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FROM THE EDITOR'S DESK / DU BUREAU DE LA RÉDACTRICE EN CHEF

Editor/ Rédactrice en chef Dr. Jennifer Browne

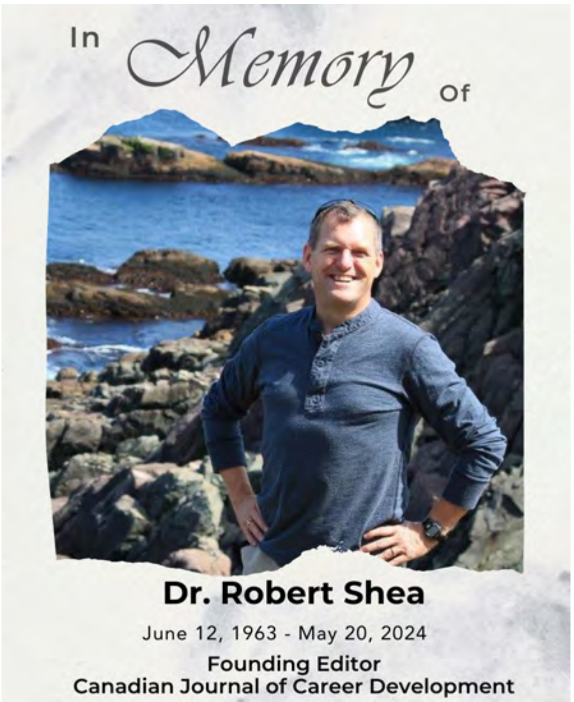
ARTICLES

ACADEMIC BOOK REVIEW

Volume 23, Issue 2 2024

FROM THE EDITOR'S DESK | DU BUREAU DE LA RÉDACTRICE EN CHEF

Dr. Jennifer Browne, **Editor/ Rédactrice en chef**



"You have brains in your head. You have feet in your shoes. You can steer yourself any direction you choose. You're on your own. And you know what you know. And YOU are the one who'll decide where to go..."

— Dr. Seuss, Oh, the Places You'll Go!

I write my first editorial for the Canadian Journal of Career Development (CJCD) with a heaviest of hearts. In May 2024, the field of career development lost one of its greatest champions, Dr. Robert (Rob) Shea. There are no shoes or heart big enough to fill the void he leaves in the lives of his loving family, and all those who were fortunate to know and learn from him. In 1998, as a graduate student interested in pursuing a career in Career Development, Rob agreed to be my co-supervisor for my internship at Memorial University's Career Centre. Little did I know then the impact that introduction would have on both my career and life.

One of the first things he told me about when we met all those years ago was his vision for Canada's first and only journal focused on Career Development. He was in the process of developing the original artwork for the cover, talking to different groups about funding, and getting people generally excited about what this could be. It is fitting that in his last editorial in the January 2024, Rob reflected on the Journal's humble beginnings and stated, "… we began the journal as a field of dreams concept – 'Build it and they will come'" and like so many of Rob's dreams, - they came true. You did come, and currently there are almost 16,000 subscribers worldwide and new subscribers steadily.

This current issue is the largest published to date. It includes incredible articles from across Canada and well beyond. Inside you will also find contributions from Africa, the Middle East and Asia, covering a smorgasbord of career-related topics focused on youth, young adults, employers, employees, career development theory, and career within today's context. Rob believed career development had no boundaries, geographical or otherwise, and would be ecstatic to see the global reach of this "humble" journal.

I am forever grateful to my dear mentor, colleague, cheerleader, and most importantly – friend for the support and encouragement provided over the past 26 years. He encouraged me and many others to pursue hard things, believe in what you do, and have a few laughs and adventures along the way. Rob will be deeply missed by the career communities locally, nationally, and internationally, especially by those who were fortunate to consider him a dear friend. We can continue his legacy by carrying the bright torch he lit in the career field, disseminating cutting edge research, mentoring and supporting graduate students, influencing the work of career practitioners and ultimately making a difference in the lives of those who directly benefit from career supports.

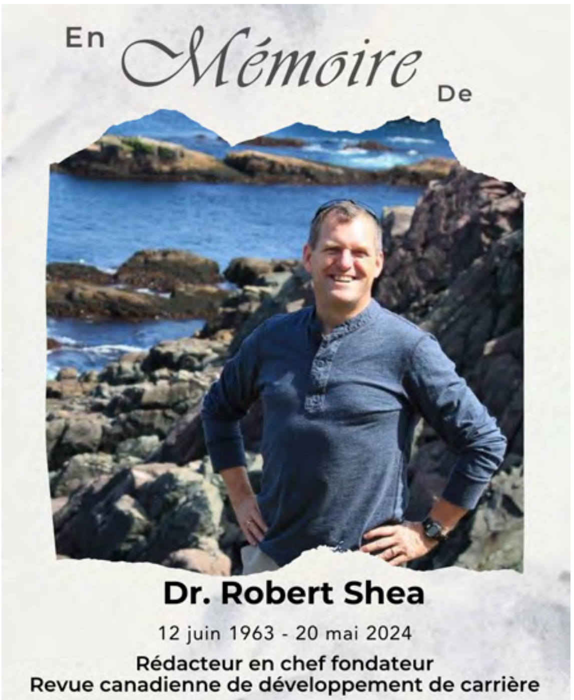
As we continue to navigate the CJCD without its founder, I am confident that the future is very bright. With continued support from CERIC, Memorial University, the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council, our incrediable Associate Editor Diana Boyd, and so many others, there are many hands to carry the torch for years to come. I hope he is smiling down and thrilled we have stepped up to ensure the CJCD will continue to flourish. Newton once said, *"If I have seen further, it is by standing on the shoulders of giants.*" Rob was a giant for me personally, and for the field of Career Development. Thank you, Rob, for helping us all see further.

Until we meet again my friend.

Jennifer Browne

FROM THE EDITOR'S DESK | DU BUREAU DE LA RÉDACTRICE EN CHEF

Dr. Jennifer Browne, Editor/ Rédactrice en chef



« Vous avez un cerveau dans la tête. Vous avez des pieds vos chaussures. Vous pouvez vous diriger dans n'importe quelle direction de votre choix. Vous êtes autonome. Et vous savez ce que vous savez. Et c'est VOUS qui déciderez où aller... »

— Dr. Seuss, Oh, les endroits où vous irez !

C'est avec le cœur lourd que je rédige mon premier éditorial pour la Revue canadienne de développement de carrière (RCDC). En mai 2024, le secteur du développement de carrière a perdu l'un de ses plus grands champions, Robert (Rob) Shea, Ph. D. Il n'y a pas de chaussures ou de cœurs assez grands pour combler le vide qu'il laisse dans la vie de sa famille aimante et de toutes les personnes qui ont eu la chance de le connaître et d'apprendre à ses côtés. En 1998, alors que j'étudiais aux cycles supérieurs et que je souhaitais poursuivre une carrière dans le développement de carrière, Rob a accepté d'être mon co-superviseur pour mon stage au Centre de carrières de l'Université Memorial. J'étais alors loin de me douter de l'impact que cela aurait sur ma carrière et sur ma vie.

L'une des premières choses dont il m'a parlé lorsque nous nous sommes rencontrés il y a quelques années était sa vision de la première et unique revue canadienne axée sur le développement de carrière. Il était en train d'élaborer la maquette originale de la couverture, de s'entretenir avec différents groupes au sujet du financement et de susciter l'enthousiasme général à l'égard de ce projet. Il est tout à fait approprié que dans son dernier éditorial, en janvier 2024, Rob revienne sur les humbles débuts de la revue et déclare : « ... nous avons commencé la revue comme un concept de champ de rêves – 'Construisez-le et ils viendront' ». Et comme tant de rêves de Rob, ils se sont réalisés. Vous êtes venus, et il y a actuellement près de 16 000 abonnés dans le monde et de nouveaux abonnés régulièrement.

Ce numéro est le plus grand publié à ce jour. Il comprend des articles incroyables provenant de tout le Canada et bien au-delà. Vous y trouverez également des contributions d'Afrique, du Moyen-Orient et d'Asie, couvrant un large éventail de sujets liés à la carrière, axés sur les jeunes, les jeunes adultes, les employeurs, les employés, la théorie du développement de carrière et la carrière dans le contexte actuel. Rob pensait que le développement de carrière ne connaissait pas de frontières, géographiques ou autres. Il serait ravi de voir la portée mondiale de cette « humble » revue.

Je suis à jamais reconnaissante à mon cher mentor, collègue, meneur et surtout ami pour le soutien et l'encouragement qu'il m'a apportés au cours de ces 26 dernières années. Il m'a encouragée, ainsi que beaucoup d'autres, à poursuivre des objectifs difficiles, à croire en ce que nous faisons, et nous avons partagé rires et aventures en cours de route. Rob sera profondément regretté par les communautés professionnelles locales, nationales et internationales, en particulier par ceux et celles qui ont eu la chance de le considérer comme un ami cher. Nous pouvons perpétuer son héritage en portant le flambeau qu'il a allumé dans le secteur du développement de carrière, en diffusant des recherches novatrices, en encadrant et en soutenant les étudiants et étudiantes aux cycles supérieurs, en influençant le travail des intervenants en développement de carrière et, en fin de compte, en changeant la vie des personnes qui bénéficient directement du soutien à l'avancement de la carrière.

Alors que nous poursuivons notre travail au sein de la RCDC sans son fondateur, je suis convaincue que l'avenir est très prometteur. Grâce au soutien continu du CERIC, de l'Université Memorial, du Conseil de recherche en sciences humaines, notre incroyable rédactrice en chef adjointe, Diana Boyd, et tant d'autres, il ya a beaucoup de mains pour porter le flambeau dans les années venir. J'espère que Rob a le sourire aux lèvres et qu'il est ravi que nous nous soyons mobilisés pour que la RCDC continue à prospérer. Newton a dit un jour, « Si j'ai vu si loin, c'est parce que je me tenais sur les épaules de géants. ». Rob a été un géant pour moi personnellement et pour le secteur du développement de carrière. Merci, Rob, de nous aider à voir plus loin.

Jusqu'à ce que nous nous rencontrions à nouveau, mon ami.

Jennifer Browne

Successful Career Decision-Making of Young Canadians in a Digital Economy

Esther Nordin & Dr. Deepak Mathew
Trinity Western University

Abstract

Young Canadians are making career decisions in a labour market context that is being transformed by technology and digitization. The rapid, unbalanced shifts brought on by technology and automation have left gaps in knowledge related to how young people are navigating their career decisions considering the emergence of the digital economy and the way career practitioners can best support young people in successfully exploring career options. This study explored factors that helped and hindered 14 young adults who self-identified as doing well navigating career decision-making within the multiple options, opportunities, and challenges posed by the digital economy. Through the Enhanced Critical Incident Technique (ECIT), a qualitative research method, seven categories were identified to house the 147 incidents participants described as helpful and hindering: (a) access, awareness, and education, (b) interpersonal factors, (c) social media and career related platforms, (d) digital technology, (e) workplace and environmental factors, (f) flexibility, well-being, and resources, (g) intrapersonal factors. The findings highlight specific personal, relational, and contextual factors that have helped and challenged young adults in career decisions considering the impact of digitization. Implications for career practitioners and educators are discussed, followed by directions for future research.

Keywords: Digitization, digital economy, COVID-19, career development, career counselling, young people, enhanced critical incident technique (ECIT)

Increasing digitization and automation in the past decade have transformed the world of work and the economic activities that influence the job market. The coming decade is preparing for even more significant shifts due to technological developments in artificial intelligence, advanced data analytics, Internet of Things, telepresence, synthetic biology, blockchain technologies, and decentralized production technologies such as 3D printing (Policy Horizons Canada, 2018). The COVID-19 pandemic exacerbated the shift toward the use and reliance on technology in a wide diverse range of industries and career fields (Cheshmehzangi, 2021). These changes are transforming people's careers in historically unparalleled ways.

The significance of digital technologies heralding the 'fourth industrial revolution' (Schwab, 2017) is recognized as one of the sixteen emerging global challenges identified for the next generation in Canada (Policy Horizons Canada, 2018). The notion of traditional occupations that have provided vocational stability is vanishing, and university students are being trained for occupations that are yet to be discovered (Livingstone, 2018). The higher-than-average remuneration for IT professionals and the increased demand for such jobs in comparison to other jobs (Statistics Canada, 2019) bear testimony to the pressure faced by young people in making career decisions that defy the traditional notion of selecting career paths that match interests, values, attitudes, and personality. One of the many effects that workers in the digital economy face is the looming fear of unemployment and the pressure for skill development that might be beyond the scope of many workers' means or abilities (Balsmeier & Woerter, 2019). Despite these challenges, there are also people who are adapting to these rapidly evolving changes (CERIC, 2023). What we can learn from these individuals constitutes the focus of this study.

The Digital Context

The "digital economy" refers to the emergence of digital technologies that have transformed the way in which the production, delivery, and consumption of goods and services are carried out. The digitally enabled marketplace uses online platforms for exchanging and transacting merchandise, services, and finances. The newer business models based on digital technologies (e.g. e-commerce & online shopping) have synced well with how social media channels help to create networks of business agents and consumers across the globe (Loranger, Sinclair, & Tebrake, 2018). These changes are impacting the economic indicators with implications for career development. Statistics Canada (2019) reports that in the last decade "the nominal GDP of digital economic activities (+40.2%) grew at a faster pace than the overall economy (+28.0%)".

While the impact of such a transformation is being experienced in multiple spheres of our lives, the implication of this change for career development has yet to be identified. Many employees are experiencing, or have already experienced, the shock of the digital revolution through layoffs and are also under pressure to upgrade their skills to keep up with the inevitable change. The percentage of automatable jobs in Canada is predicted to range from 35% to 42% (Arntz et al., 2016; Deloitte & HRPA, 2017). Young people are witnessing the impact of digitalization on career and the potential disappearance of traditional occupations that were once the "bread and butter" of previous generations. Some examples of jobs that are at high risk of automation include accountants, insurance brokers, paralegal professionals, and real estate agents (Deloitte & HRPA, 2017). On the other hand, jobs that are related to the digital economy have grown more than four times in comparison to job growth in the overall economy (Statistics Canada, 2019).

Scholarly literature around career development as applied to digitalization and automation is only picking up momentum within the last few years and in a limited way. The major highlight has been the emphasis on the impact of this major economic and social change to the nature of work, the disappearance of jobs, the modality of conducting business, and the emergence of newer occupations (Ford, 2015; Medici et al., 2023b). There is also a reference to how the structure of society is anticipated to change due to digitalization and automation. For example, Hirschi (2018) predicted that occupations that are likely to fall prey to automation are the ones that have been traditionally carried out by middle and lower-skilled workers. This prediction is further supported by Balsmeier & Wortzer (2019), who found that investment in machine-based digital technologies was positively associated with employment for high-skilled workers and negatively associated with the employment of low-skilled workers. Although the authors reported an overall positive net effect on employment, they warn about the expected increase in inequality between those with and without technological skills and abilities. Findings such as these contribute to warranted concern for increased job polarization and the proliferation of the gig economy (De Stefano, 2016). Research has since begun exploring various factors influencing how workers are adapting to deal with changing work environments and technological advancement, including technological self-efficacy and occupational mobility intentions (Medici, 2023a).

Digital Divide

The digital divide is a broad term referring to the gap between demographics that have access and those who do not have access to the internet and modern technology (Warschauer, 2003). More sophisticated understandings of the digital divide have been proposed to highlight differentials beyond access, including skills, usage, emotional costs, and benefits related to levels of engagement with technology (Huang et al., 2015; Ragnedda, 2017; van Deursen & van Dijk, 2015). Ragnedda (2017) underscores three interconnected levels of the digital divide, namely access, use, and benefits related to technological engagement. The author shares that access to "the internet may support users in increasing social capital while gaining benefits in economic, personal, and cultural terms." Therefore, access to the internet is only the first level of the digital divide and having a particular set of skills and motivations to use the technological infrastructure is also essential to harness the multifaceted benefits available (Ragnedda, 2017; van Deursen & van Dijk, 2015). Research has described multiple barriers to entering and gaining experience in the digital landscape for people who are digitally excluded (Eynon, 2015). Limitations to access, support networks, and digital skills have been found to deprive young people of motivation to engage in technologies or perceive them as valuable (Eynon, 2015). Additionally, the digital divide that has contributed to the difference in comfort and confidence may be understood from the framework of digital capital, which is a "subform of cultural capital linked to the use of digital technologies and contemporary cyber culture" (Gomez, 2021, p. 2537). Notably, recent research found a widening of the digital divide within the context of the COVID-19 pandemic (Hirschi et al., 2022).

Although digitization and technological advancement has been discussed in relation to increased division amongst demographics with and without access, some scholars believe that the future of work and digitization is far from bleak. While the transformation of the world of work is expected to bring about some uncertainty and confusion, it also heralds the beginning of a completely new set of jobs, skills, and vocational paths that could minimize some of the risks associated with unsafe jobs and doing away with routine and monotonous tasks that are often experienced as dull and unpleasant (Lent, 2018). Additionally, the flexibility of designing your career trajectory and having the freedom to choose tasks and assignments consistent with one's interest and goals at a pace that best suits people's stage of life has been identified as an advantage. What remains unknown is how the benefits and challenges associated with a digital economy can be applied to individual decision-makers to help them plan for successful career development.

Transforming the Conceptualization of Career

The digital economy contributes towards challenging the very conceptualization of career, as has been understood in the past. Career has traditionally been conceptualized as paid employment, and some of the earlier career theories focused on linking developmental stages of individuals to the different stages of career development (e.g. Super, 1980). The earlier career theories assumed changes to be mostly related to people's age and developmental stage and did not attend to changes evident in the world of work, nor newer challenges posed by economic and social changes. The work-life climate of the 21st Century points towards redefining the notion of career development. Career is now understood as comprising meaningful life activities over time, which may include paid employment and may also include an individual's sense of passion or interest in an activity (Borgen & Hiebert, 2006). With the broadened view of career, most theories recognize that through the process of career development people continuously integrate their contexts and construct their lives, including their work lives (Cranford et al., 2003; Savickas et al., 2009; Tims & Bakker, 2010). The expanded view of career and the associated assumptions now guide career practitioners to identify and use principles and processes that develop, promote, and enhance effective decision-making in meaningful life activities over time (Riverin-Simard & Simard, 2011). However, the challenges that the digital economy presents are unparalleled and have brought about more rapid changes than what career literature, assessment methods, and job-related information has equipped us with. Hence, there is a need to continue exploring the lived experiences of people who are successfully managing their career decision-making to inform theory development.

For young people making decisions about work and employment, career development is best discussed within the framework of youth transitions (Blustein et al., 1997). It involves a transition that intersects school-life, adult life, and work-life. Hence, a successful transition experience is expected to impact career development. There are both opportunities and risks associated with youth transitions (Arnett, 2000; Beaujot & Kerr, 2007). These transitions may or may not be supported by existing larger socio-economic structures and/or cultural frameworks. These contextual influences on transition impact identity development of youth (Schwartz et al., 2012). Hence, it is important to explore and fully understand how the contextual changes brought about by the booming digital economy are affecting both the identity and career development of young people who are journeying through multiple transition experiences. This relationship has not been adequately addressed in the literature, partly because this area of focus is an emerging area. The possibility of supporting career development of young people in the 21st century rests on increased scholarship and active research on the relationship between vocational choices and contextual influences, especially related to digitalization. This study aims to address this gap in literature and advance theory development and further opportunities for practice recommendations for young people making career decisions in a digital economy.

Theoretical Framework

The traditional theories of career development mainly focused on the internal characteristics of the individual such as interests, abilities, values, personality, and aptitude (Inkson & Elkin, 2008). Some of the classic theories of career, such as Holland's theory of vocational personalities and work environment, Super's self-concept theory of career development, Gottfredson's theory of circumscription and compromise, and the social cognitive career theory, while acknowledging the role of environmental influence do not fully recognize contextual aspects of career development (Inkson & Elkin, 2008). Much of the focus in these theories have been on personal characteristics of the decision-maker and the characteristics of the workplace to find a possible 'fit' between the individual and the 'right' vocation. This can be somewhat limiting in the face of the present-day challenges of global careers and a digital economy. More recently, constructivist theories that highlight the importance of contextual factors have gained popularity (Guichard, 2005; Leong & Gupta, 2008; Patton, 2008). Some of these theories have a wider reach and account for the complexity of a globalized world. They also acknowledge the influence of environmental social systems on career decision-making and have incorporated dimensions of culture into the theories. Current theories, in keeping with the modern changes, have integrated aspects of globalization, contextual and cultural influences, social justice, and economic advances and uncertainties (Anderson et al., 2012; Arthur & Collins, 2010; Krumboltz, 2009; McMahon, 2005; Pope, 2009; Pryor & Bright, 2011). Yet, even when a broader perspective is adopted, such as seen in social cognitive career theory (SCCT; Lent et al., 2002), the onus on the individual for making progress is more burdensome than what is often anticipated by young people. This has been highlighted through findings of the importance and significance of self-efficacy in career decision making (Betz & Hackett, 2006). Self-efficacy refers to a person's belief in their capacity to execute a task or achieve a goal. Although attention to contextual factors was lacking in earlier theoretical models, the significance of self-efficacy demonstrated in previous research remains important to consider.

When attempting to understand the career development process of young people in this era of digitalization, one of the more recent theories that addresses facets of their unique transitional experience not fully captured by other theories is Schlossberg's (2011) model of life transitions. This theory focuses on the systemic factors that are common to all transitions, and the author suggests coping strategies to manage career development that intersect with transition. The theory pays attention to the '4 S's of transition' - situation, self, support, and strategies – that could both explain and be applied to the transition being experienced by young people within themselves as well as in the world of work. This model is more dynamic than the traditional "fit" models discussed above.

Emerging during the COVID-19 pandemic, which brought unprecedented and unexpected changes and transitions, the precarity lens (Blustein, 2022) draws attention to how individuals adapt and cope with uncertainty, loss, disruption, and anxiety. Along with the model of life transitions (Schlossberg, 2011), the precarity model addresses the additional layers of global uncertainty that were current throughout this study. The author of the model maintains that in times of uncertainty and loss, individuals engage in resilience and resistance to overcome structures and societal barriers that hinder their career goals. In the context of the digital economy, young people are vulnerable to the ongoing and unstoppable structural and economic forces that influence and determine their vocational future. Previous generations have yet to experience these changes, and thus, young people are left with little guidance and support in navigating this transition.

The objectives of the present study are consistent with this framework in terms of helpful and hindering factors experienced by young people when making career decisions and how it is perceived by career practitioners keeping to the context of the digital economy. However, the study hopes to build on this theory to expand the relationship between career decision-making and the transforming economy impelled by digitalization and automation.

Purpose of the Study

Although extant literature has described how the transition to the digital economy challenges career development (Hirschi, 2018; Medici, 2023a), there is a dearth of knowledge related to how these challenges are being overcome. An increased understanding of navigating successful career/employment transitions in the digital economy from the perspective of young workers and employees is critical in facilitating career development approaches that reflect the context in which these decisions are being made. This qualitative study sought to better understand the career decision-making process of young Canadians between the ages of 25 and 35 within a labour market increasingly influenced by digital technologies.

Research Objectives

The research objectives of this study were to identify important factors in the decision-making process of young people that have contributed to doing well in navigating the multiple options, opportunities, and challenges posed by the digital economy. The following objectives guided the study:

1. Understand how young people are making career decisions in a digital economy.
2. Determine what has helped and hindered young people in doing well with making career decisions in a digital market.
3. Investigate factors young people would have found helpful to make career decisions had the factors been available.

Methodology

Semi-structured interviews were used to explore what helped and hindered the career decision making process of young Canadians in a digital economy. Interviews were conducted using Zoom video platform software. The ECIT interview guided the process of exploring specific factors that were helpful, hindering, and wished for within participants' lived experiences of career decision-making. Prior to the ECIT portion of the interview, participants were asked for their personal responses to various contextual questions. These included: What does career mean to you? What does doing well in career decision-making mean to you? How has digitization played a role in your process of career decision-making? Through these questions, researchers sought to gain a deeper insight into the subjective perspectives and contexts of the participant sample. After the ECIT portion of the interview, participants were asked: What advice do you have for young people making career decisions in the digital economy? And what in your opinion should educators, counsellors, policy makers, or the government do differently to increase the success of young people making career decisions in the digital economy? These questions highlighted the recommendations and priorities of those who took part in the study. Lastly, demographic data was collected to facilitate the description of the sample.

Participants

This study was approved by the Human Research Ethics Board of Trinity Western University. Recruitment was done through recruitment posters on social media and around the university campus. Participants were also recruited through word of mouth and snowball sampling. In alignment with inclusion criteria, the 14 participants were young adults living in Canada who were between the ages of 25 and 35 (mean = 27.90; median = 28). Each participant self-identified as doing well, based on their own definition, in career decision-making considering the influence of digitization in the labour market. Participants were given an opportunity to elaborate of their definition of doing well in career decision making in the interview. Of the 13 participants, nine identified as female and four as male. In the sample, five participants identified as immigrants to Canada. The participants represented a diverse group of students and workers with a range of educational levels from trade school education to master's level degrees. See Table 1 for participant demographic information.

Enhanced Critical Incident Technique

The Enhanced Critical Incident Technique (ECIT) is a qualitative methodology, adapted from the Critical Incident Technique (CIT; Flanagan, 1954). Research questions exploring what helps and hinders a particular activity or experience can be well answered through the CIT method (Butterfield et al., 2009). The evolution of the ECIT method arose through various adaptations to the original CIT method, including the use of contextual questions that primed participants for the interview content and supported the gathering of contextual information related to the activity being explored. The addition of inquiring about factors participants would have found helpful if they had been available, also known as wish list items, was also part of the enhanced procedure. The adaptations that led to the enhanced method have made it applicable to studying phenomena in the field of counselling (Butterfield et al., 2005).

In this study the stated objectives entail obtaining a detailed description of what the participants have observed as helpful, hindering, or would have helped with a defined aim (here, career decision-making). This objective is best suited for the ECIT methodology (see Butterfield, Borgen, Maglio, & Amundson, 2009). The selection of the ECIT methodology was further informed on the methodology's suitability for preliminary explorations of phenomena for which extant literature is limited and for which no theory of framework exists. The methodology generates thorough, detailed descriptions of data based on participants' reporting on what they have observed in themselves, others, or in their environment (Woolsey, 1986). By following procedural guidelines outlined in the ECIT protocol researchers can explore the lived experience of participants while limiting the subjective bias of the researcher. Considering the dearth of extant literature aimed at exploring the pertinent topic of young Canadians career-decision making within an ever increasingly digital economy, the ECIT methodology was used to guide this exploration. This approach has been successfully utilized in studies involving similar research questions and populations (Arthur & Flynn, 2011; Britten & Borgen, 2010; Mathew, 2019).

In this study, participants were asked to provide detailed descriptions of factors that have supported and impeded their process of navigating career decisions in a digital economy. Following the ECIT protocol, participants were asked to name the factors, provide a rationale or description of how each factor

Table 1

Summary of Basic Demographic Data

Participant No.	Age	Sex	Education	Country of Origin	Professional Activity
1	24	M	Master of arts in leadership in healthcare	India	Consulting and freelancing
2	25	M	Bachelor in pharmaceutical sciences and post graduate diploma in international business	India	Healthcare and software technology
3	26	F	Bachelor in communication	Canada	Communications consultant and social media manager
4	27	F	Bachelor in commerce with a concentration in supply chain management	Canada	Equipment finance account manager
5	28	F	Bachelor of science in psychology	Canada	UX (user experience) researcher
6	29	F	Master in arts in counselling psychology	Canada	Mental health counsellor and business owner
7	32	F	Bachelor degree	South Africa	Content marketing manager
8	29	M	Master of arts in counselling psychology	India	Mental health counsellor
9	28	F	Bachelor of education	India	Secondary school teacher
10	26	F	Master of leadership in healthcare	India	Medical office assistant
11	32	F	Bachelor in political science	Canada	Clinical health associate
12	28	M	Culinary arts	Canada	Business owner in advertising and web services
13	32	F	Master of arts in counselling psychology	South Africa	Mental health counsellor
14	25	M	Computer science degree	Canada	Software developer

influenced them, and provide at least one specific example in which they were helped or hindered by the factor mentioned. Interviews were analyzed and the factors or *critical incidents* were identified and extracted, from which categories were constructed based on the similarity of incidents. Wish list items, which described factors participants believed would have been helpful had they been available, were also extracted and categorized.

