle in making a career choice since it can lead to a difficulty in identifying educational options or planning for a job (Gati & Amir, 2010; Hirschi, 2011). Moreover, providing career information by guidance practitioners is one of the techniques with a significant effect on perceived self-efficacy related to career choice (Whiston et al., 2017)[2].

Before transmitting career information to people, guidance practitioners must seek and identify information sources to find it. Many approaches to seeking career information are available in academic publications such as methods for exposing the person to career information (Brown et al., 2003) or recommendations for using career information tools (Gore Jr. et al., 2012). However, these publications do not inform about sources and categories of career information that guidance practitioners actually mobilize in their interventions. In addition, career information seeking is generally defined in a perspective of matching an individual's' skills to the labour market needs (Brown, 2012; Conseil de l'information sur le marché du travail [CIMT], 2020; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2004). Nonetheless, this vision of career information seems to fit poorly today given the non-linear nature of occupational trajectories (Savickas & Pouyaud, 2016; Savickas et al., 2010). It is now more complex to make a career choice with the rapid development of information technology (Guichard, 2016). These changes make it more complex the monitoring of career information by guidance practitioners.

A review identified the main themes on career information practices of guidance practitioners (defined here as career information sources consulted and categories of career information sought).

Peripheral studies on this topic. Studies didn't specifically focus on their information practices, the latter being included in all other professional practices (counselling, assessment, etc.) (Ordre des conseillers et conseillères d'orientation et des psychoéducateurs et psychoéducatrices du Québec [OCCOPPQ], 2004a, 2004b). Other studies are not related to the specific context of guidance practitioners in Québec, emphasize relevance of information technology as an information source or a means of disseminating career information or focus on their information practices about professional development (Beidoglu et al., 2015; Belser & Mason, 2021; CIMT, 2019; Sampson et al., 2019; Samson et al., 2014).

Influence of factors on information practices. Some factors related to the work context strongly influenced information practices of mental health and human relations practitioners, field to which guidance practitioners in Québec belong (Du Preez, 2019; Moring, 2017; Olsson & Lloyd, 2017; Widén et al., 2014). Thereby, the mission of the organization or the needs of individuals served may lead practitioners to favor certain categories of information, professional experience may lead to favor some information sources and budgetary constraints may force to mobilize only non-paying information sources (Clavier, 2019; Gallagher & Olsson, 2019; Vest & Jasperson, 2012).

Emphasis on individuals making career choices. Studies show that guidance practitioners are one of the main information sources mobilized by people making career choice (Aley & Levine, 2020; Chin et al., 2018; Owen et al., 2020). But on the specific topic of career information practices, researchers' attention is mainly focused on individuals making career choices from various angles (information needs, information sources, parental influence, cognitive information process, etc.) in various populations (high school students, immigrants, gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, etc.) (Griffin et al., 2011; Hooley et al., 2015; Liou et al., 2009; Simões & Soares, 2010).

2 Having career information in career choice process also contributes, from a social justice perspective, to determining the range of possibilities people have (Sampson et al., 2020).

Conceptual issues. Studies do not always make a clear distinction between career information on the one hand and advice, opinions and recommendations about career on the other (Jenkins & Jeske, 2017; Kniveton, 2004; Yousefi, 2011). Furthermore, information source as a notion is rarely defined in these studies although there are several categories of sources (paper, digital, human). Regarding human sources, parents and friends do not necessarily have the expertise – as guidance practitioners – to provide relevant career information (Crowley & High, 2018; Owen et al., 2020). Finally, these studies focus either on occupational or educational information, whereas a study combining these two categories could be relevant for guidance practitioners as experts on both issues.

Although these review provide relevant elements of analysis (e.g., influence of contextual elements), it remains unclear how guidance practitioners in Québec specifically seek and find sources and career information as part of their interventions. Given the important role of guidance practitioners as information source in individual's career choice and limited scientific knowledge about their career information practices, it appears essential to examine this subject more precisely. Thus, this article aims to deepen the understanding of career information practices of guidance practitioners and its associations with specific work contexts.

Analytical Framework

Information Practices in Work Context

The field of library and information sciences (LIS) offers relevant conceptual and empirical work on information practices. Chaudiron and Ihadjadene (2009) showed that depending on the angle of analysis (information systems, users, information needs, seeking, valuation, etc.), epistemological and theoretical postures can vary greatly. Thus, several constructs are proposed: information seeking, information behavior, information use or information practices. Fischer, Erdelez and McKechnie in 2005 and Al-Suqri and Al-Aufi in 2015 cataloged the most influential theoretical models in various contexts to analyze information seeking behavior as the way people seek, select and use information through information sources. This theoretical corpus is however centered on population's information seeking behavior who seek information for themselves on various subjects (career, health, housing, entertainment, etc.).

Mc Kenzie (2003) and Savolainen (2008) conceptualize information seeking as information practices by offering a relevant perspective for our study. First, information practices are embedded in the contexts (social, political, cultural, economic) in which they occur, including workplaces. Second, they take into account both active information seeking activities (recognition of an information need and intentional actions to address it) as well as less-directed ones (obtaining information deemed relevant but not anticipated from non-specific actions). However, theses information practices are considered as everyday information seeking and do not take into account the specific issues of practitioners in workplaces.

There are few models for conceptualizing information practices in workplaces (Ihadjadene & Chaudiron, 2009; Widén, Steinerová and Voisey, 2014). A first conceptual approach focusses on the behavioral and cognitive dimensions of information seeking by analyzing the interactions between users and information systems. Although centered on users, the models of this approach all have in common to conceptualize information practices isolated from any context (the so-called «process-oriented» approach). A second conceptual approach, from management sciences, insists on information practices as a business intelligence activity. The main interest of these models is not so much the practitioners' information practices as the means to improve their work efficiency with so-called strategic information (Ayachi, 2007). This information seeking conception doesn't seem to correspond to the guidance practitioners' work in Québec, mainly focused on supporting individuals making career choices and working essentially in education and employability sectors (OCCOQ, 2021). A third approach proposes contextual models where

information seeking is conceptualized taking into account the work context, professional roles and tasks associated (Paganelli, 2016).

Given the guidance practitioners' specificities – diversity of tasks, populations served and sectors of activity (OCCOQ, 2021) – and the studies which stress the importance of various contextual elements on information practices in workplace, the model of Leckie, Pettigrew and Sylvain (1996) has been chosen. Based on empirical studies with professionals from the law, engineering and health care sectors, this model has been designed in a broad way in order to be used with different professional groups (Leckie, 2009). Unlike the samples of professionals studied to build this model – who seek information to make decisions mainly for themselves – guidance practitioners seek career information to help other people in career decision. Leckie, Pettigrew and Sylvain (1996) also note the variability of information seeking behavior of practitioners according to their status in their organisation, categories of people served, years of professional experience, expertise or tasks associated with their different professional roles – including assistance to people choosing a career. These factors, as contextual elements, might influence the choice, knowledge and usefulness of information categories and sources sought by guidance practitioners.

Studies mobilizing the model of Leckie et al. (1996) with other professional groups showed that contextual dimension seems to have a significant impact on the variability of information practices (Kwasitsu, 2003; Vakkari, 2005). Professionals must indeed deal with an organisational context which can foster or impede information seeking. The expression "information practices" is favored because it has the advantage of taking into account the contextual dimension in the activity of seeking information sources and information. In summary, based on definitions of Wilson (2016) and Savolainen (2008), we can conceptualize the career information practices of guidance practitioners as a set of actions and choices, embedded in a social context, for searching career information in different sources to support people in their career choice.

Information and Career Information

The notion of information is polysemous and mobilized in several disciplines. It has been conceptualized according to two main perspectives. First, objective information (as neutral content) is conceived as an object or a thing (Capurro and Hjørland, 2003) which exists in itself, independently of the person who seeks information and of the process of interpretation that this is based on information (Buckland, 1991). Second, subjective information is conceived as a sign which depends on the interpretation which is made of it. It is not fixed or defined in itself as information, but is part of a work of meaning or significance granted to it by the person (Le Codiac, 2004). This second approach does not dispute the objective nature of information that may exist in itself (such as statistics on employment, for example) but places greater emphasis on the subjective meaning that it may or may not assume depending on person's information needs (Gardiès et al., 2010). It is not so much the content of the information that matters as its relevance in a given context (Dinet & Rouet, 2002).

In this study, we do not favor a specific perspective. Indeed, as part of their search for information on educational and occupational issues, we know that guidance practitioners are looking for objective information (requirements for a training program, employment forecasts, etc.) (OCCOPPQ, 2004a, 2004b). Nevertheless, the information sought and obtained is not all retained by them. Just as they don't necessarily systematically consult all the information sources of which they are aware. This selection involves a process of analyzing, giving meaning and evaluating the relevance of information sources and information according to the person's career needs[3]. From this perspective, career information will be defined as "intellectual material needed by a person to

3 We join here the position of Kumar & Arulmani (2014): "while it is the government's role to make a robust labor market information system (LMIS) available, career guidance practitioners are expected to convert this data into information and customize it for their clients." (p. 237)

ease, resolve, or otherwise address a situation arising" (Shenton & Dixon 2004, p. 299) insofar as the guidance practitioner who seeks information to support the people in career choice. Career information will be structured around two main components: educational and occupational information (Kumar & Arulmani, 2014; Santamaria & Watts, 2003). Educational information refers to personal characteristics associated with training programs or continuing education, admission requirements, educational institution and financial support measures or psychosocial support measures to support school perseverance or achievement (Obermeit, 2012; Perna, 2006). Occupational information refers to working conditions, tasks, duties and training related to professions, labour market forecasts, unemployment rate, job search techniques, personal characteristics associated with professions, specific requirements or regulations, support measures and programs related to employment integration (Bimrose et al., 2006; Drummond et al., 2009). Focussing explicitly on educational and occupational issues based on objective information, this perspective is a first step in conceptually distinguishing career information from advice, recommendations or opinions from sources without career expertise.

Information Sources

According to these definitions, information and sources are therefore closely linked since the situation to be addressed influences the type of sources considered to be relevant (Byström, 2002). Here, the concept of source can be defined as a kind of repository that drains and provides potential information (Xu et al., 2006). From there, academic publications suggest taxonomies of information sources with two main categories: human (family, friends, teachers, guidance practitioners, etc.) and non-human sources (television, internet, books, etc.) as well as institutional or formal sources and those which are not (Agarwal et al., 2011). Human or not, institutional or formal sources relate to those whose mandate is to formally provide information on a specific field such as career information[4]. This taxonomy, without aiming to be exhaustive, appears appropriate because it covers a large part of the information sources likely to be consulted by practitioners. It first takes into account human sources, a category known to be predominant in information practices, whether in career choice or not (Aley & Levine, 2020; Chin et al., 2018). Second, it distinguishes the formal versus non-formal nature of information sources, because people seeking information do not only use formal sources to obtain information (Crowley & High, 2018; Robinson & Roksa, 2016).

The general research objective of this article aims to describe the career information practices of guidance practitioners. More specifically, it aims to:

1. Document the main career information sources mobilized (human or not, institutional/formal or not);

2. Document the main categories of career information sought (educational and occupational);

3. Test whether different parameters of the work context (field of expertise, sector of activity, population served, professional experience) are associated to the information sources mobilized and the categories of information sought.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants were active members of either one of the following professional associations in the career guidance field in the province of Québec, Canada: the OCCOQ, the Association Québécoise de l'information scolaire et professionnelle (AQISEP) and the Association Québécoise des professionnels en développement

4 An example of institutional information source in Québec is *IMT en ligne*, the main public website for labour market information. In the case of the information practices of young adults in their professional integration, Facebook is an example of non-institutional occupational information source (Supeno et al., 2021).

de carrière (AQPDDC)[5]. Participants were solicited on a voluntary basis through the mailing lists of the aforementioned professional associations. Email invitations including a link to the self-reported questionnaire were sent to OCCOQ, AQISEP and AQPDDC members via the organizations' mailing lists[6].

Participants were 330 guidance practitioners, among whom were career counsellors (84.2%), school counsellors (5.0%) and employment counsellors (3.4%). A total of 84.6% were women compared to 15.4% men. Participants were aged between 25 and 79 years old (M = 43.33; SD = 10.09) and had an average of 14.07 years of professional experience (SD = 8.77). The majority of the sample (97.1%) completed at least a bachelor's degree in career development or career guidance, and 89.3% of the sample completed a master's degree in the same field (licensed career counsellors in Québec are required to have a master's degree). Additionally, the majority of the sample worked for public school boards (46.6%), colleges (13.2%) or community organisations (17.7%). A total of 69.9 % of participants worked primarily with individuals without a high school or vocational training diplomas, while 64.5% worked primarily with individuals with mental health or neuropsychological disorders. 90.5% of participants reported that their main tasks included individual interventions, while 59.8% indicated that punctual event management (e.g., career fairs) was part of their main tasks.

Measures

Research data were collected using an online Limesurvey questionnaire, hosted on a secured server of the researchers' university. The questionnaire was pretested to assess relevance and clarity of the questions with a sample of Master's students in career guidance (n = 6) and career counsellors (n = 10) with various duration of professional experience (less than 5 years to 5+ years), job titles (career counsellor, employment counsellor, school counsellor, personal academic advisor[7]) and sectors of activity (education: high school, CEGEP and university[8]; employability; organizations). This pretest showed the general robustness of the questionnaire in terms of content and form.

The questionnaire was preceded by a consent form. The first section of the questionnaire asked about respondents' current employer and job title. The second section consisted of questions about the usage frequency of career information sources (non-human sources, institutional human sources and non-institutional human sources)[9] as well as categories of career information sought (educational and occupational information)[10] on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "never" to "always." Here are two sample questions from this section: "Here is a list of sources of educational and occupational information that could be used in your guidance interventions. When you seek information in your interventions, how often do you use the following sources?" (career information sources); "When you seek information as part of your guidance

5 In the absence of an organisation that gathers all guidance practitioners, those three main organisations affiliated to the field were selected. The OCCOQ grants licenses to practice to career counsellors whose professional title and the practice of certain assessment activities are reserved.

6 Considering that participants can be members of one, of two or of these three organizations and that the number of members of AQISEP and AQPDDC is unknown, the survey exact participation rate cannot be determined. However, 302 participants are members of the OCCOQ. As this organization had 2,394 active members during data collection (OCCOQ, 2019), the participation rate for these participants is estimated at 12.6%.

7 Personal academic advisors work in CEGEPs to help students choose academic courses better suited to their needs.

8 In Québec, high school is mandatory and represents five years of general formation following 6 years of primary school. CEGEP is post-secondary education where students can choose between courses that are uniquely preparatory to university or technical programs that allow them to go directly on the labour market or to university. University is accessible to anyone with a CEGEP diploma or any adult (21 years and older) with qualifying professional experience.

9 Career information sources are presented in Table 1

10 Categories of career information are presented in Table 2.

interventions, how often do you seek information on the following?" (categories of career information). The third section included questions about age, gender, training, professional experience, population served, main tasks and responsibilities, working language, and professional affiliations[11].

Data Analysis

Descriptive analyses were conducted to document the main career information sources consulted by guidance practitioners as well as the main categories of career information they seek. Independent sample t-tests and analyses of variance were then performed to compare usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information according to field of study, workplace and population served.

To conduct these analyses, sources and types of career information were grouped into categories on a theoretical basis. Career information sources were grouped into three categories according to the taxonomy that was previously adopted (see analytical framework): institutional human sources; non-institutional human sources; non-human sources. Career information categories consulted were grouped into four categories related to the two main components identified in the literature (educational and occupational information): characteristics of training programs; school-based support measures; information and characteristics related to occupations, trades and jobs; employability and related support measures. An overall score was computed for each category using mean scores of items composing it.

A higher score means a more frequent use of those sources or categories of career information. Regarding comparison variables, field of study was divided into two categories: career guidance and career development fields [certificate, bachelor's degree or master's degree] or any other field (e.g., psychology, social work).

Workplace was divided into six categories: public school board; CEGEP; university; community organisation; self-employment; and other. Populations served were processed as binary variables corresponding to whether or not practitioners mainly worked with the seven proposed populations: individuals who are not functionally proficient in either French or English; immigrants; individuals without a high school or vocational training diploma; individuals with mental health or neuropsychological disorders; individuals with physical disabilities; individuals with intellectual disabilities; and individuals with limited skills in information and communication technologies.

Moreover, these categories were not mutually exclusive, meaning that participants could select more than one population. Finally, Pearson correlations were also conducted to test associations between usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information and professional experience.

Ethical Considerations

The present study has been approved by the ethics committee of the researchers' university and adheres to its ethical standards. In order to obtain the free and informed consent of participants, a consent form preceded the online questionnaire. By agreeing to complete the questionnaire, respondents indicated their consent to participate in the survey. After transferring the survey data to the database, all identifying data were removed and only identification numbers were kept to maintain anonymity. In order to ensure confidentiality, the data are stored electronically on a secured password-protected server of the researchers' university as well as in a password-protected database. Only members of the research team have access to the data.