Data Collection

Data was collected through 90-minute semi-structured interviews conducted virtually using Zoom software by a team of trained interviewers. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Data was stored using Atlas.ti, an encrypted password-only computer-based software program.

Participants from across Canada took part in the study, with the majority of participants residing in British Columbia. Prior to the interview, participants were sent a copy of the informed consent information and asked to consider their experiences of career-decision making as they relate to an increasingly digitized economy. The informed consent information was reviewed at the start of the interview. Participants were then asked various open-ended questions to gain a contextualized understanding of what doing well in career meant for each participant and how they perceived the influence of digitization in career decision-making. Next the ECIT interview protocol outlined by Butterfield et al. (2009) was conducted to determine helpful, hindering, and wish list factors. After the ECIT interview protocol, participants were asked what they recommend be done by policy makers to support young Canadians in the realm of career decision making considering the increasingly digital economy. Lastly, demographic data was collected.

In line with ECIT, interviews were conducted until exhaustiveness, also known as saturation, was reached. The interview process was standardized to maintain consistency across interviews. All participants were invited to take part in a follow-up credibility check via email to confirm or make changes to the critical incidents and categorization of their data. No changes were made at this credibility check, and no participants withdrew from the study.

Data Analysis

Data analysis proceeded through the steps described by Butterfield et al. (2009):

1. Determining the frame of reference;
2. Organizing and coding the raw data by identifying critical incidents (factors) and wish list items, then formulating the categories derived from grouping similar incidents; and
3. Determining the level of specificity or generality to be used in reporting the results (p. 271).

Transcription, coding, and categorization were done within the setting of a research team, involving the lead investigator and multiple research assistants.

In addition, the nine credibility checks specified by Butterfield et al. (2009) were employed to strengthen the trustworthiness of the findings:

1. Audio recording the interviews;
2. Interview fidelity;
3. Independent extraction of critical incidents;
4. Calculating exhaustiveness;
5. Calculating participation rates;
6. Placement of incidents into categories by an independent judge;
7. Cross-checking by participants;
8. Expert opinions; and
9. Theoretical agreement.

For a more detailed explanation of the credibility checks see Butterfield et al., 2009.

The expert opinion credibility check, in which experts in the field were asked to comment on the categories that emerged through participant accounts, garnered curiosity from one expert about the role of self-efficacy in young people's experience navigating career decisions in a digital economy. The other expert who was consulted inquired about the ways the digital divide was evidenced within the data. These considerations are addressed in the discussion section.

Results

This section begins with the analysis of the contextual and recommendation questions participants were asked within the interview, followed by a reporting of the ECIT results.

Meaning of Career and Doing Well

Participants' personal accounts of what career means included the following three themes:

1. Career as dynamic, unique, and process based,
2. Career as meeting needs and having needs met,
3. Career as a means of direction and growth.

Career was expressed as an ever-evolving process in which each role, experience, and decision was viewed as adding building blocks in the evolution of an individual's career path and experience. Career was described as a dynamic and long-term process to have needs met and meet the needs of society and others. Expressions of career as "where I can contribute" and "the impact I can have" illuminated understandings of ways career engages with and contributes to something beyond the individual. Participants also spoke of career being personally defined as a way of having financial, identity, and developmental needs met. The theme of career as a means of direction and growth was highlighted in descriptions of career as life activities that direct time and energy toward the aim and outcome of gleaning meaning and purpose.

As participants discussed subjective meanings of doing well with career-decision making, the following themes emerged:

1. Doing well as a personal process,
2. Doing well as alignment in strengths, skills, values, and desires and career roles/ opportunities,
3. Doing well as growth, learning, and sustainability.

Doing well in career-decision making was described as a unique, personal process. It was clear that when it comes to doing well in career decision making, one size does not fit all. Participants shared that being able to engage with personal values, skills, education, and strengths in the career realm is an essential part of what it means to do well. A reciprocal process that involves providing and receiving value in one's career was highlighted as a key component of what it means to do well. Growth, learning, and continued development were also named as markers of doing well in career decision making and engagement.

Role of Digitization in Career Decision Making

The role of digitization in career decision making, as described by participants, included two themes:

1. Increased access to career information, resources, and opportunities,
2. Change and uncertainty.

By and large, the influence of digitization of the process of career decision-making was discussed in terms of positive changes and impacts. For example, participants described the impact of digitization in relation to increased flexibility, job opportunity, and networking opportunity. Despite the recognition of the positive changes brought about by digitization, such as increased access to information and options, participants also highlighted challenging aspects of the rapid shifts, including anxiety accompanying the boundless information and options available through the internet. Further, digitization brought some participants to question the future relevance of specific career fields and roles considering projected digital advancements as they navigated their career decision-making path.

Participant's Recommendations for Young People and Policy Makers

When asked about what advice participants would offer to other young people navigating career decisions in a digital context, participants expressed advice to harness: (a) Interpersonal connections, (b) Intrapersonal confidence, (c) Contextual resources and options. Networking and asking others for help was advised to support young people in navigating the unfamiliar terrain of the evolving digital world. In addition, participants' advice highlighted the importance of taking risks and "putting yourself out there" to gain experience and explore options. The last theme of advice pertained to embracing technology and learning opportunities throughout the career process.

Additionally, participant responses offered recommendations for educators, counsellors, policy makers, and the government to increase the success of young people making career decisions in a digital economy. The recommendations were grouped into three themes:

1. Educate and prepare young people for digitization,
2. Provide support in adapting to ongoing changes,
3. Reduce inequity for marginalized populations and those facing added barriers.

The first theme highlights the desire for the intersection of career and digitization to be integrated into education. The young people in this study encouraged educators, counsellors, policy makers, and the government to consider incorporating more discussion and learning around digitization and the intersection of digitization and the world of work in educational settings. This recommendation was made with the hope that young people in Canada would be better informed and prepared for the continued impact of digitization on specific job fields and work environments. The second theme related to increasing support as young people adapt to ongoing changes and shifts caused by digital advancements. Support in learning how to utilize new technology and support in the transition from educational settings to workplace settings were specifically noted. The final theme of recommendations related to addressing the digital divide and focusing resources on supporting those who face added barriers to adapting and harnessing the benefits of an increasingly digital labour market. Ensuring marginalized populations were granted access to technology and support in learning how to use technology was a foundational recommendation. Additionally, from participants with lived experiences of immigration to Canada, recommendations for policy makers to consider immigrant credentials and support immigrants in meeting Canadian digital literacy standards was proposed.

ECIT Results

In responding to questions about what helped and hindered the participants' career decision making in a digital economy, participants offered specific factors or incidents with concrete examples. There were 147 critical incidents reported (58 helping; 48 hindering; and 41 wish list items) by the 14 participants in this study. From these incidents, seven categories emerged that were based on the incidents similarly to offer a thematic representation of the data. Findings are presented in Table 2. The table displays the number of participants who described an incident within each category (as helpful, hindering, or wished for), the percentage of participants who mentioned at least one incident within the category, and the total number of incidents contained in the category. The categories that emerged from the sorting of incidents mentioned include: (a) access, awareness, and education, (b) interpersonal factors, (c) social media and career-related platforms, (d) digital technology, (e) workplace and environmental factors, (f) flexibility, wellbeing, and resources, and (g) intrapersonal factors.

Helping

Within the seven categories that emerged from the data, four of the categories had a higher

Table 2

Categorization of Results

Categories	Helping			Hindering			Wish List		
	P#	P%	I#	P#	P%	I#	P#	P%	I#
Access, Awareness, and Education	11	78.57	11	8	57.14	11	10	71.43	15
Interpersonal Factors	9	64.29	15	5	35.71	8	6	42.86	11
Social Media and Career Related Platforms	8	57.14	13	3	21.43	3	0	0	0
Digital Technology	5	35.71	8	3	21.43	6	6	42.86	7
Workplace and Environmental Factors	4	28.57	4	7	50.00	11	4	28.57	4
Flexibility, Wellbeing, and Resources	3	21.43	5	4	28.57	4	1	7.14	2
Intrapersonal Factors	2	14.29	2	6	42.86	6	2	14.29	2

Note. P# = Number of Participants; P% Percentage of Participants; I# = Number of Incidents

representation of helping incidents than hindering incidents. These categories include: (a) access, awareness, and education, (b) interpersonal factors, (c) social media platforms, (d) digital technology.

Access, Awareness, and Education

In this category, 11 participants (79%) spoke about ways access, awareness, and education related to digital changes and technology were helpful in their process of navigating career decisions considering digitization. This category housed factors that related to having access to information, awareness, and knowledge of online tools, technology, and career-related information. This included levels of familiarity with technological advancements and changes in the labour market influenced by digitization. One of the participants highlighted the interconnection between access and information as she said, "you can really become, anybody can really become an expert in any field that they choose quite inexpensively. There's a lot of free information on the Internet, and you can really deep dive into what you're interested in" (22). Another participant shared, "having access from a young age to digital technology enabled me to become comfortable with exploring information online" (97).

In this category, eight participants (57%) shared incidents that impeded their process of career decision-making in a digital economy. One participant spoke of the challenging aspects of having copious amounts of information at her fingertips by saying, "there is so much information online that it can be, one, overwhelming to the psyche, and two, hard to find what you need. It's like looking for a needle in a haystack, right?" (97). Beyond the overwhelm due to information overload, another participant discussed the challenge of navigating what information can be trusted in the digital world.

He said:

> I am not sure if it's fair to say, but the number of scams and fraudsters that are available online... at the beginning of my career here in Canada, I did go through a job scam where they were offering a lucrative offer (79).

Interpersonal Factors

In the category of interpersonal factors, nine participants (64%) shared that incidents belonging to the interpersonal factors category were helpful. Critical incidents included in this category pertained to relationships and connections with others, such as relations with family, friends, colleagues, mentors, employers, and others in the community. Interpersonal activities such as networking, collaborating, relating with supportive others, and receiving advice and mentorship were things participants spoke of as they described the interpersonal aspects of navigating career decisions in an increasingly digital economy. One participant shared that "talking to other people that have transitioned from that in-person academia to more tech" was helpful in that it supported her in:

> being able to learn how my skills apply and how to present myself on a resume in order to be able to show my experience. I don't have as much experience in the tech world, but here's how I could apply it (30).

Another participant highlighted the connectivity opportunities made possible through digital modalities saying, "I think in a way digitization has allowed you to find, it opens up the whole world, so you can find people" (22).

In contrast to the ways interpersonal factors were described as helpful to young adults, five participants (35%) shared incidents related to interpersonal factors that impeded their career decision-making process. For some, this represented a lack or scarcity of opportunities to connect and network with others. For others, the lack of face-to-face contact during the COVID-19 pandemic was described as a challenge. One participant highlighted this challenge, saying:

> I do think that with the pandemic and just how it was so online, and we were so isolated from in-person that made it really hard to make the decision to do an online practice and invite more online work to my day (92).

Another participant spoke about their experience of increased pressure and interpersonal competition between those familiar with digital tools and those who are slower to learn. He said:

> Competition is too much out here. People obviously want to hire those who are very friendly and quick [with technology]. Those who know how to do different tricks in digitalization rather than somebody who is slow, steady, or is learning (25).

Social Media Platforms

This category was endorsed by eight participants (57%) and encompassed incidents related to the use of social media platforms and career related platforms, which were utilized for a wide range of purposes such as job searching, networking, promotion, content creation, and leisure engagement. This category was closely related to the interpersonal factors category in that participant's use of social media was closely related to their interpersonal connections with others and networking activities. Platforms that were most commonly mentioned included LinkedIn, Facebook, and Instagram. This category also included platforms used for accessing and obtaining information such as Coursera and YouTube. Some participants described specific career field platforms, for example SEED, a platform for education professionals. One participant shared:

> I think social media is not only a creative outlet, but it can kind of inspire the creative in me… I feel like I see it in two different ways, where it connects me with people, but I also gain knowledge and I get inspired for my job in social media (99).

Another participant shared:

> LinkedIn has always been helpful as just like a baseline for you know applying for jobs and networking, everything it's meant to do, but I think in terms of making decisions about what type of company I want to work for, how my values align with certain things, what I am looking at in terms of the size of a company, and what I am looking at in terms of the size of the specific team, LinkedIn has been a source of knowledge for that (30).

Although social media and career related platforms were described in ways that were primarily helpful, three participants (21%) offered perspectives that illuminated how a lack of authenticity and honesty online was a hindering aspect of social media engagement and connectivity. One participant spoke of this challenge saying:

> At the end of the day when a person is looking at it [online profile], they don't really know you in person and there's not an immediate sense of trust that's building right there. You know it's almost romanticized on your profile that you've done everything so perfectly (79).

Digital Technology

Five participants (36%) endorsed a critical incident in the digital technology category as being helpful to their process of making career decisions in an increasingly digitized labour market. This category housed factors pertaining to the utility and availability of technology, including the use of digital tools, applications, and equipment. As one participant stated:

> "Not just physical technology, but also software. You know, we can use zoom for an informational interview with someone who's already in my field of work and see how they're finding school and what they think about the career so far and things like that, right? So, having access to that technology and that technology existing in the first place is definitely helpful (97).

Emphasizing how a specific technological app has been helpful, another participant said:

> I still use them [digital task management tools] on a day to day basis to understand what is my most urgent task for today and my urgent tasks also have the ones that have procrastinated for a very long period of time (79).

However, three participants (21%) noted that factors within the digital technology category hindered their journey of making career decisions considering digitization. Keeping up with technological changes, the sheer number of applications and tools available, and challenges in accessing necessary technology were expressed as hindrances. One participant expressed:

> I think that one thing that is a hindrance for many people, not just myself, is how quickly technology changes. I know for people who do not have such advanced computer literacy or digital literacy, it can be very difficult to learn new tools and things like that (97).

Hindering

In two categories hindering factors represented the largest proportion of participants. These categories include workplace and environmental factors and intrapersonal factors. An equal number of participants endorsed factors as helpful and hindering in the category flexibility, wellbeing, and resources.

Workplace and Environmental

Within this category, seven participants (50%) endorsed factors as impeding their career decision making process considering digitization. This category pertains to the interaction of specific contexts, workplaces, environments, and career fields with the digital economy. Both personal contexts, such as immigration, language, experience, and culture, and labour market and career field contexts were discussed by participants. The COVID-19 pandemic was an overarching contextual factor highlighted across various participant interviews due to the timing of this study. Various work and educational settings were met with diverse challenges and navigated the use and dependence on technology and digital means in distinct ways. Considering personal contexts, one participant experienced some challenges as an immigrant to Canada seeking to enter the labour market. He said, "they don't consider your Indian experience or your experience from back where you come from, so this makes it really difficult, we have to start from level zero" (55). Another participant illuminated a hindering aspect of her immigration experience sharing, "There has been a lot of cultural difference, it was I would say, a culture shock for me. You know, I was completely lost at some point" (34). Concerning factors that are influencing specific fields, multiple participants spoke about increased competition in the labour market due to web-based expansion, greater hiring options, and education inflation. One participant expressed:

> There tons of competition in software and web development and essentially, anything that's online right now it's very difficult to come up with something new and even when you do come up with something new, it's difficult to get market share because now you're competing with who has already been there (23).

Despite the hindering factors described, four participants (29%) shared factors related to their contexts that facilitated their doing well with career decisions. One participant shared:

> My workplace has been a kind of place that has invested in my growth and taught me patiently… if they would not have invested the time and energy in me and taught me everything, my supervisor would actually sit with me on the chair next to me and taught me this is how you do it, step by step, I think, for one week, she used to sit with me continuously in teaching and keep a regular check on me and how am I doing. So, if you invest in people, I think you are making them technology friendly in this digital era (25).

Flexibility, Wellbeing, and Resources

Four participants (29%) mentioned incidents within this category as hindering and three participants (21%) mentioned incidents within this category as being helpful. This category houses factors associated with participant's accounts of work-life balance, time and efficiency, and resources that influenced participants' experiences of flexibility and freedom. In speaking about the way one participant has been hindered in her career decision making and career satisfaction, she said, "the lack of structure that can happen in a digitized world, like the lack of boundaries on my time has sometimes been difficult to navigate" (92). Two participants drew attention to the adverse impact of increased digital use during COVID-19 on their mental health.

However, the participants who endorsed an incident in this category as helpful highlighted the value of remote work in offering more freedom, time, and balance. One participant who worked remotely shared, "it's also helped me with that work life balance because I have been able to work from home essentially from anywhere with an internet connection. I have been able to do things that I wouldn't have been able to do" (22).

Intrapersonal Factors

Critical incidents within this category were endorsed by six participants (43%) as hindering in their process of navigating career decisions in a market characterized by increasing digital advancement. This category encompasses critical incidents that are unique and personal to participants, including traits, characteristics, internal strengths, and growth edges. Examples participants provided included individual levels of openness to change, openness to technology, resourcefulness, mental wellness, and courage to ask for help and step out of one's comfort zone. In describing the way an intrapersonal factor was hindering, one participant shared, "technology still scares me so much, now I have learned to handle it, but I sometimes do mess it up" (25).

However, two participants (14%) mentioned that intrapersonal factors were helpful to their career decision-making process considering digitization. One participant shared, "when it comes to my personality, and my life experience, I have been forced to work within constraints a lot and that has really allowed me to hone a skill of being very resourceful" (97). This participant described this intrapersonal skill as a resource that supported her ability to navigate the complex landscape of a digital economy.

Wish List

The wish list factors constitute critical incidents that participants believed would have been helpful in the past or wish for in the future to support their career decision making process considering digitization. Three categories were endorsed by 25% or more participants as wish list items. These categories include: (a) access, awareness, and education, (b) interpersonal factors, (c) digital technology. Ten participants (71%) wished to have been or to become more aware, knowledgeable, and educated about the way digitization is transforming the labour market landscape. Wishes in the category of access, awareness, and education were expressed as desires for additional digitally focused training, more opportunities for continued education, further knowledge of projected career changes, and increased career guidance. As described by one participant about her career in education:

> ... and the third thing, of course, I would say is being knowledgeable about how my career changes with times you know. We've been in a face-to-face classroom for like hundreds of years, there was no change and then suddenly pandemic strike, there was the strike and then everything turned online. And then, teachers no more taught in a face-to-face classroom. Everything became technology oriented… I don't know what is to be expected in in the future, especially in the field of education. Because right now I would say we don't even need teachers, because technology can teach you everything. So, that's the way things are progressing, and I think, unless I have a very good understanding of what's happening in my career, I won't be able to make smart decisions (34).

In the category of interpersonal factors, participants expressed desires for increased interpersonal connections in the form of networking, mentorship, and general social support. In relation to a wish for mentorship in the past, one participant shared:

> [a mentor] would have been really helpful and also just to have someone help me like roadmap what it [my career] could look like in the future would be really helpful because I am kind of figuring it out on my own. Just through like all these different pieces of information, but yeah, it's nice to have someone to look up to (92).

The wish list items identified by participants highlight the desire of young Canadians to engage in discussion and learning to become more informed and prepared to navigate the increasingly complex landscape of career activities.

Discussion

The current study's findings provide insights into how the rapid changes brought about by digitization impact the career decision-making process of young people in Canada. Digitization has evoked mixed reactions in the labour market, with some sectors being more open to digitization than others and many in the workforce sharing their anxiety related to the uncertainty of future careers. The impact of digitization during this study was exacerbated due to shifts and uncertainties brought on by the COVID-19 pandemic, leaving the world to face unexpected and sudden shifts in the labour market and career engagement. Many industries and fields were forced to adjust, often at the mercy of digital means. The intersection of the COVID-19 pandemic and digitization is implicated in the results of this study.

The guiding frameworks situate participant accounts within existing models. The model of life transitions (Schlossberg, 2011) addresses facets of transitional experiences, including the '4 S's of transition' - situation, self, support, and strategies. The participants' accounts in this study on helpful and hindering factors demonstrate a unique and individual mix of factors that fall into the facets outlined in the model of life transitions theory. Participants addressed situational factors, intrapersonal or self factors, supports they possessed or lacked, and strategies they found helpful or hindering in the process of career decision-making. Homing in on the pertinent situational context during this study, Blustein's (2020) recent discussion of precarity addresses how individuals adapt and cope with the uncertainty brought on by the COVID-19 pandemic. This perspective highlights resilience and resistance processes, which were expressed in participants' successful career decision-making processes, which was the focus of this study.

The results confirm some of the previously known aspects of change towards a digital economy, and there are novel findings that have implications for career development literature and practice. Three broad areas emerged from the seven categories, housing the 147 factors shared by participants in their accounts of successful career decisions in a digital economy. These areas implicated in the career decision-making process for young Canadians include (1) Access, (2) Contribution of digital technologies themselves, and (3) Personal/social factors.

With regards to the first broad area of access, it is evident that the lack of equitable access and differences in opportunities for gaining knowledge and resources depending on multiple factors directly impact young people's career decision-making process. When examining the results, unique factors and experiences were identified in participants who had recently moved or immigrated to Canada. The unique factors identified highlight the lived experience of differential access and knowledge of digital resources. Participants who recently moved described the barriers they faced in their educational and career endeavours due to less familiarity with technology than their Canadian counterparts. Descriptions of "starting from zero" in regards to generally navigating career decisions in Canada as well as developing technological skills were heard by multiple participants, highlighting lived experiences of the digital divide (Huang et al., 2015; Ragnedda, 2017; van Deursen & van Dijk, 2015). The digital divide points to inequalities of access beyond physical connectivity to the internet, including motivational, skills-based, and usage differentials (Van Deursen & Van Dijk, 2015). The importance of equitable access and opportunities to gain digital knowledge and resources is additionally supported by the fact that about three-quarters of participants in the study included this as a wishlist item.

While there is a greater appreciation for digital transformation in many sectors, there are also apprehensions about gaps in educational preparedness to meet the needs of the rapid changes in the workplace. Many job openings ask for qualifications and experiences that are unlikely to have been met by following the traditional university education spanning 4-6 years. Traditional training has not been designed for the recent changes, which can impact young people's confidence levels, leading to questioning their decision-making process and their efficacy for actively engaging in the job market. This divergence between mainstream education formats and the current labour market warrants challenging the methods, timeframe, and preparation needed for positions in the present day world of work. A related issue is that of the nature of training itself. Many organizations are becoming open to informal training and learning that is less reliant on traditional credentialing methods. Participants in the current study alluded to learning skills over open-access platforms and the possibility of learning with lower or no financial costs. While this is beneficial for some young people, especially those who are self-motivated and have the capacity and prior experience to master skills in a self-paced and self-driven manner, it has been found to be a barrier when it comes to people who need supportive learning environments and rely on collective and incentive-based learning models. The shifts in learning modes and methods have been less emphasized in the literature and are consistent with the notion of the digital divide (Ragnedda, 2017).

The second central area the current study highlighted is how technological advancement contributes to young people's career decision-making. This area was particularly pertinent during and after the COVID-19 pandemic, as the pandemic exponentially spurred reliance on technology across various industries, catalyzing these changes and producing a precarious career context. Participants in this study highlighted the uncertainty in their career decisions due to multiple changes in job factors, such as shifts in job demands, work location, reliance on technology, and work-life balance impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic.

The model of life transitions (Schlossberg, 2011) emphasizes the significance of situational factors and strategies in navigating transitions. Situational and strategy facets are implicated in how digitization is constantly shaping and influencing the context of the labour market and that technology itself is increasingly employed as a strategy to guide and execute career decisions. In other words, existing technology is playing a role in preparing young people for the digital economy of the future, as was heard in participants' accounts of using social media and career-related platforms to search, apply, network, and train for career-related activities. With unprecedented shifts in almost all sectors to adopt digital technologies, they can also be used to improve ways of accessing and learning job-related skills and trends in the labour market, networking, and making connections that would not have been possible without technology. Despite some real advantages offered by online platforms, social media, and digital learning tools, relying on them also has adverse consequences. The participants in the study have highlighted how challenges with the reliability and authenticity of digital platforms make it difficult for career decision-making, even for those who are well-versed in technology and digital mediums. Decisional dilemmas presented by the sheer number of sources can be challenging given the uncertain, changing nature of the world of work.

Moreover, since job creation and destruction are also linked to digitalization (Balsmeier & Woerter, 2019), people have varying levels of trust in the advancement of digital technologies, leading young people to use them cautiously. The influence and impact of trust levels and engagement have yet to be addressed in the literature. The assumption has been that younger people have a greater facility with navigating the digital world (Rosales et al., 2023). Hence, minimal resources have been allocated for understanding the nature of young people's relationships with technology, and far less how this influences their career decision-making and strategies for career development.

The third and final area highlighted by the findings relates to the personal and interpersonal factors influencing career decision-making in a digital economy. The literature on the digital divide has expanded to include motivational and emotional factors attached to using information technology and the willingness to engage with digital tools (Eynon & Geniets, 2016; Huang et al., 2015). Inequitable digital access that has contributed to the difference in comfort and confidence may be understood from the framework of digital capital, which is a "subform of cultural capital linked to the use of digital technologies and contemporary cyberculture" (Gomez, 2021, p. 2537). The varying levels of confidence and apprehensions related to engaging with technology in general and the digital world, in particular, have been found to influence young people's career decision-making. This area has only been addressed superficially, not only in literature but also concerning policy-level interventions. The importance of access, awareness, and education in the realm of digitization was highlighted in participants' accounts, as well as in their recommendations to other young people navigating career decisions in a digital era, which included confidently embracing oneself, embracing digital changes, and utilizing personal resources and supports. The results additionally demonstrate the considerable role of self-efficacy in the participant sample, as has been found in extant research (Betz & Hackett, 2006). In line with the self and support facets of the model of life transitions (Schlossberg, 2011), participants described how their confidence in themselves and their support systems, or lack thereof, was helpful and hindering, respectively. This was highlighted further in the recommendations the young participants offered to other young people navigating career decisions in a digital economy, which advised other young people to believe in themselves and courageously take risks to network, ask for help, and utilize technology and other resources to pave one's career path.

Bluestein's (2022) discussion of precarity draws attention to the ways individuals manage the "uncertainty, loss, disruption, and anxiety that differentially impact people across contexts" (p. 565). It is a relevant lens through which to frame some of the challenges and the resilience/resistance addressed by participants in this study as they shared their unique experiences of making career decisions during the COVID-19 pandemic and in a digital economy. Bluestein (2022) found that the COVID-19 pandemic prompted critical consciousness and resistance to inequity and disparity in resources, which was also found in the current study, as multiple participants described their personal wishes and policy recommendations for more equitable access and education geared to digitization and technology. Another example of critical consciousness and resistance raised among participants was expressed through participants who faced challenges in navigating career decisions and options due to having credentials from outside of Canada that were unrecognized in the Canadian labour market. These participants expressed resistance by proposing policy changes to streamline credentialing processes for those who transition to residing and working in Canada.

This study adds to the current understanding of what a career means for young Canadians and what doing well in career decision-making means for this group. As described by participants, doing well in career decision-making within a digital economy is a dynamic, unique process that supports the reciprocal process of meeting personal needs and contributing beyond the self through activities that promote growth, direction, and sustainability. In a Canadian climate of rapid digital changes, areas of access, the contribution of digital technologies themselves, and personal/social factors are essential factors to consider in supporting young people's successful career decision-making process

Implications for Career Counselling

This study provides information on the complexity of decision-making processes needed to navigate psychologically challenging career transitions. The research assists young adults and their families through providing examples of how others have made career decisions in the face of changes in the economic realities brought about by digitization. It importantly informs career development theory, counselling practice, and research and policy responses to a digital economy.