Results

Main Career Information Sources

Table 1 presents usage frequency of career information sources. Results show that non-human sources are more frequently used by guidance practitioners than other sources. Indeed, most participants regularly use specialized educational and occupational information websites (89.1%), educational institutions' websites (85.6%), and websites of regional

11 A French version of the questionnaire is available through the first author.

Table 1

Usage frequency of career information sources

	N	Occasional use (%)	Regular use (%)
Non-human sources			
Specialized educational and occupational information websites	404	10.9	89.1
Educational institutions' websites	402	14.4	85.6
Websites of regional college and professional admission services	404	36.4	63.6
Newsletters	401	61.6	38.4
Government agencies and departments websites	398	63.3	36.7
Leaflets and brochures	402	69.4	30.6
Specialized books on educational and occupational information	398	72.1	27.9
Online job search engines	402	78.6	21.4
Professional orders and associations websites	404	82.2	17.8
Social media	401	83.5	16.5
Labour market partners websites	400	84.0	16.0
Websites of employment assistance organisations	399	88.7	11.3
Abroad study and employment websites	401	95.5	4.5
Institutional human sources			
Guidance practitioners within the organisation	365	54.2	45.8
Other professionals within the organisation	388	63.4	36.6
Non-practitioners within the organisation[13]	382	86.9	13.1
Non-institutional human sources			
Guidance practitioners outside the organisation	400	77.5	22.5
Other professionals outside the organisation	400	86.0	14.0
Non-practitioners outside the organisation	395	93.9	6.1
Specialized lists or discussion forums	397	94.2	5.8

[13] Non-practitioners within the organization refer here to people whose occupation does not correspond to the conception of the profession as generally defined in the sociology of professions and which meets the general characteristics of practitioners in guidance, mental health and human relations in Québec (specific expertise, university training, complex knowledge, regulated access to the field of practice) (Dubar et al., 2015).

college and professional admission services (63.6%). Human sources are much less frequently used by guidance practitioners, the most regularly used being institutional sources: 45.8% of participants consult with fellow guidance practitioners within their organisation while 32.6% consult with other professionals within their organisation.

Main Categories of Career Information Sought

Table 2 shows the frequency at which guidance practitioners seek different categories of career information. Regarding educational information, guidance practitioners most regularly seek information about admission requirements for training programs (91.8%); institutions where training programs are offered (91.0%); training programs content (88.4%) and employment opportunities related to training programs (76.5%). Occupational information most regularly sought are those regarding tasks, duties and training related to professions; trades and jobs (92.8%); working conditions associated with professions; trades and jobs (85.4%); personal characteristics associated with professions, trades and jobs (83.6%); specific requirements or regulations associated with professions; trades and jobs (79.5%), as well as information about job offers in the labour market (56.4%).

Table 2

Usage frequency of career information

	N	Occasional use (%)	Regular use (%)
Educational information			
Admission requirements for training programs	379	8.2	91.8
Institutions where training programs are offered	378	9.0	91.0
Training programs description and content	378	11.6	88.4
Employment opportunities and prospects related to training programs	379	23.5	76.5
Financial support measures in training programs	376	75.0	25.0
Support measures for mental health as well as physical and intellectual limitations related to training programs	375	84.8	15.2
Support measures regarding student retention in training programs	377	84.9	15.1
Psychosocial support measures and programs related to training programs	375	89.3	10.7
Legal or regulatory information on training programs	372	92.7	7.3
Occupational information			
Tasks, duties and training related to professions, trades or jobs	377	7.2	92.8
Working conditions associated with professions, trades and jobs	377	14.6	85.4
Personal characteristics associated with professions, trades and jobs	377	16.4	83.6
Specific requirements or regulations associated with professions, trades and jobs	375	20.5	79.5
Information about job offers in the labour market	376	43.6	56.4
Information on labour market standards and regulations	372	76.6	23.4
Job search strategies and techniques	375	77.9	22.1
Support measures and programs related to continuing education	373	82.6	17.4
Employability support measures and programs	368	83.4	16.6
Support measures for mental health as well as physical and intellectual limitations related to employment integration or adjustment	374	86.4	13.6
Psychosocial support measures and programs related to employment integration or adjustment	372	87.4	12.6
Legal information related to employment integration or adjustment	369	95.4	4.6
Other information			
Information about mental disorders and mental health	373	73.5	26.5
Medical information	368	78.8	21.2

Associations Between Career Information Practices and Work Context

Table 3 presents the results of independent sample t-tests examining associations between field of study and usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information. Significant associations, with moderate to large effect size, were found between field of study and usage frequency of non-human sources ($t(264) = -2.03$; $p = .04$; $d = .58$), information regarding school-based support measures ($t(264) = -2.40$; $p = .02$, $d = .81$), as well as information on employability and related support measures ($t(264) = -2.32$; $p = .02$, $d =$

Table 3

Associations between field of study and usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information

	Career guidance/development (n = 259)		Other fields (n = 7)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*	*d*
Sources of career information[14]						
Institutional human sources	1.98	.77	1.86	1.14	.40	.12
Non-institutional human sources	1.45	.62	1.59	.87	-.65	.20
Non-human sources	2.05	.47	2.40	.70	-2.03*	.58
Categories of career information						
Characteristics of training programs	3.25	.65	3.39	.57	-.58	.24
School-based support measures	1.44	.75	2.14	.96	-2.40*	.81
Information and characteristics related to occupations, trades and jobs	3.24	.67	3.39	.56	-.60	.25
Employability and related support measures	1.48	.85	2.23	.98	-2.32*	.83

Note. * = p < .05. M = Mean. SD = Standard deviation.

[14] The items assessing the types of career information sources are shown in Table 1 and the items assessing the career information categories are shown in Table 2.

.83). Specifically, guidance practitioners with a career guidance background less frequently used non-human sources and less frequently sought information about school-based support measures as well as employability and related support measures than other practitioners.

Table 4 provides the results for the analyses of variance with post-hoc tests[12] examining associations between workplace and usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information. Significant associations were found between workplace and the use of institutional human sources ($F_w(5,338) = 2.62$; $p = .03$; $\omega^2 = .05$), non-institutional human sources ($F(5,338) = 3.05$; $p = .01$; $\omega^2 = .03$), information regarding school-based support measures ($F_w(5,338) = 4.47$; $p = .001$; $\omega^2 = .04$), information and characteristics related to occupations, trades and job ($F_w(5,338) = 4.53$; $p = .001$; $\omega^2 = .04$), as well as information regarding employability and related support measures ($F(5,338) = 15.85$; $p < .001$; $\omega^2 = .18$). More specifically, according to post hoc comparisons using Bonferroni correction (when variances were equal) and Games-Howell (when variances were unequal), self-employed guidance practitioners use institutional human sources less frequently than guidance practitioners who work in public school boards, CEGEPs, universities or community organisations, but use non-institutional human sources more often than guidance practitioners working in public school boards, CEGEPs or community organisations.

It also appears that guidance practitioners who work in public school boards and community organisations as well as self-employed practitioners use non-human sources more frequently than those working in other workplaces. In addition, guidance practitioners who work in CEGEPs less frequently seek information about school-based support measures than guidance practitioners working in public school boards and community organisations. CEGEP practitioners also less frequently seek information

12 When variances are equal, Tukey's correction is retained for post-hoc comparisons. When variances are unequal, Welch's test, as well as the Games-Howell correction for post-hoc comparisons are used.

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Table 4

Associations between workplace and usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information

	Public school board (n=166)	CEGEP (n=47)	University (n=19)	Community organisation (n=63)	Self-employed (n=20)	Other (n=14)		
	M SD	M SD	M SD	M SD	M SD	M SD	F(5,338)	ω^2
Sources of career information								
Institutional human sources	2.01 (.74)$_a$	1.96 (.66)$_a$	2.02 (.67)$_a$	2.05 (.75)$_a$	1.08 (1.03)$_b$	1.87 (.82)$_{a,b}$	2.62* ^{e}	.05
Non-institutional human sources	1.39 (.63)$_a$	1.38 (.64)$_a$	1.64 (.72)$_{a,b}$	1.39 (.62)$_a$	1.69 (.61)$_b$	1.38 (.59)$_{a,b}$	3.05*	.03
Non-human sources	2.03 (.47)$_a$	1.99 (.45)$_{a,b}$	2.02 (.54)$_{a,b}$	2.09 (.42)$_a$	2.09 (.60)$_a$	1.81 (.45)$_b$	2.26*	.02
Categories of career information								
Characteristics of training programs	3.31 (.54)	3.37 (.59)	3.03 (.87)	3.34 (.64)	3.29 (.87)	2.55 (1.06)	2.08^e	.05
School-based support measures	1.49 (.72)$_a$	1.12 (.51)$_b$	1.77 (1.01)$_{a,b}$	1.62 (.70)$_a$	1.54 (.88)$_{a,b}$	1.14 (.87)$_{a,b}$	4.47** ^{e}	.04
Information and characteristics related to occupations, trades and jobs	3.19 (.64)$_a$	3.10 (.70)$_a$	3.00 (1.03)$_{a,b}$	3.51 (.49)$_b$	3.30 (.78)$_{a,b}$	2.96 (.85)$_{a,b}$	4.53** ^{e}	.04
Employability and related support measures	1.34 (.75)$_a$	1.06 (.67)$_{a,b}$	1.74 (.93)$_{a,c}$	2.12 (.72)$_c$	1.81 (.83)$_c$	1.70 (.75)$_{a,c}$	15.85***	.18

Note. n = 339. M = Mean. SD = Standard deviation. ^{e}Welch's statistic
Different subscript letters indicate significant differences between means at the $p < .05$ level. Same subscript letters indicate non-significant differences between means at the $p < .05$ level.
* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001

Table 5

Comparison between practitioners who serve individuals who are not functionally proficient in either French or English and those who don't on usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information

	Serving individuals (n = 42)		Not serving individuals (n = 283)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*	*d*
Sources of career information						
Institutional human sources	2.00	.63	1.93	.82	-.50	.09
Non-institutional human sources	1.47	.65	1.44	.64	-.31	.05
Non-human sources	2.16	.39	2.02	.50	-1.68	.30
Categories of career information						
Characteristics of training programs	3.34	.64	3.21	.69	-1.14	.19
School-based support measures	1.83	.71	1.42	.76	-3.29**	.56
Information and characteristics related to occupations, trades and jobs	3.43	.58	3.20	.68	-2.10*	.37
Employability and related support measures	1.94	.79	1.46	.83	-3.52***	.59

Note. *p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001. M = Mean. SD = Standard deviation.

about employability and related support measures than self-employed guidance practitioners as well as those working in community organisations, universities, and other workplaces. Moreover, public school boards practitioners less frequently seek information about employability and related support measures than community organisations and self-employed guidance practitioners.

Finally, community organisation practitioners more frequently seek information and characteristics related to occupations, trades and jobs than public school boards or CEGEP practitioners.

Table 6

Comparison between practitioners who serve individuals without a high school or vocational training diploma and those who don't on usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information

	Serving individuals (n = 236)		Not serving individuals (n = 89)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*	*d*
Sources of career information						
Institutional human sources	1.99	.75	1.80	.90	-1.84	.24
Non-institutional human sources	1.45	.65	1.41	.61	-.59	.07
Non-human sources	2.07	.49	1.96	.49	-1.78	.22
Categories of career information						
Characteristics of training programs	3.28	.63	3.09	.78	-2.23*	.26
School-based support measures	1.55	.77	1.26	.73	-3.16**	.39
Information and characteristics related to occupations, trades and jobs	3.28	.63	3.11	.77	-2.11*	.25
Employability and related support measures	1.61	.84	1.28	.80	-3.24**	.40

Note. *p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001. M = Mean. SD = Standard deviation.

Table 7

Comparison between practitioners who serve individuals with mental health or neuropsychological disorders and those who don't on usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information

	Serving individuals (n = 42)		Not serving individuals (n = 283)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*	*d*
Sources of career information						
Institutional human sources	1.95	.77	1.92	.86	-.25	.03
Non-institutional human sources	1.45	.66	1.41	.61	-.54	.06
Non-human sources	2.06	.47	2.00	.52	-1.03	.12
Categories of career information						
Characteristics of training programs	3.31	.65	3.07	.72	-3.04**	.35
School-based support measures	1.61	.72	1.20	.80	-4.72***	.54
Information and characteristics related to occupations, trades and jobs	3.28	.68	3.13	.67	-1.88	.22
Employability and related support measures	1.64	.80	1.28	.86	-3.75***	.43

Note. *p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001. M = Mean. SD = Standard deviation.

The aforementioned differences all showed small to moderate effect sizes, except for the one related to the use of information regarding employability and related support measures, which showed a large effect size according to Kirk's (1996) standards.

Furthermore, correlations between years of professional experience and usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information by guidance practitioners revealed only one significant positive association, although small, between years of experience and usage of non-human sources (r = .14; p = .01).

Subsequent tables (Tables 5 to 10) present independent sample t-tests results examining differences in usage frequency of career information sources and in categories of career information according to the populations served. Significant associations were found for all populations, except for immigrant populations. Thus, guidance practitioners who work with immigrant populations do not differ from those who don't on their information practices.

As presented in Table 5, guidance practitioners who work with individuals who are not functionally proficient in either French or English more frequently seek information about school-based support measures (t(323) = -3.29, p = .001, d = .56) as well as information regarding employability and related support measures (t(323) = - 3.52, p < .001, d = .59) than other guidance practitioners.

Table 8

Comparison between practitioners who serve individuals with physical disabilities and those who don't on usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information

	Serving individuals (n = 91)		Not serving individuals (n = 234)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*	*d*
Sources of career information						
Institutional human sources	1.99	.73	1.92	.82	-.79	.10
Non-institutional human sources	1.56	.63	1.39	.64	-2.22*	.27
Non-human sources	2.13	.46	2.00	.50	-2.18*	.27
Categories of career information						
Characteristics of training programs	3.31	.67	3.20	.69	-1.36	.17
School-based support measures	1.68	.78	1.39	.75	-3.21**	.39
Information and characteristics related to occupations, trades and jobs	3.39	.58	3.17	.70	-2.73**	.34
Employability and related support measures	1.78	.88	1.41	.80	-3.71***	.44

Note. *p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001. M = Mean. SD = Standard deviation.

Table 9

Comparison between practitioners who serve individuals with intellectual disabilities and those who don't on usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information

	Serving individuals (n = 53)		Not serving individuals (n = 272)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*	*d*
Sources of career information						
Institutional human sources	2.23	.63	1.88	.81	-3.53**	.48
Non-institutional human sources	1.60	.65	1.41	.64	-2.08*	.31
Non-human sources	2.11	.48	2.03	.49	-1.16	.17
Categories of career information						
Characteristics of training programs	3.27	.58	3.22	.70	-.48	.08
School-based support measures	1.78	.68	1.41	.77	-3.27**	.51
Information and characteristics related to occupations, trades and jobs	3.31	.58	3.21	.69	-1.00	.16
Employability and related support measures	1.74	.81	1.47	.84	-2.18*	.33

Note. *p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001. M = Mean. SD = Standard deviation.

Table 10

Comparison between practitioners who serve individuals with limited skills in information and communications technologies and those who don't on usage frequency of career information sources and categories of career information

	Serving individuals (n = 42)		Not serving individuals (n = 283)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*	*d*
Sources of career information						
Institutional human sources	1.98	.74	1.90	.85	-.90	.10
Non-institutional human sources	1.48	.63	1.40	.65	-1.23	.13
Non-human sources	2.12	.48	1.96	.49	-2.95**	.32
Categories of career information						
Characteristics of training programs	3.24	.67	3.21	.69	-.41	.05
School-based support measures	1.66	.76	1.29	.73	-4.50***	.49
Information and characteristics related to occupations, trades and jobs	3.29	.74	3.18	.61	-1.42	.15
Employability and related support measures	1.82	.80	1.24	.77	-6.69***	.73

Note. *p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001. M = Mean. SD = Standard deviation.

Similarly, guidance practitioners who work with individuals without a high school or vocational training diploma more frequently seek information about school-based support measures ($t(323) = -3.16$, $p = .002$, $d = .39$), as well as information on employability and related support measures ($t(323) = -3.24$, $p = .001$, $d = .40$) than other guidance practitioners do (see Table 6).

Regarding guidance practitioners who work with individuals with mental health or neuropsychological disorders, as compared to other guidance practitioners, they more frequently seek information about characteristic of training programs ($t(323) = -3.04$, $p = .003$, $d = .35$), school-based support measures ($t(323) = -4.72$, $p < .001$, $d = .54$) and employability and related support measures ($t(323) = -3.75$, $p < .001$, $d = .43$) (see table 7).

Guidance practitioners who work with individuals with physical disabilities use non-institutional human sources ($t(323) = -2.22$, $p = .03$, $d = .27$) and non-human sources ($t(323) = -2.18$, $p = .03$, $d = .27$) more frequently than other guidance practitioners. In addition, they more frequently seek information regarding school-based support measures ($t(323) = -3.21$, $p = .001$, $d = .39$), information and characteristics related to occupations, trades and jobs ($t(323) = -2.73$, $p = .007$, $d = .34$) and employability and related support measures ($t(323) = -3.71$, $p < .001$, $d = .44$) (see Table 8).

Guidance practitioners who work with individuals with intellectual disabilities use institutional human sources ($t(323) = -3.53$, $p = .001$, $d = .48$) and non-institutional human sources ($t(323) = 2.08$, $p = .04$, $d = .31$) more frequently than other guidance practitioners. They also more frequently seek information about school-based support measures ($t(323) = -3.27$, $p = .001$, $d = .51$) and employability and related support measures ($t(323) = 2.18$, $p = .03$, $d = .33$) (see Table 9).

As for guidance practitioners who work with individuals with limited skills in information and communication technologies, they more frequently use non-human sources ($t(323) = -2.95$, $p = .003$, $d = .32$) than other guidance practitioners and more frequently seek information regarding school-based support measures ($t(323) = -4.50$, $p < .001$, $d = .49$), as well as employability and related support measures ($t(323) = -6.69$, $p < .001$, $d = .73$) (see Table 10).

Discussion

The discussion is structured around six themes (Themes 1 to 3 for the first two specific research objectives, Themes 4 and 5 for the third specific research objective and Theme 6 regarding implications for practice). Regarding the results of association between career information practices and work context, given the number of analyses performed on the sample, the probability of Type I error is increased. To overcome this limitation, we decided to focus on results with moderate effect sizes or greater ($d \geq 0.50$; $\omega^2 \geq 0.06$) in this section. The effect sizes make it possible to better assess the magnitude of the differences between the groups than the p-value (Sullivan & Feinn, 2012).

The Digital and Institutional Nature of Privileged Sources of Information

The predominance of digital sources, all institutional or formal, testify their well-established importance in the career information environment of guidance practitioners, compared to the other categories of sources (e.g., specialized books, leaflets), which is consistent with studies that highlight the importance of digital technology in information practices (CIMT, 2019; Moring, 2017; Sampson et al., 2019). If human sources are less sought, the ones sought are usually institutional since it is above all guidance practitioners within the organization who are mobilized, followed by other practitioners but still within the organization (e.g, psychologists, social workers). The institutional nature of the main sources mobilized thus seems to indicate that their expertise in career information constitutes a criterion of choice for guidance practitioners (Clavier, 2019; Samson et al., 2014).

Predominance of Career Information Related to Characteristics of Training Programs and Occupations

Information concerning characteristics of initial training

programs (admission requirements, content, institutions) is more often sought than information about school-based support measures (e.g. financial support, psychosocial support). The most frequently sought occupational information relates directly to the professions (tasks, functions, working conditions, personal characteristics, job offers) rather than employment-related support measures (e.g., employment support, support programs). These categories of information therefore seems central in guidance practitioners' interventions regardless of their sector of activity. Considering that nearly 90% of the sample hold a master's degree in career counseling, it is possible that the main part of their professional tasks is to support people in clarifying educational or occupational choice (Samson et al., 2014) in different ways (e.g., individual or group counseling, information sessions).

On another note, anything relating to integration and retention in employment and continuing training did not constitute priority information sought by the majority of the sample. In addition, given that 64.5% of guidance practitioners declare working with people with mental health or neuropsychological disorders, it may be surprising that seeking information on various support measures (e.g., school perseverance, mental health) does not show up as a regular information practice.

Information and Sources Beyond Educational and Occupational Information

The mobilization of practitioners from other disciplines as information sources suggests that guidance practitioners also seek non-career related information deemed relevant for their interventions. Considering that a majority of guidance practitioners reported working with populations with mental health and neuropsychological disorders, these characteristics might influence their interventions to the point of seeking specialized information or sources. Table 1 indicates that medical, mental disorders and mental health information are regularly sought and used by at least one in five practitioners in the sample (while over 60% reported working with populations with these characteristics). This observation is consistent with studies highlighting the growing complexity of guidance interventions due in particular to issues other than career among the populations served (Walker & Peterson, 2012). On the other side, results also show that information related to support measures (mental health, psychosocial, etc.) is not frequently sought.

Workplace

The organizational proximity induced by working in the same workplace appears to be an element facilitating access to the main human sources declared that are guidance practitioners and other professionals within the organization. This proximity (organizational, social) with human information source is well documented (Agarwal et al., 2011; Supeno et al., 2016). Having access to practitioners offering support services might influence guidance practitioners' information practices. They would not only be less inclined to consult non-human sources, benefitting from information that is likely to be more personalized and contextualized or referring the individual served directly to these practitioners – which means not having to seek specific information on support measures (e.g., support school, mental health and psychosocial adaptation).

On another point, Table 4 indicates that CEGEP practitioners less frequently sought information about employability and related support measures than self-employed guidance practitioners as well as those working in community organisations, universities and other workplaces. In the same way, public school boards practitioners less frequently sought information about employability and related support measures than community organisations and self-employed guidance practitioners.

Associations Between Characteristics of Populations Served, Information and Sources

Information on academic support measures is more frequently sought by guidance practitioners who support people who are not proficient in either

French or English, who suffer from mental or neuropsychological disorders, with intellectual disabilities or with limited skills in information and communication technologies. This seems to indicate that supporting the career choice of these populations require specific information on support measures for school perseverance or psychosocial adaptation. This could therefore explain why other practitioners – probably in the field of psychosocial support – are declared as information sources as discussed previously.

In addition, information on employment and the associated support measures are more frequently sought by guidance practitioners who work with people who are not proficient in either French or English and those with limited skills in information and communication technologies. These two characteristics seem to indicate a matters of concern for these populations' employment. However, more analyses are needed to determine whether these guidance practitioners work more in community organizations for example whose mandate is focused on support for socio-professional integration.

The characteristics of populations served are also associated with certain types of sources. Guidance practitioners who work with people with intellectual disabilities more frequently use institutional human sources. This characteristic may imply such complexity in guidance intervention that it requires specialized human source in order to obtain personalized information – which a non-human source could not provide.

The survey did not investigate the reasons or circumstances in which these guidance practitioners may or may not mobilize human sources. Here is a research avenue to explore considering the important role of human sources in information practices. The model of Leckie et al. (1996) turned out to be theoretically relevant because results show that some contextual elements do influence the guidance practitioners' information practices (characteristics of the populations served and field of expertise). Other elements of the model, such as professional experience identified as important in other professional groups (Kwasitsu, 2003), was not associated to information practices. In addition, conceptually distinguishing human and non-human sources, as well as institutional ones, made it possible to refine the analysis.

Implications for Practice

While digital information sources have numerous advantages (Beidoglu et al., 2015), they nevertheless raise questions about the skills needed to assess their validity, quality and credibility as well as the information conveyed (Sampson et al., 2018). Faced with the rapid growth of digital information sources, guidance practitioners must remain vigilant and critical (Sampson & Osborn, 2014; Shen, 2016). A posture that can be developed either by following dedicated training courses or by calling on their colleagues to cross-check the information collected. In addition, the free availability of several web information sources also makes them accessible to the people served. First, it can lead them to questioning the guidance practitioner's expertise. Second, having access to information sources does not mean that the person is able to exploit their full potential as part of their career choice without the support of a guidance practitioner (Milot-Lapointe et al., 2017).

Our results showed the influence of the context and certain characteristics of the populations served which should be further explored in two directions. First, in terms of information seeking and needs of guidance practitioners. Secondly, in terms of adequacy between information sought and vocational needs of populations served. Indeed, information seeking or the consultation of non-career related sources of information by guidance practitioners working with populations suffering from various disabilities (neuropsychological, intellectual) or linguistic difficulties raise important questions about initial and continuing training of guidance practitioners on career information. In this regard, guidance practitioners working in organizations seem to be able to rely on other guidance practitioners as well as practitioners from related disciplines as human information sources.

On the other side, we may have a legitimate concern about the quality of the information support available (in terms of recency,

relevance and precision) for guidance practitioners working in organizations with less expertise or working alone like self-employed guidance practitioners. In this context, participation in discussion groups of guidance practitioners (face-to-face or via the Internet through discussion forums, for example) may constitute a relevant alternative to overcome this issue. Especially since we know that these practitioners may have doubts about their career information skills (OCCOPPQ, 2004a, 2004b).

Conclusion

The objective of this study was to describe the career information practices of guidance practitioners in Québec. The main findings show the predominance of digital and institutional information sources. The preference for institutional sources probably illustrates their credibility granted by guidance practitioners. Results also indicate that guidance practitioners mainly seek information directly related to training programs and professions. It should also be noted that, although almost two-thirds of the sample mentions working with people with mental and neuropsychological disorders, information related to support measures (e.g., mental health, school perseverance) is little sought after. Finally, among the different parameters of the work context (field of expertise, sector of activity, population served, professional experience) that are likely to influence the sources and information sought, some populations' characteristics and to a lesser extent, the field of expertise and the sector of activity point to some differences in information practices.

Limitations

Given that our sample is not representative of the population of guidance practitioners in Québec, the results cannot be generalized. It would be difficult to obtain such a representative sample since there is no organization in Québec gathering all guidance practitioners, given the diversity of their initial training, work contexts and populations served. It is also important to remember that multiple analyses were performed on the sample, which increases the probability of Type I error. As previously mentioned, the discussion focused on results with moderate or large effect sizes to overcome this limitation. In addition, a significant part of the sample works in the education sector – which gathers half of Québec's career counsellors, members of the OCCOQ (OCCOQ, 2021). On the basis of this research, future research could focus on certain sectors of activity – such as employment, rehabilitation, health and social services for example – or certain professional sub-groups specifically (e.g., employment counsellor, educational and occupational counsellor) to identify the potential particularities of their information practices.

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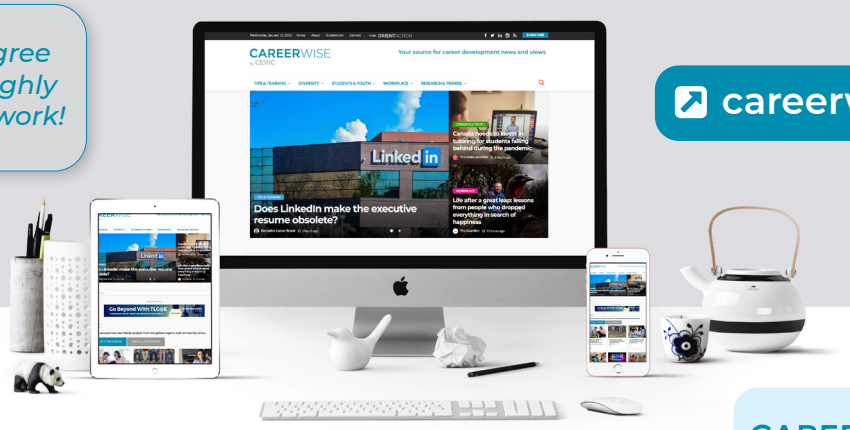

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CANADIAN JOURNAL OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT | REVUE CANADIENNE DE DÉVELOPPEMENT DE CARRIÈRE

A Needs Assessment of Virtual Career Practitioners

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Abstract

Like many other professionals, career development practitioners (CDPs) in British Columbia (BC) were forced to transition their services to virtual delivery at the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic. In 2012, a BC Centre for Employment Excellence sponsored study found that among various delivery methods, virtual services were least preferred by practitioners (Neault & Pickerell, 2013). The rapid shift to virtual work in 2020, unsurprisingly, left CDPs uneasy, unprepared, and unaware of how best to move forward. This research conducted a needs assessment of CDPs through a comprehensive survey based on The National Competency Profile for Career Development Professionals (Canadian Career Development Foundation [CCDF], 2021) and nine focus groups with practitioners working with underrepresented populations in the workforce. We found numerous areas of challenge for practitioners of all demographics. This report identifies which areas and competencies of service delivery have become easier for CDPs since the move to virtual services, and which areas have become harder, supporting survey results with focus group conversations.

Keywords: virtual service, competency, needs assessment, challenges

In 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic abruptly shifted many occupations, including those in the career development sector, to virtual[1] or remote work in hopes of continuing to provide client services while protecting both clients and workers. The shift to virtual service delivery was unanticipated and immediate, leaving service delivery workers to quickly replace face-to-face services with virtual in an unprecedented time of need. Throughout our study we focus on these methods of virtual service delivery that were necessitated out of emergency circumstances, including intentional ways of reaching out to clients such as phone calls, emails, online platforms, and subsequently creating online modules. Although some organizations and individuals had previously established virtual programs and services, for many others the lockdown necessitated some replacements or adaptations of traditional in-person services. These changes affected various social service fields, and many service providers began to work exclusively from home or in office spaces that allowed little to no in-person interactions with clients or colleagues. This move to virtual work continues to create unique challenges for the career development sector and career development practitioners (CDPs), as the long-term effects of COVID-19 on the labour market will likely be severe (Akkermans et al., 2020). Beyond the unemployment issues exacerbated by the pandemic, many individuals are transitioning between occupations, sectors, or regions during the pandemic (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2020). Many of the individuals now considering shifts in their careers would benefit from the expertise of CDPs to support career decision-making, planning, and implementation. The effects

1 Virtual work is also described in this paper as online work/service delivery; although they are different entities, our participants referred to them synonymously, and therefore so do we.

of this pandemic on a shifting labour market have created a "career-shock" that will have lasting impacts both locally and globally (Akkermans et al., 2020). CDPs play a large part in mitigating the impact of these current and anticipated changes (OECD, 2020), and career development services play a crucial role in solving the problems of workplaces in the emerging labour market (Luken, 2019). The OECD (2020) suggested that although some services may transition back to in-person work, digitization will continue to play a significant role in managing the anticipated influx of clients seeking CDP help. Trends in other industries suggest that remote and hybrid workforces will continue to increase (World Economic Forum [WEF], 2020). Additionally, some research suggests that developing competencies, such as those presented in The National Competency Profile for Career Development Professionals, along with improving resilience, may help to mitigate career shock (Akkermans et al., 2020).

Research Questions

This research project addressed, among others, one major question: Did the transition to virtual services make some skills/responsibilities more difficult for CDPs, and if so, what were they? To identify these potential skills gaps, this research comprised a needs assessment of CDPs delivering services in British Columbia. Through a virtual survey and nine focus groups with CDPs assisting underserved populations, this research identified the skills gaps that emerged or had been exacerbated during virtual service delivery. As labour markets move into the pandemic recovery stage, having both CDPs and clients learn and understand how to navigate the virtual world is critical if we are to meet the needs of the future world of work. As well, the implications of the pandemic may shift over time (Akkermans et al., 2020), indicating the necessity to have a plan and strong partnerships to mitigate these possible struggles and barriers.

Pre-Pandemic CDP Work

CDPs are not immune to the general challenges of everyday work in the 21st century, and virtual work has likely augmented and exacerbated pre-existing challenges for CDPs. The daily challenges that CDPs face transcend in-person service into the virtual world. The 2019 CERIC Survey of Career Service Professionals identified the top three barriers to success for CDPs in Canada as heavy workload, insufficient time with clients/students, and inadequate financial resources (CERIC, 2020). These challenges, as well as burnout and poor salary/income, were identified as the key issues causing career professionals to leave the field (CERIC, 2020). Considering that a strong post-pandemic economy and labour market will heavily rely on CDPs, and that some competencies are of particular importance to mitigate this shock and help clients through an unstable economy and labour market, identifying old and new areas of challenge for CDPs is crucial for post-pandemic stabilization. Addressing these issues ensures that the career development sector can band together to implement programs to alleviate any further challenges in the sector and sustain an increased workload.

Helping Skills and Mental Health

Despite the fact that CDPs are not therapists, counsellors, or psychologists, client-practitioner relationships are built through therapeutic methods such as active listening (Walters et al., 2014). However, a major source of challenge in hiring career service professionals is that "most candidates have limited counselling skills" (CERIC, 2020). As the realm of CDP work extends beyond career-related tasks and includes making impactful influences across many facets of clients' lives, helping skills - including active listening, reframing, and facilitating self-efficacy and self-confidence - are important in facilitating client-practitioner relationships and achieving evidence-based outcomes (CERIC, 2020; Walters et al., 2014). The competency of creating a client-practitioner relationship that works to "nurture a collaborative and trusting relationship" (Canadian Career Development Foundation [CCDF], 2021) is of utmost importance.

COVID-19 has facilitated an unprecedented change to the

fabric of society, resulting in isolation, job loss, poverty, and bans on proximal mental health supports, such as gyms and places of worship. COVID-19 has produced an increased number of people suffering from various mental health issues, including depression and anxiety (Abbott, 2021). Subclinical health struggles, such as difficulty with sleeping and eating, increased alcohol consumption and substance use, and worsening of chronic health conditions, have also increased throughout the pandemic (Panchal et al., 2021). There have also been reports of increased rates of suicidal ideation and attempts amongst youth (Hill et al., 2021) and adults (Fortgang et al., 2021). This may have put an unprecedented strain on existing mental health services, leaving many individuals without direct mental health aid.

Forging a positive client-practitioner relationship is a priority through these increased challenges. Mental health and mental illnesses are part of the career development field, whether acknowledged or not, where CDPs address and support psychosocial wellbeing (Redekopp & Huston, 2019). Although the distinction between CDPs and therapists/counsellors is an appropriate one to make - and should be very clear - skills transference between the fields can be helpful. Helping skills, including active listening, reframing, motivational interviewing, and facilitating self-efficacy and self-confidence, are incredibly important to client outcomes; however, they already exist as a skills gap for many CDPs and CDP candidates (CERIC, 2020). Counselling-related helping skills are integral in facilitating positive practitioner-client relationships (Walters et al., 2014).

Supporting Clients Virtually

A recent meta-analysis on virtual mental health therapy has shown that in-person and virtual interventions did not significantly differ in outcomes (Batastini et al., 2021). Hames and colleagues (2020) found that therapeutic modalities offered online are effective but posit that the effectiveness is contingent on specific competence to perform online therapy (e.g., therapeutic skills). However, as was noted above, CDPs have less experience and training with counselling-related helping skills, as well as a greater range of job responsibilities outside of counselling.

Forging a client-practitioner relationship is an integral prerequisite to any successful client outcome, but is also difficult, and has mitigating factors to consider. Within the client-practitioner relationship, Neault (2002) wrote that, of the difficulties facing practitioners, encouraging and promoting optimism and hope is perhaps one of the most arduous. This is significant, as facilitating optimism and hope in the face of career challenge is a substantial predictor for both career success and job satisfaction (Neault, 2002; Walters et al., 2014). Yukl (2006) identified three key client needs within the client-practitioner relationship that are necessary to meet prior to addressing any other goals: inclusion, affection, and shared control. Building these perspectives is contingent on overcoming the natural feeling of vulnerability and apprehension felt by many clients, typically by creating a relationship built on mutual trust, and the feeling that practitioners are collaborative, rather than authoritative (Walters et al., 2014); creating a space where a client feels that they "matter" is important (Schlossberg, Lunch, & Chickering, 1989). According to Amundson et al. (2009), mattering has three key components: visibility, offering of help, and active listening. According to Walters and colleagues (2014), mattering is often expressed not by verbal cues, but by non-verbal actions; clients can feel that they matter simply by being offered a drink or given the choice of which chair to sit in when arriving at the office. Moving to virtual services may make it difficult to show the client that the practitioner truly cares, as active listening is often non-verbal. However, it may also include verbal interactions that work well in person but become interruptive when on video or through the phone.