Career Development Theory

Early career development theories were built on the assumption that careers are fixed and have been evolving to understand career as changing over a person's lifetime. This study expands our understanding of the way career activities are also influenced by changes in the digital world. Along with the rapidly changing landscape of career development, changes to careers themselves will be more rapid and less predictable. Findings contribute to an understanding of the increasing overlap between developmental, life, and contextual transitions which situate the career-decisions process.

There is increased complexity and pace of change regarding both precarity (Blustein, 2022) and the digital divide

(Ragnedda, 2017). Emerging models will need to address differences in technological resources, access, and knowledge. This study extends our current understanding of transitions in the unique context of an emerging digital economy. Moving forward, all career theories should consider the context and influence of digitization. Young people have already been immersed in technology, illustrating how career cannot be discussed without talking about technology.

Counselling Practice

Digitalization and automation are also impacting the practice of career counselling in multiple ways. The availability of big data and complex algorithms can provide career counsellors with newer tools and resources for facilitating more informed career planning. The use of computers and the internet to store and process digital footprints of people may be employed to arrive at reliable indicators that can predict occupational outcomes and current and future trends in the world of work. Also, artificial intelligence can aid career counselling with the use of chatbots that simulate human dialogue to facilitate some of the routine aspects of the counselling process, particularly related to assessment and navigation of informational resources (D'Silva et al., 2020). This would then provide career practitioners with increased capacity for the creative and interpersonal aspects of the decision-making process and the necessary psychological support that is needed in this process.

Based on participant responses, factors within the category of access, awareness, and education were primarily identified as having been helpful and wished for, emphasizing the need for career professionals to address access, awareness, and education as a key area in supporting young people in their career decision making process. This can inform shaping curriculum and clinical training content. There is a need for career professionals to stay on top of changing career and labour market information, as well as how young people transition in a digital world. Rather than providing information, this study shows the need to streamline information such that young adults are provided access to accurate, up-to-date, and relevant information.

Additionally, digitization has challenged people's capacities for interpersonal relationships and networking, providing both opportunities and hindrances. Career professionals may need to assess young people's unique opportunities and abilities to connect with others and provide support to enhance this area. The study thus assists career practitioners in developing more inclusive tools and counselling interventions.

Research and Policy

Areas that require future research as identified by this study include areas of access, contribution of digital technologies, and personal/social factors. The challenges associated with each of these areas are becoming pronounced with newer technological advancement. Hence, research and policy need to keep up with how access, technology, and personal/social factors intersect with career development. These needs are informed and supported by participants descriptions of helping, hindering, and wish list items housed by the categories outlined in Table 2. Addressing areas of access, technology, and personal/social factors would inform employers, organizations, and policy makers in terms of organizing and evaluating programs related to providing career services to fit best with the needs of young Canadians.

Limitations and Areas for Future Study

Some limitations include the exploratory nature of this study and the need for both broader and in-depth exploration of career decision making in the context of digitization. Participants seemed to be in the early stages of considering this intersection and found it challenging to respond with specificity based on their lived experiences. Namely, it was difficult to parse out general career decisions from those specific to the context of a digital economy. Participants demonstrated that the intersection of career and digitization had been considered largely at a conceptual level, and therefore the number of critical incidents was lower than expected based on the chosen methodology. A potential to enhance our understanding could involve a follow up study exploring how participant's views and experiences have evolved, using the same participant sample.

Additionally, there are some considerations regarding the participant sample. The sample consisted of individuals born in Canada and immigrants primarily from India, leaving room to explore other demographics in future study. As well, some participants did not respond to the follow-up interview, thus limiting the richness of the data. People who have some familiarity or motivation to use technology would also be more likely to participate in this study.

Conclusion

This study provided an opportunity to listen to the experiences of young Canadians making career decisions in the context of a digital economy. Young Canadians who see themselves as doing well in career decision-making in a digital economy spoke about areas in which digitization and technological advancements were influencing and intersecting with their career activities in helpful and hindering ways. Young people highlighted the significance of access, awareness, and education in supporting their career decision-making process. There was an overarching desire for greater access to education, technology, and resources. Young people in this study drew on interpersonal connections to network and take advantage of the expanding opportunities provided through digital advancements. Success in the realm of career decision making for young people in this study hinged on balancing the growing opportunities and information offered while not becoming overwhelmed by the copious amounts of information and pace of change. Rather, participants embraced the changes and uncertainty accompanying digitization utilizing their personal strengths and courage as well as the support of others. These characteristics of doing well in career decision making were not only expressed through incidents and examples of participants' lived experiences in this study, but were also offered by participants as recommendations to other young Canadian's navigating career decisions in a digital economy.

The findings of the study guide our attention to the intrapersonal, interpersonal, and contextual dimensions associated with the navigation of career decisions in an increasingly digital economy. These findings inform areas of opportunity for career practitioners and policy makers in terms of access, digital technology, and personal/social factors when working with young Canadians.

While this exploratory study expands understanding of the way young Canadians are navigating careers in the digital world, we hope that researchers, policy makers, and career development practitioners will find the categories and factors identified in this study helpful in prioritizing intervention consistent with and relevant to the current state of the world of work.

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Quand la transformation numérique croise la pandémie : quelles expériences pour les cadres?

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Résumé

Le chamboulement qu'a connu le monde du travail avec l'avènement de la crise sanitaire a entraîné des répercussions substantielles notamment sur les entreprises et par ricochet sur les travailleurs·euses, dont les cadres. Cet article vise à rendre compte des expériences de travail de cadres en contexte de pandémie de Covid-19. Il s'appuie sur la théorie du « travail vivant » (Dejours, 2013) afin d'appréhender les enjeux des mutations du monde du travail et leurs répercussions sur les expériences de travail. La recherche repose sur une méthode qualitative menée à l'aide de groupes de discussion auprès de 20 cadres. Les résultats révèlent entre autres les dimensions économique, instrumentale, humaine et sociale soutenant leur travail afin de faire face à la transformation numérique. Les analyses ouvrent sur des réflexions sur les modes d'organisation du travail à construire afin de favoriser le maintien durable en emploi et la conciliation des projets de vie.

Mots-clés : cadres ; travail; covid-19; transformation numérique.

Reconnaissance : Ce projet de recherche a été financé par le Centre des compétences futures.

Le chamboulement qu'a connu le monde du travail en 2020 avec l'avènement de la crise sanitaire a eu son lot de répercussions notamment sur les entreprises, les institutions et par ricochet sur les travailleurs·euses dont les cadres. Depuis, bon nombre de chercheur·e·s se sont penchés sur les différents enjeux qui ont émergé autour de la relation pandémie-organisation-travail-projet de vie (ex., Alberio et Tremblay, 2021; Como et al., 2021; Frimousse et Peretti, 2021). Parmi ces enjeux, on dénote notamment l'augmentation du temps passé au travail, les défis de la conciliation du travail avec les différents projets de vie, ainsi que les pertes d'emploi temporaires et les périodes de chômage venues s'inscrire de manière inattendue dans les parcours de vie (Alberio et Tremblay, 2021). De même, le manque de formation et de ressources pour les employés contraints à télétravailler ainsi que le manque de soutien organisationnel dans cette transition peuvent soulever de nouveaux risques pour la santé du personnel et leur conciliation du travail avec leurs différentes sphères de vie (Como et al., 2021). À ce sujet, des chercheur·e·s ont soulevé la nécessité de réaliser davantage de travaux de recherche afin de mieux comprendre et soutenir la transition vers le télétravail et les enjeux de conciliation du travail avec les différents projets de vie ainsi que les risques pour la santé (Como et al., 2021).

Plus spécifiquement, en ce qui concerne le travail des cadres en contexte de pandémie, quelques travaux ont souligné la nécessité d'engager des pratiques de gestion de proximité marquées par des relations de confiance permettant de soutenir les équipes encadrées dans la réalisation du travail (Andersone et al., 2022; Frimousse et Peretti, 2021). Selon ces travaux, les pratiques de gestion de proximité des cadres seraient d'autant plus importantes pour faire face aux bouleversements des environnements de travail en contexte pandémique et postpandémique. Comment de telles pratiques ont-elles pu être déployées ou non par les cadres dans le contexte de la pandémie? Comment les transformations de l'organisation du travail nécessaires en raison des mesures sociosanitaires durant la pandémie ont-elles modifié le travail et les pratiques des cadres? Les connaissances scientifiques sur les expériences de travail des cadres avant la pandémie montraient déjà la complexité de leur travail et les défis pratiques et subjectifs auxquels ils font face dans l'exercice de leur fonction (Biaz et Brasseur, 2021; Dejours, 2015; Foster et al., 2019; Giguère et al., 2023; Giguère et St-Arnaud, 2020; Hassard et Morris, 2022; Mintzberg, 2019; Pelletier, 2014). Comment les effets de la pandémie sur le travail et les organisations ont-ils affecté le travail des cadres?

Sur le plan de la conciliation du travail des cadres avec les différents projets de vie, des travaux précédents le contexte pandémique mettent en lumière la diversité des stratégies de conciliation (Giguere et al., 2022; Guillaume et Pochic, 2009; Mills et Grotto, 2017; Shaw et Leberman, 2015; Stock et al., 2014). On retrouve entre autres des stratégies de séparation des sphères de vie (Mills et Grotto, 2017; Stock et al., 2014) de flexibilité des temps et des lieux de travail (Guillaume et Pochic, 2009; Shaw et Leberman, 2015), de même qu'une stratégie d'hyperefficacité pour arrimer l'ensemble des exigences du travail, d'encadrement et domestique (Giguere et al., 2022). Comment les transformations des lieux et des temps de travail exigées par la pandémie ont-elles affecté la conciliation des projets de vie des cadres et les stratégies déployées pour y arriver?

En fin de compte, qu'en est-il des expériences de travail vécues par les cadres en contexte de pandémie de Covid-19 caractérisé (en référence au contexte) par un passage « forcé » au télétravail et le renouvellement des formes d'empiètement du travail sur les différents projets de vie? C'est précisément l'objet de cet article qui propose une analyse plus fine des expériences des cadres dans un tel contexte. Une première partie de cet article présente le cadre théorique mobilisé dans cette étude. Nous retenons notamment la théorie du travail vivant pour mieux situer les expériences subjectives de travail dans un contexte de transformations. Une deuxième partie expose le protocole méthodologique privilégié qui repose sur des analyses des discussions tenues au sein de trois groupes de cadres (*n*=20). La partie subséquente se consacre à la présentation et à la discussion des résultats les plus saillants. Enfin, il sera question pour conclure d'esquisser des prolongements possibles pour de futures recherches.

Cadre théorique

La considération des mutations du monde du travail et leurs répercussions sur les expériences de travail des cadres s'inscrivent en cohérence avec la théorie du travail vivant (Dejours, 2013; Dejours et Deranty, 2010; Molinier, 2008), et ce, pour plusieurs raisons. D'abord, la théorie du travail vivant cherche à rendre compte de la manière dont le travail affecte les individus dans leur relation avec eux·elles-mêmes, avec les autres et avec le monde dans lequel ils·elles vivent et œuvrent (Dejours, 2017). Elle permet ainsi à différents égards de saisir finement les impacts des mutations du monde du travail et leurs répercussions sur les expériences de travail des individus et leur maintien durable au travail (Dejours, 2013; Dejours et Deranty, 2010; Giguère et St-Arnaud, 2020; Molinier, 2008). Par exemple, des travaux antérieurs révèlent que les mutations du monde du travail peuvent avoir des implications sur les capacités des cadres à préserver leurs convictions et leur intégrité au travail, dans des contextes où les pressions financières ouvrent sur des formes dérives (Dejours, 2013; Giguère et St-Arnaud, 2020). Plus récemment, bien qu'ils ne portent pas spécifiquement sur le travail des cadres, certains travaux ont soulevé des risques inhérents au travail à distance dans le secteur des services, notamment à l'égard des risques de dégradation et d'appauvrissement des relations et des liens sociaux de même que des risques de diminution des registres de sensibilité (Dejours, 2022).

Plus spécifiquement, la notion d'expériences de travail permet de considérer l'écart entre les règles ou les procédures prescrites par l'organisation du travail (le travail prescrit) et les efforts et activités déployés par les travailleurs·euses pour les réaliser (le travail réel) (Dejours 2013). À ce sujet, la notion d'expériences de travail permet de saisir la manière dont les travailleurs·euses s'engagent face aux décalages et aux résistances rencontrées au travail, afin d'arbitrer les prescriptions du travail avec les enjeux rencontrés sur le terrain (Dejours 2013). La rencontre du travail réel, qu'il s'agisse de résistances, de pannes, de dysfonctionnements ou d'imprévus impliquant divers éléments tels que des équipements, des collègues ou des clients, peut être source de déséquilibre et d'insatisfaction et ouvrir sur des formes de souffrance au travail (Dejours 2013). La souffrance vécue au travail peut aussi être le point de départ de l'action, ouvrir sur l'engagement du processus créatif et de l'intelligence pratique des travailleurs·euses, dans le but de surmonter les résistances du réel, de manière à réduire, dépasser, transformer ou renverser la souffrance en plaisir (Dejours, 2013). Devant l'impossibilité d'y parvenir et face à une organisation du travail délétère, la souffrance pathogène vécue au travail pourrait amener des travailleurs·euses à construire des stratégies défensives. Les stratégies défensives permettent de « […] modifier, transformer ou euphémiser la perception que les travailleurs·euses ont de la réalité qui les fait souffrir » (Dejours et Abdoucheli, 1990, p. 9). En ce qui concerne le groupe des cadres, des travaux révèlent diverses stratégies défensives construites et mobilisées dont une stratégie de psychologie spontanée de l'encadrement qui consiste à mettre à distance les failles de l'organisation prescrite du travail et à poser un regard dépréciatif sur le personnel encadré (Dejours, 1992; Dejours, 1998; Vézina et St-Arnaud, 1996). L'hyperactivité professionnelle, portée par une forme de moi héroïque, a également été repérée chez les cadres en milieu scolaire comme stratégie permettant de soutenir psychiquement la pénibilité du travail (Maranda et al., 2011). De plus, des stratégies de virilité marquées par un déni du travail réel du personnel encadré permet aux cadres de poser des gestes qui vont à l'encontre de leurs valeurs, en se rapprochant ou en adhérant aux prescriptions du management (Dejours, 1998, 2015; Giguère, 2020; Pelletier, 2014). Par ailleurs, quelques travaux ont mis en évidence que, chez les femmes cadres, d'autres stratégies peuvent être construites notamment une stratégie « d'humilité stratégique » leur permet de naviguer à travers les prescriptions du travail tout en faisant face aux situations dévalorisées et risquées, afin de se déplacer et de progresser sans être repérées, de manière à s'activer du côté de la résistance et de mobiliser leur capacité d'agir du côté de la discrétion (Giguère, 2020).

Plus largement, comprendre les expériences de travail selon la théorie du travail vivant implique l'ouverture d'un espace de parole pour les travailleurs·euses, afin qu'ils·elles puissent penser leur travail, réfléchir ensemble au sens de ce qu' ils·elles vivent au travail, de ce que leur fait vivre leur travail, en considérant les dimensions des rapports sociaux, les situations et les environnements de travail dans lesquels ces expériences s'inscrivent (Dejours, 2013; Molinier, 2008). En somme, la théorie du travail vivant (Dejours, 2013; Dejours et Deranty, 2010; Molinier, 2008) notamment mobilisée dans des travaux antérieurs avec les cadres (Dejours, 1998; Giguère, 2020; Giguère et St-Arnaud, 2020; Pelletier, 2014) s'avère porteuse pour cerner les expériences de travail vécues par les cadres afin de saisir s'ils·elles arrivent à préserver ou non le sens de leur travail, à savoir, ce qu'ils·elles considèrent comme important et ce à quoi ils·elles attribuent une valeur face aux mutations qui peuvent occasionner des dérives.

Méthode

Cette étude découle d'une analyse de données de recherche produites dans le contexte d'un programme de recherche-action (Bourassa, 2015) menée auprès de trois compagnies d'assurances au Canada visant notamment à comprendre la transformation numérique dans ce secteur d'activités. La pandémie de Covid-19 est survenue alors que commençaient à se planifier les premières étapes de la recherche et a donc infléchi à la fois l'objet (p.ex., inclusion de la réalité du télétravail forcé) et la méthode de recherche (p.ex., conduite « en ligne » des groupes de discussion).

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Objectifs de la recherche, participant·e·s et stratégie de recueil du matériau

La stratégie de recherche retenue pour la présente étude est une recherche qualitative réalisée à l'aide de trois groupes de discussion (Leclerc et al., 2011) menés auprès de cadres et de personnels professionnels en ressources humaines (dans des fonctions équivalentes de supervision de personnel à celles des cadres), dans des trois organisations canadiennes du domaine de l'assurance. Le recours à cette méthode permet d'atteindre l'objectif de cet article qui consiste à comprendre les expériences de travail des cadres en contexte de pandémie de Covid-19 caractérisé par un passage « forcé » au télétravail et le renouvellement des formes d'empiètement du travail sur les différents projets de vie. Ce type de recherche interprétative implique une certaine structuration des entretiens (Leclerc et al., 2011) et un guide d'entretien a donc été élaboré. Ce guide incluait des éléments permettant de contextualiser le projet de recherche, des consignes pour faciliter les discussions en groupe, ainsi que les principaux thèmes à aborder. Parmi les questions intégrées dans le guide figuraient : qu'est-ce que la transformation numérique pour vous? Quel rôle jouez-vous dans la transformation numérique au sein de votre organisation? Quels dilemmes ou tensions rencontrez-vous dans l'exercice de votre rôle?

Après avoir obtenu l'approbation du comité éthique de notre institution universitaire, le recrutement a été soutenu par des personnes-ressources des compagnies d'assurance partenaires du projet qui ont diffusé un feuillet d'information auprès des cadres de leur organisation au printemps 2021, dans un contexte ou le télétravail était imposé dans les compagnies. Le feuillet comportait deux critères de recrutement : 1) occuper un poste de cadre ou de professionnel en ressources humaines avec accompagnement direct de personnel et 2) être en poste depuis au moins deux ans, afin de disposer d'une expérience significative en matière d'accompagnement du personnel et de pouvoir en discuter en groupe. La diffusion de l'invitation à participer au groupe de discussion a permis aux personnes volontaires d'entrer en contact avec une personne de notre équipe de recherche. En tout, cette démarche a permis de recruter vingt participant·e·s soit seize cadres et quatre professionnels en ressources humaines, lesquels ont été répartis en trois groupes, soit un groupe par organisation partenaire du projet. Chaque groupe, constitué de cinq à huit participant·e·s, s'est réuni en ligne à deux reprises au printemps 2021, pour une durée de deux heures, afin de discuter des enjeux relatifs à la transformation numérique. Les entretiens de groupe ont dû être menés à distance avec la plateforme Teams, en raison des mesures de prévention de la contagion. L'équipe de recherche a donc dû s'adapter rapidement, car elle n'était pas tout à fait familiarisée avec ces contraintes technologiques. Bien que cela n'ait pas totalement affecté le processus de production des données, il s'agit sans aucun doute d'une situation récursive, qui reproduit en partie le même problème que celui étudié, et qui a sans aucun doute conditionné la relation avec les participant·e·s, d'une manière difficile à mesurer et qui constitue probablement une limite de la recherche.

Procédures de traitement et analyse

Les matériaux recueillis à l'aide des groupes de discussion ont été retranscrits. Les données sensibles, dont les prénoms des personnes participantes ou ceux de leurs collègues, le nom des lieux ou des événements pouvant les identifier, ont été rendues confidentielles notamment par l'utilisation de pseudonymes. L'examen phénoménologique des matériaux (Paillé et Muchielli, 2016; Tengelyi, 2006) et l'analyse à l'aide des catégories conceptualisantes (Tengelyi, 2006) ont été les deux stratégies utilisées pour le traitement et les analyses des matériaux. L'examen phénoménologique des matériaux selon Paillé et Mucchielli (2016) consiste à lire et relire méticuleusement les retranscriptions d'entretiens afin de faire une « écoute sensible » des matériaux. Simultanément, l'analyse à l'aide des catégories conceptualisantes (Paillé et Muchielli, 2016) s'est entreprise de manière à comprendre et théoriser les aspects évoqués par les cadres à l'égard de leur travail en contexte de mutation liée à la fois à la transformation numérique et à la pandémie. Des processus dynamiques ont permis de faire les liens et de construire des catégories en se basant sur les éléments ciblés dans les matériaux des entretiens de groupe, à partir du cadre théorique (Dejours, 2013), ainsi que dans nos travaux antérieurs sur les expériences de travail des cadres préalablement au contexte pandémique (Giguère, 2020; Giguère et al., 2023; Giguère et St-Arnaud, 2020). De même, des catégories ont été construites à l'aide de processus d'analyse descriptive qui consiste à identifier un phénomène rapidement dans les matériaux (Paillé et Muchielli, 2016). En utilisant l'induction théorisante, des catégories ont été construites en considérant la combinaison des expériences rapportées par les participant·e·s (Paillé et Muchielli, 2016). Enfin, des catégories ont été bâties par déduction interprétative, en liant le cadre théorique et nos travaux antérieurs au corpus des matériaux (Paillé et Muchielli, 2016). Le tableau 1 présente des exemples de construction de catégories à l'aide des processus de construction dynamique selon Paillé et Mucchielli (2016).

Par ailleurs, les résultats exposés dans les prochaines sections se situent dans des perspectives de recherche constructiviste subjectiviste qui

Tabelau 1

Exemples du processus de construction dynamique des catégories à l'aide de la stratégie des catégories conceptualisantes de Paillé et Mucchielli (2016)

Processus de construction des catégories	Exemples de catégories dans l'article
La description analytique facilite la construction de catégories en se basant sur les expériences évoquées par les participant·e·s, favorisant la nomination et l'identification du phénomène directement dans les matériaux d'entretien.	Par exemple, nommer et identifier les expériences relatives à l'empiètement du travail sur les différents projets de vie, les risques d'intensification et de surcharge de travail et les regrouper au sein de la catégorie « les expériences des cadres concernant les enjeux de conciliation travail-famille et l'empiètement du travail sur les différents projets de vie »
La déduction interprétative permet de faire des liens entre le cadre théorique et les matériaux d'entretien afin de créer des catégories.	Par exemple, documenter et dégager les expériences de travail des participant·e·s selon la présence de processus de mise à distance ou d'arbitrage entre les dimensions économiques, instrumentales, humaines et sociales de leur travail pour créer deux sous catégories : « Des expériences marquées par l'arbitrage complexe des dimensions économiques et instrumentales du travail avec ses dimensions humaines et sociales » « Des expériences ancrées dans les dimensions économiques et instrumentales du travail, à distance des dimensions humaines et sociales »
L'induction théorisante contribue à la création de catégories à partir de l'enchainement des expériences vécues par les participant·e·s.	Par exemple, mettre en commun l'enchainement des expériences mentionnés par les participant·e·s notamment concernant la rapidité et l'accélération de la transformation numérique en contexte de pandémie au sein de la catégorie « les expériences de travail des cadres concernant la rapidité et l'accélération de la transformation numérique en raison du passage « forcé » au télétravail en contexte de pandémie de Covid-19 ».

allouent un espace à la véracité des expériences vécues des 20 cadres. Ainsi, selon Lejeune (2019) les processus de quantification des catégories seraient à éviter, car elles peuvent contribuer à déformer ou altérer les résultats. Cependant, les termes « quelques-un·e·s », « certain·e·s », « d'autres », « des » ont été utilisés de manière à façonner les catégories.

Résultats et discussion

Le traitement et les analyses des matériaux qui en ont suivi ont permis de dégager trois grandes catégories de résultats qui seront présentées dans la section subséquente : 1) les expériences de travail des cadres concernant la rapidité et l'accélération de la transformation numérique en raison du passage « forcé » au télétravail en contexte de pandémie de Covid-19 ; 2) les expériences de travail des cadres en contexte de transformation numérique et 3) les expériences des cadres concernant les enjeux de conciliation travail-famille et l'empiètement du travail sur les différents projets de vie. Les trois catégories, ainsi que les sous-catégories, le cas échéant, sont présentées dans le tableau 2.

Tableau 2

Synthèse des catégories

Catégories	Sous-catégories
Les expériences de travail des cadres concernant la rapidité et l'accélération de la transformation numérique en raison du passage « forcé » au télétravail en contexte de pandémie de Covid-19	---
Les expériences de travail des cadres en contexte de transformation numérique	• Des expériences marquées par l'arbitrage complexe des dimensions économiques et instrumentales du travail avec ses dimensions humaines et sociales • Des expériences de travail ancrées dans les dimensions économiques et instrumentales du travail, à distance des dimensions humaines et sociales
Les expériences des cadres concernant les enjeux de conciliation travail-famille et l'empiètement du travail sur les différents projets de vie	---

Les expériences de travail des cadres concernant la rapidité et l'accélération de la transformation numérique en raison du passage « forcé » au télétravail en contexte de pandémie de Covid-19

La rapidité et l'ampleur de la transformation numérique due à la transition soudaine vers le télétravail, imposées par les mesures sanitaires liées à la pandémie de Covid-19, ont marqué profondément les expériences du travail des cadres. En effet, la Covid-19 a imposé des contraintes majeures, du jour au lendemain où en l'espace de quelques semaines, les cadres ont été contraints à basculer à distance leur travail et celui de leurs équipes en télétravail, ce qui était auparavant peu probable, voire impensable. Ces modifications substantielles n'ont pas été sans conséquence pour le travail des cadres.

La pandémie aura mis une vitesse grand V vers la transformation, toutefois, dans le passage précédent, on était en meilleur contrôle du plan de gestion de changement, on voyait les choses arriver […] puis on était capable d'attacher les communications qui s'y rattachaient. La pandémie a amené une accélération qu'il a fallu faire la switch off-on. – Denise

Malgré le caractère contraignant de ces transformations, certain·e·s cadres ont exprimé les bons côtés rattachés à ce changement rapide qui aurait été difficilement réalisable dans d'autres contextes : le projet de transformation numérique a pu se déployer plus rapidement en raison de la pandémie.

> Le bon côté de la pandémie qu'on a vécue […] en 2 semaines, je me suis reviré de bord […], 100% du personnel est parti travailler à domicile […]. Avant, nous, on avait pratiquement 100% du personnel qui était au bureau qui travaillait avec des documents papiers. – Phil

D'autres par ailleurs font état des limites de ce basculement, le manque de temps relatif à la mise en place de chacune des étapes du changement, les dommages collatéraux qui en ont découlé ainsi que leurs conséquences pour l'accompagnement du personnel.