Walters, Shepard, and Mani (2014) identified major components of active listening, including skills that, although effective in person, can be distracting and interruptive in virtual settings. The absence of such components, however, can create challenges to forging a positive client-practitioner relationship and may ulti-

mately derail productive conversations. Vocal segregates, such as "mm-hmm", can be distracting and interruptive during video and phone calls. Following skills, such as repeating what someone is saying back to them after they speak, can derail otherwise productive conversations online. Providing clients with a feeling of visibility through practitioner affect can be difficult remotely. Reframing in person often occurs in the middle of emotional rants or stories, where the CDP may have to interrupt negative thought patterns to reframe them. Reducing client emotional outbursts, reacting appropriately to physical behaviours, and recognizing physical stress reactions such as sweating or fidgeting, may become more difficult over video. As well, there are further challenges that would have been near impossible to identify prior to moving online – camera angles make a large difference in how people maintain eye contact with other individuals. Depending on how the webcam is situated, there can be a miscommunication with respect to how attentive the participants of the call are (Chan & Au-Yeung, 2021). In order to create a positive and safe environment for the client to open up, and for the practitioner to move the conversations forward in positive, productive ways, a client-practitioner relationship must be forged. CDPs may already struggle with counselling-related helping skills (CERIC, 2020); moving client-practitioner interactions online may have exacerbated these gaps.

Emerging CDP Roles and Responsibilities

CDPs work with employers and stakeholders to create employment opportunities for clients in local contexts (CCDF, 2021). This may include working to address gaps in service, compiling lists of potential employers and employees, or initiating contact between employers and clients. CDPs need to support program developers in searching for and recruiting appropriate candidates and aiding in selection processes. Although the pandemic-related layoffs and shift to virtual services may have made community connections more difficult for CDPs to maintain, it is increasingly important that CDPs retain these relationships in order to support their clients (OECD, 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic will inevitably change labour markets and demands (OECD, 2020). According to the CCDF (2021), a CDP's role includes awareness of, and response to, these changes.

A transition to virtual work across many sectors means that CDPs may have to help clients with the digitization of their benefit plan systems or other work-related supports (OECD, 2020). CDPs must also be able to work with clients on various aspects of career development including creating resumes, communications, portfolios, and value propositions, securing good references, preparing for interviews, and establishing professional networks. CDPs must offer appropriate guidance tailored to their client's individual needs. As the types of available jobs shift, CDPs must be prepared to adjust their approach to working with clients. For example, CDPs may have to aid in preventing unemployment by guiding clients through new work agreements or terms, including an influx of short-time work (OECD, 2020). They will have to encourage job seekers to actively look for work and provide constantly updated information and training (OECD, 2020). CDPs may also need to host more virtual job fairs, and tailor goals to target employment that is available during the pandemic (OECD, 2020).

Sampson et al. (2020) discussed the transition to virtual services and recommended applying a change management strategy that puts the needs of the client first, blending types of technology and media. They suggested that it is necessary to work with existing cultures to create learning environments that best meet the needs of the client. Further, they concluded that CDP skills must evolve to meet the demands of a virtual environment and that this evolution is necessary for clients to access the expertise of career professionals. Banks and colleagues (2020) found that challenges for workers in the virtual social care field included maintaining trust, dignity, and service user autonomy during remote work. Another challenge was providing specific, tailored services to fit each individual clients' needs. Banks and colleagues (2020) found that a large challenge for workers was allocating the limited resources at their disposal, and balancing the rights and needs

of clients, practitioners, and other parties.

Virtual career development practice has potential limitations. Sampson et al. (2019) identified that virtual services may result in lower quality of assessments, lower quality of information, and various challenges with the technological abilities of both the practitioner and the client. Further, they acknowledged that CDPs themselves may not have the competencies to provide distance supports using technology. Sampson and colleagues (2020) concluded that CDP skills must evolve to meet the demands of a virtual environment and that this evolution is necessary for clients to access the expertise of career professionals. Additionally, Como et al. (2021), through a comprehensive review of relevant literature, identified that inadequate support for remote workers may cause a decline in mental and physical health if at-home working conditions are not ideal. The rapid switch to virtual service delivery, as well as added COVID-19 stress, complicates work-life wellness for both CDPs and the workers they help (Como et al., 2021). Como et al. (2021) highlighted that CDPs must continue to be aware of the implications of remote work when dealing with clients and that support must be maintained for both organizations and remote workers, including those working virtually. It is important to note that Neault and Pickerell (2013) had previously found that virtual services were the least preferred service delivery model for CDPs. Combining this with the novel challenges CDPs were facing during the COVID-19-related move to virtual services, indicated an urgent need for the current research.

CDP Competencies

The role of CDPs is complex, both in-person and in virtual service delivery. In order to create a solid foundation for the professionalization of the career development sector within Canada, a multi-year project has recently culminated in the new National Competency Profile for Career Development Professionals (2021). In this document, the Canadian Career Development Foundation (CCDF; 2021) identified 65 competencies across 16 series that are necessary for CDP success. These competencies are clustered into two sections: Professional Practice and CDP Characteristic. The delivery of these competencies through the work of dedicated CDPs is crucial for the future of Canadian job markets and economies (OECD, 2020). This new framework of competencies and skills will help to identify what the outcomes of CDP education, certification, and training should focus on, as well as provide a basis for evaluating the successes and needs of CDPs in BC and across Canada. These competencies come at a pivotal point for CDP workers, individuals, and organizations as the events of the global COVID-19 pandemic have forced many work operations to move fully or partially virtual.

The standardization of these competencies was occurring as the COVID-19 pandemic began; as such, there has been little to no research addressing these specific competencies. Research has also been limited on how the pandemic-related transition of CDP work to virtual environments has affected CDPs' ability to master and demonstrate these competencies. This study extends the literature by including the framework of these vital competencies. Through this lens, we were able to identify which actions related to CDP competencies pose the greatest challenge in providing virtual services, as well as which competencies CDPs self-identified as being undertrained in. Throughout this study we utilized the overall series of 16, as well as the specific competencies within them, as a basis for our inquiries. These competencies became the foundation for the needs assessment survey in our research. We do not reference the competencies directly by name, as they were in their final stage of development at the time of our inquiries. However, we used them as the framework for our data collection and conversations.

Materials and Methods

Data collection was conducted in two phases, using a mixed quantitative and qualitative approach, comprised of a survey and subsequent focus group discussions. We employed an explanatory design of data collection to expand on our quantitative results with qualitative data collection (see Creswell & Clark,

2017 for further information on explanatory mixed-method data collection). This method allowed us to both follow-up on our quantitative results, as well as to select participants for qualitative data collection. Phase 1 of our data collection employed a custom-designed online survey of career and employment service providers in BC. Phase 2 comprised 12 focus groups to further explore the impact of the shift to virtual services on underrepresented populations in the workforce. These two complementary phases allowed us to gather comprehensive data from CDPs all over BC, as well as to focus on the unique barriers that exist in delivering virtual services to specific populations. It also allowed us to validate and expand on our survey results.

Consultation

Throughout the project, we consulted with a group of eight career development leaders who had been convened by ASPECT to form a Virtual Learning Consortium (VLC) to offer project guidance and add a validity check to each phase of the research. At our first meeting with the VLC, we presented them with our preliminary ideas for the research focus and process; they verified the direction we were taking and offered valuable insights that enriched our approach. With the support of the VLC and subsequent informal conversations with other members of ASPECT BC, we were able to condense an extensive draft of survey questions to a manageable number of items that could be reasonably completed within 10-15 minutes. The VLC also agreed to test both the survey and the focus group protocol; their insights and practical guidance helped to refine and restructure our questions to best address the needs of the sector.

Survey Development

Combining a broad literature review (keywords: career development, COVID-19, competencies) with the 26-competency framework from the Canadian Career Development Foundation (2021), we were able to create a focused list of survey questions and focus group topics. To further narrow down our questions we conducted a narrow literature review organized by the 26 competencies and compiled a list of potential questions based on this literature.

The survey tool was structured into two parts. Part 1 gathered basic demographic information such as gender identity, age, years of employment within the career development sector, and level of education. Part 2 was grounded in the new competency framework for Canadian CDPs (CCDF, 2021). This part assessed various competencies - such as "Building rapport and creating positive relationships with your clients." Participants rated each statement on the degree of change since their transition to virtual services, using a 5-point Likert scale. The scale consisted of 0 = Not Applicable, 1 = Much Easier, 2 = Somewhat Easier, 3 = No Change, 4 = Somewhat Harder, and 5 = Much Harder.

Focus Groups

In addition to our survey, we conducted nine focus groups with providers who served various populations. These focus groups lasted between 60-90 minutes and were conducted via Zoom by the projects' research assistants. Focus groups were facilitated with a semi-structured interview guide which focused on the move to virtual services and were used as a method to validate, expand on, and confirm survey responses. Prompts centred on CDPs' individual experiences and thoughts surrounding the transition to virtual service delivery, as well as how they were able to effectively use the necessary competencies to serve groups of underrepresented clients. Questions during focus groups surfaced general thoughts about the transition to virtual services, as well as validating and expanding on survey-related results. For example, participants were asked their thoughts about the top five competencies that survey results indicated had become harder to perform with the shift to virtual services (see Figure 1).

Participants

Survey

Survey participants were recruited through ASPECT BC's members (e.g., notices in weekly newsletters, mass emails to mail

list members) and social media posts (i.e., Facebook, Instagram, and LinkedIn); our aim was to achieve broad representation of CDPs from across British Columbia. Participants in the survey were asked to select which underserved populations, if any, they worked with for more than 50% of the time. Categories of underserved populations included: immigrants, newcomers, and refugees; older workers; persons with disabilities or with mental health or addiction challenges; people from rural, remote, and northern communities; people with essential skills gaps; adults without post-secondary education; racialized individuals; those fleeing domestic violence; veterans; women; and youth. After comprehensive data cleaning to remove bots and incomplete survey responses, we were left with 179 respondents (N=179).

Focus Group

Focus group participants were also recruited through ASPECT BC's members and social media posts, as well as from responses to the survey question asking which underserved populations they worked with, snowball methods, and reaching out to ASPECT's contacts. Those opting to participate in the focus groups were asked to volunteer for a maximum of two groups based on the populations that they specialized in. Each focus group had 3 - 10 participants and, in total, included 58 CDPs from various locations across British Columbia. Nine focus groups with CDPs who deliver services to a wide variety of clients were conducted.

Data Analysis

Survey

During our survey data collection via Microsoft Forms we were overrun by bots that began responding to our survey in swarms. As research assistants were regularly monitoring survey responses, the bot attacks were noticed within a few hours. The research assistants immediately identified patterns in the bots' responses that made it relatively easy to identify and eliminate them; typical bot responses including selecting a province of service delivery outside of British Columbia, leaving the majority of questions blank, or providing irrelevant job titles (i.e., titles not related to the career development sector). Through these criteria and more (see King-Nyberg et al., 2021) we were able to eliminate bot responses from the survey results. Excel, Python, and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) were used for statistical analysis. We ran comparison of means tests (e.g., t-test, analysis of variance) on demographic information and average Likert score.

Focus Groups

The qualitative analysis was conducted by our two research assistants and ASPECT's CEO; it comprised a thematic analysis of focus group recordings. Each recording was examined by at least two researchers; themes were validated and coding discrepancies were resolved by a third researcher. After identifying major themes in the data (e.g., technology challenges, mental health) relevant quotations were extracted from the recordings and logged. These quotes became the backbone of our qualitative analysis as they illuminated the experiences of CDPs and gave context to the survey results.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Approximately 78% of participants identified their gender identity as woman, 21% as man, and 1% as non-binary. All of the participants worked primarily with clients based in BC - the targeted province for this study. The majority of participants were between the ages of 45-54 (33%), 35-44 (28%), or 55-64 (23%). A smaller subset of participants were between the ages of 25-34 (10%), 18-24 (3%), or 65+ (3%). Most participants (45%) had worked in the career development sector for 10+ years. Interestingly, the next largest number of participants (31%) were relatively new to the sector, having worked in it for only 1-5 years; 23% had worked in the sector for between 5-10 years, and 9% for less than 1 year. Most participants reported post-secondary education, with either a Bachelor's degree (32%) or a college diploma (27%).

Participants were almost equally divided in terms of

completion of a career development-related training program, with 51% reporting "yes" and 49% reporting "no." Participants represented a wide range of roles and titles including "Job Developer," "Employment and Client Coordinator," "Employment Advisor," and "Career Educator," among many others. Practitioners also listed the groups that they worked with (not mutually exclusive). The fewest practitioners selected that they work with veterans (60), refugees (69), and people from rural, remote, and northern communities (98). The populations most often worked with were women (148), persons with disabilities (144), and Indigenous peoples (144).

Likert Results

After averaging each participant's responses across Likert questions, we found that the distribution of means were somewhat normal; other measures of central tendency (i.e., median and mode) were close to 3.00 (M = 3.049, SD = 0.67). However, although the modal response was 3, the next common response was more often 4 than 2, showing a slight negative skew towards more difficult. Each question we asked garnered at least some responses that indicated things had become more difficult since moving to virtual, and at least some responses that indicated things had become easier, clearly indicating that the move to virtual services had not been a one-size-fits-all experience. Figure 2 shows the results of the most relevant Likert questions, ordered from greatest to least frequency of "Harder" responses. Although there were 30 Likert questions asked on the survey, for this article we chose to report on only the items that became quite a bit harder; the natural partitioning for this was after the tenth item.

Although we tested for variability within demographic groups (e.g., age, gender identity, level of education), we found no statistically significant between-group differences in overall Likert scores. This suggests that our results could be broadly generalizable across all demographic categories of CDPs, providing avenues for intervention and training that could benefit the majority of service providers.

Survey and Focus Group Results

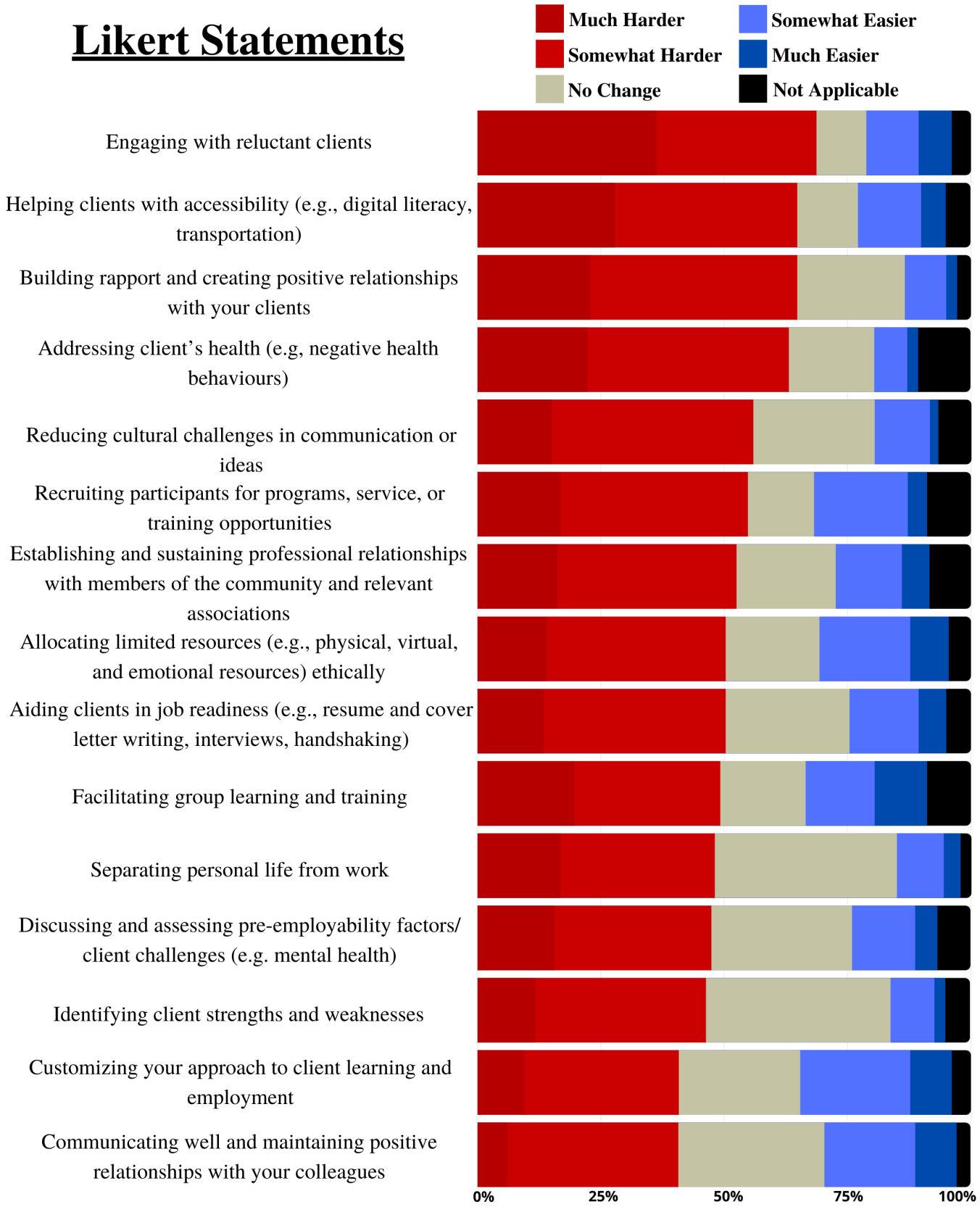
The results presented in Figure 1 support our hypotheses that had been formulated from the literature review and VLC consultants – that specific areas of career development are important and have likely changed in difficulty during the shift to online services. Of competencies perceived as more difficult since the move to virtual services, 4 of the top 10 (i.e., engaging with reluctant clients, building rapport and creating positive relationships with your clients, addressing client's health, and reducing cultural challenges in communication or ideas) are directly related to the necessity of having *good virtual communication* and *relationship-building skills.* While there were conflicting opinions on how virtual services lends itself to creating positive relationships and building rapport with their clients, a common theme was that, despite the increased challenges of virtual service delivery, virtual services were beneficial for creating and maintaining bonds with clients due to increased ease and frequency of contact.

> The good side of the whole virtual service is that I noticed that I created, I dare to say, quite a strong bond with my clients. It feels like they are more in arms reach. Before it was an email, "Let's schedule an appointment." A phone call, "When are you available?," and then you wait for that day to talk to them. Now that we don't know when we'll be able to see each other again it's a phone call and we talk about everything. Meet me on Zoom, and we talk about everything. Today, or tomorrow. It became a closer connection, I think. Yeah, it was bittersweet. There's the good and the bad.

Others echoed the ease of timely connection that virtual and remote service brings. However, they expanded to touch on a point that was made in all focus groups: telecommunication, even with video, made it incredibly difficult to read clients' non-verbal cues and body language.

> Of course, it's easier just to hop on the phone, or get on a kind of video conference. But . . . you

Figure 1


Likert Statements
Much Harder
Somewhat Harder
No Change
Somewhat Easier
Much Easier
Not Applicable
Engaging with reluctant clients
Helping clients with accessibility (e.g., digital literacy, transportation)
Building rapport and creating positive relationships with your clients
Addressing client's health (e.g, negative health behaviours)
Reducing cultural challenges in communication or ideas
Recruiting participants for programs, service, or training opportunities
Establishing and sustaining professional relationships with members of the community and relevant associations
Allocating limited resources (e.g., physical, virtual, and emotional resources) ethically
Aiding clients in job readiness (e.g., resume and cover letter writing, interviews, handshaking)
Facilitating group learning and training
Separating personal life from work
Discussing and assessing pre-employability factors/ client challenges (e.g. mental health)
Identifying client strengths and weaknesses
Customizing your approach to client learning and employment
Communicating well and maintaining positive relationships with your colleagues
0%
25%
50%
75%
100%

lose some of the message delivered from the communication, because you only see the headshots, right? The whole body language is invisible. So, some of the gestures, or some of the non-verbal cues, it's impossible for you to observe. So, that's the challenge part.

Additionally, some focus groups noted that it was more difficult to see clients' emotional responses. For example, it was more difficult to see shaking hands, or nervous fidgeting that may be indicative of anxiety. Body language was a focus in many of our focus groups, noting that these non-verbal cues are especially important to serving clients with barriers, such as disabilities, language barriers, or those in dangerous home situations. In order to mitigate the level of communication that was lost with virtual services, some participants noted that they needed to become over-animated and elevate their expressions to make sure their welcoming nature translated through the screen. They increased the use of inflection and animation in their voice and made larger arm gestures to indicate their enthusiasm and connection. Despite actively trying to reduce any amount of lost connection, some found that the learning experience was just not the same.

> However, in the absence of our in-person services, we felt that as much as we tried, the learning experience was not to the same effect as it would have been in-person, especially for the participants in need of developing social skills, soft skills, and confidence-building. So, there was a huge disadvantage. So in a nutshell I can't tell if it works for us or not; it's a bit of a complicated question.

Focus group participants reported that virtual service delivery brought some big disadvantages for strengthening some necessary skills in their clients. Many said that the skills likely could be taught over video, but felt that they were woefully undertrained to do so. Overall, those represented in the survey and focus groups struggled with creating connections through virtual settings. Interestingly, engaging with reluctant clients was brought up less often in the focus groups than was building a good relationship with the client. When prompted to further expand their feedback, participants explained that engaging with reluctant clients was an issue that could only be solved by being able to communicate effectively and motivate, which was only possible after creating a positive relationship. Focus group participants reported that within virtual service delivery, they had a lack of skills in this foundational area, which prevented them from resolving their clients' other issues.

Two of the statements in the survey (i.e., helping clients with accessibility and aiding clients in job readiness) relate to preparing clients for work. Participants reported that helping clients with their own digital literacy skills and facilitating clients' job readiness was more difficult to do without a physical, in-person, hands-on approach. On the other hand, focus group participants identified one positive, geographic aspect of virtual services on client accessibility; many individuals who had access to adequate technology and stable Internet connections had the opportunity to access services from their homes, avoiding time-consuming and costly trips to CDP offices. This applied both to individuals in rural and remote communities and to those who lived within a city. As one CDP remarked:

> All of [a] sudden they were able to take [programs] virtually rather than having to try and figure out a way to get to [the city] from living up in like [a farther away city] or something like that. Pros and cons with it for our program. It did make our services more accessible, geographically, because we operate out of [local cities]. We were able to accept participants from other regions. So, that was a good thing in that sense.

However, they also noted that these advantages were not universal. Many rural and remote regions had inadequate and inconsistent access to Internet or cellular services, and many clients could not access or use a computer properly. Focus group participants often spoke about the large number of individuals who had barriers to technology (e.g., people who were homeless, refugees, immigrants, or elderly), which hindered accessibility to services and the

ability for clients to acquire the necessary skills to increase their job-readiness.

The survey also identified increased difficulty in client recruitment (i.e., recruiting participants for programs, service, or training opportunities) and engagement (i.e., facilitating group learning and training) since the move to virtual service delivery. Despite these issues being common amongst the study participants, it was interesting to note demographic between-group differences. For example, many participants reported that youth were difficult to recruit and, once in the program, would typically have their microphones muted and video camera off during sessions, preferring text-based interactions on their phones. Other demographic groups (e.g., women fleeing violence; refugees) expressed concern about their photographs or videos being shared or recorded, or about household members overhearing their virtual sessions.

Survey respondents also indicated increased difficulty after the shift to virtual services with their communication with, and connection to, relevant community resources and associations. As further discussion with focus group members clarified, much of the job placement that typically occurs is through direct, friendly interactions between a CDP and a leader of an organization, business, or community association. One participant shared a story of how many of her placements were from casual conversations with franchise and small business managers who would find odd jobs that could be done with minimal formal credentials. The pandemic prevented many of those interactions from occurring.

Finally, many CDPs found it more difficult to distribute resources ethically and fairly (i.e., allocating limited resources), reporting that they struggled to stretch their limited resources in ways that would adequately reach the clients who most needed them.

Discussion

Overall, the survey and focus group results confirmed previous research surfaced in the literature review (see Kettunen & Sampson, 2018; Sampson et al., 2020): there are specific areas of career development that have become more challenging since the move to virtual services.

To improve client services, each of these areas of increased challenge could be targeted with specific training interventions for CDPs and/or structural interventions that will benefit clients themselves. Although some of these interventions will need to be newly developed and target logistical difficulties (e.g., individuals who lack access to Internet, community engagement, and participant recruitment) others can be adapted and customized from a strong foundation of career development interventions that have been previously successful.

Recommended points of intervention here are at the level of enhanced training for CDPs. By focusing on the challenges that CDPs themselves faced, organizations can implement training and supports that target the employees' specific needs. For example, CDPs consistently mentioned that the benefits of training in body language comprehension were important and effective for in-person interactions but was not useful virtually. Therefore, modified training on reading other non-verbal body language, such as voice tone, sentence and word tempo, rate of breathing, and eye movements may prove to be effective. Additionally, increased training on teletherapy skills may be an important method to provide CDPs with the confidence and skills they need to help clients. A common claim heard throughout the focus groups was that this kind of specific training (e.g., motivational interviewing, active listening) was especially helpful for building rapport and a good client-practitioner relationship. Training CDPs in motivational interviewing skills can also help aid them in the increased difficulty of confronting negative health behaviors. Remedies to logistical difficulties could include introducing a multi-faceted communication plan for practitioners and clients. This may include flexibility in length of sessions and method of communication (e.g., texting vs video-calling) and may also prove to help build relationships, engage reluctant clients, and reduce cultural barriers. As reported above, our statistical analysis of the survey results suggested potential generalizability of CDP training emerging from this study, as the greatest (and least) difficulties

experienced in the shift to virtual services did not differ across any specific demographic characteristics of CDPs. This research offers contextual background and a solid foundation for creating more effective programs and services during the ongoing pandemic and beyond.

Although the focus of this article has been primarily on the challenges experienced in the rapid shift to virtual services, it is also important to highlight the normality and symmetry of the data. This suggests that the career development and employment services sector is not in a dire situation; in fact, the most common response was "No Change" in difficulty across a range of key CDP competencies since moving to virtual services, and about half of responses indicated that those competencies had actually become easier.

However, there are some limitations to the study that must not be ignored. For example, this study focused exclusively on CDPs who deliver services within British Columbia. Therefore, we cannot comment on whether or not the challenges for CDPs that surfaced in our results would be replicated in CDPs from other regions. Many of our participants were also part of ASPECT BC's network; therefore, our sample lacked randomization, which increases the potential of biases within both survey answers and focus group discussions. Finally, due to us still being mid-pandemic at the time of writing this article, there is little complementary research on how the immediate shift to virtual services that accompanied COVID-19 impacted CDPs' ability to effectively use their job-related competencies. As the pandemic continues and we move towards more in-person interactions, further research is needed to explore how work structures may have permanently changed for CDPs; of particular interest may be how hybrid models of work may impact CDP service delivery going forward.

In the short term, this research has already been used to inform work being undertaken by ASPECT BC and its project partner, ETHOS Career Management Group, to create and test educational interventions to address some of the gaps in online competencies that surfaced through this study. Recommendations and interventions will be shared with the original VLC; their consultation will help to ensure that, moving forward, the needs of CDPs are effectively addressed in this community-based project. We hope that this research will serve as a useful jumping off point, illuminating a pathway for educational interventions that will serve to mitigate the challenges that CDPs and their clients face in the virtual world. As it is likely that virtual career development services will continue in some way well after the end of the pandemic, our hope is that this research will continue to inform training and capacity-building for CDPs in BC and beyond, equipping them to continue to meet emerging demands within the workforce development landscape.

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RESEARCH-IN-MOTION

A Pathway Model of Emotionally-Associated Predictors of US College Students' Career Indecision

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Abstract

This small-scale study establishes a pathway model to show a better understanding of how variables related to emotional intelligence (EI) affect career indecision in a college classroom. We investigated a total of 240 undergraduate students and a pathway model of direct and indirect effects surrounding career indecision was made by using structural equation modeling (SEM). Our pathway model shows a positive direct effect of procrastination on career indecision ($\beta = .13$, $p < .001$), with negative direct effects on EI, life satisfaction, CDSE, and planning, in terms of career conflict. EI shows a positive correlation with CDSE ($\beta = .51$, $p < .001$). Findings indicate that emotionally-related variables are good predictors of psychology students' career concerns.

Keywords: Career decision self-efficacy (CDSE); career indecision; career student planning scale (CSPS); emotional intelligence (EI); procrastination

Psychology professors and university counselors have shown growing concerns about students' career advancement, given rapid changes due to the pandemic. Students with a major in psychology or a related field aim for a full-time job after graduation, but the manner in which educators direct students is questionable. Those in the field of vocational psychology and career counseling offer a guide for students to fully reach their potential in the field (Blustein et al., 2019; Chung, 2002; MacCann et al., 2020; Spurk & Straub, 2020). Psychological factors contributing to a student's career conflict continues to draw academic attention—especially if it is why they take psychology courses. Being a psychology major does not guarantee finding a 'dream' job; however, students taking these courses believe they will create a pathway of their own.

Students' major source of stress often results from work-related challenges (Blustein et al., 2019; Chung, 2002; Gray et al., 2020; Gray et al., 2021). Regardless of their field, psychology professors emphasize current psychological theories, research, practice, and classroom work that facilitate their students' intellectual abilities and also advance their career development. Yet, they map out a path to help students face realities and opportunities with psychological knowledge (Tatum & Schwartz, 2020). Regression analysis from previous studies revealed that self-efficacy, career planning, and psychological distress on job security were the important predictors of career decision making (Gray et al., 2020; Gray et al., 2021; Gray et al., 2021).

This study is unique as it links a magnitude of variables in the same research design—something that has rarely been done on the topic of career development. Relatively few studies investigated the association between EI and career indecision; thus, our goal is to explore the associations among these variables and present a model of direct and indirect effects on career indecision. Gray et al. (2020) found a negative relationship between EI and indecision, but their sample size was small. The generalizability of their findings are somewhat limited ($N = 66$ in the 2020 study and $N = 136$ in press). Sanchez-Ruiz and El Khoury (2019) established a pathway model to predict emotionally-related variables that affect

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academic performance, except for GPA (not stipulated as part of the current performance, as it was already a built-in measure); it was used as a predictor of academic performance. Coetzee and Harry (2014) posited emotional functioning as similar to EI, which was a strong predictor of career adaptability, yet their findings were based on middle-aged adults in the job market. Little is known about the relationship between EI and career indecision in the psychology classroom; furthermore, other emotionally-laden constructs, such as procrastination, career planning, CDSE, and life satisfaction were found to contribute to career conflict, but not necessarily in one dimension: these constructs are variables that contribute to career issues.

To our knowledge, few studies explore the relationship between psychologically-related variables like EI and career indecision in a college classroom (Falco & Summer, 2019; Gray et al., 2020; Gray et al., 2021; Gray et al., in press; Sanchez-Ruiz & EI Khoury 2019; Tatum & Schwartz, 2020). The novelty of the present study is twofold. We first investigated the contribution of EI, CDSE, CSPS, and life satisfaction to career planning in order to present a pathway model of direct and indirect effects of those variables on career indecision. This study is to provide a predictive model of college students' career indecision that shows a practical guideline in educational assessment of university classroom, using structural equation modeling (SEM).

Methods

Participants and Procedures

A total of 253 students was recruited from small, liberal arts colleges in southeast Arkansas and southern California. Thirteen participants did not respond to at least 20% of the survey items, which was excluded (N = 240; 188 females, 52 males). Each student voluntarily participated in the study, approved the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the primary investigator (PI)'s institution. Informed consent was obtained, so that 5-minute debriefing process that was used to assess any issues with the participants' well-being and provide the researchers' contact information could take place after completion. The distribution of self-identified race was 64.58% White, 28.33% Black/African-American, 0.42% Native American, and while the rest were indicated as 'other.' Twenty-six percent were freshmen, 25% were sophomores, 22% were juniors, 22% were seniors, and the rest indicated 'post-baccalaureate degrees.' All participants were full-time students at four-year universities (M = 22.08, SD = 5.89), recruited via email, with digital surveys administered after the pandemic lockdown. They were enrolled in either introductory psychology or upper-level developmental psychology course. Students received extra credit for participation.

Measures

Self-reported measures were used to assess participants' psychological characteristics. The main benefit of using those is that self-report data can be easily collected via online and the chosen measures are publicly available in general public. MacCann et al. (2020) and Gray et al. (2021) demonstrate that Wong and Law's emotional intelligence scale (WEIS), career student planning scale (CSPS), career decision self-efficacy short form (CDSE-SF), general procrastination scale (GPS), career decision difficulty questionnaire (CDDQ), and satisfaction with life scale (SWLS) are frequently used as a scale development with more response item categories in psychological studies. Those measures were chosen based on reported internal consistency reliability, which we also calculated for the present study.

Career Decision Difficulty Questionnaire (CDDQ)

The CDDQ measure was used to assess participant indecision as a dependent variable. Created in 1996 by Gati et al., it consists of the following subscales: (a) lack of readiness (CDDQ-R: lack of motivation, general indecisiveness, and dysfunctional beliefs); (b) lack of information (CDDQ-L: the stage of decision making while in an occupation, and the need for additional information); and (c) difficulties related to inconsistent information (CDDQ-D: unreliable information,

as well as internal and external conflicts). This 34-item measure asks participants to rate the extent to which each statement illustrates their professional decisions on a 9-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*does not describe me*) to 9 (*describes me well*). Fabio, et al. (2015) found high internal consistency: (a) .89 for lack of readiness, (b) .90 for lack of information, and (c) .92 for inconsistent information. The Cronbach's alpha of this study was .94, which is consistent to Gati et al's study.

Career Student Planning Scale (CSPS)

An 8-item, unidimensional scale created by Gray et al. (2021) was used as a reliable measure of career planning. The CSPS uses a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). All negatively-worded items were scored in reverse, showing the alpha coefficient of the scale to be .85. The Cronbach's alpha of this study was .84.

Career Decision Self-efficacy Short-form (CDSE-SF)

Taylor and Betz's (1983) CDSE-SF measure was used in this study to assess each participant's career-related SE. The 25-item form includes career SE and self-reported frequency on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*no confidence*) to 5 (*complete confidence*). Our calculated Cronbach's alpha was .94.

Wong and Law's Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS)

Wong and Law's EI scale (2002) assessed participant suitability for specific workplace situations. It contains four subscales that assess core branches of emotion-related aibilities: (a) perceiving self-emotion, (b) perceiving other's emotions, (c) expressing emotions, and (d) managing emotions. The authors designed the scale specifically after Brackett et al. (2006) developed the four-branch model in their EI scale. Participants were scored on 16 items (every four items were deemed to be one factor, so a 4-factor structure emerged) on a 7-Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Our Cronbach's alpha for WLEIS included these four factors and was .90.

General Procrastination Scale (GPS)

The GPS (Lay, 1986) was used to assess participants' tendency to procrastinate; they were scored on 20 items with a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*extremely uncharacteristic*) to 5 (*extremely characteristic*). Our study's calculated Cronbach's alpha was 0.78.

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

Diener et al's SWLS (1985) rated participants' satisfaction with their lives. This 5-item self-reported instrument used a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Our Cronbach's alpha for SWLS was .88.

Results

Data Analysis Plan

Data were analyzed with Excel software and R. We conducted a simple regression analysis, as Table 1 shows correlations among study variables. CDDQ negatively correlated with EI (r = -.27, p < .001), CDSE (r = -.43, p < .001), CSPS (r = -.27, p < .001), and SWLS (r = -.33, p < .001), but positively correlated with GPS (r = .21, p < .001). EI negatively correlated with GPS (r = -.30, p < .001), and positively correlated with CDSE (r = .55, p < .001), CSPS (r = .35, p < .001), and SWLS (r = .51, p < .001). A negative correlation was found between GPS and SWLS (r = -.26, p < .01).