> Dans la transformation numérique volet Covid, notre département, ça faisait près d'une dizaine d'années qu'on attendait d'être numérisé. Puis, on l'a été en quelques mois, la réflexion, l'analyse de l'impact, la gestion du changement, on s'entend, entre un projet d'envergure sur plusieurs années versus quelques mois, on n'est pas du tout à la même place. On vit avec les impacts de cela, mais c'était un mal nécessaire de par la situation. – Gail

> Du jour au lendemain, en quelques jours, il y a plusieurs dizaines d'employés qui doivent partir à la maison, donc c'est de les accompagner […] la pandémie nous a obligés à cela, ce qui fait en sorte que ça a pris beaucoup de jus. Je devais accompagner les employés par la main à la maison, il y en avait qui étaient vraiment insécures. – Roxane

Pour plusieurs cadres la transformation numérique en contexte de pandémie de Covid-19 a entrainé, par les exigences de sa mise en œuvre et par les nouveaux instruments qu'elle introduit dans le travail (p.ex., nouvelles plateformes ou fonctionnalités logicielles), des formes de surinvestissement au travail, d'accélération, d'intensification ou de surcharge de travail, une disponibilité démesurée au travail ainsi que des risques d'éparpillement qui affectent de différentes manières leur travail. Dans les extraits qui suivent, Justine et Gérard expriment les effets de cette intensification et de cette surcharge au travail :

> En tant que gestionnaire, on se dit « ouf, il faut que je livre cela, ça, faut que je le livre, il faut que je fasse cela ». Mes journées, je pense que je n'ai pas un quinze minutes pour moi […] on essaie d'être partout. […] mon agenda est overbooké en permanence. – Justine

> […] qu'est-ce qui est important, qu'est-ce qui est urgent, qu'est-ce qui est non urgent, qu'est-ce qui est non important? Puis tu fais ta grille, tu fais ta liste, mais c'est parce qu'un moment donné [rires] tes trucs qui sont non-importants deviennent importants puis oups après ça ils deviennent urgents. Ça reste jamais non-important. Puis quand c'est non-important tu le tasses, mais un moment donné tu peux plus le tasser parce qu'il revient. En-dessous d'la pile puis pendant c'temps-là ben y'a d'autre qui est rentré, c'est pas la quantité d'ouvrage, c'est peut-être un problème d'organisation, mais je considère que je suis quand même assez productif. – Gérard

De son côté, Christine relate les risques d'éparpillement :

> L'ère numérique est extraordinaire, mais va lire dans X [nomme le système informatique], va lire dans l'espace Y [nomme l'espace virtuel], va lire dans l'espace client […] à un moment donné, ta tête est à peu près à 25 places différentes en même temps. – Christine

Rémi évoque quant à lui une disponibilité excessive engendrée par la transformation numérique :

> Il y a une hyper disponibilité qui s'est développée. C'est que

> peu importe le statut que vous avez sur les outils numériques, que ce soit le statut « occupé », « ne pas déranger » ou « en entrevue »…ça sonne, ça « popo » […] il y en a 10 qui cognent à la porte en même temps. C'est une pression qui s'ajoute. – Rémi

En somme, les résultats de cette première catégorie d'analyse mettent en évidence la rapidité et l'accélération de la transformation numérique en raison du passage forcé au télétravail à la suite des contraintes sanitaires imposées par la pandémie de Covid-19. Ces résultats permettent de mieux cerner le caractère imprévu et soudain de la pandémie et des transformations qui en ont découlé de même que les processus d'accélération et d'intensification déjà présents dans le travail d'encadrement. Précisons ici que la documentation scientifique révélait, avant la pandémie, que le travail de cadres était déjà exigeant notamment en termes d'heures passées au travail en raison de leurs fonctions (Badawy et Schieman, 2021; Dejours, 1998, 2015; Hassard et Morris, 2022), mais aussi des transformations technologiques affectaient leur travail (Hassard et Morris, 2022). En ce sens, nos résultats permettent de constater que la pandémie a contribué à métamorphoser les milieux de travail et à accélérer et intensifier des tendances déjà existantes dans le travail des cadres, dans un contexte où ils·elles ont eu à gérer non seulement l'effet du télétravail forcé sur le travail des employé·e·s supervisés, mais leur propre travail. Plus largement, il est possible de penser que ces expériences de travail dans un contexte de bouleversements les placent plus à risque de vivre une problématique de santé en lien avec le travail. Ces résultats s'inscrivent aussi en continuité plus globalement avec les constats de Como et al., (2021) qui évoquent que le manque de formation et de ressources pour les employé·e·s contraints à télétravailler ainsi que le manque de soutien organisationnel dans cette transition peuvent soulever de nouveaux risques pour la santé du personnel, de manière générale (Como et al., 2021). Ils·elles viennent aussi renforcer la nécessité de réaliser davantage de travaux de recherche afin de mieux comprendre et soutenir la transition vers le télétravail en considérant entre autres les risques reliés à la santé (Como et al., 2021). Par ailleurs, cette première catégorie de résultats contribue à situer des transformations récentes du monde du travail en contexte de pandémie et de transformation numérique, de même que leurs implications globales pour le travail des cadres, en s'appuyant sur la théorie du travail vivant. À notre connaissance, les plus récents écrits à l'égard des transformations du monde du travail et qui mobilisent la théorie du travail vivant ont porté principalement sur le télétravail ou le travail à distance, notamment dans le domaine des services (ex. commerce, relation d'aide) (Dejours, 2022; Facury et Le Lay, 2022), de l'enseignement (Ganem et al., 2022; Hernández Gómez, 2022; Potiron et Ganem, 2022), du juridique (Leclair et Baffet-Lozano, 2022), ou encore, sur le travail plateformisé (Le Lay et Lemozy, 2022; Lemozy et Le Lay, 2022).

Les expériences de travail des cadres en contexte de transformation numérique

Bon nombre des cadres rencontrés ont souligné que la transformation numérique engendre une série de changements au sein de l'organisation ancrés notamment dans l'introduction et l'utilisation plus marquées des outils numériques. Bien que cette transformation numérique ait des impacts directs sur le travail quotidien des cadres et des employé·e·s, l'implication des cadres dans les décisions et la conceptualisation de la transformation numérique demeure limitée. En effet, parmi les participant·e·s, certain·e·s cadres ont expliqué avoir participé à des projets de transformation numérique, mais que leurs recommandations ou leurs questionnements n'ont pas nécessairement été pris en considération lors de la mise en œuvre des projets. Pour illustrer cette situation, certain·e·s cadres, comme Gail, ont évoqué leur impression de ne pas avoir « les mains sur le volant », de ne pas pouvoir participer à la régulation des conséquences de la transformation alors que celle-ci affectera directement leurs employées.

> Ce que je trouve difficile personnellement, c'est qu'on n'a pas les mains sur le volant. C'est des gros, gros mandats c'est des gros projets, beaucoup de gens impliqués, souvent des directions éloignées de la nôtre […] avant qu'ils soient rendus à nos impacts à nous, il y a un grand bout de chemin de fait, des fois c'est de devoir être obligé d'avoir l'air du turn off qui dit « oui, mais, oui, mais, oui, mais as-tu pensé, oui, mais ce petit bout-là », puis d'être capable de se sentir toujours à l'aise et de légitimer de le dire le « oui, mais ». Parce qu'on veut pas être réfractaire au changement, on l'est pas, mais on se doit nous on sait que nos gens vont avoir des impacts si on le dit pas, si on le dit des fois c'est mal perçu des fois c'est bien perçu dépendant du récepteur. – Gail

De même, le peu ou l'absence de préparation préalable à l'implantation de la transformation numérique complique le travail des cadres. En effet, ils·elles peuvent se retrouver directement confrontés à apprendre les changements au fil de l'eau, tout comme leur personnel. Dans de tels contextes, on remarque les risques de réduction de leur autorité et de leur autonomie au travail, qui peuvent découler de la transformation numérique ainsi que la possibilité d'une intensification et d'une surcharge de travail.

> C'est difficile pour nous aussi les cadres de [rire] on change de système X [nomme le système], comment est-ce que moi je vais aider mon employé à faire de la gestion de changement alors que même pour moi c'est nébuleux ? Nous aussi on a une transfo-, on passe à travers cette transformation numérique. On doit comprendre ça va nous amener où, puis sans aller dans le micro, parce que c'est pas nous nécessairement qui va utiliser le logiciel, mais on doit avoir des équipes supports autour de nous […] on a un défi nous autres aussi, on en pédale un bout [rire] […] ça demande du temps vraiment, parce qu'en tant que cadres, on est déjà très occupés, puis vu que cette transformation arrive, ça nous demande du temps, mais aussi pour les employés. On doit les former pour leur expertise, pour leur travail, mais en plus on doit les former constamment par rapport à leurs outils informatiques […] Ça devient lourd. – Anna

Au regard des analyses effectuées, deux sous-catégories émergent et permettent de saisir plus finement les expériences de travail des cadres. C'est ce qui est présenté dans les paragraphes subséquents.

Des expériences marquées par l'arbitrage complexe des dimensions économiques et instrumentales du travail avec ses dimensions humaines et sociales

Parmi les participant·e·s, certaines ont fait état des difficultés rencontrées en lien avec l'arbitrage des dimensions économiques, instrumentales, humaines et sociales de la transformation numérique qui influencent leurs expériences de travail. Pour eux·elles, la transformation numérique semble associée principalement à des finalités économiques et instrumentales du travail (réduire des coûts, optimiser des processus, gagner en rapidité, être plus compétitif, faire croître l'organisation, etc.) prenant peu ou pas en compte les dimensions humaines et sociales du travail. Ils·elles ont parfois le sentiment de devoir suivre le train sans nécessairement en partager ou en comprendre les finalités. Certain·e·s cadres, comme Alain, se sont interrogés sur le sens et l'utilité des transformations numériques :

> Très vite quand ça accélère puis on parle de transformations numériques puis des fois j'ai l'impression qu'on oublie un peu c'est quoi notre mission d'équipe ou de compagnie. J'aimerais ça des fois que ça soit un petit peu plus peut-être scopé les changements de systèmes, de technologies qui s'en viennent, mais ça devrait être guidé par quoi? Guidé

> normalement par la volonté de mieux servir nos clients, plus rapide, plus de qualité, etc. Puis des fois, l'impression que ça me laisse en voyant ça s'accélérer puis on déploie toutes sortes de nouveaux outils qu'on a des fois pas le temps de bien intégrer qu'il y en a déjà un nouveau qu'il faut se former, mais quand on regarde tout ça en bout de ligne ça sert à quoi? […] Pourquoi on se transforme? Vers quels outils? Qu'est-ce qui devrait être vraiment nos tops priorités dans la transformation plutôt que de ratisser un peu partout? […] dans mon travail, est-ce que c'est utile ou pas? Des fois c'est dur de garder le fil. – Alain

D'autres ont mis en évidence les conséquences potentielles sur les employé·e·s en termes d'aspects humains et sociaux découlant de la transformation numérique, notamment, la perte d'expertise et la nécessité de se maintenir à jour, pouvant affecter la motivation et la mobilisation au travail.

> On a dans nos équipes, des bibles sur deux pattes, des personnes séniores qui sont là depuis plusieurs années puis ils connaissent tout ça, puis ils sont fiers, ils sont contents de tout savoir, puis ils aiment ça être une ressource. C'est juste qu'avec tous les changements, puis tous les trucs qui se passent tellement vite, et bien beaucoup des réponses qu'ils avaient avant, bien ils les ont pu maintenant. C'est une perte de fierté puis de motivation aussi. « J'étais la personne-ressource, tout le monde venait vers moi, puis là bien ça fait deux-trois fois que je réponds oups finalement il y a de quoi qui a changé, puis je suis plus tant expert que ça puis, il faut que je remette à jour ». – Victor

D'autres par ailleurs ont abordé le manque de temps pour offrir un accompagnement individuel ou en équipe au personnel lors des processus de transformation, ainsi que la cadence élevée des changements auxquels sont confrontés les employé·e·s. C'est le cas notamment de Christine, qui remet en question le sens de son travail, voire témoigne d'une certaine souffrance éthique :

> Je vais t'avouer que notre tâche, notre charge de travail, présentement fait en sorte que je ne suis pas en mesure de donner tout le temps et tout l'amour que j'aimerais donner au personnel. […] les changements technologiques que nous on a, si on regarde l'humain, bien l'humain va avoir une partie de temps pour apprendre, un besoin de stabilité puis après ça il va pouvoir poursuivre ses apprentissages. Cependant, présentement, les employés sont gavés. Pis on les gave comme des canards […] faut que tu fasses attention là-dedans […] le côté humain à l'intérieur de cette transformation numérique, il n'est pas évident. – Christine

Les cadres éprouvant ce type d'expériences de travail se questionnent en définitive sur ce que ces impératifs de transformation numérique les amènent à devenir dans leur rapport aux autres, sur la qualité du monde qu'ils·elles contribuent à construire.

Des expériences ancrées dans les dimensions économiques et instrumentales du travail, à distance des dimensions humaines et sociales

D'autres cadres vivent pour leur part des expériences de travail ancrées principalement dans des dimensions économiques et instrumentales du travail en gardant à distance les dimensions humaines et sociales. Ces expériences se définissent principalement en adéquation avec les rhétoriques associées à la transformation numérique, notamment la recherche d'efficacité, la réduction des coûts à moyen ou long terme, la nécessité de demeurer compétitif avec moins ou peu de considération pour les dimensions humaines et sociales.

> La transformation numérique c'est l'optimisation des processus en continu, mais aussi suivre la tendance de ce que veulent les consommateurs parce que c'est sûr que comme organisation, ce qui fait notre raison d'être, c'est de servir notre clientèle, donc s'ils ne veulent plus se faire servir par téléphone, comme avant,

> il faut qu'on soit accessible sur le Web, en présence sur le chat, par courriel, etc. C'est la course à la concurrence […] à celui qui aura le plus de moyens de communication et d'accessibilité, de produits pour être compétitif. – Lucas

> Dans mon équipe, c'est dans le changement de façons de faire, optimiser les outils actuels […] permettre de faire plus avec moins. – Gérard

En ce qui concerne les dimensions humaines et sociales du travail, les cadres ont souligné que la transformation numérique entraine des enjeux générationnels qui créent une distinction entre les employé·e·s qualifiés de « jeunes » et ceux·celles qualifiés de « vieux·vieilles ». Les employé·e·s « jeunes » sont perçus comme ayant grandi avec les technologies, en mesure d'apprendre rapidement, créatifs et capables de s'adapter aux changements. En revanche, les employé·e·s « vieux·vieilles » sont considérés comme subissant la technologie, plus susceptibles d'être dépassés par les évolutions technologiques et plus enclins à démissionner ou encore à prendre une retraite anticipée.

> Les gens qui sont plus jeunes l'ont mieux vécu que les gens qui sont plus âgés, parce qu'ils sont plus à l'aise avec la technologie, travailler à distance, eh sont plus aussi autodidactes avec la technologie, donc s'il y a un problème informatique, ils sont moins démunis. – Todd

> Nos vieux sont comme « wow où est ma place? » On a même quelques départs, à la retraite parce que les gens disent « non, on n'est pas capable de suivre la parade ». […] nos vieux de la vieille sont loin d'être là pour répondre à cette évolution. – Carole

Ainsi, les difficultés rencontrées par le personnel sont attribuées par certain·e·s cadres à l'âge et à la génération, plutôt qu'à des contextes et des conditions de la transformation numérique de l'organisation du travail.

Le traitement et les analyses des matériaux ont permis de mettre en évidence les facettes de la transformation numérique et ses répercussions sur les cadres. Ils ont mis en lumière le peu ou l'absence d'implication des cadres dans les décisions qui sont prises concernant la transformation numérique, ce qui s'avère paradoxal étant donné que ces changements ont un impact direct sur leur travail et celui de leurs équipes. Ces résultats s'inscrivent en continuité avec les travaux d'Andersone et al. (2022), réalisés auprès de cadres danois, qui révèlent également un sentiment de faible pouvoir des cadres concernant les décisions affectant leurs employé·e·s, dans le contexte pandémique de transition vers la supervision à distance. De plus, ces travaux soulignent que le bien-être et les besoins des cadres n'ont pas été prioritaires dans les organisations danoises de ce secteur dans le contexte de la transformation du travail découlant des contraintes sanitaires liées à la pandémie (Andersone et al., 2022), ce qui semble s'appliquer dans la présente étude dans le domaine de l'assurance. Plus largement, le peu ou l'absence d'implication des cadres dans les décisions qui sont prises concernant la transformation numérique risque de mettre à mal certaines facettes de leurs fonctions et de leur travail d'encadrement (Dejours, 2015). Par exemple, leur possibilité de contribuer à la composition et à l'élaboration des orientations de la transformation numérique et leur capacité à prendre en compte sa place dans l'organisation sociale, culturelle et politique semblent limitées (Dejours, 2015). De même, la remise en question de certaines prescriptions relatives à la transformation numérique afin de mieux les arbitrer avec les enjeux du travail réel de leurs employé·e·s semble être réduite (Dejours, 2015). De telles conditions sont susceptibles de mener à une intention de quitter des cadres (Giguère, 2020). Suivant ces perspectives, il est légitime de se demander comment les décisions relatives à la transformation numérique pourraient-elles être repensées de manière à inclure davantage les défis et enjeux rencontrés par les cadres dans le travail réel ? Comment considérer les éléments importants du travail des cadres et ce à quoi ils·elles accordent une valeur dans leur travail, dans les processus de transformation numérique? Les points de vue des expériences vécues par les cadres gagneraient à être considérés pour conceptualiser les processus de transformation numérique et pourraient ouvrir sur des pistes pour favoriser le maintien durable en emploi des cadres.

L'identification des deux catégories d'expérience de travail des cadres (« des expériences marquées par l'arbitrage complexe des dimensions économiques et instrumentales du travail avec ses dimensions humaines et sociales» et « des expériences ancrées dans les dimensions économiques et instrumentales du travail, à distance des dimensions humaines et sociales ») a permis de révéler les processus d'arbitrage construits socialement et subjectivement entre les dimensions économiques et instrumentales et les dimensions humaines et sociales du travail. Pour les cadres qui vivent des expériences de travail marquées par un arbitrage complexe entre les dimensions économiques et instrumentales et les dimensions humaines et sociales, les résultats mettent en lumière les défis inhérents à ces processus d'arbitrage et les questionnements qu'ils suscitent. À ce sujet, des questions ont été soulevées concernant le sens et l'utilité des changements liés à la transformation numérique, en plus des préoccupations qui ont été exprimées quant aux impacts de ces transformations sur la gestion des équipes. Ces résultats font écho à ceux soulevés dans d'autres travaux (Andersone et al., 2022; Giguère et al., 2023) qui soulignent l'importance et la valeur que des cadres accordent aux dynamiques relationnelles avec le personnel encadré, comme élément contribuant à la construction du sens de leur travail. Ces résultats convergent avec ceux de Dejours (2015) qui révèlent l'importance de construire et de préserver les espaces de délibération permettant des retours d'expériences et des échanges pratiques pour mener à bien les activités de service, de manière à réduire les risques de solitudes vécus par les cadres. Il serait donc intéressant de poursuivre de tels travaux afin de mieux comprendre comment les décisions relatives à la transformation numérique pourraient mieux considérer ces enjeux importants dans le rapport au travail des cadres.

Du côté des cadres qui vivent des expériences de travail ancrées dans des dimensions économiques et instrumentales, à distance des dimensions humaines et sociales, il est possible de constater qu'elles se rapprochent davantage des discours liés à la transformation numérique axés sur une plus grande productivité et une plus grande efficience des processus. Ces résultats rejoignent les constats soulevés dans d'autres travaux, où certaines expériences de travail des cadres sont fortement influencées par un sens du devoir et une loyauté envers l'organisation afin d'atteindre les objectifs (Dejours, 2015; Giguère et al., 2023; Pelletier, 2014). À ce sujet, des stratégies permettent aux cadres d'agir à l'encontre de ce que leur indique leur jugement ou leur sens moral, à travers le « cynisme de la résignation ou « l'akrasie » afin de rester à distance du conflit, ou encore, à l'aide de « l'akrasie sthénique » de manière à collaborer aux rhétoriques organisationnelles en adoptant des prêts-à-penser (Dejours, 2015).

Au niveau de l'encadrement du personnel, des cadres ont évoqué des enjeux liés à l'âge et à la génération, classant ainsi les employé·e·s selon les catégories « jeunes » et « vieux·vieilles». Ces résultats s'inscrivent en continuité avec les travaux en psychodynamique du travail qui révèlent une stratégie de psychologie spontanée de l'encadrement qui consiste à mettre à distance les failles de l'organisation prescrite du travail et à poser un regard dépréciatif sur le personnel encadré (Dejours, 1992; Dejours, 1998; Giguère et al., 2023; Vézina et St-Arnaud, 1996). En lien avec les résultats, les dynamiques relationnelles des cadres avec le personnel encadré seraient marquées par des processus de psychologisation et de personnalisation des employé·e·s qui consistent à lier des difficultés vécues dans le travail à des caractéristiques des employé·e·s (les « jeunes », les « vieux·vieilles »). Ainsi, comme le souligne Dejours (2015), plus on s'éloigne des obstacles rencontrés dans le travail réel des employé·e·s, plus il est risqué de céder à la tentation de recourir à des interprétations dépréciatives axées sur les problèmes personnels ou la personnalité des employé·e·s.

De cette manière, il est légitime de se demander quelles pourraient être les répercussions des processus de psychologisation et de personnalisation sur la santé mentale et sur le maintien durable en emploi des employé·e·s?

Les expériences des cadres concernant les enjeux de conciliation travail-famille et l'empiètement du travail sur les différents projets de vie

Le traitement et les analyses des matériaux révèlent que les enjeux de conciliation du travail avec les différents projets de vie ont peu été abordés par les cadres, à l'exception des situations où le travail empiète sur les projets de vie. À ce sujet, les résultats montrent que l'utilisation des outils numériques contribue à maintenir un certain flou quant aux lieux et au temps de travail, puisque ces outils permettent de travailler n'importe où (bureau, domicile) et en tout temps (jour, soir, nuit, fin de semaine). Selon eux·elles, le contexte pandémique et le télétravail ont engendré une augmentation du temps de travail passé à domicile.

> Depuis qu'on est en télétravail avec la pandémie, je trouve que l'on travaille encore plus [rires] depuis qu'on est tous à la maison, puis pour se trouver du temps pour travailler individuellement sur nos dossiers, ça décale les soirées et les fins de semaine, parce que dans la semaine, il y a un appel d'un employé, des rencontres, l'agenda est multicolore. – Lorie

Dans un contexte de risques d'intensification et de surcharge de travail, certain·e·s cadres ont mentionné consacrer davantage de temps à leur travail afin de respecter les contraintes d'échéances, à travers les mandats à livrer ou les résultats à produire. Dans ces contextes, l'équilibre entre le travail est les différents projets de vie devient plus fragile.

> Je pense que ce n'est pas nécessairement facile d'avoir cet équilibre-là entre : d'un côté, on me dit que je peux me déconnecter, mais de l'autre côté, dans une semaine, tous mes projets doivent être closés […] c'est pas facile de trouver cet équilibre. – Mylène

> C'est sûr que l'équilibre est fragile, entre le travail, la famille et la pandémie. – Lucas

Quelques-un·e·s ont expliqué avoir même mis sur pause temporairement leur famille pour pallier la surcharge de travail.

> Ma famille a été mise sur pause pendant deux semaines complètement parce que c'était vraiment du huit heures à vingt-deux heures, on a des gens à X [nomme la ville à l'extérieur de son lieu de travail]. […] les enfants malheureusement ça a été deux semaines sur pause. – Roxane

Plusieurs participant·e·s ont abordé les enjeux relatifs au droit à la déconnexion, soit le droit de ne pas être constamment connectés et disponibles pour le travail. Ils·elles ont évoqué des paradoxes auxquels ils·elles font face entre leur droit de se déconnecter du travail et les attentes liées aux livrables, aux mandats aux échéanciers qui composent leur charge de travail. Ils·elles relèvent de fait la surcharge nécessaire à assumer pour pouvoir se décharger ou se déconnecter.

> Quand tu as trois projets à livrer, pour pouvoir te déconnecter, ça amène énormément de travail [rires] beaucoup plus en amont pour pouvoir finalement te déconnecter pendant quelques jours. […] pour dire « je me prends un vendredi [en congé], je déconnecte, ou je prends une semaine de vacances, je me déconnecte complètement » il faut rattraper ou prévoir à l'avance. – Lorie

> La notion de prendre de l'avance dans mes dossiers, c'est une réalité. Même que si je prends plus de deux semaines de vacances collées […] je ne peux pas compter sur quelqu'un d'autre. […] je m'empêche de prendre plus que deux semaines de vacances parce que rendu à la troisième, ça me fait plus mal que de bénéfices, j'appréhende mon retour à la quatrième. […] le travail s'accumule,

s'accumule, s'accumule.
– Gérard

À ce sujet, certain·e·s participant·e·s ont évoqué la mise en place de pratiques informelles au sein de leurs équipes de travail telles qu'éviter d'envoyer des courriels en soirée et de planifier leur envoi plutôt en différé. Toutefois, l'absence de positions claires de la part de l'employeur complexifie la cohabitation de diverses pratiques. Enfin, quelques participantes ont mentionné l'utilisation d'outils numériques, dont le cellulaire, comme outil permettant de gérer l'ensemble de leurs responsabilités de travail, rejoignant la stratégie d'hyperefficacité des femmes cadres (Giguere et al., 2022) ou la stratégie de « fragmentation+imbrication » des enseignantes (Bilodeau et al., 2023) :

> Ma vie va très vite. J'ai deux jeunes enfants, donc oui, c'est mon calendrier, mon téléphone qui gère mes rendez-vous, toutes mes choses sont entrées dedans, si vous voulez savoir ce que j'ai dans ma journée tout est là. J'ai besoin de ça sinon je ne réussirais pas à accomplir tout ce que je peux faire professionnellement et avec la famille. Donc oui je suis un peu aux dépens des outils numériques, j'en conviens, mais ça me convient aussi et ça me permet d'accomplir tout ce que je fais, donc Sc'est correct et je suis bien comme cela. – Roxanne

En somme, l'ensemble des analyses réalisées révèle que dans le contexte de transformation numérique et de la pandémie, des cadres sont confrontés à une augmentation accrue du temps de travail, réalisé dans des lieux et des temps diversifiés, augmentation qui n'est pas sans lien avec l'intensification et la surcharge de travail sont de mises pour parvenir à livrer leurs mandats et produire les résultats attendus de leur travail, ce qui vient faire pression sur leur capacité à concilier le travail avec les différents projets de vie. Ces résultats convergent aussi avec d'autres travaux dont ceux d'Alberio et Tremblay (2021) et de Como et al., (2021) qui évoquent notamment que l'augmentation du temps passé au travail et les défis de la conciliation du travail avec les différents projets de vie peuvent être vécus en contexte pandémique. De même, les travaux d'Ipsen et al. (2022) montrent l'augmentation significative, pendant la pandémie, du nombre d'heures travaillées. L'investissement important des personnes rencontrées dans le travail d'encadrement peut précariser et fragiliser l'équilibre entre leur travail et leur famille et soulever des questionnements concernant le droit à la déconnexion. Ces constats rejoignent les travaux d'Andersone et al. (2022) à propos des déséquilibres entre travail et vie familiale chez les cadres réduisant ainsi leurs possibilités de déconnexion du travail et augmentant du même souffle les risques d'épuisement. Paradoxalement, les cadres contribuent à cette dynamique d'hypertravail (Gauthier, 2016; Rhéaume, 2006) par l'utilisation de stratégies d'hyperefficacité (Giguere et al., 2022) qui, certes, leur permettent d'arriver à en faire plus et à répondre aux exigences, sans toutefois juguler à la source l'augmentation de ces exigences en contexte de transformation numérique; ces stratégies leur permettent de « tenir » dans le travail en évitant d'être exposés à la souffrance de se sentir insuffisant. Enfin, ces résultats permettent d'appuyer les recommandations de Como et al., (2021) à propos de la nécessité de réaliser davantage de travaux de recherche afin de mieux comprendre et soutenir les enjeux de conciliation du travail avec les différents projets de vie ainsi que les risques reliés à la santé en contexte de télétravail, plus spécifiquement pour les cadres.

Conclusion

Pour conclure, les résultats des groupes de discussion menés auprès de vingt participant·e·s ont permis de cerner et d'analyser leurs expériences de travail en contexte de pandémie de Covid-19 marqué par une transition forcée vers le télétravail et une intrusion accrue du travail dans leurs différents projets de vie. Ces résultats confirment les travaux précédents et contribuent à l'avancement des connaissances scientifiques relatives à la rapidité et l'accélération de la transformation numérique en raison du passage forcé au télétravail à la suite des contraintes sanitaires mises en place en raison de la pandémie de Covid-19 en s'appuyant sur une théorie du travail vivant (Dejours, 2013; Dejours et Deranty, 2010; Molinier, 2008). De plus, les résultats permettent de dégager deux catégories d'expériences de travail des cadres : 1) des expériences de travail marquées par un complexe arbitrage entre les dimensions économiques et instrumentales et les dimensions humaines et sociales du travail et 2) des expériences de travail ancrées principalement dans les dimensions économiques et instrumentales, à distance des dimensions humaines et sociales. De même, les résultats mettent en évidence l'émergence de nouvelles formes d'empiètement du travail sur les différents projets de vie, en raison des transformations du contenu, des temps et des lieux de travail découlant de l'utilisation de nouveaux outils numériques. Plus largement, ces travaux mettent en lumière la pertinence de mobiliser la théorie du travail vivant afin de comprendre les diverses expériences de travail vécues par les cadres. Par ailleurs, cette étude comporte des limites, notamment concernant le contexte canadien du secteur de l'assurance impliqué dans le projet de recherche. Il pourrait être pertinent de poursuivre des travaux dans d'autres contextes et secteurs touchés par la transformation numérique de même que de documenter les expériences vécues par les travailleurs·euses dans d'autres catégories socioprofessionnelles, par exemple, la haute direction.