Mediation Model

The mediation model for CDSE, CSPS, and CDDQ show a positive effect of CSPS, mediated by CDSE and CDDQ (Figure 1). The effect of CDSE on CDDQ was mediated by CSPS. The regression coefficient for CDSE and CDDQ, and CSPS and CDDQ, were significant. The indirect effect was (.19)*(-.09) = -0.02, so we tested significance with bootstrapping procedures. Unstandardized indirect effects were computed for 1,000 bootstrapped samples, with a 90% CI for indirect effects at the 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson,

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Table 1

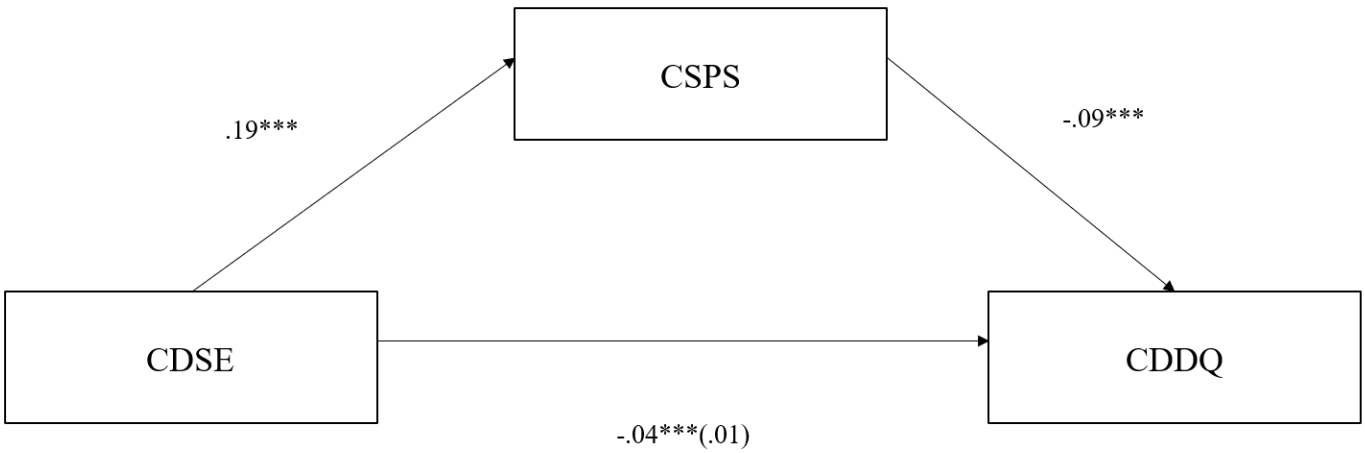
Correlations among study variables

	CSPS	EI	CDSE	CDDQ	GPS
EI	0.35***				
CDSE	0.51***	0.55***			
CDDQ	-0.51***	-0.27***	-0.43***		
GPS	-0.20**	-0.30***	-0.27***	0.21***	
SWLS	0.08	0.51***	0.32***	-0.33***	-0.26**

*$p < .05$., **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Figure 1

Mediation model among the given variables



*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

2019). The bootstrapped unstandardized effect was - .02, as the 95% CI ranged from - .03 to .01. The indirect effect was statistically significant at $p < .01$.

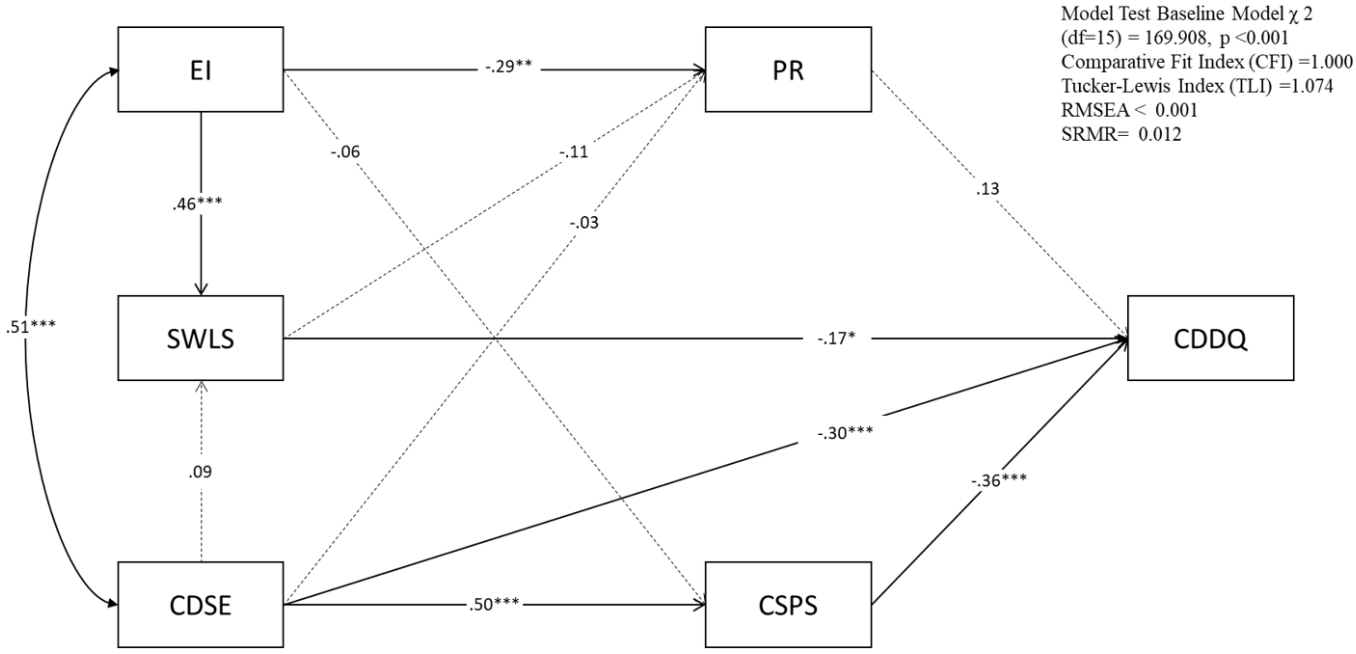
Path Analysis

Model Fit

The model included indirect effects between EI and CDDQ, and GPS, and SWLS (Figure 2). CDSE was hypothesized to have indirect effects on CDDQ, with GPS, SWLS, and CSPS as mediating factors. SWLS and CSPS were expected to have a negative effect on CDDQ, while Figure 2 illustrated the model with its respective path coefficients. The comparative fit index (CFI) with values above .90 indicates a good fit. The standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) with values below .08 also indicates a good fit. Based on these indices, the hypothesized model revealed a

Figure 2

A pathway model with significance



good fit with the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), with values between 0 and .05, Model χ^2 = 169.908, $\Delta df = 15$, $p < .001$, CFI = 1.000, RMSEA < .001, SRMR = 0.012.

Direct and Indirect Effects

CSPS had a significant direct effect on CDDQ with $\beta = -.36$, $p < .001$. SWLS also had a marginally significant effect on CDDQ with $\beta = -.17$, $p < .05$, whereas no significant effect was found between GPS and CDDQ. CDSE had a significant direct effect on CDDQ ($\beta = -.30$, $p < .001$) and CSPS ($\beta = .50$, $p < .001$). EI and CDSE showed a positive correlation ($r = .51$, $p < .001$).

Discussion

This study explored how EI, CSPS, CDSE-SF, and GPS are related to career indecision; though findings suggest that EI is negatively correlated to it, substantiating the work of Gray et al. (2020; in press). Procrastination is positively related to career conflict, whereas both career planning and career related self-efficacy show a negative correlation. Our results are generally in agreement with previous studies (Gray et al., 2020; Gray et al., 2021; Gottlieb & Gøtzsche-Astrup, 2020; MacCann et al., 2020; Sanchez-Ruiz & El Khoury; Wilmot et al., 2019).

These findings shed light on emotionally-related variables, such as EI, for students' motivation toward career development during higher education. Psychology instructors with an interest in the field of counseling psychology or those who teach a capstone course may want to assess conscientious behaviors, such as EI and CDSE, which impact students' academic engagement and life satisfaction, and ways to advance one's career. Future studies could explore the relationship between EI and career indecision (and other associated variables) at the factor level because EI, in particular, is related to a variety of psychological constructs depending on whether researchers focus on college students' self-control, emotionality, and/or social relationship (Mavroveli & Sanchez-Ruiz, 2011). CDSE and life satisfaction directly predicted career indecision, while EI and CDSE are positively correlated with each other . The study has several limitations:

the chosen sampling method was convenience sampling, so the generalizability of the findings is somewhat constrained. More diverse samples with mixed methods or longitudinal designs would be highly desired for future research. All variables are assessed with self-reported measures, so that the mono-method bias would a possibility. Future research could benefit from incorporating more variables (e.g., self-control or in-class test scores), along with possible moderators to assess the association among variables. Despite its limitations, this study offers a preliminary investigation that develops a practical theoretical framework, with a predictive model of college students' career indecision. Replications of this study with larger sample sizes may yield better results, and could be an integral part of educational assessment and career counseling. The relevance of this area is continuously expanding, so that educators must be aware of it. Future research with this pathway model can be extended to grapple with a wide array of psychological processes, while simultaneously working with young adults who will soon be in the workforce. Career advancement requires more than just 'being smart' and hard-working. We need better understanding of psychological characteristics that need for student success.

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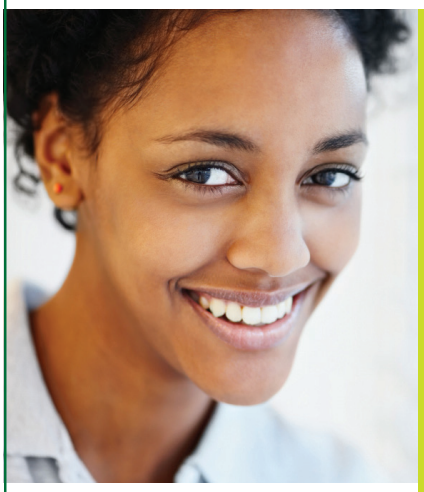

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RESEARCH-IN-MOTION

The Role of Sport-Life Balance and Well-Being on Athletic Performance

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Desautels Faculty of Management, McGill University
Sophie Brassard
Canadian Olympic Committee, Game Plan Program
Patricia Hewlin, Ph.D
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Abstract

The present study explores the role of sport-life balance and well-being on athletic performance. Canadian athletes who competed at the 2019 Pan American and Para Pan American Games in Lima, Peru were invited to participate in the survey via email. A mixed-methods design was utilized, consisting of an online survey and semi-structured, follow-up interviews. The sample consisted of 72 athletes, spanning eighteen different sports. Our findings demonstrate that while many Olympic and Paralympic athletes are successful in maintaining a strong support network, significant concerns arose regarding meagre finances, a lack of free time, and minimal support both within and outside of sport. Perspectives on the benefits of sport-life balance on performance were mixed, with the majority of athletes revealing that they were unsure of the benefits, did not experience benefits, or experienced negative effects. Feelings of dissatisfaction with performance, experiences of being overwhelmed in managing an athletic career, and tensions in developing a self outside of sport were prevalent among the athletes.

Keywords: Sport, well-being, athletic transitions, career transition, sport-life balance, support, performance

High level athletes can devote decades of their lives to sport, but no matter how much time they have invested, retirement from one's athletic career is inevitable. For many athletes, the rigorous travel and training schedule prevents them from pursuing other interests while training and competing. This demanding regimen can often lead athletes to experience a lack of balance and limited opportunities to develop an identity outside sport, which inevitably makes the transition from sport more challenging. In recent years, there has been a heightened awareness of the struggles athletes face, during and upon retirement from sport due to an increase in media coverage of athlete stories regarding mental health, well-being and career transitions. Naomi Osaka is an American tennis all-star and one of the world's highest paid female athletes (Kelly, 2021). Recently, she garnered worldwide attention when she opted out of major world tennis competitions (Kelly, 2021). Osaka has since shared that she felt it necessary to re-establish balance and prioritize her mental and physical health. Canadian athletes like Tom Hall, Krista Guloien and Alexandre Bilodeau, Olympic medalists in canoe-kayak, rowing and alpine skiing, have spoken out and shared their difficulties in finding their identity beyond sport. Hall describes coping with the lack of purpose post sport; "the sense of purposelessness gnawed deeper. I hated what I had become. I had gone from an Olympian—confident, gifted, and fit—to an overweight insomniac with no direction." (Hall, 2019). These experiences are shared by many athletes worldwide. The study of how sport-life balance or lack thereof thus has important implications for athletes' emotional wellbeing both during and after sport.

Literature Review

Research in sports-life balance for athletes has been steadily increasing over the past three decades (Park et al., 2013). In recent years there has been a push to consider a more holistic

perspective of athletes as human beings, extending beyond their athletic identities and performance ability (Friesen & Orlick, 2010; Park et al., 2013). Current literature suggests having sport-life balance facilitates athlete well-being and improves sport performance (Friesen & Orlick, 2010; Pink et al., 2015). Knapp (2012) echoes this, and states that student-athletes participating at the Olympic Games are more likely than their non-student counterparts to win medals. Student-athletes believe that balancing sport and academics not only benefits performance in both areas but promotes future career success as well (Aquilina, 2013). Contrarily, athletes who lack balance are more susceptible to increased levels of fatigue, stress and burnout, ultimately impacting performance (Vallerand & Verner-Fillion, 2020).

Transitioning out of elite sport forces an individual to adjust to a new way of life and can often be accompanied by negative effects, impacting mental health (Knights et al., 2016; Ohashi, 2018). However, retiring from sport and pursuing other experiences are critical and necessary life events that can positively impact the individual and lead to personal growth, development and fulfillment (Ohashi, 2018). Athletes who have opportunities to explore their interests and identity beyond sport, developing both vocational and life skills, report more ease with athletic career transition, adapting more easily to a new routine and way of life (Gordon & Lavallee, 2012; Hansen, et al., 2018; Knights et al., 2016; Park et al., 2013; Pink et al., 2015). Athletes who lack balance and non-sporting experiences, report experiencing delayed identity shifts, increased stress and ultimately find it more difficult to adjust to life after sport (Park et al., 2013). Planning for life after sport and the use of career counselling and psycho-educational programs, have been shown to have a positive impact on sport performance, as well as increased life and career satisfaction, post-sport (Aquilina, 2013; Knights et al., 2016; McArdle et al., 2014; Ohashi, 2018; Park et al., 2013). Additionally, Park et al. (2013) report that psychosocial support from those close to athletes, including family, friends, coaches, trainers and teammates, has been shown to positively impact athlete career transition by easing emotional distress and increasing athletes' self-esteem and sense of belonging through social networks.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to explore the role of sport-life balance and well-being on athletes performance at the 2019 Pan American and Para Pan American Games. It is the first of a series of post-game debrief studies for Pan American and Para Pan American Games. These post-Pan/Para Pan American debrief studies will seek to further our understanding about the role of athlete well-being, sport-life balance and performance at major games through the collection and comparison of longitudinal data. These debrief surveys are conducted in collaboration with the Canadian Olympic Committee's Game Plan Program, which strives to support current and retired national team athletes to lead more balanced lifestyles, with a focus on health, education, and career opportunities for athletes' high-performance careers and beyond. This project is an important contribution for Canadian athletes, as it will not only expand our understanding of these phenomena within the current landscape, but help to inform the Game Plan Program on how they may better meet the needs of transitioning athletes and promote overall athlete well-being.

Methods

This study employed a mixed-methods research design consisting of an online survey, and a series of semi-structured, follow-up interviews. The survey was designed to investigate how Canadian athletes who had competed at the 2019 Pan American and Para Pan American Games, in Lima, Peru, felt about how prepared they were for life leading up to, and after, the Games. Game Plan administrators sent the survey via email to all eligible national team athletes who competed at the 2019 Pan American and Para Pan American Games. At the end of the survey, there was the option for athletes to volunteer to participate in the follow-up interviews. Interviews were semi-structured and lasted approximately 30 minutes.

Participants

Canadian athletes who had competed at the 2019 Pan American and Para Pan American Games in Lima, Peru were invited to participate in the study. The population from which the participants were sampled consisted of 475 athletes. A sample of 72 athletes (15% response rate) participated in the quantitative survey, spanning eighteen different sports. Among them were 47 Olympic athletes, 14 Paralympic and 11 who did not identify the games in which they participated. The final sample consisted of 22 male athletes, 40 female athletes and 10 athletes who did not specify. A sample of 6 athletes (3 Olympic and 3 Paralympic) participated in the follow-up qualitative interviews.

Sport Affiliation

The following sports were represented: athletics, basketball, boxing, canoe/kayak, cycling, equestrian, field hockey, gymnastics, handball, para-cycling, para-swimming, racquetball, shooting, softball, surfing, taekwondo, volleyball and wheelchair rugby.

Education

At the time of data collection, 25 of the athletes surveyed were currently enrolled in school, while 36 were not. Athletes' highest level of educational attainment varied (i.e., 10 high school, 7 college, 3 professional designation, 37 university, 4 post graduate and 11 unidentified).

Analysis

All quantitative analyses were performed using RStudio Version 1.2.5033 software. We conducted descriptive analysis, focusing on frequency distributions, to summarize the sample data and detect sample characteristics that may help influence future data collection and analysis. We reviewed the interview data to identify key athletic concerns and provide a richer contextualization of the survey findings.