Des réflexions se posent à propos des modalités d'organisation et d'engagement au travail à développer afin de préserver le sens au travail des cadres, favoriser leur maintien durable en emploi et concilier leurs projets de vie dans un contexte post-covid caractérisé par plusieurs incertitudes, notamment en tenant compte des différentes possibilités en termes de temps et de lieux de travail (présentiel, distanciel, hybride). Par ailleurs, les résultats de cette étude sont pertinents pour réfléchir aux démarches d'accompagnement des personnes et des groupes dans le champ du counseling et de l'orientation. Ils permettent aux intervenant·e·s de mieux comprendre les facettes de la transformation numérique et les conduites au travail développées par les cadres. Ils ouvrent aussi sur la possibilité d'engager des processus réflexifs des personnes et des groupes de cadres concernant les expériences de travail vécues en contexte de transformation numérique, afin de construire des pistes pour se dégager de dynamiques potentiellement pathogènes dans lesquelles ils peuvent se retrouver malgré eux·elles et auxquelles ils peuvent inconsciemment contribuer malgré eux·elles. Enfin, d'autres analyses sont en cours pour saisir plus finement les enjeux et les répercussions de la transformation numérique sur le développement de carrière du personnel employé.

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Synchronicity Learning Theory: Happenstance Learning Theory Re-envisioned

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is twofold: firstly, to listen for elements of Krumboltz's (2009) Happenstance Learning Theory (HLT) within the stories of women, including risk, curiosity, optimism, flexibility, and persistence; and secondly, to determine whether these women frame their stories within a worldview that values other ways of knowing, such as intuition, that cannot be easily measured or observed. These women have been selected because they are at least fifty years old and have acquired the embodied wisdom that results from years of lived experience. Their stories have potential to contribute women's voices to inform a new model of career counselling which *re-envisions* HLT, where an exploration of worldview is considered part of the conversation around meaningful happenstance, called synchronicity. Counsellors may offer this new approach, named Synchronicity Learning Theory (SLT), in order to encourage an awareness of synchronistic experiences that help guide decision making within an interconnected and interdependent world. Using a narrative inquiry design, in-depth interviews were recorded, and verbatim transcriptions were woven together in a storied form that includes six main themes that help inform SLT:

1) risk;
2) boundaries;
3) kindred spirits;
4) seasons;
5) flux; and
6) synchronicity.

Implications for future research, career theory development, and counselling practice are discussed.

Keywords: synchronicity, synchronicity learning theory, happenstance learning theory, career counselling, search for life meaning, intuition, new career theory.

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The Void

The modern dilemma of social isolation (Kegley, 2018), the reduction in physical connectedness due to the increase in digital media and virtual ways of conducting all sorts of daily tasks (Achterbergh et al., 2020), and even the lack of intimacy and support women gain from interactions with other women (Rankin et al., 2018) – all of these things can contribute to a sense of loneliness and questions around life purpose. Added to this, throughout modern history the world has operated under a patriarchal system that encourages competition, human dominance, and the acquisition of power and resources. Never before, at least not during modern times, has the survival of our species needed a more feminine, collaborative, and reciprocal approach towards sharing power and resources with an understanding of the cyclical and seasonal nature of Earth and all living things (Morrison, 2016).

Reconciling the career and life roles that women see available today, with an inner knowledge of this other way of engaging with the world that is cooperative, compassionate, and interdependent, leaves many women feeling unsettled, though few have words to easily describe this dis-ease (Sweeting-Trotter, 2014). At the same time, traditional ways of knowing common to Indigenous people all over the globe, including the descendants of ancient Celtic and Gaelic peoples, are often forgotten or dismissed (McVeigh, 2017). Women are frequently discouraged from trusting their own inner wisdom and ancestral sources of intuitive knowledge (Sinclair, 2020). Faced with subtle and unnamed feelings of discontent, some of these women peer through this mist and seek counselling, hoping to find more than a job or an occupation, but a life purpose and meaning that fills a spiritual void. Counsellors continue to hear these stories, leading some to hope for a new approach to counselling that reflects these women's voices and considers a worldview that includes intuitive and embodied ways of coming to know, where a trust in the process of living allows for the possibility that career decision making and a search for life purpose could be aided by an awareness of this invisible world.

For the purpose of this study, career counselling is included under the larger umbrella of counselling therapy, where common approaches and basic principles are shared across multiple areas of focus, including both mental health therapy in general, and career counselling in particular. While specifically relevant to career counselling, Krumboltz's (2009) Happenstance Learning Theory (HLT) and the newly re-envisioned Synchronicity Learning Theory (SLT) are applicable to *both* career development and whole-life counselling therapy.

Literature Review

Intuition

Sinclair (2020) argues that intuition is a "non-sequential information processing mode, which compromises both cognitive and affective elements and results in direct knowing without any use of conscious reasoning" (p. 1). Years earlier, Jung (1921/1971) defined intuition as "perception via the unconscious where sense perception is a starting point to bring forth ideas, images, and possibilities through a process that is mostly unconscious" (p. 462). Tafreshi et al. (2018) more recently explore intuition by examining Women's Ways of Knowing (WAYS) and determine that there is a great deal of diversity in how the women they interviewed described and understood sources of knowledge and knowledge construction. Prior to this, Belenky et al. (1986) did extensive work into women's ways of knowing and grouped women's perspectives on knowing into five major epistemological categories including: silence, received knowledge, subjective knowledge, procedural knowledge, and constructed knowledge. What seems to be implied in this book is that these five categories form a hierarchy, and that subjective knowledge, which includes intuition, is inferior to constructed knowledge where strategies for knowing are both subjective and objective. None of the five categories included notable emphasis on embodied knowing experienced as physical sensations within the body, though the importance of relationships, caring, and sense of community were closely linked to the ways of knowing attributed to women.

Embodied Wisdom

Offering another perspective, Snowber (2016) focusses on embodied knowledge and the intuitive wisdom within the body and tells us that:

> This approach is not new, nor does it represent new knowledge. This knowledge comes from the ancients, the wise ones, the indigenous people, and the mystics. You've heard it. You know it. That's because this knowledge is as earthly as the gardener's hands. (p. xiv).

Bolen (1993, 2004) also wrote extensively about the wisdom within women's bodies, and defines intuition as "the gaps between the conscious and unconscious, and instinctual wisdom and reason" (2004, p. 112). She further argues that:

> Allowing intuition to blossom requires listening to and trusting your body and inner messages, and being present in the moment. Relying on intuition is not ignoring or denying logic or reason, but believing that your mind and body contains more levels of knowledge than can be assessed on the surface (2004, p. 112).

Above all, Bolen understood that intuitive knowledge was felt knowledge that was experienced in the body. Echoing Bolen, Attig et al. (2011) explore intuition in relationship to synchronicity and spirituality, using personality assessments within the MBTI along with Beitman's Weird Coincidence Scale to compare intuition levels with the frequency of meaningful coincidences. These authors argue that:

> Those who are highly intuitive may be more likely to notice weird coincidences; or perhaps after having an unusual number of weird coincidences, they may be more likely to attend to their intuition, which may help them to notice further coincidences that may prove helpful to them (p. 3).

Synchronicity

Russo-Netzer & Icekson (2020) contend that little systematic research has explored synchronicity-phenomenon, prior to their own phenomenological analysis of in-depth interviews conducted with forty-five adults. Their findings suggest a dynamic model of three major building blocks including:

1. receptiveness (R), demonstrated by increased attention and openness to feelings and cognitions;
2. an exceptional encounter (E), experienced as a sudden unexpected event that echoes an inner feeling or thought; and
3. meaning detecting (M), evident by connecting the event to oneself in a meaningful way.

Similarly, Beitman (2016, 2022) also argues that certain conditions can encourage coincidence, such as times of high emotion and a conscious openness to synchronistic events, and he goes further to suggest that times of transition or change also predispose people to experience synchronicity (2016, p. 243) which are "often instrumental in helping us find people, solutions, useful information, and new possibilities" (2016, p. 35).

The term synchronicity was originally coined by Jung (1921/1971) to explain the meaningful coincidence between two things, such as a psychic occurrence followed by a physical occurrence, or two meaningfully connected physical or psychic occurrences with no apparent causal connection. Decades later, Connolly (2015) argues that "at the present moment, we are still unsure if such events should be considered normal, or an indication of psychopathology… where synchronicity destabilizes our certainties and strips away the illusion of a mind confined to a human body" (p. 160).

Jung (1952/2010) had been sympathetic to these challenges, and had argued that part of the difficulty with understanding synchronicity is that in the western world, people commonly view reality from the triadic perspective of time, space, and causality, and thus discount occurrences and connections that happen without a thinkable cause. He suggested that synchronicity is easily understood within eastern philosophies, as well as by ancient and Indigenous peoples, who viewed the world from a holistic perspective.

Early on, Jung (1952/2010) suggested that advancements in physics and an awareness of the radioactive decay of matter allowed scientists to begin to understand the acausal nature of physical reality when looking at minute particles of matter. He tells us that:

> Synchronicity is no more baffling or mysterious than the discontinuities of physics. It is only the ingrained belief in the sovereign power of causality that creates intellectual difficulties and makes it appear unthinkable that causeless events exist or could ever occur (p. 112).

In modern decades, advancements in physics have led to the mainstream understanding that the observer impacts what is being observed and our post-modern view of reality includes a broader awareness of the relationship between the psyche of the observer and the physical reality under observation, at least at this microscopic level (Hawking, 2010). Jung (1952/2010) suggested that similarly, the psyche of the observer can also impact the physical world, and this tight coupling of events that goes beyond a linear, local, and causal view of material reality can be experienced as synchronicity.

Happenstance Learning Theory

Krumboltz's (2009) Happenstance Learning Theory (HLT), originally referred to as Planned Happenstance Learning Theory (Mitchell, Levin, & Krumboltz, 1999), is based on the premise that the goal of career counselling is not to assist clients in making one career decision, and ending the counselling relationship there, but to encourage them to engage in exploratory actions as a way of generating unplanned beneficial events that could lead to a variety of career and life opportunities. Recognizing that the world is a chaotic environment where so many factors are outside of an individual's control, HLT encourages clients to be resilient amidst change while at the same time engaging in a variety of actions that may lead to an even greater number of unexpected opportunities to choose from.

What this theory does not include is the suggestion that chance events, referred to as happenstance, represent some level of underlying *meaning*, and that these events happen as part of a greater design. Instead, Krumboltz uses the word happenstance to mean a random, chance event void of any meaningful connection. Within this approach to counselling, the potential for happenstance, or chance events, is often discussed with clients as a valuable way of identifying that even the best plans are not immune to disruption and that flexibility is essential. Counsellors, whose practice is informed by HLT, encourage their clients to take active steps to create even more chance, unplanned opportunities as a means of generating more possibilities in life. Risk, curiosity, flexibility, optimism, and persistence are five components of HLT that are discussed as ways of helping to generate more of these possibilities while coping with uncertainty within life.

Risk and Curiosity

The first two components of risk taking and curiosity can often be considered in tandem, where curiosity includes the initial *exploration* of actions that can be taken to generate more chance events within a person's life, while risk taking includes the willingness to move forward in a tangible way, such as signing up for a night class or engaging in a conversation with a new acquaintance (Krumboltz, 2009).

Flexibility

The third component is flexibility, which can be further developed after dealing with chance events. Keeping goals in mind (the what) while being flexible about the varied means of achieving those goals (the how) is key, while those who are rigid and unbending in their approach may have more limited means of achieving their goals (Krumboltz, 2009).

Optimism

The fourth component is optimism, which can be considered more of a chosen attitude rather than a behaviour. Krumboltz believes that people who adopt an optimistic attitude are more likely to be successful over time (Krumboltz, 2009).

Persistence

The fifth component is persistence, and includes a willingness to focus sustained effort over a period of time, despite setbacks. People who choose to be persistent understand that even negative chance events can often lead to positive outcomes over time (Krumboltz, 2009).

HLT Re-envisioned

Considering how the language of synchronicity may be understood as communication between the seen or unseen world offers the suggestion that career decision making and a search for life purpose could be aided by a greater awareness of this invisible world. The re-envisioning of HLT into a new theory that includes this awareness became an exciting possibility. This led to the central question: What if what is considered as random are signs, portals, openings, and how then, if we learn to read these moments,

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might we use this inspiration and these opportunities to live a most meaningful life? And if so, how might counsellors support their clients in this search for life meaning?

Paying attention to synchronistic events, with an openness to the idea that the world is a living organism with blurred boundaries between self and other, may offer an alternative to engaging in the career decision making process. Rather than navigate through and pivot around chance events that come our way, we might learn to embrace this complexity as evidence of our interconnectedness within a greater whole, paying attention to the potential meaning within and between these synchronicities. Meaningful coincidences suggest that we live in a matrix of unbounded links to one another, and that humans possess a greater personal power over synchronicity than most of us realize (Beitman, 2016; Coleman, Beitman, & Celebi, 2009).

Purpose of Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is therefore twofold: firstly, to explore the presence or absence of the five HLT elements of risk, curiosity, optimism, persistence, and flexibility within the stories of five women; and secondly, to determine whether these women frame their stories within an epistemology based upon logical-analytical knowledge that can be measured and observed (the seen), or a belief system which also values other ways of knowing (the unseen). These stories matter, as they have potential to inform a new model of career counselling which expands upon HLT, and where an exploration of belief systems is considered part of the conversation around *meaningful* happenstance, or synchronicity. Depending upon the client's openness to more intuitive ways of knowing, counsellors may use HLT in its traditional format, or may offer a re-envisioned version of HLT that encourages an awareness of meaningful synchronicities that help guide decision making along the life-career path.

Furthermore, the inclusion of synchronicity as an "under-explored pathway to life satisfaction" (Russo-Netzer & Icekson, 2023, p. 1) could transform career theory and pave the way for new tools and approaches within the career development field, offering alternatives that fit within a narrative that is interconnected and interdependent as well as complex and chaotic. This led the researcher to wonder - is it possible to re-envision HLT so that this openness to chance events is not just something that creates opportunity, but may also allow for an unfolding of life based on a trust in the process of living, and where inspiration and guidance is communicated through meaningful synchronicities? Built upon a foundation of HLT, could a new theory, named Synchronicity Learning Theory (SLT), provide a novel way of working with those clients who are open to the idea of *meaningful* synchronicity? The rich stories of the women engaged within this narrative inquiry suggest that the answer to this question is yes, and is outlined in detail below.

Method

A Storied Approach

Freeman (2015) tells us that we are born into a storied world and live our lives through the creation and sharing of stories, and where narrative inquiry offers an approach that fits with a *relational* view of the world (Clandinin, 2016). Reflection on the words of Buber (1923) also remind us of the importance of the relationship between researcher and participant, and whether we enter into that relationship with the initial goal of *experience* or *encounter*. The listener who shares an *encounter* with the person telling her story engages in a profound connection that is transpersonal in nature, and where the researcher, for moments in time, suspends her separateness and no longer relates to the participant as the *other*. What is produced in the form of narrative research are more than transcribed observations or reported experiences, but meaningfully evocative, provocative stories that listeners can connect to in a heart-felt way. A narrative inquiry methodology was therefore adopted with the goal of fostering this intimacy between participant, researcher, and future reader, where the sensuality of stories allows for an embodied learning that is felt in the body as well as contemplated in the mind.

Participant Selection

This study was approved through the UPEI Research Ethics Board in the spring of 2022. The participants chosen for this narrative inquiry included women aged fifty and above who had gone through a career/life transition and who were open to speaking about their search for life purpose. The only restriction put in place included the inability to be a past or current client of PEI Career Development Services where the lead researcher is employed. Being fairly well know within her community and having a wide reach on social media, the lead researcher's public social media account was used to recruit participants, and within less than 24hrs five woman who met the selection criteria had volunteered to participate.

It was quickly determined that all potential participants were former or current residents of PEI and available to participate in the interview process, either in person or on Zoom. The benefit of waiting for additional applicants included the possibility of women who presented more diverse backgrounds and stories. The drawback of waiting included having to come up with additional criteria in order to sort through who the best participants would be if more than five women responded.

Even though Prince Edward Island is becoming a more diverse and multi-cultural province compared to the homogeneous society it was just a decade ago, the participants who volunteered for this study were all Canadian-born, cis-gendered, white, able-bodied women of European descent. The limitation that this creates is the lack of diverse women's voices reflected in the stories they shared. The benefit is that the commonalities between researcher and participants allowed for quick rapport building and a shared understanding of life experiences. It is this sense of intimacy that is of paramount importance within the narrative inquiry process, where the resonance between researcher and participant is essential.

While a further study might strive to include more diverse voices and perspectives, this researcher was satisfied with the rich stories of the five women who initially volunteered, and no further recruitment was necessary. Four of the women were between fifty and fifty-two while the fifth was sixty-three. One woman had no formal post-secondary training while three had an undergraduate degree and one had a master's degree. One woman had no children of her own but had contributed to children's lives in a significant way; two women had both children and step children; one woman had her own biological children and an adopted child as well as a grandson she was raising fulltime; and the last woman had three biological sons. Considering their relationship status, one woman had never been married but had previously been in a common-law relationship for several years; one woman had been married for over thirty years; two women were divorced and one of them had remarried; and the last woman was in a long-term marriage with a man who had been married once before. At the time of the interviews, four of the five women were residing in rural PEI, and one woman had since moved to Ontario after having lived on PEI years earlier.

The rationale for limiting participant selection to women came from the goal of infusing more women's voices within new career theory, seeking input from those who viewed the world through a female lens. Women aged fifty and above were targeted based on the rationale that they had acquired embodied wisdom by the very nature of having lived within their bodies for at least fifty years. Payerle (2016) argues that some cultures value the wisdom earned by older women and recognize this wisdom through coming-of-age celebrations. Media within the western world, however, often portrays aging as a negative process and women's aging as a particularly troublesome phenomenon, where older women become almost invisible. Valuing older women's contributions is a small, conscious step towards balancing this disequilibrium.

Data Collection

Data collection included three separate one and a half to two-hour meetings with each of the participants, either in person or on Zoom. An unstructured interview approach was adopted, and the initial question for all women was: "You have identified as a woman who is fifty or above and who has contemplated her life purpose while making a career/ life transition. Can you tell me about that?" The intention of this question was to provide an open space to allow each woman to tell her story in her own way, independently choosing key elements to include and omit.

All interviews were immediately transcribed through Zoom, including the virtual interviews as well as those completed in person. The Zoom transcription technology was such a significant time saver and allowed the researcher to review the conversations before moving on to interview round two and three. Each round was completed within a two-week period, and all interviews were completed by the end of August 2022.

Interview number two began with the opening question: "How do you determine something is true for you, and what sources of knowledge do you trust, especially when making important decisions in your life?" The intention if this question was to get at the root of what women value as authentic sources of knowledge, both seen and unseen. Interview number three began with the question: "If you were to think back to your twenty-year old self, or even yourself as you were about to leave high school, what advice would the mature you share with your younger self?" The intention of this question was to uncover key lessons each mature woman wished to share from a lifetime of lived experience.

In an attempt to infuse herself more intimately within the study, while examining her own biases and ways of understanding the world around her, this researcher posed the same three questions to herself and included her stories in the final narrative, sharing the common characteristics of being a woman over fifty who had searched for life meaning and had gone through a career/life transition. This also allowed the researcher to see how her own story *fit* with the stories of her research participants, bumping up against some and merging into others. The end result was an increase in the overall rigor of the research process as the researcher's preconceived beliefs and opinions were brought to light. It also provided a rich opportunity to acknowledge that narrative inquiry by its very nature includes a deep sharing between researcher, participant, and future reader, where stories are deeply personal and include a subjective blending of ideas when told and retold, shared and received.

Data Analysis

Weaving Story Threads

Creswell (2006) tells us that "Restorying is the process of reorganizing stories into a general sort of framework. This framework may consist of gathering stories, analyzing them for key elements, and then rewriting the stories in a chronological sequence" (p. 56) where stories have a beginning, middle and end.

Keeping this in mind, the researcher set out to make sense

Image 1

Ancient MacNeil of Barra Tartan

of each woman's story with the goal of weaving narrative story threads together in a design that represented each individual woman's contribution, while at the same time allowed these interwoven pieces to form something greater than the sum of its parts – like a strong tartan cloth formed by individual story threads.

Considering the ancient MacNeil of Barra tartan as a metaphor for the collection of individual research stories, the reader can see how each individual woman's story has remained intact and whole, though woven together with a type of coherence that allows clear patterns to emerge. Some colours intersect, while others blend into one another. Some colours are dominant and repeated, while others are subtle. Some are highlighted by a secondary colour, while others exist on their own. Some stand in striking contrast with one another, while others represent various shades of the same primary colour.

This metaphor was a helpful guide as the researcher set out to find meaning and shared meaning within each woman's story. This was achieved by returning to the highlighted copies of the interview transcripts while reading them over a second time to identify key ideas and important concepts. On a separate piece of paper, one word or visual image was recorded to capture the main ideas that emerged. These 166 visual cues, colour coded for each woman, were then cut out and laid out on the floor so that patterns became visible as similar and contrasting concepts became clear. This very tangible approach to thematic analysis allowed the researcher to identify both themes and outliers, while also helping to identify:

> 1) the presence or omission of the five components of HLT within each woman's story, as well as 2) the worldview and preferred ways of knowing valued by each woman.

Trustworthiness

Once each narrative account was completed, the researcher shared an initial draft with each woman to allow for a discussion of what had been written. This practice of member checking added to the shared understanding of the main concepts and enabled the researcher to clarify ideas and check for accurate understanding, as well as provide each woman with an opportunity to change, add, or remove any elements or details from her story. All the women appreciated being included in this writing process, minor edits were made, and the privacy of one woman was further protected by removing several identifiable details. Further checks were made following the completion of subsequent chapters, and a few additional minor edits were made.

Findings

Two initial factors were considered when analyzing the data and included:

> 1) the inclusion or omission of the five elements of HLT within each woman's story, including risk, curiosity, optimism, flexibility, and persistence; and 2) the worldview adopted by each woman and openness to ways of knowing, such as intuition, that cannot be easily measured.

In addition to this, six main themes emerged from the narrative accounts of these women, and are as follows:

1. risk;
2. boundaries;
3. kindred spirits;
4. seasons;
5. flux; and
6. synchronicity.

The following section will address these findings in sequential order, starting with the five elements of HLT, continuing with the introduction to the six main themes that arose from these stories, and following up with information regarding worldview. Pseudonyms (Kelly, Jen, Joan, and Anna) have been used for four of the participants in order to protect confidentiality, while Lori and Jannie chose to be named and identified within this study.

Elements of HLT

Considering whether each of the five elements of HLT are present within or absent from the narratives of these women was a key component of this research project. The following section considers how (a) risk; (b) curiosity; (c) optimism; (d) flexibility; and (e) persistence are portrayed or omitted form the stories of these woman, paying special attention to how these components relate to career development and the momentum required to move forward in life in a meaningful way.

Risk and Curiosity

All of the women included stories of risk and curiosity within their individual narratives, to varying degrees. Anna discussed creating a bucket list when she was about to turn fifty, including a three-week trek to Nepal as the ultimate challenge on her list. Being curious about the world around her, and taking the risk to travel across the globe on her own, demonstrates that she had learned the values of these skills within the first five decades of life. Kelly also demonstrates significant risk taking and curiosity when she talks about taking the leap of faith to start her own on-line business:

> I decided to go on a mission for myself and not let those negative voices in my head control my actions anymore. Something inside of me said enough was enough and I just needed to push myself and grow and move outside of my comfort zone. It also happened at a time when my youngest went off to university and things changed when the kids weren't as dependent and I had more time. For so long I was on autopilot, focused on going to hockey games and making sure the crock pot was on in the morning, and feeling like I didn't have time for other stuff. Today I see that as an excuse. We choose how we spend our time and plan our day. What I do for my business now takes me two hours each day, so I have to plan my day and make time for it, and if I don't plan it is simply doesn't happen.

Joan also talks about making a significant career shift just as she was about to turn fifty, demonstrating her ability to be curious about new opportunities and a willingness to take a risk on a new position within the federal government:

> I had worked within the provincial government for eleven years, and it wasn't until the very end when it became a toxic environment that I had to make a move. I just kept my head down and continued to do my job with the provincial government while I started to look at my options, knowing my current job was no longer a fit. A change in leadership meant a drastically altered change to the expectations on staff. I was being asked to do more than one fulltime job at a time, and I knew that my mental health was more important than doing two fulltime jobs. When I got a call that they were looking for someone with my background to do this federal job, it didn't even feel like a decision I had to make. It was a no brainer, even if I wasn't able to get a leave of absence. It just felt right.

What was consistent throughout all narratives was an awareness that life was finite, and that curiosity and risk taking were a necessary part of moving forward and achieving any kind of goal, whether it was in their personal lives or work lives. While the amount of preliminary information required before taking any type of risk varied from one woman to the next, their unanimous ability to explore possibilities and take active steps forward was an essential ingredient in their search for a meaningful life.

Optimism

Optimism was another factor identified within HLT that was prevalent in all of the women's stories, though it should be noted that within several women's stories the decision to adopt an optimistic attitude was something that ebbed and flowed across the lifespan. Anna tells us that:

> I recall, when my children were quite young, that there was a period of time that I struggled with my mental health. It was a two-year period, and I don't think that within those two years that I laughed once. Oh, it was a dark night of the soul and I just had this heavy veil of depression on me and I felt like I was always last, that my needs never mattered. I really don't know how I got out of it, but I remember attending a workshop and having the facilitator talk about the dark night of the soul. In that moment I could feel my energy level rising because I had a name for it, and that it was a pretty typical experience. And after that, I really started

> to develop an appreciation for being alive.

Other women reflected upon a steady pattern of optimism across the entire course of their lives. Jen spoke about the hopefulness that she carried with her when forced to make significant changes within her personal life, ending her marriage after twenty-eight years. Lori referred to having an optimistic attitude when she talked about taking chances in life and trusting that things would work out. Lori tells us that:

> Not every choice in life leads to a positive or preferable outcome, but without optimism, people are immobilized with fear of the unknown and never take those important first steps unless all the steps have been worked out. Knowing what all those steps may be is not always possible, not in a changing and dynamic world like ours.

Anna went a step further and linked her rebounded sense of optimism to intentional actions. She would write a card to herself every December 31st, summarizing the year, while turning around the following day to write a second card that would capture her hopes and intentions for the upcoming year. This optimism, she said, would allow her to create a vision for herself along with the steps she would need to take over that next year-long period.

Flexibility

Flexibility can be regarded as our ability to adapt to changes in our plans, overcome obstacles, deal with setbacks, and adjust expectations. Flexibility doesn't mean that we don't hold tight to significant goals and dreams (the what); it simply means that we are willing to take a variety of approaches to arriving there (the how), accepting that so many external factors are outside of our control. Flexible people understand that there may be more than one way to achieve their goals, and they open themselves up to multiple possibilities.

Each woman's story reflected degrees of flexibility as they negotiated challenges along their life paths. Joan offered insight into her own evolution of flexibility as she described her more recent ability to balance the demands of learning a new role. She admitted that in the past she would have been very anxious about not being fully competent in any new position, and yet with age and experience she has been able to loosen this control and allow herself more flexibility as she learns the roles, asking questions as needed and not feeling as apologetic about taking the time she needs to gain new expertise.

Jen also demonstrated significant flexibility when she left her high paying government job that was compromising her values. Remaining attached to the same dream of working within a helping profession (the what), she found a new opportunity within a private adoption agency that allowed her to utilize her strengths and experience and yet work in a way that was in line with her value system (the how).

Persistence

The fifth and final component of HLT includes persistence, which was not a dominant theme within the stories of half of the women. However, just because it was not notably present within the told narratives does not mean that it was not present within their lives. It simply means that these women did not focus on this element of HLT when sharing their narratives during the interview process.

Persistence was a notable theme within Jen, Kelly, and Jannie's stories. Jen demonstrated how persistent she was in her earlier years, when her children were young, as she pushed through years of education while juggling home and work and financial challenges, often operating as s ingle parent for much of this time. Kelly talked about persistence when she shared her experience of signing up for her new business venture and then having to take breaks from it when she put it on hold. Her persistence was demonstrated when she returned to it each time, feeling that powerful tug that there was something present in this opportunity that may lead to greater freedom within her life. And finally, Jannie demonstrated persistence in her story of attending university for thirty-one out of the past thirty-five years, often one course at a time early on, as she raised seven children and worked fulltime:

> Making the decision that a PhD was going to be part of my story is the narrative I have told myself for decades, never wavering, often wedging academic life into the small confined spaces between changing diapers and tending bar, making turkey dinners and tying skates, volunteering in my community and listening to the stories of my own clients who sat across from me in my rose-gold chair. For me, persistence wasn't a choice - it was the only option.

It therefore became evident from the stories of these women that even without being directly questioned on whether these five elements were present in their lives, stories of:

1. risk,
2. curiosity,
3. optimism,
4. flexibility and
5. persistence (to a lesser degree) were included in all accounts.

These central components of HLT seemed to resonate with the women in this study, as *additional* themes emerged from the narratives that they shared. The following section will now explore these six *dominant* themes that arose from their stories.

Six Emerging Themes that Informed SLT

Risk

Not unlike the element of risk that is identified within HLT, *risk* was also one of the main themes that arose from all of the women's stories included in this research. Risk doesn't always refer to risky behaviours, or dangerous actions, or reckless abandon. Risk can also refer to moving outside of our comfort zone in any way that causes feelings of vulnerability. Vulnerability can be uncomfortable – even downright terrifying, but so powerful – as a catalyst for action and subsequent momentum once the source of that vulnerability has been brought to light. The metaphor of a simmering fire represents this sense of risk within Kelly's story. She tells us that:

> While you can have great plans swimming around in your head, all these plans to make changes, and all these goals, nothing is going to change until you take a *risk* and *act*. For me, I had great ideas in my head but I wasn't ready to act on them for a long time. Until you are ready, other things get in the way. Those things that happened before you were five or six years old will stick with you. When you open your mind and deal with things you should have delt with fifty years ago, that can be a big step, and it was for me. When you change those voices in your head, and start telling yourself new stories about yourself, amazing things can happen, especially when you surround yourself with the right people.

Boundaries

Boundaries was another main theme present in almost every woman's story, described as the importance of setting healthy boundaries within both personal relationships as well as within the workplace. Boundaries can be thought of as the pathways and fence lines within our lives, those limits we set, or fail to set, both consciously and unconsciously. Joan shares that:

> When I think of the path that I took in order to get to the place in my career that I am at today, I think one of the most important lessons that I learned along the way was about setting boundaries, both personally and professionally. When you're just starting out there is no way to push back against unfair expectations, and as we get older, we may have more options or at least less tolerance to accept unhealthy workplace treatment. You're just at this stage where you are just not putting up with things like you did in your twenties and thirties.

Kindred Spirits

All of the women in this research shared the common opinion that, as they moved through life, the bonds that they had forged with significant others were crucial, and often came in unexpected forms. This sense of community, referred to as *kindred spirits*, could extend to whole groups, or be focused solely on relationships with one or more significant people. While Lori and Jen spoke of the significance of childhood friendships they had maintained for decades, Kelly talked about the positive influence of an on-line group of women who had supported her professional growth, while Anna discussed the importance of the recovery group that she was part of, and the mentoring role that she provided to younger women. The metaphor of a kitchen table aptly captures this theme in the visual image of people coming together in a nourishing way. However, our sense of community remains very connected to the boundaries that we choose to set, and can also represent relationships that are not beneficial to our growth, as depicted in Jen's story:

> I am going to talk about toxic relationships both within my career life and home life, as well as recognizing the importance of setting boundaries within all of those multiple relationships. When your actions are no longer in line with your values, you know it's time to make a change. Knowing when to make those changes, and surrounding myself with positive people, has been really important to me.

Anna echoes this message, but from a different perspective:

> I have always valued my female friendships throughout my life, and even more so once I got through the business of raising young children and had more time to spend on relationships. I have often paid attention to other women's suggestions and advice, and I'm not saying that I follow everything one hundred percent, but I really value what other women have to share about their lives.

Seasons

Because all of the women selected for this research were aged fifty and above, what they had in common was that they would soon enter or had already entered what Bolen (1993, 1999, 2004) refers to the third trimester of a woman's life – the wise woman stage that emerges beyond the child-bearing years, whether or not a woman has biological children of her own. The significance of the changes that can offer occur at this transitional stage of life around menopause are often absent from conversations around career decision making and career and life planning and will be outlined in more detail under the implications for counselling practice section below.

Other transitional *seasons* or stages in life were also identified in all of the women's stories, and can be represented by an image of the moon, a metaphor that captures the cyclical and seasonal nature of life. To highlight this theme, Anna tells us that:

> I have always seen my life as a kind of pie, with different pieces or slices, rather than a straight line. And I think of the phases or seasons of life that I am going through more so than my specific age – first the busy stage when the children were young, and then the later years when I had to deal with an empty nest syndrome. Philosophically, I guess I look back at each decade and see that who I ended up being at the end of each decade is definitely not who I was when I started out.

Joan offers another perspective as someone who has never had children of her own:

> I didn't go through an empty nest syndrome, but if we are talking about seasons and cycles, I do see a shift in my life now that I am fifty. When I was younger, I was always trying to please others by trying to be a good employee, and I got a lot of validation out of being good at my job. The imposter syndrome would always creep in, and I think my lack of confidence had a lot to do with my childhood and never feeling good enough. I would take on more and more work and never feel I could say no. But with age comes experience and I began to actually trust in my reputation and abilities, and it helped build my confidence. I

wonder if you just come to this stage of life around fifty when you start to see yourself as more capable, and then your focus shifts and you start to look more within.

Flux

Flux was the fifth main theme common within these stories, and can be thought of as the movement of energy flowing between two sources, and the trust in the back-and-forth symbiotic merging of two into one. This description of flux is different from Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) understanding of flow as a state of focused concentration that occurs when people are at the peak of their abilities, often experienced by athletes or artists, where time seems to stand still and activities seem effortless. *Flux* can be represented by the metaphor of a pond flowing into a lake, and visa versa, and was articulated clearly within Jannie's story, as she considered the bodies of water near her childhood home:

> During the stormiest days, when the waves of the lake came up onto the beach the farthest, and the water flowing down from the mountain was at a high point from the rains, there was no boundary between pond and lake at all, with briny water flowing into the pond and fresh water flowing back into the lake, back and forth and back and forth, like a mixing bowl of salt and water and seaweed and small stones, changes occurring at a molecular level. And when you listened from the cottage well above the beach, you'd hear the rumbling low tones from the sand and pebbles and larger rocks being dragged from the beach back into the lake, and the rhythmic pulsating thrashing sounds of the water hitting the shore, only to be pulled back out and under by the force of the powerful undertow, two now as one, if only for moments in time.

This sense of flowing energy was present in each story, including Lori's, as she tells us that:

> I just have a trust in the unseen wisdom all around me, and feel this energy that moves from one person to the next, impacting us in positive and negative ways. The biggest message that I share with the people I work with, and my own kids, is that sometimes you just have to go with the flow and take a chance, and you sometimes just have to trust that you don't know how everything will work out and be flexible if it doesn't work out exactly the way you planned. You never know who you are going to meet or what person or chance may come your way because you have put yourself out there and tried something new. There is just some greater power beyond us that's larger than us and we can call it the universe or God or whatever you want, and there can be lots of knowledge that can come from being open to this if we let ourselves.

Synchronicity

The final theme included within five of the women's stories is *synchronicity*, and is very much related to the theme of flux. While absent from Jen's story, it was a very dominant theme within Kelly, Anna, Lori, and Jannie's stories, and also appears within Joan's story as a minor theme. Synchronicity includes the recognition that synchronistic, a-casual meaningful connections may offer a glimpse into a world that is far more interconnected and interdependent that it appears on the surface. The types and variations of synchronicities described within these women's stories include:

1. dream premonitions;
2. having knowledge without any logical way of explaining how that knowledge was required;
3. being at the right place at the right time;
4. meeting the right person to help solve a particular problem or move forward in life;
5. finding an answer in a book or song or other form of media just when it was needed;
6. sharing physical symptoms with a loved one even at great physical distances;
7. observing specific number patterns at a rate very difficult to explain by chance alone; and
8. observing two or more phenomenon occurring together

> where the connection cannot be explained by chance alone.

Lori tells us that:

> When I think of synchronicity, I first think of premonitions, and either knowing or dreaming that something will happen in the future, which often happens to me sometimes, and there is just no way to explain how I would have that knowledge. I just feel there is more floating around than meets the eye. Sometimes I feel a sort of presence, like a shift in the energy I feel around me, and there are things around me that I can't even see of acknowledge but know they are very real. I think we just need to be really aware of what's around us. You never know when there may be an important sign that can teach you something or lead you on the right path. I see the world as having some type of design, and there are all these opportunities to learn and be inspired and find your path if you are open to receiving these signs. And when it comes to synchronicity, there is just often so much out there that goes beyond any explanation of an accident. You just know there is some kind of meaning behind it.

What is important to note is that what makes any of these occurrences significant is the deeply felt knowledge or belief that the connections are *meaningful*, and not simply random or by chance. It is interesting to note that Jen was the only one not to include any mention of synchronicity as a theme within her story, and she was also the only participant whose worldview did not include a belief in an intuitive knowledge or awareness of the unseen world. Presented in more detail below, Jen believes intuition to be personal knowledge or instinct that can be attributed to life experience and good sense, rather than any type of awareness that comes from a spiritual source located within the invisible realm.

Worldview

The consideration of worldview is essentially important when making decisions about therapeutic interventions within counselling. Counsellors know that one size does not fill all when exploring ways to work with each individual client. Determining whether these women frame their stories within an epistemology based upon logical-analytical knowledge that can be measured and observed (the seen), or a belief system which also values other ways of knowing (the unseen), remains an important element within this research project. The following section takes a closer look at the responses of each woman when asked the question: How do you know and trust that something is true for you?

Four of the women included in this project (Anna, Kelly, Lori, and Jannie) articulated a very strong trust in a belief system based on other ways of knowing, or coming to know, that go beyond what can be seen and measured. To a lesser degree, Joan also shared this worldview. Dreams, premonitions, unexplained coincidences, number patters, and bodily sensations were included in multiple stories, while a trust in unseen sources of knowledge was common to all five, including Lori:

> When you ask about knowledge, I just feel as if there is a wisdom coming at me from all directions if that makes any sense. I can feel a presence sometimes, not on a regular basis but every now and then. I know some people don't even want to entertain the thought of something we can't see, but it has a lot to do with the way I think about life. If there is really a design to the universe, you just never know who is going to share something important with you. It could be the person you sit next to at the airport or someone who randomly crosses your path. Lots of knowledge can come from those interactions if you are open to it.

In contrast, Jen expressed a trust in sources of information that were concrete, measurable, and observable:

> When I am making decisions that impact other people, I think it's important that I obtain research from a reliable source and I don't just trust anything that I read anywhere. If I need

> to obtain knowledge around something like my own physical health, then I would go on-line and find information from a reputable source like the Mao Clinic. If I am reading a journal article then I would want to know that it's a reputable journal and that the study has been well researched. So that's one way I gain knowledge and can trust it is true.

Jen continued on to talk about intuition, but in a manner somewhat dissimilar from the other women in the group:

> When it comes to making personal decisions that impact me alone, I trust my gut. I actually trust my gut wholeheartedly, and when I go against it, I often look back in hindsight with regret. Trusting my gut means knowing that I am capable of making the best decision for myself, because I internally have that inherent knowledge and instinct to make the right decision. I say to my kids that it's your intuition, that inside voice in your head, in your subconscious, that is often trying to tell you things. Sometimes we never learn to listen to that voice.

What became clear within this research project, reflected in the stories of these women, is that while some people are very open to the idea of a source of knowledge that goes beyond the seen world, not everyone is comfortable with this worldview. Implications for this variation in worldview, as it relates to new career theory and counselling practice, will be discussed in the following section.

Discussion

Implications for New Career Theory and Counselling Practice

Importance of Worldview in Counselling

Kimmerer (2016) tells us that "I dream of a world guided by a lens of stories rooted in the revelations of science and framed within an Indigenous worldview – stories in which matter and spirit are *both* given voice" (p. 346). What is offered within SLT is an approach to counselling that takes a leap of faith and attaches itself to the mystery of the unseen realm, entering into our lives in those moments of meaningful connection, defying description or explanation and yet present, and felt, and experienced as real. Encouraging our clients to pay attention to those meaningful connections within their lives, those synchronistic experiences recognized as guideposts and signs for how to live their best lives is not to be confused with magical thinking were distorted thoughts draw connections where none exist (Coleman et al., 2009). SLT simply offers the suggestion that we remain open to the possibility that there is a spiritual dimension to the world that shows up or appears as the synchronicity experienced within our lives.

Counsellors are well aware that not every theory or approach resonates with every client. While HLT remains a useful option for clients whose worldview is focused on a trust in evidence from the observable world around then, SLT may be a useful approach for those clients who gravitate towards intuitive ways of coming to know, who are willing to contemplate the mysterious and unknown. By first exploring ideas around synchronicity and ways of knowing, counsellors can make informed decisions about which approach, HLT or SLT, may be best introduced to each client. It is therefore essential that counsellors use some method of determining whether or not clients may be open to other ways of knowing before engaging in the steps below. Some counsellors may be comfortable simply discussing worldview with their clients, while others may prefer a more assessment-based approach and the use of the Myers Briggs Type Inventory (MBTI) (Briggs, 1944) with a concentrated discussion around ways of taking in information – through sensing or intuition. Still others may wish to utilize Beitman's (2016) Weird Coincidence Scale as a means of determining the appropriateness of SLT, offering this new approach to those whose score highly on their reporting of synchronistic experiences within their lives.

Synchronicity Learning Theory

Similar to HLT in many ways, SLT encourages clients to take active steps within their lives in order to generate unplanned events that could lead to a variety of career and life opportunities. In contrast with HLT, SLT includes the belief that chance events can be meaningful, and that we should learn to pay attention to these meaningful coincidences, called synchronicities, as a way of communicating with a source of knowledge that is beyond the visible world. Counsellors may offer a simplified version of SLT to short term clients, or an expanded version to clients able to engage in a more in-depth counselling relationship.

Image 2

Synchronicity Learning Theory Components

Simplified Version

Clients are encouraged to engage in actions that can generate unplanned beneficial opportunities within their lives, while seeking to understand the meaningful connections that may appear along their path. What is paramount within this simplified version of SLT is the momentum that is generated by moving forward in life and taking active steps that may or may not first appear to be directly related to the achievement of long-term goals. For example, the client who has always dreamed of becoming a writer may be encouraged to take the initial step of attending a monthly writer's guild meeting – not knowing in advance whom they may come in contact with or what information may be acquired from the encounter. Exploring possible actions that may move the client closer to their goals is a key focus of the counselling relationship, as well as providing a non-judgemental space for the client to explore meaningful connections within these encounters. The counsellor's role is not to suggest or create meaning where none exists, as the key determinant of meaningfulness is the sense of felt meaning experienced by the client.

Expanded Version

The expanded version of SLT can be understood as both emerging new theory and a novel step-by-step model, useful in helping clients to move forward in life. Counsellors interested in adopting this model of counselling may consider Erikson's (1902-1994) person-centred approach, where Freire (1970) tells us that the client is the expert in her own life, and fully capable of discovering the answers within herself. As a means of gently assisting with this self-discovery, counsellors can engage in the conversations below, beginning with the identification of goals and moving forward to include components one through six, not necessarily in a linear order and sometimes requiring a back-and-forth movement as more than one component requires further examination and attention. In this sense, the counselling relationship does not focus on making one career decision and ending there, but includes a longer-term relationship as the client moves forward in life, evaluating and re-evaluating components one through six in the pursuit of their identified goals.

Step One: Risk – Taking Risks to Generate Unplanned, Beneficial Opportunities

Considering ideas around risk, limitations, and vulnerability, the first component of SLT is to:

d. name any goal, big or small;
e. identify the limitations and challenges that we see getting in our way of achieving that goal;
f. consider the possible next best step that moves us in the direction of that goal; and
g. take the calculated risk to move forward one step at a time, adjusting plans as required.

Conversations around risk, curiosity, flexibility, optimism, and persistence are useful at this stage, focussing specific attention on encouraging clients to engage in exploratory actions as a way of generating unplanned beneficial events that could lead to a variety of career and life opportunities.

Step Two: Boundaries – Setting Boundaries around Focus of Attention

The second component of SLT is to set clear boundaries around focus of attention. Focus of intention can be thought of as an intentional or unintentional concentration on any aspect of living. When we shift our thinking and begin to think of our focus of attention as a finite resource, we often start to identify ways that we are wasting this resource as well as aspects of our lives that would benefit from more focused or prolonged attention. Conversations around first identifying, and then setting clear boundaries around how we choose to use our vital focus of attention and life energy, is key.

Step Three: Kindred Spirits – Identifying our Kindred Spirits

The third component of SLT is to acknowledge the significance of the people within our lives, now absent or present. Surrounding ourselves with positive people is essential, but not always possible. Our relationships with the significant people within our lives often impact us long after they are gone, and sometimes there is a need to closely examine the messages that we have accepted as true. Early on we learn to see ourselves reflected in the stories that other people tell us. As we move forward in life, it is important to re-examine those internalized stories and decide for ourselves if it is time to change those narratives. Conversations around our relationships with the people who have aided or challenged our growth and development is central at this stage, whether current or in the past, with the goal of re-storying messages that are no longer helpful. An examination of the kindred spirits we currently choose to surround ourselves with is also essential, as well as the energy we bring to these relationships.

Step Four: Seasons – Acknowledging the Seasons of Life

The fourth component of SLT is to name and acknowledge the different seasons and cycles of life that we move through. This is not simply a matter of age, but liminal spaces that we naturally and sometimes even suddenly move through as we grow and evolve. Storying with our clients as they name and inquire into the seasons of their lives will empower individuals to locate their stories within the continuity of what has come before, and what is yet to come. Conversations around significant life transitions is a key component of the career development process, including the various outside factors that demand our attention and energy at various stages across the lifespan.

Step Five: Flux – Recognizing the Flux between our Inner and Outer Reality

The fifth component of SLT is to develop a trust in the back-and-forth flow of energy between ourselves and the outside world, including our internal thoughts and feelings and the outside external reality. The two elements of persistence and optimism that are also found within HLT may be considered again as part of flux. Clients who maintain a sustained and persistent effort over time have the best chances of achieving their goals. Flux within SLT also includes gratitude and compassion, as well as a trust in the process of living. Clients who do not initially recognize the link between their thoughts, feelings, and attitudes (the internal world) and their relationships and environment (the external world) may resist this component part of SLT. If so, one option is to determine whether the client believes in the intrinsic value of any one of these four components of persistence, optimism, gratitude, and compassion before engaging in conversations around how one or more of these intentional attitudes may impact our movement forward in life.

Step Six: Synchronicity – Noticing Meaningful Connections within Synchronicity

The sixth and final component of SLT is twofold, and fully encompasses the simplified version of SLT. First, a) clients are encouraged to take actions that may generate chance or random events that may lead to unexpected opportunities that may push them forward in life. And secondly, b) clients are encouraged to be open to meaningful connections within the synchronistic moments that occur within their lives – moments of intuition, unexplainable coincidences, repeated patterns – those moments that awaken them to the mysteries of the unseen world. Paying attention to these synchronistic events, with an openness to the idea that the world is a living organism with blurred boundaries between self and other, may offer an alternative way of being in the world that resonates with those deepest parts of ourselves that long to be part of something more. Conversations at this stage will focus on supporting our clients to contemplate and examine the synchronicity within their lives, using this information to help them find more than a job or career, but life purpose and meaning.

A Special Note on Seasons

Whether our clients are young adults possibly overwhelmed by a plethora of options, or caregivers juggling the demands of children and elderly parents, or middle-aged folks re-examining the very purpose of their finite lives, or those who fit no predictable pattern or life-stage at all, we need to remain conscious of and in-tune with cyclical life seasons and respond with an understanding of what these seasons mean within the career counselling process. Perimenopause and menopause are significant transitions for many, and in addition to the physical and psychological shifts, moving through this stage often includes a questioning of life purpose (Marnocha, Bergstrom, & Dempsey, 2011). Careers can be impacted as well, as some women question their ability to maintain fulltime employment while dealing with some of these changes and disruptions, navigating these liminal spaces often without support.

The more we learn about the transformative power that surrounds this stage of life, and the more we attempt to make space for conversations that have been long overlooked, the better our clients will be served as they move between the mother-phase and wise-women phases (Bolen, 2004) of their lives, whether or not they have had biological children of their own. Simply acknowledging the significance of this transition can go a long way, while providing an invitation for our clients to engage in these conversations if they are ready, able, and wanting to do so. Failing to acknowledge this part of a woman's life may demonstrate carelessness or lack of understanding on the part of the counsellor, as this is an issue that goes beyond primary health care and seeps into so many dimensions of career/life counselling.

Limitations and Possibilities

As a narrative inquiry, this study offers rich stories of life experience shared by five participants and the lead researcher, all women aged fifty and above. What it does not promise are results that can be generalized to all people, nor can it be assumed that all women over fifty would have similar experiences or perspectives on life. Instead, this method of inquiry allows for the possibility that some people will read these stories and see themselves within the narratives of others, finding deep meaning and purpose within their words.

Furthermore, the six themes arising from these women's stories – which form the basis of SLT - may or may not be dominant themes within the lives of every reader, or every client. Based upon this researcher's almost twenty years of lived experience and professional training as a counselling therapist, they are themes that frequently come up in counselling conversations, especially in regard to the search for life purpose that often occurs at midlife. What remains most important for counsellors to keep top of mind is the initial exploration around intuition and meaningful coincidences before deciding whether SLT may be a useful and appropriate model for an individual client. Those clients most open to intuitive ways of knowing, who express an awareness of the mysterious, unseen world, may be the best candidates to explore this new approach called SLT. Many other clients, however, would be better served with alternative approaches like HLT – where coincidences simply offer chance opportunities to move forward in life – with no underlying meaning attached.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research might explore the usefulness of the MBTI (Briggs, 1944), the Weird Coincidence Scale (Beitman, 2016), or the SAMD (Russo-Netzer & Icekson, 2020) in determining whether HLT or SLT might be the most appropriate fit for each individual client, based on their openness to intuitive ways of knowing and experiences of meaningful synchronicity within their lives. In addition to this, a further narrative inquiry into the lives of people, both men and women, who have participated in a Synchronicity Learning Theory approach to career counselling would be a beneficial way of gathering additional, rich information about the overall effectiveness of SLT as a new model of counselling.

Conclusion

The following reflection has been taken from the author's original dissertation entitled *Woven threads of synchronicity from the stories of wise women: A narrative inquiry*, (Payne, 2023) that formed the basis of this research article:

> I wonder if, as a modern, western society, and now as individuals, some of us have lost the ability to connect with someone or something greater than ourselves. As a culture, have we become hungry, ravenous really, for a spiritual connection and sense of meaning that fills us up, and makes us feel whole? Has this sense of individuality become so central to this worldview that some of us have temporarily lost that human instinct to focus attention on the other (Derrida, 2005), preoccupied with the cultural illusion that we are unique, independent individuals living wholly separate lives? (p. 198)

Is it possible that there are invisible forces within the world, or between worlds, connected to synchronicity, that enact or invite movement in mysterious ways? For some people, lived experiences have demonstrated that the world is more interconnected than they first believed it to be, and that a-causal connections will be better understood as the boundaries between physics and philosophy continue to merge and collide…

The language of synchronicity may offer a way to communicate with a universe that is web-like, interdependent, and inter-vibrational – and where synchronistic events can act as portals and openings through the thin veil that separates the seen and unseen dimensions of the world…as counsellors help their clients navigate these liminal spaces with the bravery to live their best, most meaningful lives (Oliver, 2012).

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Career Development Support, Career-Related Internet Information Search and Usefulness, and Career Decision-Making Difficulties in 12th Grade Students in Ontario

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Abtract

While the negative impact of work-related tasks on life satisfaction among adult workers has been largely documented, similar phenomena receive little attention in student populations. Research has underlined career decision-making as a stressful task for students. As such, it is reasonable to expect career decision-making difficulties to harm their satisfaction with life. Moreover, social support has been shown to increase life satisfaction. Therefore, this study investigated to what extent career decision-making difficulties impact students' satisfaction with life and the potential mediating role of career development support in this relation among 1094 grade 12 high school students in Ontario, Canada. Findings supported the negative impact of career decision-making difficulties on students' life satisfaction. Surprisingly, unlike counsellors' support, only teachers' and parental support were significant drivers of students' life satisfaction, with parental support exhibiting a strong effect. Furthermore, although support from each source partially mediated decision-making difficulties and life satisfaction, parental support was strongest in reducing the negative impact of difficulties on students' life satisfaction. Implications for research and practice are discussed.

Keywords: career support, career decision making, career information, canada.

Selecting a career can be one of the most significant and challenging decisions that can be made throughout one's life. This kind of decision can be overwhelming when considering the numerous avenues one could take concerning one's career. This is especially true for high school students, who sometimes are subject to a hectic physical, cognitive, and emotional development period (Jansen & Kiefer, 2020). In addition, Grade 12 high school students usually have to decide what post-secondary program or training they would like to pursue in the prospect of a future career (Gati & Levin, 2014). This kind of decision can potentially affect their future as adults. Indeed, this kind of decision has the potential to determine their psychological and economic well-being and their lifestyle in general (Gati & Levin, 2015; Hartung, 2011). Many high school students have shown difficulties in identifying a career or a program of study because of the complexity and uncertainties related to this decision-making process. For example, according to a study conducted on 920 Grade 12 students in Ontario, 49 percent of participants reported severe career decision-making difficulties or indecision (Samson & Bastien, 2018; Sovet et al., 2017).

Career indecision can be defined as all difficulties associated with decision-making related to college or university program choice and, ultimately, career choice (Gordon & Steele, 2015). However, career indecision is not constrained to the capacity to make a choice but also includes the various difficulties related to imagining oneself in a certain career path. In summary, career indecision could affect an individual's state of being and sense of self (Fauri & Giacometti, 2017).

Many factors can influence career development and generate degrees of career indecision. In this regard, Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) offers a comprehensive frame of reference by identifying the main processes by which students make a career decision (Kaminsky & Behrend, 2015; Lent et al., 2000; Lent & Brown, 2019). This model assumes that vocational development and career decision-making would be at the confluence of the interaction between personal factors (e.g., gender, interests, and sense of self-efficacy) and contextual factors (e.g., financial support, quality of exposure to educational experiences, and perceived social support). The interaction between these various factors would condition (by strengthening or reducing) high school students' ability to plan their professional career and avoid career indecision (Akosah-Twumasi et al., 2018; Garcia et al., 2015; Kulcsár et al., 2020).