Results

Survey Results

Goal Achievement and Games Satisfaction

Respondents were asked if they achieved their personal performance goal(s) for the Lima 2019 Pan American or Para Pan American Games and how satisfied they were with their overall experience at the Games (Figure 1. 62/72 athletes responded (86.1%) to the questions. Most respondents at least partially achieved their goals, with 29% of athletes responding "Yes", and 38.7% of athletes responding "Somewhat". Nearly a quarter of athletes did not achieve their personal performance goals. Most of the athletes were at least somewhat satisfied with their performance at the games with only two responding that they were *Extremely dissatisfied* or *Dissatisfied*. Over two-thirds of the athletes responded that they were *Extremely satisfied* (16) or *Satisfied* (28) with their overall experience at the 2019 Pan American and Para Pan American Games. Eleven athletes were *Somewhat satisfied* and three were *Satisfied,* while two were *Neither satisfied or dissatisfied.*

Sport-Life Balance

Athletes were asked to rate their ability to effectively manage their sporting commitment with other areas of their life, such as academics, work, volunteering, social life, and personal/professional development. Results show that during a normal season, approximately three quarters of athletes (75.8%) feel at least *somewhat balanced*. Several athletes responded that during a normal season they have difficulty managing sporting and non-sporting commitments, their sport-life balance is *unbalanced* (6.9%) or *somewhat unbalanced* (8.6%). However, no athletes responded that their sport-life balance was *extremely unbalanced.*

Prior to the games, the majority of athletes (58.6%) also responded that their sports-life balance was at least *somewhat balanced* (Figure 2). However, twenty athletes (34.4%) responded that they were *somewhat unbalanced, unbalanced* or *extremely unbalanced*.

In rating their sport-life balance currently, *after* the 2019 Pan American and Para Pan American Games, over seventy percent of athletes responded having at least *somewhat balanced* sport-life balance. Five of those ath-

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Figure 1

Games satisfaction

How satisfied are you with your overall experience at the Games?

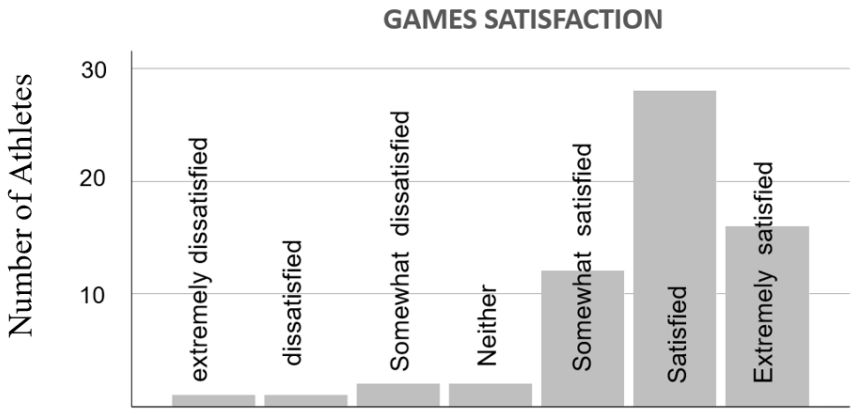
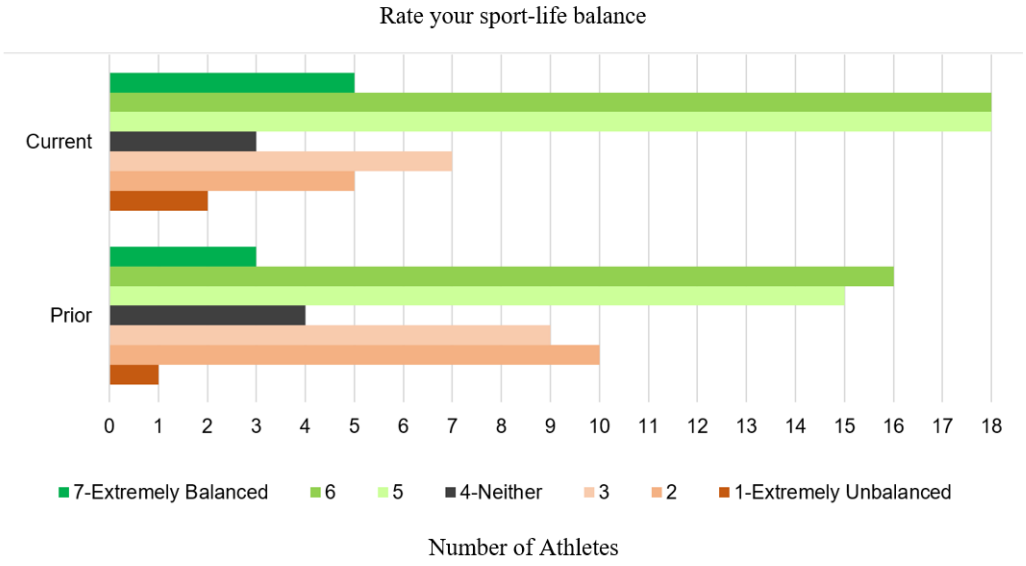


Figure 2

Current sport-life balance after the games and sport-life balance prior to the games



letes (8.6%) responded that their sport-life balance was *extremely* balanced. Nearly a quarter of athletes (24.1%) responded that their sport-life balance was *somewhat unbalanced* or worse.

Sport-Life Balance and Performance

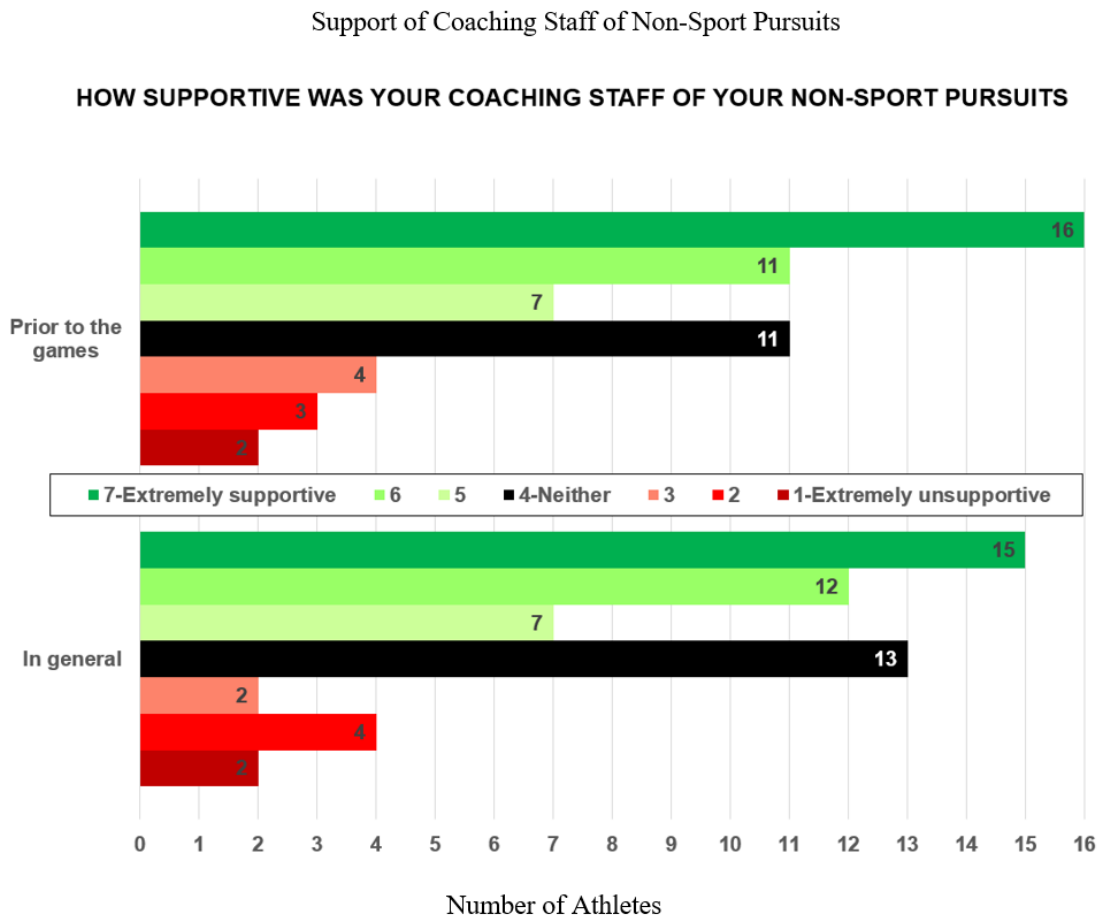
After rating their sports-life balance, respondents were asked about the effect of this sport-life balance on their performance at the 2019 Pan American and Para Pan American Games. Eleven athletes responded *don't know/unsure* (19.0%) and twelve athletes responded *no effect* (20.7%), which suggests the opportunity to educate athletes about balance-performance links. Twelve athletes responded that sport-life balance had a negative effect on their performance; fifty percent of whom responded *somewhat unbalanced* to their sports-life balance *before* the Games. Of the seventeen athletes who responded that sports-life balance had a *positive* effect on their performance at the games, five athletes (29.4%) were *somewhat balanced* before the games, seven athletes were *balanced* before the games (41.2%) and two athletes (11.6%) were e*xtremely balanced.*

Support for Sport-Life Balance

Support of sport/life balance was assessed by several questions in the Debrief Survey. In answering *who* (other than potentially their advisor) has helped them work on their sport/life balance, most athletes responded *Family* (42 athletes) and *Friends* (33 athletes). Professional allies in sport, including *Coach[es]* (25 athletes), *Teammate[s]* (25 athletes) and *Sport Psychologists[s]/Mental Performance Consultant[s]* (24 athletes) and *Mentor[s]* (13 athletes) were popular support networks for athletes. *Advisor[s]* (9 athletes), *Agent[s]* (2 athletes), *Counsellor[s]* (3 athletes), and *National Sport Organization Staff*

Figure 3

Support of coaching staff of non-sport pursuits prior to the games and in general



Member[s] (5 athletes) were less popular choices. Three athletes responded that they had *no one* to support them in their sports/life balance and twelve athletes did not provide any response.

Athletes were asked about how supportive their coaching staff was of non-sports pursuits *in general* and *in the 12 months leading up to the game* (Figure 3). *In general*, the largest proportion of people say their coach was *extremely supportive* (27.3%) and more than sixty percent of respondents said their coach was at least *somewhat supportive* (61%). Out of the 15 athletes who responded that their coach was *extremely supportive*, 12 of them (80%) were *satisfied* or *extremely satisfied* with their overall performance at the games. Nearly a quarter of athletes (23.6%) responded *neither supportive or unsupportive* of non-sport pursuits. Close to fifteen percent of athletes (14.5%) responded that their coach was *somewhat unsupportive (3.6%), unsupportive* (7.3%), or *extremely unsupportive (3.6%)*.

In the 12 months leading up to the Games, the distribution of responses is similar to coaching support of non-sport pursuits *in general*. A total of thirty-four out of the fifty-four respondents (63.0%) stated that their coach was *somewhat supportive* (13.0%), *supportive* (20.4%) or *extremely supportive* (29.6%). Nine athletes (16.7%) responded that their coach was less than supportive of their non-sport pursuits and eleven (20.4%) responded that their coach was *neither supportive or unsupportive*. Notably, out of the twenty athletes who did not respond that their coach was supportive in the 12 months leading up to the games, only 3 (20%) responded that they achieved their goals at the 2019 Pan American and Para Pan American Games.

Qualitative Insights

Through an exploratory review of the interview data, we identified key concerns pertaining to athletes' sport-life balance, education and support systems.

Sport-Life Balance

Athletes shared they found it challenging at times to balance sport and life responsibilities simultaneously. One athlete

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shared, *"The balancing act with full time classes and training is always tough. I find myself often thinking about school stuff while at training and I want to be just focusing on my sport".* Furthermore, two athletes shared that having accommodations and/or flexibility at school/work, was helpful in attaining some degree of sport-life balance. Despite the challenges associated with finding balance, five of the six athletes expressed they had better mental health when they had some degree of balance: *"For me having a focus, even if it wasn't work, even if it was just like something to do after so there isn't just open space and time is good".*

Education

Athletes expressed the importance of pursuing education. One athlete shared, *"I feel pretty lucky that I have, that I took the time and foresaw that having an education, even though it was hard while I was training full time, that it would pay off".* However, two athletes shared that although they were pursuing their education, they lacked non-sport experiences, and had some level of uncertainty regarding life after sport.

Support

Unanimously, athletes shared they received a lot of highly valued support from family. Athletes had mixed responses when asked about support from coaches and sport organizations, related to sport-life balance and non-sport pursuits. Some athletes expressed they felt supported, while others expressed that coaches and sports organizations deterred the athletes from non-sport pursuits. One athlete described this; *"In my experience they [national sport organization/coaches] are definitely not supportive of athletes that want to take full time classes at the same time that they are training".*

Discussion

Athlete Balance

The majority of athletes reported being able to maintain some level of sport/life balance leading up to and during the Games. There was a slight increase in lack of balance during the Games, which is understandable as many athletes reported that they prefer to focus solely on sport during competition. Interestingly, athletes reported a significant increase in difficulty finding balance post-Games. This is consistent with existing research that suggests athletes who participate in major games can experience a post-game let down, which is often referred to as "post-games blues" (Henriksen et al., 2020). Post-games can be a time of increased vulnerability for athletes as they are often mentally and physically exhausted, have been disconnected from family and friends, and experience a less regimented schedule, all of which contribute to difficulty finding of balance (Henrikson et al., 2020; Dehghansai et al., 2021).

When athletes were asked about the effects that their sport/life balance had on their performance at the 2019 Pan American and Para Pan American Games, nearly half reported they were either unsure or believed there was no connection between the two. This suggests that a large portion of athletes are unaware of the positive impact that sport-life balance can have on their performance at major Games. Interestingly, a smaller subset of athletes responded that sport-life balance hurt their performance, which may be due to the perception that non-sport pursuits act as a distraction. Half of those athletes had also reported feeling *somewhat unbalanced* leading up to the Games. These results suggest there may be an opportunity for more athlete education and outreach, specifically related to the link between sport/life balance and overall performance.

Support

Overwhelmingly, athletes felt they received the most support from family and friends. These results exemplify the importance of athletes' external support systems. Game Plan might consider the integration of family and friends within the services provided to athletes. For example, Game Plan may consider developing programs such as *Webinars for Loved Ones* to help foster and facilitate communication among athletes and their external support about sport and non-sport interests alike. This may also help athletes prioritize their lives outside of sport.

In addition to family and

friends, athletes reported they felt supported by coaches, teammates and sports psychologists. Leading up to the games, most athletes reported they felt their coach was supportive. Interestingly, of the athletes who felt their coach was *extremely supportive*, 80% were *satisfied* or *extremely satisfied* with their overall performance at the games. These results demonstrate the importance of the relationship between coach and athlete.

Nearly a quarter of athletes reported that their coach was neither supportive nor unsupportive of non-sport pursuits, while a quarter reported their coach was unsupportive to some degree. Additionally, of the athletes who reported this lack of coach support, only three athletes reported achieving their goals at the 2019 Pan American and Para Pan American Games. These results suggest that it would be valuable for coaches to receive education regarding the importance of sport/life balance. Promotion of sport/life balance among coaches might contribute to an increased understanding and support for athlete development and pursuits outside of sport.

Limitations and Implications for Future Research

The current study had a response rate of 15%, only 72 of 475 athletes. Therefore, the results might not be representative of the athlete population. The low response rate may be due to a lack of monetary incentive for the survey completion and no follow-ups with targeted respondents. These issues will be addressed in future debrief studies. Additionally, post-games can often be a difficult time for athletes, it is possible this may have impacted the response rate.

This study is the first in a series of post Pan/Para Pan American Games debrief surveys, exploring similar themes. Future debrief studies will use similar validated scales and items, to collect longitudinal data regarding the role of sport-life balance and well-being on athletic performance. Although there is a growing body of related research, it would be beneficial to explore these phenomena further within the Canadian landscape of sport to tailor support programs to the unique needs of Canadian athletes. Future research in this area might lead to increased buy-in Game Plan's total athlete wellness philosophy from all stakeholders, including national sport organizations and coaches.

Evidenced by the survey results, coaches play a critical role in an athlete's sport/life balance and ultimately on their performance. As such it would be beneficial to consider a survey targeting coaches' perceptions about athlete balance and its impact on performance outcomes. Capturing coaches' perspectives about athlete non-sport pursuits would allow for more targeted and multipronged interventions as well as provide context to athlete's concerns and perspectives.

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GRADUATE STUDENT RESEARCH BRIEF

Bridging the Disconnect Between Academic Institutions and Employers in the 4th Industrial Revolution

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Abstract

The skills gap is widening and causing greater inequality in the today's workplace. Bridging the disconnect between academic institutions and employers in the 4th industrial revolution is of critical importance to the success of our current market.

Combining and analyzing both qualitative data gathered from key focus groups and a literature review, it is evident that a commitment to self- directed learning requires students and faculty to both understand the value of empowering learning, and to take increased responsibility for decision making. Academic institutions need to address skills required to become self-directed learners and must present students with the environment that lets them be more self-directed. Employers on the other hand must provide institutions with the skills they require upon hiring.

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This project was also initiated and completed in partnership with Career Development and Cooperative Education, Faculty of Science, McMaster University.

The skills gap is widening and causing greater inequality in today's workplace (Alison, 2021). Our economy within the fourth industrial revolution is skewed towards the highly talented, yielding a greater inequality – particularly within the labour market (World Economic Forum, 2021). The fourth industrial revolution, a term coined by the founder of the World Economic Forum – Klaus Schwab – is the reality of connected technology whereby individuals are able to manage their lives digitally (Xu et al. 2018). As a result, there are social consequences for those graduating from academic institutions during this technological revolution and the gap between efficiency and market value continues to widen (Muhleisen, 2018). Automation will continue to substitute labour across the global economy, and the displacement of employed individuals by machines may exacerbate the gap between returns to labour and capital (Xu et al. 2018). The most valuable and scarcest resource at this time is neither traditional labour or capital, but rather innovators. The acquisition of talent will give rise to a labour market that is segregated. Those that are relatively lower skilled and have lower wages will be repossessed by digitization, while those with advanced skills and higher wages will remain untouched. This disjunction is what will lead to social consequences (Xu et al. 2018). Newer technologies have taken power over traditional means of operating. Netflix is competing with cable TV; taxis are competing with Uber and Lyft (Xu et al. 2018), and the list goes on.