More precisely, SCCT posits that social support is likely a factor in career decision-making and vocational development (Lent et al., 2000; Lent, 2008). Research by Lacoste, Esparbès-Pistre, and Tap (2005) suggests that the quality of social support is essential throughout this process. They asserted that a lack of support is likely to lead to difficulties in developing and pursuing a vocational goal, which can, in turn, become a significant source of stress. Moreover, they showed that women were more likely to be affected by a lack of social support, particularly regarding their self-esteem, while men felt more of an impact in terms of feeling overwhelmed by the process. A study conducted by Chan (2020) supported these findings, showing that social support positively correlates with feelings of career self-efficacy, directly impacting vocational development. Similarly, social support has been shown to promote the development of skills necessary for the transition from postsecondary education to informed choices about a potential career (Constantine et al., 2005; Lacoste et al., 2005; Lopez & Ann-Yi, 2006; Restubog et al., 2010; Shaw & Chin-Newman, 2017; Simões & Soares, 2010). Furthermore, individuals with social support are more likely to maintain a positive attitude toward their career development and thus would be better equipped to adapt to their chosen career (Öztemel & Yildiz-Akyol, 2021).

In summary, social support plays a vital role in the vocational development and career decision-making of high school students (Atitsogbe et al., 2019; Hirschi, 2009; Kracke, 2002; Rogers, Creed, & Glendon, 2008; Shaw & Chin-Newman, 2017; Simões & Soares, 2010). Adequate social support within career development can significantly influence their vocational development, feelings of career self-efficacy, general self-esteem, and adaptation to their future career (Chan, 2020; Öztemel & Yildiz-Akyol, 2021).

Vallerand (2006, p. 366) defines social support as "interpersonal exchanges of resources in which one person helps another to enable them to meet their needs or achieve important goals". Several forms of social support can be relevant to career decision-making: Instrumental support, which includes physical and material assistance; Informational support, which relates to the sharing of advice or feedback; and Emotional support, which manifests as empathy or affection (Vallerand, 2006). Literature suggests that social support, both real and perceived, positively influences self-esteem, stress management, and general health (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007).

Regarding the focus of this research, empirical evidence indicates that social support influences decisions related to career choice (Constantine et al., 2005; Lacoste et al., 2005; Lopez & Ann-Yi, 2006; Restubog et al., 2010; Simões & Soares, 2010). For our study, three sources of social support within student career development (Lauzier, Côté, & Samson) have been selected as they pertain to and are generally associated with a high school student's social environment: support from parents, teachers, and guidance counsellors.

Parental support significantly influences their children's educational and career development (Bryant et al., 2006; Dahling & Thompson, 2010). Social support from parents can take many forms. These include the attitudes, expectations, values, and information conveyed (Bryant et al., 2006; Christenson et al., 1992; Poll, 2003). This type of support decisively influences the choice of career goals and the development of vocational identity (Malecki & Demaray, 2003; Poll, 2003; Restubog et al., 2010). In summary, research indicates that parental support plays a significant role in the educational and career development of students and their eventual choice of career.

The support offered by teachers is also an important factor in high school students' career development process (Berardi-Demo, 2012; Bright et al., 2005; Wilkenfeld, & Earl, 2005). Since teachers spend most of their working time interacting with their students, their support is essential (Poll, 2003). Research by Bright et al. (2005) demonstrated how teachers' interventions can play a role in the vocational development of their students. These interventions can manifest in different ways, such as the subject taught, the quality of teaching, the teacher's enthusiasm, the time spent with the students, and/or the variety of vocational learning activities. Whether it be regarding their motivation in school, perception of school, or self-esteem, teachers play a crucial role in their students' overall adjustment and progress in school. This will eventually directly impact their self-esteem, career self-efficacy, and general career development (Ali & McWhirter, 2006; Metheny, McWhirter & O'Neil, 2008). Thus, it can be argued that the support shown by teachers, which is beyond instructional in nature (Furman & Buhrmester, 1985; Malecki & Demaray, 2003; Simões & Soares, 2010), helps guide students throughout their time spent in high school. For example, teachers can help students find sources of information about labor market conditions and potential career avenues (Lacoste et al., 2005; Poll, 2003). In short, relevant research clearly shows that the support offered by teachers has a decisive influence on their high school students' career development, consequently preventing career indecision.

A third source of social support can be seen in career and guidance counsellors within the school system. The purpose of a career and guidance counsellor is to support students throughout their process of career development. This process includes, among other things, exploration of self-knowledge, knowledge of the labor market, and consideration of different training and career possibilities (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2000; Osipow, 1999). The support offered by career and guidance counsellors has been associated with students' feelings of self-efficacy Restubog et al., 2010), their choice of career (Berardi-Demo, 2012), and their feeling of life satisfaction (Uthayakumar et al., 2010). In other words, the literature suggests that career and guidance counsellors play a significant role in students' overall career readiness.

Decision-Making and Seeking Information on the Internet

Online information seeking has been documented as a frequently implemented task to solve problems or make decisions in several domains, such as work, health, and education. The plethora of information accessible on the internet could generate conflicting information processing in individuals. On the other hand, users need to sort through information, as some information sources are not always neutral and seek to influence internet users (Roscoe et al., 2016). As Wiley et al. (2009) stated, the ability to discriminate between reliable and unreliable information is one characteristic of successful students. Therefore, finding relevant and useful sources of information could be crucial in the decision-making process (Tombros et al., 2005). This is particularly true for students seeking career-related information within a career decision-making process. However, little is known about the link between online information search and career decision-making difficulties. More especially, the effect of internet use (in terms of frequency) in seeking information and the perceived usefulness of the gathered information on unreliable information difficulties is still unanswered.

The Present Study

In summary, literature indicates that support from parents, teachers, and career guidance counsellors can positively influence student career development and prevent career indecision (Malecki & Demaray, 2003). As such, the objectives of this research will be to (1) test the associations between overall social support and the total career decision-making difficulties score among grade 12 students that want to pursue postsecondary studies; (2) explore the associations between the main scales and subscales of the Career Decision Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ) and various sources of social support; and (3) assess if the frequency of internet use for searching career-related information is associated with the main scale of Unreliable information. Concerning these specific objectives, we will address the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Overall social support score will negatively correlate with overall career decision-making difficulties score.
Hypothesis 2.1: Social support subscales will predict career decision-making difficulties main scales.
Hypothesis 2.2: Social support subscales will negatively predict the ten career decision-making difficulties subscales.
Hypothesis 3.1: The frequency students use the internet in searching for career-related information will be positively related to Unreliable information.
Hypothesis 3.2: Perceived usefulness of the searched information will be positively related to Unreliable information.

Methods

Participants

A total of 1094 grade 12 students enrolled in high schools in Ontario, Canada, participated in this study. In Ontario, grade 12 is the final year of secondary studies, meaning students must opt for a post-secondary (college or university) program. Participants completed the questionnaire two months before graduation when their acceptance to post-secondary programs had been received. The sample is made up of 636 (51.1%) females and 455 (41.6%) males, and three (0.3%) participants did not disclose information about sex. Participants were aged between 15 and 21 years (M = 17.42; SD = .60).

Instruments

Social Support Scale (Lauzier et al., 2015)

This scale assesses the quality (as perceived by the student) of combined and distinct support offered by parents, teachers, and guidance counsellors, yielding a global social support score and separate subscale scores. These subscales consist of fifteen items: five items to measure parental support (e.g., “My parents try to help me when I have questions about my professional future or my post-secondary education plans”); five items to measure teacher support (e.g., “Teachers take the time to explain why we need to think about our professional future or our post-secondary education plans”); as well as five items to measure counsellor support (e.g., “The guidance counsellor helps me get to know myself better so that I can make a career choice or post-secondary studies”). This metric uses a seven-point Likert-type response scale (1 = Strongly disagree to 7 = Strongly agree). A high score on these subscales indicates a high level of social support. The internal consistency indices (Cronbach’s alpha) observed for subscales of teachers, parents, and counsellors were .88, .85, and .95, respectively. Cronbach’s alpha for the total score was .90.

Career Decision-Making Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ)

Career indecision is “the state of being undecided regarding occupational interest or career path” (Foley et al., 2006, p. 109) and results from various difficulties encountered before and during the career decision-making process. CDDQ builds upon a taxonomy of career decision-making difficulties and is an important tool in career counselling practice (Gati et al., 1996). The CDDQ comprises 34 items and uses a nine-point Likert-type response scale (1 = Strongly disagree to 9 = Strongly agree).

The questionnaire measures three domains of career indecision: Lack of Readiness, Lack of Information, and Inconsistent Information. Participant difficulties are summarized in a 10-scale score profile corresponding to 10 difficulty categories, each representing the mean of their respective item scores. The internal consistency index (Cronbach's alpha) observed for this scale ranged from .69 to .94. The CDDQ has been broadly used to assess career decision-making difficulties among various populations (Gati, 2013), including Canadian adolescents and young adults (Julien,1999; Morgan & Ness, 2003; Sovet, DiMillo, Samson, 2015).

Frequency of Internet use in Searching Career-Related Information and the Usefulness of the Searched Information

Two distinct items were created to evaluate both aspects of the information search. A single item was used to assess the extent to which students use the internet to search for information about occupations or professions (i.e., "I've already conducted personal research (e.g., on the internet), outside normal school hours, to find out about post-secondary programs, occupations or professions that might interest me"). The item was rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very often). Furthermore, the usefulness of the searched information was assessed using the item "the searched information were…", rated on a 5-point scale ranging from *Not useful at all* (1) to *Very useful* (5). We designed those items for two main reasons. Firstly, to capture the variables of interest, (internet use in searching information on careers and the usefulness of the gathered information) as there seems to be no scale measuring these specific variables. Secondly, developing new scales would lengthen research times and certainly add constraints in terms of questionnaire length. Indeed, several researchers have developed new items or used a single-item measure to address such limitations (e.g., Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007; Nauta et al., 1998).

Procedures

Students' participation in this study was solicited through their school as part of a mandatory course. Those wishing to respond to the questionnaire completed a consent form indicating that their participation was voluntary, that they could withdraw at any time (without prejudice), and that their anonymity was assured. A letter was also sent to parents informing them of the nature of the study. No rewards were offered to participants. The administration of the measurement scales, incorporated into a questionnaire containing other variables, was carried out electronically. Participants had access to the online questionnaire using an access code provided by their teacher. The code, individualized for each participating school, only worked once and for three hours. The questionnaire was available online for a period of three months. The administration of the questionnaire took an average of twenty-five minutes.

Analyses

The normal distribution of data was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test (with p-values greater than .05 expected as reviewed by Shapiro & Wilk, 1965; Razali & Wah, 2011) and Skewness (S) and Kurtosis (K) coefficients. Perfectly normally distributed data should exhibit S and K values of 0, while those close to a normal distribution have absolute S and K values between 0 and 2 (Johari et al., 2018). Bivariate correlations were computed to assess the relatedness of one to another of overall social support and the career decision-making difficulties total score. Furthermore, hierarchical regressions were computed to assess the relation between social support components and CDDQ (main scales and subscales, respectively). Finally, simple regressions were used to evaluate the relations between the CDDQ unreliable information score and the frequency of internet use in seeking career-related information and the usefulness of the searched information, respectively.

Results

Descriptive statistics of study variables are summarized in Table 1. The Shapiro-Wilk tests were significant ($p \leq .001$) for all study variables, indicating that the data distribution does not follow a perfectly normal distribution. Nevertheless, the absolute values of S (ranging from .02 to 1.34) and K (ranging from .04 to 1.80) reported in Table 1 for all the variables under study suggest that the data distribution is close to normal (the departures from normality are not severe). Correlations between the overall social support score and its subscale scores ranged from strong (.65) to very strong (.83). In contrast, those between subscale scores ranged from weak (.28) to moderate (.49). Regarding CDDQ, the total score's correlation with all the scale and subscale scores were all above .57 except for dysfunctional beliefs (.32). In contrast, those between scales and subscale scores ranged from very weak, .07 (lack of information about occupations [Lo]-lack of information about the self [LS]) to very strong, .90 (lack of information [L]−lack of information about occupations [Lo]). Finally, the frequency of internet use in searching information correlated (relatively) strongly with the usefulness of the searched information (.61).

Association Between Overall Social Support and Overall Career Decision-Making Difficulties

As reported in Table 1, our results confirmed hypothesis 1 regarding the link between overall social support and total career decision-making difficulties score. Specifically, we found that social support was negatively correlated with career decision-making difficulties ($r = -.19$, $p < .001$) in grade 12 students but to a weaker extent. This finding suggests that higher levels of the social support composite score (teachers, parents, counsellors) are associated with lower overall career decision-making difficulties and vice versa.

Effects of Teachers, Parental, and Counsellors' Support on CDDQ Three Main Scales of Lack of Readiness, Lack of Information, and Inconsistent Information

To assess the effect of the three social support subscales (i.e., teachers, parents, and counsellors) on the CDDQ three main scales of Lack of Readiness, Lack of Information, and Inconsistent Information, hierarchical regressions were performed by entering gender and age in a first step, followed by the social support subscales in a second step, to control for demographics. Age was associated only with Lack of readiness (Step 2, $\beta = .06$, $p = .048$), while sex was related to none of the CDDQ main scales.

Furthermore, none of the social support components significantly affected the Lack of readiness. However, unlike teachers' support, only parental support and counsellors' support had significant effects on the CDDQ subscales of Lack of information ($\beta = -.11$, $p = .001$ vs. $\beta = -.15$, $p < .001$) and Inconsistent information ($\beta = -.24$, $p < .001$ vs. $\beta = -.08$, $p = .029$). In summary, higher parental and counsellors' support levels were negatively related to lower levels of lack of information and difficulties related to inconsistent information, partially confirming hypothesis 2.1.

Effects of Teachers, Parental, and Counsellors' Support on CDDQ Ten Subscales

When controlling for demographics as in previous analyses, hierarchical regressions showed a significant effect of gender on Lack of Motivation (Step 2, $\beta = -.15$, $p < .001$) in favor of women and General Indecisiveness (Step 2, $\beta = .24$, $p < .001$) in favor of men and a significant effect of age on Internal Conflicts Step 2, $\beta = .07$, $p = .020$) in favor of younger students.

Teachers' support was associated with none of the ten CDDQ subscales regarding social support. Moreover, higher levels of parental support were significantly associated with lower levels of Lack of Motivation ($\beta = -.09$, $p = .005$), The stages of the career decision-making

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Table 1

Bivariate Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviation of Study Variables

	SocS–Global	SocS–Teacher	SocS–Parents	SocS–Counsellors	CDDQ–Global	CDDQ–F.1	CDDQ–F.2	CDDQ–F.3	CDDQ–RM	CDDQ–RI	CDDQ–RD
SocS–Global	-										
SocS–Teacher	.78*	-									
SocS–Parents	.65*	.28*	-								
SocS–Counsellors	.83*	.49*	.30*	-							
CDDQ–Global	-.19*	-.10*	-.20*	-.15*	-						
CDDQ–F.1 (R)	-.06*	-.04	-.07*	-.03	.73*	-					
CDDQ–F.2 (L)	-.20*	-.12*	-.16*	-.18*	.93*	.54*	-				
CDDQ–F.3 (I)	-.21*	-.09*	-.26*	-.13*	.89*	.52*	.75*	-			
CDDQ–RM	-.14*	-.09*	-.13*	-.11*	.60*	.67*	.49*	.45*	-		
CDDQ–RI	.01	-.02	.03	.02	.57*	.76*	.44*	.39*	.27*	-	
CDDQ–RD	.00	.03	-.05	.01	.32*	.61*	.15*	.22*	.14*	.18*	-
CDDQ–LP	-.15*	-.08*	-.14*	-.13*	.80*	.50*	.87*	.61*	.42*	.41*	.17*
CDDQ–LS	-.16*	-.09*	-.14*	-.14*	.83*	.50*	.88*	.68*	.47*	.41*	.12*
CDDQ–LO	-.19*	-.12*	-.12*	-.18*	.83*	.45*	.90*	.66*	.44*	.39*	.07
CDDQ–LA	-.20*	-.11*	-.16*	-.19*	.81*	.45*	.86*	.68*	.39*	.35*	.17*
CDDQ–IU	-.15*	-.07*	-.15*	-.12*	.82*	.45*	.75*	.85*	.39*	.37*	.17*
CDDQ–II	-.19*	-.09*	-.19*	-.15*	.83*	.50*	.73*	.89*	.48*	.37*	.16*
CDDQ–IE	-.19*	-.08*	-.32*	-.08*	.65*	.40*	.47*	.83*	.32*	.27*	.23*
Web use frequency	.16*	.13*	.13*	.11*	-.13*	-.04	-.16*	-.11*	-.14*	.00	.06
Inform. usefullness	.23*	.20*	.14*	.18*	-.21*	-.09*	-.23*	-.18*	-.19*	-.02	.02
M	5.15	4.73	5.79	4.92	3.65	3.97	3.68	3.29	2.76	5.00	4.15
SD	1.04	1.35	1.17	1.59	1.42	1.26	1.83	1.72	1.74	2.09	1.69
S	-.59	-.51	-1.34	-.72	.39	.31	.40	.55	1.07	-.02	.28
K	.14	-.23	1.80	-.17	-.29	.31	-.53	-.40	.65	-.85	-.44
α	.90	.88	.85	.95	.94	.69	.94	.90	.70	.70	.66

Table 1. continued

Bivariate Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviation of Study Variables

	CDDQ–LP	CDDQ–LS	CDDQ–LO	CDDQ–LA	CDDQ–IU	CDDQ–II	CDDQ–IE	Web use frequency	Inform. usefulness
CDDQ–LP	—								
CDDQ–LS	.70*	—							
CDDQ–LO	.70*	.73*	—						
CDDQ–LA	.65*	.66*	.73*	—					
CDDQ–IU	.61*	.67*	.66*	.68*	—				
CDDQ–II	.58*	.68*	.67*	.64*	.73*	—			
CDDQ–IE	.39*	.42*	.41*	.44*	.48*	.61*	—		
Web use frequency	-.18*	-.14*	-.12*	-.12*	-.12*	-.11*	-.06*	—	
Inform. usefullness	-.21*	-.19*	-.21*	-.21*	-.19*	-.18*	-.08*	.61*	—
M	3.79	3.64	3.95	3.34	3.61	3.32	2.95	3.80	4.08
SD	2.05	2.05	2.20	2.04	2.06	1.75	2.24	1.04	.87
S	.45	.51	.38	.60	.48	.52	1.03	-.64	-.85
K	-.58	-.56	-.80	-.50	-.65	-.41	.04	-.15	.50
α	.86	.87	.86	.79	.83	.80	.88	—	—

*Note. SocS = Social Support; CDDQ = Career Decision-making Difficulties Questionnaire; F.1 = Factor 1: Readiness; F.2 = Factor 2: Lack of Information (about); F.3 = Factor 3: Difficulties related to inconsistent information; RM = Lack of motivation; RI = General indecisiveness; RD = Dysfunctional beliefs; LP = The stages of the career decision-making process; LS = Self; LO = Occupations; LA = Ways of obtaining additional information; IU = Unreliable information; II = Internal conflicts; IE = External conflicts; * Significant correlation (p < .05; 2-tailed).*

process (β = −.11, p = .001), Lack of Information about the self (β = −.17, p = .0021), Lack of Information about occupations (β = −.07, p < .05), La (β = −.11, p = .001), Unreliable Information (β = −.13, p < .001), II (β = −.15, p < .001) and External Conflicts (β = −.33, p < .001).

Furthermore, higher levels of counsellors' support were significantly associated with lower levels of the stages of the career decision-making process (β = −.09, p < .012), Lack of information about the self (β = −.11, p = .001), Lack of information about occupations (β = −.16, p < .001), La (β = −.16, p < .001), Unreliable information (β = −.09, p = .009), and Internal conflicts (β = −.12, p = .001).

Effects of Internet use Behaviors on Career Decision-Making Related to Unreliable Information

Simple linear regression analyses were computed to evaluate the effect of the frequency of the students' use of the internet in searching career-related information and the usefulness

Table 2

Hierarchical Regression Results With Social Support predicting CDDQ Main Scales, Controlling for Age and Sex

Step	Predictors	Lack of Readiness			Lack of Information			Inconsistent Information		
		B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SSE	β
1	Sex	.02	1.12	.01	-.04	.11	-.01	-.14	.11	-.04
	Age	.13	.08	.06*	.10	.09	.03	.15	.09	.05
	F	1.98			.69			2.37		
	R2	.01			.04			<.01		
2	Sex	.04	.08	.01	<.01	.11	<.01	-.07	.10	-.02
	Age	.13	.06	.06*	.13	.09	.04	.15	.08	.05
	Teachers' support	-.02	.03	-.02	-.01	.05	-.01	.02	.04	.02
	Parents' support	-.06	.04	-.06	-.17	.05	-.11***	-.36	.05	-.24***
	Counselors' support	-.01	.03	-.01	-.17	.04	-.15***	-.08	.04	-.08*
	F	1.75			10.48			17.75		
	R2	.09			.05			.08		
	ΔR2	.01			.05			.07		

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

of the searched information on difficulties related to unreliable information. Results showed that higher levels of internet use were associated with lower difficulties related to unreliable information ($\beta = -.13$, $p < .001$), and does not support hypothesis 3.1. Similarly, the perceived usefulness of the searched information was negatively associated with the unreliable information outcome ($\beta = -.19$, $p < .001$), meaning that the higher the searched information is useful for the students, the lower the unreliable information difficulties they could face. Hypothesis 3.2 is not supported.

The subscales of social support were negatively correlated with most of the three factors of the CDDQ and with the ten scales of the CDDQ, partially confirming hypotheses 2.1 and 2.2. The Readiness CDDQ factor was not related to perceived support from teachers and counsellors. General indecisiveness and Dysfunctional beliefs CDDQ scales did not significantly relate to any of the social support variables. Finally, social support predicted career decision-making difficulties in grade 12 students.

Discussion

The current study aimed to investigate the relations between social support and career decision-making difficulties on the one hand and the effect of career-related information search behaviors (i.e., frequency of internet use and usefulness of the searched information) on difficulties related to unreliable information on the other hand.

In hypothesis 1, we stated that higher levels of social support would be negatively correlated with overall career decision-

Table 3

Hierarchical Regression Results With Social Support predicting CDDQ Subscales, Controlling for Age and Sex

		RM			RI			RD			LP			LS		
Step	Predictors	B	*SE*	β	B	SE	β	B	*SE*	β	B	*SE*	β	B	*SE*	β
1	Sex	-.57	.11	.16***	1.00	.12	.24***	-.36	.10	-.10	-.06	.13	-.02	-.10	.13	-.02
	Age	.12	.09	.04	.11	.10	.03	.14	.09	1.68	.11	.10	.03	.04	.10	.01
	F	15.97			32.56			7.59			.73			.38		
	R2	.03			.06			.01			<.01			<.01		
2	Sex	-.54	.11	.15***	.10	.13	.24***	-.35	.10	-.10	-.02	.13	-.01	-.06	.13	-.01
	Age	.13	.09	.05	.11	.10	.03	.14	.09	.05	.13	.10	.04	.06	.10	.02
	Teachers' support	-.05	.05	-.04	-.07	.05	-.05	.06	.04	.04	-.02	.05	-.01	-.01	.05	-.01
	Parents' support	-.13	.05	-.09**	.04	.06	.02	-.08	.05	-.06	.19***	.06	-.11***	-.17**	.06	-.10
	Counselors' support	-.06	.04	-.06	.04	.05	.03	<.01	.04	<.01	-.11*	.05	-.09*	-.15**	.05	-.11
	F	11.02			13.45			3.89			6.31			6.85		
	R2	.05			.06			.02			.03			.03		
	ΔR2	.02			<.01			<.01			.03			.03		

		LO			LA			IU			II			IE		
	Predictors	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
1	Sex	.07	.14	.02	-.07	.13	-.02	-.05	.13	-.01	-.10	.11	-.03	-.26	.14	-.06
	Age	.12	.11	.03	.14	.10	.04	.10	.10	.03	.19	.09	.06*	.16	.11	.04
	F	.68			1.13			.50			2.68			3.04		
	R2	<.01			<.01			<.01			.01			.01		
2	Sex	.11	.13	.03	-.02	.12	-.01	.00	.13	.00	-.05	.11	-.02	-.17	.13	-.04
	Age	.16	.11	.04	.18	.10	.05	.11	.10	.03	.20	.09	.07*	.15	.11	.04
	Teachers' support	-.02	.06	-.02	<.01	.05	<.01	.02	.05	.01	.01	.05	.01	.04	.06	.02
	Parents' support	-.12	.06	-.07*	-.19	.06	-.11***	-.22	.06	.13***	-.23	.05	-.15***	-.62	.06	-.33***
	Counselors' support	-.22	.05	.16***	-.21	.04	.16***	-.12	.05	.09**	-.13	.04	-.12***	<.01	.05	<.01
	F	9.01			11.19			6.82			11.35			25.91		
	R2	.04			.05			.03			.05			.11		
	ΔR2	.04			.05			.03			.05			.10		

Note. RM = Lack of motivation; RI = General indecisiveness; RD = Dysfunctional beliefs; LP = The stages of the career decision-making process; LS = Self; LO = Occupations; LA = Ways of obtaining additional information; IU = Unreliable information; II = Internal conflicts; IE = External conflicts.
Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

making difficulties, which was supported. This finding aligns with the Social cognitive career theory (see Lent et al., 2001), which suggests that social support facilitates a person's career choices, goals, and actions. Social support can provide a source of stress reduction, guidance, and encouragement throughout the career decision-making process, as highlighted by several researchers (Phillips et al., 2001; Schultheiss et al., 2001).

Selecting a career can be one of the most significant and challenging decisions a student can make. As Gati and Levin (2014) aptly pointed out, people often feel overwhelmed when considering the numerous avenues they could take concerning their careers. This is especially true for high school students, who are often going through a tumultuous period of physical, cognitive, and emotional development and facing choices about what programs or major to pursue. The ramifications of career indecision can be far-reaching, including physical consequences related to financial strain, time dedicated to changing college programs and/or schools, and psychological consequences relating to a negative self-image, low self-efficacy, and loss of career aspirations (Feldman, 2003; Boo & Kim 2020).

A major finding of this research was the predictive value of social support on career decision-making difficulties in general and on the three separate factors that comprise the CDDQ questionnaire. Specifically, we found that as social support increased, career decision-making difficulties decreased within our sample of students. Within the realm of vocational literature, social support has been gaining traction in career decision-making.

This research aimed to gain insight into the role social support from parents, teachers, and guidance counsellors had on career decision-making difficulties within a sample of Grade 12 students. Our results suggest that, with some notable exceptions, social support can predict career decision-making difficulties for students reaching the end of their Secondary studies.

Regarding hypothesis 2.1. (i.e., social support subscales will predict career decision-making difficulties main scales), an interesting result generated from this research is the lack of significant effect between social support and career readiness when that social support comes from teachers or guidance counsellors. Our results indicate that students' parents are the most influential in reducing career decision difficulties. These findings parallel those of prior research in the context of vocational decisions. For example, Garcia et al. (2012) found that both student and parental ratings of parental support moderated the relationship between learning goal orientation and career decision-making self-efficacy. It has also been shown that parents are highly likely to motivate their children and provide them with tools to grow and enhance their self-esteem throughout their development. This support and other physical supports (food/housing/financial assistance) can foster greater career-oriented goals and aid in completing educational tasks (Schultheiss et al., 2001). Oftentimes, the higher the level of formal education that a parent has received, the greater the chance their children will be ready for their academic and vocational futures. Building on this, how a parent chooses to *raise their children* can greatly impact their children's ability to make a career decision. Positive parenting styles have been repeatedly shown to improve their children's career development. Children of parents who display consistent acts of love, affection, and interest display greater senses of responsibility and career decision-making efficacy during their college years (Liu, 2008; Hou et al., 2013). Conversely, negative parenting styles (such as adopting more authoritarian approaches) have been shown to increase career decision-making difficulties (Cenkseven-Onder et al., 2010; Koumoundourou et al., 2011). Unsurprisingly, unsupportive parental environments where parents have been found to be either indulgent or neglectful are linked with higher career decision-making difficulties (Sovet & Metz, 2014).