The way in which we live has been dramatically altered – not to mention the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic. While neither the outcome of the pandemic nor the technological revolution was ever initially predicted, one thing is for certain – the response to the transformation must involve an integrated and comprehensive process whereby the global polity is included in the decision making power. Why? This revolution is unlike any of the ones that preceded. The speed, scale and complexity is unmatched and has the potential to lead to extreme inequality that can significantly transform the world we live in (Xu et al. 2018). Students feel lost, and there is a miscommunication between ex-

pectations and desired outcomes. Many have no idea how to make themselves stand out from the rest of the population, making it extremely difficult to transition from academia to employment. Understanding the current institutional barriers along with what employers are seeking must be included in the solvable equation.

The Initial Realization

It wasn't until I was sitting in my graduation ceremony, hearing the names of hundreds of students being called across the stage that I realized we all learned the exact same thing, had the exact same grades, produced the exact same work and were given the same essay topics. I watched as each of us walked across that stage like objects on a production line smiling not having a clue what we would do next. There was no standing out. I looked at my fellow students and really thought to myself that we are all the same. Surely one student may have gotten 5 percent higher than another on a test, and they may have run faster than the previous in sports, but they were all pretty much the same. Leaving that graduation ceremony felt as much of a success as it did as an inconclusive essay, where the subjects were identifiable, but the plot remained unfinished.

But academic institutions are not solely to blame for this lack of confidence instilled in their student population. As I left that graduation ceremony, I realized that nowhere along my educational trajectory had employers been connected to my program. I was left with raw knowledge and skills that I questioned were applicable to the real world. Of course this is not every students' experience, but this was mine.

Research

After years of trying to find my path transitioning from academia to experiential learning, I began to realize the existing challenges that needed further exploration – the lack of clarity around defining self-directed learning, the expectations and skills that employers sought out and the question around whether I was taking the appropriate academic path that would one day lead me to my future interview. Speaking with other fellow peers, they too felt they were left with raw knowledge that they were not sure how to translate. I decided to explore what other like-minded institutions were already researching and wanted to build upon their foundational knowledge.

I became the lead researcher of the Students Partner Project, specifically, Preparing Science Graduate Students for Career Success, at McMaster University and began my analysis by conducting an in-depth literature reviews. Topics included: Self-guided education theory, self-directed learning (SDL), strategies for engaging students in career content, evidence-based research on why this topic is important, and what a hybrid approach to engaging students and supporting them in skills development may look like. In addition to the literature review, I conducted key informant focus groups with students who used the services of the Science Career & Cooperative Education department. This department offers cooperative education, career education, and experiential education for Faculty of Science Students at McMaster University.

Understanding Institutional Barriers

After conducting the preliminary literature review and theming analysis using an inductive approach, one of the greatest issues identified is the lack of consistency in defining self-directed learning. The second greatest issue is that there is no conceptual framework that is standardized amongst academic institutions. The thematic analysis stemmed from initial coding. Codes were identified by highlighting certain sections of the data, and then coming up with shortened labels to describe the information. Themes were then generated based on patterns identified and grouping of codes. The inconsistent use and descriptions to define SDL leads to communication difficulties when examining the concept and creates immense confusion as to how universities should facilitate its outset.

Based on the focus groups conducted with students, the findings suggested that students are left feeling controlled by institutional settings and their motivation for self-pursuing their

own passion declines. One student stated, "I often feel trapped because I am given topics to research as opposed to choosing what I am really passionate about. Therefore, I have no motivation to complete my work and my grades fall flat. I am left researching something that I have no interest about and am penalized for my effort."

According to Bain (2021), our desire to do something decreases if we have the feeling someone is controlling us. Extrinsic motivators that may be seen as means of control, such as grades, suppress one's internal desires to learn innately, and force students to learn by conditioning. Traditionally, academic institutions have been primed to create a culture that consists of memorizing information (Bain, 2021). This learning structure forces students to memorize correct multiple choice questions rather than encouraging them to be interested in the content themselves. Authors such as Bain (2021) and Caldwell (2020) argue that the concentration is on telling students what they need to remember without having them understand how to apply, synthesize and evaluate the content. As a result, students are unable to translate knowledge learned to real life experiences and instinctive curiosity is inhibited. For example, you can tell someone how to serve a volleyball, but will not be able to fully understand the experiential component without actually practicing it. If students are not completing courses with a burning desire to learn more, the academic system has failed its learners.

In terms of academic teaching style in certain parts of the world, traditionally, professors and instructors are taught to dictate learning rather than cultivating an environment where intrigue is brought to the forefront (Bain, 2021). This traditional learning structure where education relies on fear and power to stimulate interest in learning (for instance, telling a student "this will be on the test" or "your grades depend on this") only strengthens the disconnect between academia and employers. Environments inevitably shape behaviour related to cognition (Dweck & Murphy, 2009). Institutions rank students against each other and consciously embody the 'genius theory of learning' (Bain, 2021), surreptitiously implying that you are either smart or not. Students then feel less motivated to compete amongst those 'top-tiered' learners as their grades are displayed next to each other, subliminally promoting working alone rather than collaboratively (Bain, 2021). A study by Trzesniewski et al (2006). at the University of Michigan discovered that 80% of students surveyed based their self-worth on academic performance. We are told to stay in school in order to get good grades if we want to succeed in life. The catch is students fear negative outcomes, which impedes their learning. A study conducted by Rogerseon & Scott (2010) found that the fear of potentially failing led to "classic symptoms of procrastination and avoidance" along with low self-esteem. Another found that students were far less likely to take on challenging tasks when grades were involved (Harter, 1978), but far more likely to seek out challenging problems without a grading system (Deci et al. 1996). It is important to caution against institutions being taught to concentrate on correcting students' work rather than providing feedback while letting the student take charge of their own pursuits. The "correction" approach leads to increased dropout rates and significantly decreases morale (Bain, 2021).

Impact of the Fourth Industrial Revolution

Academic institutions are not solely to blame for the situation mentioned previously. Companies today have a lot more market competition (Gandolf, 2021) while dealing with reduced profit margins, and at the same time they are dealing with an exponential speed of modern breakthroughs that has no historical precedent (Xu et al. 2018). We are no longer evolving at a linear pace, heralding the transformation of governance structures and systems of production. Global shareholders have this weaponized financial capital that never existed years ago where companies cannot underperform - one example being the Saudi Sovern Wealth Fund (Young, 2020). This wealth fund, also known as the Public Investment Fund (Salzman, 2020), has aggressively invested its $360 billion around the world into developing and underdeveloped sectors. In turn, compression on their margins becomes an existentially financial

threat for companies and they are forced to reduce the expenditures on employee development.

One strategy for overcoming this systemic issue is continuing to increase the public financial market where financial commodities are traded for immediate delivery of talent (Kumar & Tan, 2018; Hu & Ma, 2016; Kwarteng, 2014), through means such as online licensing programs. This online instrument could include an experiential component that can be used for individuals globally, regardless of location. It is apparent that skills in today's economy require a self-directed learning approach, with experiential learning being part of that learning. Technology is one means for connecting students to the right employers – it is a means that has the capability to connect billions of people through mobile devices (Reed et al. 2014). Connection through unprecedented processing power, storage capabilities and access to knowledge is incalculable.

In our global market, we have a supply side and demand side dislocation (Garnero & Pagani, 2021). In other words, in our supply side of the labour market, we are seeing the rise of retirement stemming from the baby boomer population while at the same time have increasingly competitive markets for global talent (Douglass & Edelstein, 2009). Although the COVID pandemic has diminished labour market participation, corporations have been outsourcing talent globally to meet the needs of companies (Pissarides, 2020; Erickson & Norlander, 2021). On the demand side, we are in the fourth industrial revolution where the type of talent companies are looking for is changing. Many jobs are automated and we have a rise of remote work and project succession (Leonard, 2020). It is apparent that companies are trying to figure out their hiring profile as they can hire globally as opposed to limiting the application pool to their inner city population.

Potential Solution

In my opinion, we do not need more courses. What we do need is a global online platform that has wrap around services that can support students matching their skills set with the appropriate employers. Based on my experience as a student, sessional faculty at McMaster University and researcher, employers can be the ones that provide these supportive skills and help them understand the threats they may face within the new revolution we are in. Constant self-development is crucial for keeping up with the global change of pace and the majority of people do not understand that the change of pace is accelerating far beyond the norm. We are seeing rapid advancements and breakthroughs in fields such as robotics, nanotechnology, quantum computing and many others (World Economic Forum, 2016). The problem is that it is difficult to train individuals for general white-collar work without knowing exactly what they are going to do with their desired path. In terms of a global solution, there needs to be a culture shift that draws the model of education from preparing students for something extremely specific to train them universally to have transferable skills (Lazenbnikova et al. 2019; Nagele & Stalder, 2017). Transferable skills in relation to employability are significantly important and competition nowadays requires students to offer an employer more than just academic achievements (Muhamad, 2012). In my own experience, the skills I have acquired throughout my lifetime are my most valuable assets that employers have noticed. If I knew which skills employers required up front however, I could have significantly enhanced my profile and perhaps been even more prepared. Employers and corporations need to provide institutions with the soft skills they require, early on in a student's trajectory so that they have the time to develop these skills and apply them in practice. As we all try to navigate this changing economy, it is important that we think about our existing skills and how we can apply these to our daily lives. Taking a moment to identify these crucial skills may help to determine the skills that one is potentially lacking or missing.

Applying our Innate Creativity to Shaping Future Models

Studies have shown that if you let children follow their own curiosity, "they will learn by tinkering about, discovering something new, and teaching each other" (Bain, 2021; Jirout, 2020;

Berlyne, 1954; Howard-Jones & Demetrious, 2009). The thirst for knowledge is intrinsic in our ancient DNA and each of us is born with insatiable curiosity (Bain, 2021). How can institutions put a grade on someone's thinking? Inextricably, how can employers demand certain hard skills when wanting to increase their innovative side while employing critical problem-solving skills? In other words, how do we prevent stagnancy? Discontent amongst our population is fueled by the pervasiveness of rigid viewpoints and propagated by unrealistic expectations. How can the corporate sector decide what constitutes as success for an individual or a group when creativity is subjective?

Based on my thematic analysis from the focus groups and my own experience navigating through the system, I argue that most importantly, institutions need to better prepare students for the employability in the real world. Second, employers need to be more heavily involved in a students' academic trajectory. Third, societies reliance on rigid testing and grading structures prevents the exploration or curiosity, thus hindering our ability to problem solve. The only way our society can advance is by teaching transferable skills throughout the entirety of one's academic journey, increasing employer involvement at the institution level and by not conforming to standard answers and developing something new. Sure, some may debate that there are merits of rigid testing that is based on logic and evidence, but wouldn't this curb our curiosity to some extent? How can we, as human beings, think that we can tell someone the exact quality of their thinking ability with scientific accuracy that might otherwise used to measure velocity or some complex physics equation? The truth is we can't.

Although I am a strong enthusiast when it comes to the adoption of new technologies within the Fourth Industrial Revolution, I do question whether the inexorable integration of modern methodologies inhibits quintessential human capacities such as creativity.

Strategies for Addressing the Disconnect between Academia and Employers

Having control over one's own learning situation is only one component of self-directed learning. According to Bain (2021) and other authors such as du Toit-Brits (1975), self-directed learning is also based on one's willingness to learn, how they choose to apply their critical judgement skills and knowing what options are available. With this said, institutions must take into account and adapt to the learning situations to varying stages of self-directed students (Bain 2021). In order to create strong learning environments, academic institutions must be conscious of the vast differences that exist in regards to the ability of and will of students to self-direct themselves. When looking at system transformational strategies, institutions need to help students understand that they are the authors of their own work and help them learn to self-assess their surrounding environment.

Addressing the disconnect between current education programs and the skills employers require is of critical importance. Based on the literature highlighted above and from my own experiences, there are two skills that are often overlooked in terms of their importance but are absolutely vital to success. The first skill is communication-in both written and verbal form. The second, is teamwork skills- espeically given our diverse and rapidly evolving global systems that we are interconnected within. Teamwork and interpersonal skills connect us to the critical thinking we need to inform change.

One of the first steps in solving existing barriers is understanding the problem we have at hand. Without fully understanding the issues, an effective framework cannot be built. Based on the focus groups with students at McMaster University, it is apparent that students have skills but they are not able to translate those skills, and second, students are going through school then stopping. However, learning is not a one-time interaction, but rather a lifelong journey. The skills employers seek do not match with the skills current job seekers possess (Nijhof & Brandsma, 1999; Mishra & Mishra, 2019). Some are seeking hard skills which really only have a short half-life because they are continuously evolving, whereas

soft skills are the ones that carry students throughout life's journey (Appleby, 2017).

As mentioned, students can memorize information, but if they are unable to transfer that knowledge it is essentially useless. We need to change the paradigm to incorporate experiential leaning and ask ourselves, how can the academic journey be an experience rather than just another requirement that must be completed?

Conclusion

Some countries may be more open to sharing ideas than other countries, and some may be better at attracting and retaining talent in a race to outperform their competitors. Some may way to protect their resources rather than share them globally on the talent podium. However, global companies must also realize that failure to acknowledge global shifts in accordance with the technological revolution will result in hampering a company's uptake on new technologies and will leave them trailing behind more agile competitors.

Globally, we are accelerating towards obtaining micro-credentials, which are essentially rapid training programs offered by academic institutions. Employers on the other hand need to be ready on the other side of the equation to provide students with reimbursement for obtaining those credentials. The global labour deficit is expected to reach nearly $8.5 trillion by 2030, and this is said to be attributed to the widening gap between higher education and industry (Matern, 2020). Although many are providing those options, they do not have official partnerships with the educational system (Lambert, 2021). A study by the Strada Education Network and Gallup (2018) found that 57% of hiring managers are not confident in their company's ability to employ the right talent from institutions (Lambert, 2021). This means employers must spend more in their development programs and there is a disconnect between what academia is teaching and the actual needs of the market (Lambert, 2021). Thus, designing a new framework would help to address the connectivity issues and boost partnership agreements. In supporting the notion of micro-credentials, from my own experience and that of the focus groups', some employers and institutions are heavily focused on transcripts. Grades however do not show your skills. We have faculty members that are constantly working on planning these great courses, but these courses do not explain what skills you have just acquired and thus students have no idea what skills they may just have obtained in a course. One student stated, "after completing an English literature course, I knew the difference between several authors but that was about it. I don't really know if I gained a skill or improved an existing one." Designing a system that maps your skills, rather than just grades would help students by providing them with a tool to know what skills they just acquired no matter where they are in their education process. This type of transcript could potentially be a students' greatest return of investment upon graduation.

Furthermore, alumni that have been successfully integrated into the work force need to be brought back to academic institutions. They are the ones that can work with individuals in the community that are stunted because of their lack of skills and can guide them on a path that allows them to find the right program with supports in place.

Combining and analyzing both the qualitative data gathered from the participants and the information obtained from the literature, commitment to self- directed learning requires both students and faculty to understand the value of empowering learning to take increased responsibility for decision making. Academic institutions need to address skills required to become self-directed learners and must present students with the environment that lets them be more self-directed.

Recommendations

As stated by Nordstrom & Ridderstrale (2001), our global economies of scale are creating "surplus societies that have a surplus of similar companies, employing similar people with similar educational backgrounds, having them come up with similar ideas to produce similar products that are of similar quality." There are more business decisions that occur over a lunch or dinner as opposed to any other time, yet

no courses teach students how to apply the foundational theoretical knowledge learned in school to the real-world challenges we face.

Undoubtedly, academic institutions and employers are under a vast amount of pressure. Academia must produce a certain number of graduates, practically pumping out graduates on an assembly line, while employers are expected to hire only the best. However, there are significant advantages of upskilling students that will address the inadequacies of our current economic and academic structures.

Mentorship and coaching programs at a younger age are needed to help students understand what options they have in their future endeavors. These programs need to be instated by the provincial and territorial mandate, enforced at a regional level and customized at a micro level, based on the local demographic. Today we have individuals taking English literature ending up in software engineering roles, and we have history majors applying to the hospitality industry. Courses do not teach us experience, but there is capacity to teach transferable skills if our federal mandate includes the provision of mandatory experiential learning.

As previously discussed, a global online platform is another solution to bridging the current disconnect that exists between employers and institutions. This could be supported by the federal government in partnership with major employers. This would allow students the opportunity to take part in experiential learning earlier in their academic trajectory and would allow students to see the vast amount of information they learn in school and make the connections in what they want to achieve. Integrating and synthesizing the information and having the creative freedom to pursue their passion will drive talent to come forward in ways like we've never seen before. Striving towards a model that involves coordination will lead to a shared understanding that defines the top competencies that universities can start building. Once institutions start building common definitional expectations and outcomes-based expectations, a mutually agreed upon environment can be successful. The current lack of a shared language needs to be addressed.

In addition, we need more venture companies coming forward and taking advantage of existing capital that is being saved due to remote work. Every city has some sort of Chamber of Commerce or equivalent that can be part of the model of change. For instance, in launching the online platform, collaborative efforts may choose to do this in the form of an app - a mobile marketing app that would potentially match students and employers, while data sharing pertinent information. This structure of information exchange can help serve as the regions' connector and can help to provide labour market information that is driving the main search for current occupation openings. In conclusion, institutions need to better prepare students for the employability through experiential learning opportunities, and second, employers need to strengthen their partnerships with academic institutions.

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22

VOL 21/ NO 1

In this issue
Dans ce numéro

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