By contrast, no correlation existed between social support and career readiness for the teacher and guidance counsellor groups. Normally such a result would be confusing given the central supporting role teachers and guidance counsellors hold in a student's life. However, given the context of guidance counselling and teaching professions within Ontario and emerging literature into their vocational role, such a finding starts to make sense. For example, while most states and provinces in North America require that guidance counsellors hold a master's degree in areas related to counselling psychology and/or school counselling, guidance counsellors in Ontario are only required to be certified teachers with a recommendation that they complete three additional qualifications (AQ) courses. These AQ courses would be the equivalent of three undergraduate courses and do not meet the recognized standards set by the International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance (IAEVG, 2004; Samson et al., 2018). As a result, *teachers-turned-guidance counsellors* may sometimes be limited in their training (Keats & Laitsch, 2010). Recent literature suggests that Ontario guidance counsellors perceive themselves as lacking sufficient knowledge required in school and guidance counselling, specifically when using career models to facilitate decision-making (Samson et al., 2018). Finally, literature by Lauzier et al. (2015) found that when comparing parents, teachers, and guidance counsellors, parents had the most positive influence on the decision to pursue post-secondary education, supporting our findings.

Regarding hypothesis 2.2. (i.e., social support subscales will negatively predict the ten career decision-making difficulties subscales), a finding of note came from a lack of significant effect between social support and general indecisiveness and dysfunctional beliefs. This finding can be explained, in part, by the increasing level of internet use that students engage in when individually researching potential post-secondary programs or career paths. Indeed, our study results highlight internet use as a primary source of information related to career decision-making. Given that Grade 12 students are generally independent in using the internet (without support from parents, teachers, or guidance counsellors), it could result in a statistical lack of social support in relation to general indecisiveness and dysfunctional beliefs.

More precisely, our results showed that parental and counsellors' support significantly reduced difficulties related to the stages of the career decision-making process, unreliable information, internal conflicts (with relatively high weight in favor of parents), lack of information about the self, lack of information about occupations, and ways of obtaining additional information (with relatively high weight in favor of counsellors). Finally, only parental support specifically reduced difficulties related to the lack of motivation and external conflicts. One explanation for these findings could be that parents are concerned about their childrens' career development as they get involved in supporting them to *solve difficulties* prior to their engagement in the decision-making process (i.e., lack of motivation) and during the decision-making process, as counsellors also do. Another explanation could be that the support of counsellors seems to shift toward providing information rather than individualized counselling. Indeed, guidance counsellors in Ontario are certified teachers who are required to complete additional 96 credit courses to serve as counsellors, contrasting with the standards in North America, where most jurisdictions require at least a master's degree (Nadon et al., 2016).

Our results indicate that counsellors seem to be active in providing students with career-related information. However, they have been reported to lack knowledge in several counselling domains, including the use of theoretical models in helping students make better career decisions. It has been documented that most of their daily tasks are unrelated to career counselling, implying that counsellors should be trained to implement career counselling interventions (Samson & Bastien, 2018; Samson et al., 2018), for example, based on CDDQ features.

Conclusions

Some literature suggests that internet use can positively impact student career management skills. However, it must be noted that internet use is one element within a mixed system of career provision and not a replacement for face-to-face support (Howieson & Semple, 2013). However, other studies indicate that with increasing internet use, adolescent adaptability in the career decision-making process weakens, and the decision-making process proceeds at a slower rate than it does for adolescents who use the internet for less time (Sinkkonen et al., 2018). This is a contradiction of the results of our study, especially regarding hypothesis 3.1. (i.e., the frequency the students use the internet in searching career-related information will be positively related to Unreliable information) and 3.2 (i.e., the perceived usefulness of the searched information will be positively related to Unreliable information). According to our findings, higher levels of internet use (H3.1.) and perceived usefulness of the internet-searched information (H3.2.) were associated with lower difficulties related to unreliable information. One explanation for these findings could be that, as grade 12 students are faced with decision-making, they usually rely on relevant websites to seek career-related information, allowing them to gather relevant specific information about the choice they must make. More research into the utility and use of the internet with career decision-making (and social support) needs to be conducted for concrete conclusions to be made.

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Happy But Exhausted: The Role of Passion in Explaining the Mitigated Psychological State of Health and Social Services Nonprofit Workers

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Abstract

The goal of this study was to enhance our understanding of the psychological state of health and social services nonprofit workers using the Dualistic Model of Passion and the Job Demands-Resources Model. In line with these theoretical frameworks, we proposed that harmonious and obsessive passion were respectively positively associated with well-being at work and burnout. We also hypothesized that harmonious passion mediated the relationship between job resources and well-being at work, while obsessive passion mediated the one between job demands and burnout. To test these hypotheses, 774 workers completed an online survey. Results of path analysis showed that harmonious passion was positively related to well-being at work and negatively related to burnout, while obsessive passion was not related to burnout. Moreover, results showed that harmonious passion mediated the relationship between job demands and burnout, and the relationship between job resources and well-being at work. However, obsessive passion was not a significant mediator of the job demands-burnout relationship. In addition, exploratory analyses indicated that neither type of passion was a significant moderators of the resources-well-being and demands-burnout relationships. Implications for research and practice regarding the psychological health and passion for work of nonprofit workers are discussed.

Keywords: psychological health, well-being at work, burnout, nonprofit workers, job demands-resources model, passion for work.

Nonprofit organizations in the health and social services sector play a crucial role in society. These organizations act as a social safety net, since they help people from various socio-economic backgrounds to access essential services (e.g., housing, mental health services, food) that are sometimes difficult to obtain from the public or private sectors (Chevalier, 2011; Didier et al., 2005). In the last ten years, these organizations have seen their clients present more and increasingly complex needs (Chevalier et al., 2013; Mimeault et al., 2011; Nicolas, 2013). Indeed, budget cuts in the public health care system have resulted in a greater number of individuals facing more serious problems and turning to nonprofit organizations for services (Jetté, 2008; Nelson et al., 2008). Despite being highly motivated and committed, health and social services nonprofit workers (HSSNW) often experience exhaustion and psychological distress, as highlighted by various studies (Benz, 2005; Laliberté & Tremblay, 2007; Chen, 2012; Melnik et al., 2013; Meunier et al., 2020; Meunier et al., 2021).

Given their importance for ensuring the basic needs of all members of society, it is necessary to identify the various factors that can influence the psychological health of HSSNW and thus ensure the sustainability of the services they provide. Studies in other employment sectors suggest that passion for work may be a key variable to investigate the mitigating factors (i.e., being happy/engaged but also distressed/exhausted) of HSSNW psychological health (Fernet et al., 2014; Forest et al., 2012; Philippe et al., 2009a; Yukhymenko-Lescroart et al., 2022). However, despite the specific characteristics and problems of nonprofit organizations (Chen, 2012; Hsieh, 2016), very little research has been conducted among the workers in this sector, and, to our knowledge, no studies have considered passion for work as a defining variable in their working life. Thus, using the lens of the job demands-resources (JD-R) model (Bakker et Demerouti, 2007; 2017), the objective of the present study is to examine the mediating and moderating role of passion for work in the association between job resources/demands and the psychological health of HSSNW.

The Mental Health Of Nonprofit Workers

In 2018, in Canada, 5.3 million people reported needing support for their mental health issues (Statistics Canada, 2019). However, due to limited availability, particularly of specialized providers such as therapists, demand for these services often exceeds supply (Lui & McIntyre, 2022). Furthermore, researchers have highlighted that the Covid-19 pandemic has exacerbated inequitable access to primary mental health care, particularly for the most vulnerable populations (Lui & McIntyre, 2022). This situation highlight the fact that the population's needs in terms of mental health support are great, but the resources available are sometimes limited, leading many individuals in need to turn to nonprofit organizations. Indeed, nonprofit organizations are usually recognized as carrying out social action aimed at transforming and improving the living conditions of local populations, such as improving mental health (Couturier & Fortin, 2021). For over 20 years, the nonprofit sector has experienced a dramatic rise in the need for assistance, and this trend has intensified since the Covid-19 pandemic (Chevalier et al., 2013; Couturier & Fortin, 2021; Mimeault et al., 2011; Nicolas, 2013). Workers employed by nonprofit organizations are recognized as experiencing high levels of well-being and commitment (Benz, 2005; Chen, 2012; Melnik et al., 2013; Meunier et al., 2020). They usually have a considerable degree of autonomy in how they perform their tasks and participate in decision-making processes within the organization (Chen, 2012; Meunier et al., 2020; Meunier et al., 2021). They can also rely on support from colleagues and supervisors and other positive aspects of their work (e.g., strengths, work meaning) to overcome their daily challenges (Meunier et al., 2020; Meunier et al., 2021). However, many structural issues hinder their work. In particular, the lack of funding limits the services offered by nonprofit organization and creates precarious working conditions such as low wages and job insecurity (Couturier & Fortin, 2021).

This context of constraints makes it difficult for workers to feel the full positive effects of the many personal, interpersonal and organizational resources they possess. For example, Giroux et al., 2022 determined that the great flexibility and autonomy experienced by workers can be limited by the high quantitative and emotional workload. In an effort to cope with high demands, workers often find themselves constantly striving to do more and encounter difficulties in recognizing and setting personal boundaries. When they do, they tend to feel guilty about not doing enough to help their colleagues, clients or organizations (Giroux et al., 2022). This combination of positive and negative work characteristics creates a mixed picture of variables associated with the psychological health of HSSNW. In this vein, recent studies conducted by Giroux et al., 2022 showed that nonprofit workers experienced high levels of both well-being at work and burnout. The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, 2017) may be helpful to gain a better understanding of the relationships between job characteristics and their association with the psychological health of nonprofit workers.

The Job Demands-Resources Model

The JD-R model proposes that all job characteristics fall into one of two broad categories: job demands or job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands refer to "those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs" (e.g., work overload) (Demerouti et al., 2001, p.501). On the other hand, job resources "refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are either/or: functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, stimulate personal growth, learning, and development." (e.g., social support) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p.312). According to the JD-R model, job demands are linked to more burnout (health impairment process), while resources are linked to more engagement and greater well-being (motivational process). However, little is known about the psychological mechanisms that could explain these associations (Fernet et al., 2012; Fernet et al., 2013; Van den Broeck et al., 2008). Studies have identified optimism and self-esteem as mechanisms explaining the resources-work engagement relationship (Huang et al., 2016; Simbula et al., 2011; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2008). Others have identified coping strategies and psychological need satisfaction as mechanisms explaining the demands-burnout relationship (Angelo & Chambel, 2014; Boudrias et al., 2011; Peng et al., 2010). On the other hand, few studies have focused on the potential mechanisms at work in both processes simultaneously, and have identified work-family conflict, workaholism, passion for work, recovery experiences, and positive and negative affect as key mechanisms (Baeriswyl et al., 2016; Balducci et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2022; Kinnunen et al., 2011; Molino et al., 2016; Trépanier et al., 2014). Since the restrictive work environment of HSSNW makes it difficult for them to have an impact on the available organizational resources, it is necessary to identify individual mechanisms that can have an impact on the relationship between job demands and resources and psychological health.

Passion For Work As A Personal Resource Or Demand

Passion for work could be seen as an individual mechanism that HSSNW could draw upon in order to have an impact on their psychological health at work. Passion is defined as a strong inclination toward an activity that one loves and values and in which one invests a great amount of time and energy (Rip et al., 2012; Vallerand, 2015). The dualistic model of passion (DMP) proposes that there are two types of passion (Vallerand, 2015). Harmonious passion (HP) is the result of an autonomous internalization of a passionate activity in a person's identity (Deci & Ryan, 2000). It occurs when their environment supports their autonomy and choices while engaging in the activity (Deci et Ryan, 1985; Sheldon, 2002; Vallerand, 1997). Thus, their involvement in the activity is flexible and volitional, meaning that they can easily control it and feel no pressure to engage in it. The activity is in harmony with other life spheres and will lead to more adaptive outcomes (Vallerand, 2015).

On the other hand, obsessive passion (OP) stems from a controlled internalization of the passionate activity within the person's identity (Vallerand, 2015). It is characterized by a controlling social environment that influences the person to make certain decisions without considering their own interests (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Sheldon, 2002; Vallerand, 1997). This developmental process elicits a strong desire to engage in the activity explained by the potential benefits of engaging in the activity (i.e., social acceptance, self-worth). Hence, the person is, in a certain way, dependent on the activity, and external pressures lead them to be involved in it. Thus, the activity takes on an undue importance in the person's life, which results in conflicts with other life spheres (e.g., social life, family life) and leads to more maladaptive outcomes (Vallerand, 2015).

The extensive scientific literature on passion provides evidence that supports the DMP model and the distinctive consequences of the two types of passion. Indeed, harmonious passion positively predicts well-being, operationalized as life satisfaction, life meaning, subjective well-being, positive emotions, and vitality (Carpentier et al., 2012; Lafrenière, et al., 2009; Mageau et al., 2005; Philippe et al., 2009a; Rousseau & Vallerand, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2003; Vallerand et al., 2006; Vallerand et al., 2007, see Curran et al., 2015 for a recent meta-analysis). Furthermore, HP for work has been found to contribute to work performance, concentration, and flow (Forest et al., 2011; Forest et al., 2012; Ho et al., 2011; see Pollack et al., 2020 for a recent meta-analysis).

Obsessive passion positively predicts distress-related variables such as negative emotions, rumination, and depression (Carpentier et al., 2012; Houlfort et al., 2014; Philippe et al., 2010, see Curran et al., 2015 for a recent meta-analysis). OP is also negatively related to life satisfaction and does not contribute to subjective well-being, vitality or life meaning (Mageau et al., 2005; Philippe et al., 2009a; Philippe et al., 2009b; Ratelle et al., 2004; Rousseau & Vallerand, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2003; Vallerand et al., 2006; Vallerand et al., 2007). OP is also associated with burnout, emotional exhaustion, psychological distress (Fernet et al., 2014; see Pollack et al., 2020 for a review). Altogether, these studies support the fact that HP for work is associated with positive outcomes, while OP for work is linked with negative ones.

Passion for work could explain both the well-being and the distress of HSSNW, depending on how it is internalized. In accordance with other studies (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2017; Toth et al., 2021), HP could be conceptualized as a personal resource. Indeed, in recent years, the concept of personal resources has been introduced into the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), referring to "the beliefs people hold regarding how much control they have over their environment" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017, p.275). Some authors also argue that the concept of personal demands should be considered in the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Much like organizational demands, these demands are defined as expectations that individuals set for themselves regarding their performance and behaviors at work that require them to invest great effort in their work and are associated with physical and psychological costs (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Barbier et al., 2013). Thus, OP could be considered among other personal demands mentioned by some authors, such as personality traits including perfectionism and emotional instability (Lorente Prieto et al., 2008). According to the JD-R model, personal resources and demands could act as job resources and job demands and be respectively positively associated with well-being and burnout. However, these association have never been tested among nonprofit workers.

In accordance with the scientific literature, the following two hypotheses are stated:

H1: HP will be positively associated with well-being at work

H2: OP will be positively associated with burnout

Although the mechanisms explaining the links between job demands and resources and psychological health are still only partially understood (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), it is possible to assume that passion for work could also act as a mediator in the association between job demands and resources and psychological health at work. Indeed, job resources could foster personal growth through the satisfaction of psychological needs (Fernet et al., 2013; Van den Broeck et al., 2008) and the attainment of work goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). We can hypothesize that it facilitates an autonomous internalization of passion for work, which in turn leads to adaptive outcomes (see Curran et al., 2015; Pollack et al., 2020 for recent meta-analysis). For example, job resources such as having a flexible schedule allows employees to find a better balance between their job and personal life. This, in turn, helps them to become more harmonious about their passion for work, which could lead to enhanced well-being.

On the other hand, jobs demands may put pressure on employees and make them feel obligated to overinvest themselves in their work to fulfill all of these demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). We can hypothesize that this could engender a more controlled internalization of passion for work (Ryan & Deci, 2002), which in turn could lead to maladaptive outcomes. For example, nonprofit workers face numerous situations that can affect them emotionally since they work with vulnerable populations. Research indicates that these circumstances may lead to rumination and difficulty in disengaging from work, ultimately, hindering recovery

(Giroux et al., 2022; Meunier et al., 2020; Meunier et al., 2021). Consequently, it can be hypothesized that this emotional strain may intensify their OP for work, potentially heightening the risk of burnout.

One study has tested these assumptions and used passion for work as a mediator in the JD-R model. Indeed, Trépanier et al., (2014) found that job resources predicted HP, which in turn predicted work engagement. They also found that job demands predicted OP, which in turn predicted burnout. However, the study used an adapted version of the DiSC 2.0 questionnaire (van de Ven et al., 2008), which addresses the cognitive, emotional, and physical aspects of job demands and resources using generic questions. Although this is the only study that has investigated passion for work as a mechanism in the JD-R model, there is also theoretical and empirical evidence that job resources are associated with HP (Hardgrove, 2019; Houlfort et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2011; Trépanier et al., 2014; Zigarmi et al., 2009) and that job demands are associated with OP (Houlfort et al., 2013; Trépanier et al., 2014). Several studies have linked HP to adaptive outcomes, while OP is mostly associated with maladaptive outcomes (see Curran et al., 2015; Pollack et al., 2020 for recent meta-analysis).

In the light of these findings, and based on those of Trépanier et al., (2014) we hypothesize that:

H3: HP will mediate the relationship between job resources and psychological well-being at work.

H4: OP will mediate the relationship between job demands and burnout.

Finally, the JD-R model suggests that there are interactions between demands and resources. Resources could counteract the negative effect of demands on workers' psychological health, and demands could amplify the link between resources and well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). However, very few studies have specifically investigated the moderating role of personal demands and resources. Thus, in an exploratory approach, we tested the moderating role of the two types of passion in the JD-R model.

The Present Study

The aim of this study is to better understand the psychological health of HSSNW using the concept of passion. This is one of the first studies to explore this concept in a population of nonprofit workers and to examine the mediating and moderating effect of passion in the relationship between job demands and resources and psychological health. In doing so, this study examines dynamics similar to those reported by Trépanier et al., (2014), yet in a different context, while also testing and refining the postulates of the JD-R model (Trépanier et al., 2014). Indeed, this study, like the one conducted by Xanthapoulou et al., (2007), will attempt to verify both the moderating and mediating effects of personal resources and demands.

Methods

Participants and Procedures

An advertisement was posted in the newsletters of local organizations and on social media (i.e., Facebook) to invite HSSNW to participate in an online survey. To be eligible to participate, respondents had to be 18 years of age or older and work for a nonprofit organization in the health and social services sector. The survey was available in French and English. An ethics certificate was issued by the university's ethics committee. Recruitment took place between November 2019 and January 2020. Participants were 774 Canadian nonprofit workers (84.2% female, 14% male, 0.8% non-binary). Participants had to obtain a score of 4/7 on the passion criterion subscale to be considered passionate and to be included in the study (Vallerand et al., 2003). Thus, a total of 91% of participants were identified as being passionate for their work. They were between 19 and 70 years old (M= 38.14, SD= 11.34). A third of the sample (32.8%) were managers, while 67.2% were employees. Participants reported working on average 33.15 hours per week (SD = 6.47). They also reported an average length of service in the nonprofit sector of 9.74 years (SD= 8.36).

Instruments

Demographic Variables

Participants were asked to provide demographic information (e.g., gender, age) as well as some information about their work (e.g., number of hours spent at work every week, position held).

Passion for Work

The Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003) was used to assess passion for work. This scale contains two subscales of six items to assess harmonious (e.g., "This job is in harmony with the other activities in my life") and obsessive (e.g., "I have almost an obsessive feeling for this job") passion towards work. This scale also contains five items to assess the passion criterion (e.g., "This job is a passion for me"). Participants were asked to rate the various items on a scale of 1 to 7 (ranging from "Do not agree at all" to "Very strongly agree"). Cronbach's alphas for each subscale were satisfactory (α=between .79 and .85).

Well-being at Work

The Index of Psychological Well-being at Work (Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2012) was used to assess well-being. This scale includes 25 items covering five dimensions of psychological well-being at work: interpersonal fit at work, thriving at work, feeling of competency at work, perceived recognition at work and desire for involvement at work. Participants were asked to rate the different items on a scale from 1 to 5 (ranging from "Disagree" to "Completely Agree"). A mean score per participant was calculated for subsequent analyses (α = .94).

Burnout

The Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (Shirom & Melamed, 2006) was used to assess burnout. This scale is composed of 14 items covering three dimensions of burnout: physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, and emotional exhaustion. Participants were asked to rate the items on a scale from 1 to 7 (ranging from "Never" to "Always"). A mean score per participant was calculated for subsequent analyses (α = .94).

Job Demands And Resources

Four questionnaires were used to assess the job resources and demands that have been considered important for HSSNW in other studies (Giroux et al., 2022; Meunier et al., 2021, Meunier et al., 2020)

Questionnaire on the Experience and Assessment of Work. A total of eight subscales from the Questionnaire on the Experience and Assessment of Work (Lequeurre et al., 2013; van Veldhoven et al., 1997) were used to measure four job demands (i.e., emotional, and quantitative workload, job insecurity and compensation dissatisfaction) and four job resources (i.e., participation in decision-making, supervisor and colleague support, and autonomy). Each subscale contains four items that participants had to rate on a scale from 1 to 7 (ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" or from "Never" to "Always"). A mean score for each of the subscales was calculated. The internal consistency was satisfactory in the present study (α = between .75 and .95).

Meaningful Work. The Work and Meaning Inventory (Steger et al., 2012) was used to assess meaningful work. This scale contains three dimensions: positive meaning, meaning-making through work and greater good motivation. Participants were asked to rate the 10 items on a scale from 1 to 5 (ranging from "Absolutely false" to "Absolutely true"). A mean score was used for the analyses (α = .86).

Strengths Use. The Strengths Use Scale (Govindji & Linley, 2007; Forest et al., 2012) was used to assess strengths use at work. To limit the number of items in our survey, a factor analysis was conducted using data from a previous study. Only the items with the highest factor loadings were retained. This procedure made it possible to retain six items (e.g., "My job gives me a lot of opportunities to use my strengths"). Participants were asked to rate these items on a scale from 1 to 7 (ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree"). An overall mean score was calculated for each participant. The analyses performed demonstrate that the shortened scale had good internal consistency (α =.89).

Work Guilt. Since there is currently no validated scale for workplace guilt available, a new scale was created using the results of a focus group conducted in a previous study (Giroux et al., 2022). The items were also inspired by McElwain's (2009) Work-Family Guilt Scale. The scale contains five items (e.g., "I feel bad about missing work") and participants were asked to respond on a scale from 1 to 5 (ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree"). An exploratory factor analysis (principal axis factoring) was carried out with an oblimin rotation and revealed a single factor solution (only one factor had an eigenvalue >1) that explained 52.4% of the total variance. An overall mean score was calculated for each participant. (α =.83).

Statistical Analysis

The hypotheses of the study were tested in R statistical software. Analyses were first conducted to examine the quality of the data and to ensure that our principal analysis assumptions were upheld. Missing variables represented less than 5% of the sample and thus did not interfere with the analysis. Univariate outliers were winsorized so that extreme values outside three median absolute deviations around the median were brought within that interval (Leys et al., 2013). The package performance in R statistical software indicated no multivariate outliers (Lüdecke et al., 2021). Statistical assumptions were respected, and multicollinearity was not an issue since variance inflation factors were lower than 2.50 for all variables. The correlation matrix for the variables included in the analysis is presented in Table 1.

Results

Path Analysis

In order to determine which job demands and resources to include in the path analysis, hierarchical regressions were performed. For parsimony, only job demands and resources with betas higher than .10 were included in the model. The results showed that work meaning, strengths use and colleague support predicted HP, while quantitative workload, work guilt and job insecurity predicted OP. Table 2 contains the results of the hierarchical regressions.

Given that both types of passion are related constructs, covariances between these variables were added to the model. Covariances were also added for job resources and demands and for well-being at work and burnout. Job resources were expected to be positively related to HP, which in turn would be related to well-being at work. Job demands were expected to be positively associated with OP which in turn would be associated to burnout. This first tested model showed poor fit indices (MLR $\chi 2$ (df = 31, N = 745) = 437.81, $p< 0.001$; RMSEA = .137; SRMR= .135; CFI = .819; TLI = .678; GFI = .897). Inspection of the modification indices suggested that the fit of the model could be improved by including cross-links between job resources, OP and burnout and between job demands, HP and well-being. Cross-links between the different variables included to measure the two processes in the JD-R model are often found in cross-sectional studies (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Thus, we allowed cross-links in the second tested model.

The modified model, illustrated in Figure 1 (Model 2), demonstrated adequate representation of the collected data (MRL $\chi 2$ (df = 8, N = 745) = 25.43, $p< .001$; RMSEA = .055 (.00, .09); SRMR= .018; CFI = .992; TLI = .947; GFI = .994). The result showed that job resources were positively associated with HP (H1). Meaningful work and strengths use were also positively related to OP, while colleague support was negatively related. These variables also had a direct positive link to well-being at

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations for Each Variable in the Analysis

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Meaningful Work	3.92	0.62														
2. Strengths Use	5.35	0.90	.46***													
3. Colleague Support	5.70	1.07	.31***	.31***												
4. Supervisor Support	5.50	1.46	.34***	.35***	.46***											
5. Participation in Decision-Making	5.08	1.59	.27***	.31***	.28***	.49***										
6. Autonomy	5.28	1.28	.20***	.34***	.32***	.40***	.46***									
7. Work Guilt	3.45	0.93	-.04	-.19***	-.12***	-.18***	-.12***	-.27***								
8. Emotional Workload	5.14	1.08	.16***	.01	-.09*	-.09*	-.01	-.17***	.34***							
9. Quantitative Workload	4.41	1.55	.03	-.05	-.17***	-.14***	.08*	-.23***	.36***	.41***						
10. Job Insecurity	2.81	1.82	-.12***	-.12***	-.15***	-.18***	-.20***	-.19***	.19***	.13***	.15***					
11. Dissatisfaction with Compensation	4.06	1.40	-.19***	-.18***	-.16***	-.29***	-.28***	-.26***	.17***	.11***	.19***	.09**				
12. Harmonious Passion	5.14	1.01	.53***	.58***	.42***	.41***	.31***	.37***	-.21***	-.10***	-.22***	-.18***	-.29***			
13. Obsessive Passion	2.41	1.10	.15***	.09*	-.12**	-.02	.13***	-.04	.33***	.29***	.38***	.16***	.04	.00		
14. Well-being at Work	4.33	0.57	.53***	.56***	.56***	.58***	.49***	.37***	-.20***	-.09***	-.07	-.20***	-.27***	.57***	.03	
15. Burnout	3.50	1.10	.25***	-.36***	-.37***	-.36***	-.21***	-.34***	.43***	.33***	.50***	.21***	.24***	-.46***	.25***	-.49***

Notes: N= 774; *p <.05, **p <.01, ***p <.001

Table 2

Hierarchical Regressions Analyses for Job Demands and Resources on Harmonious and Obsessive Passion for Work

	Harmonious Passion		Obsessive Passion	
	ß	SE	ß	SE
Job Demands				
Work Guilt	-.01	.03	.23***	.04
Emotional Workload	-.07*	.03	.08*	.04
Quantitative Workload	-.12***	.03	.23***	.04
Job Insecurity	-.02	.03	.11***	.03
Dissatisfaction with Compensation	-.09***	.03	-.01	.03
Job Resources				
Colleague Support	.12***	.03	-.13***	.04
Supervisor Support	.04	.03	.01	.04
Participation in Decision-Making	.04	.03	.10*	.04
Autonomy	.06	.03	.05	.04
Strengths Use	.33***	.03	.09*	.04
Meaningful Work	.30***	.03	.11***	.04
R^2	.52***		.26***	

Notes: N= 774; *p <.05, **p <.01, ***p <.001

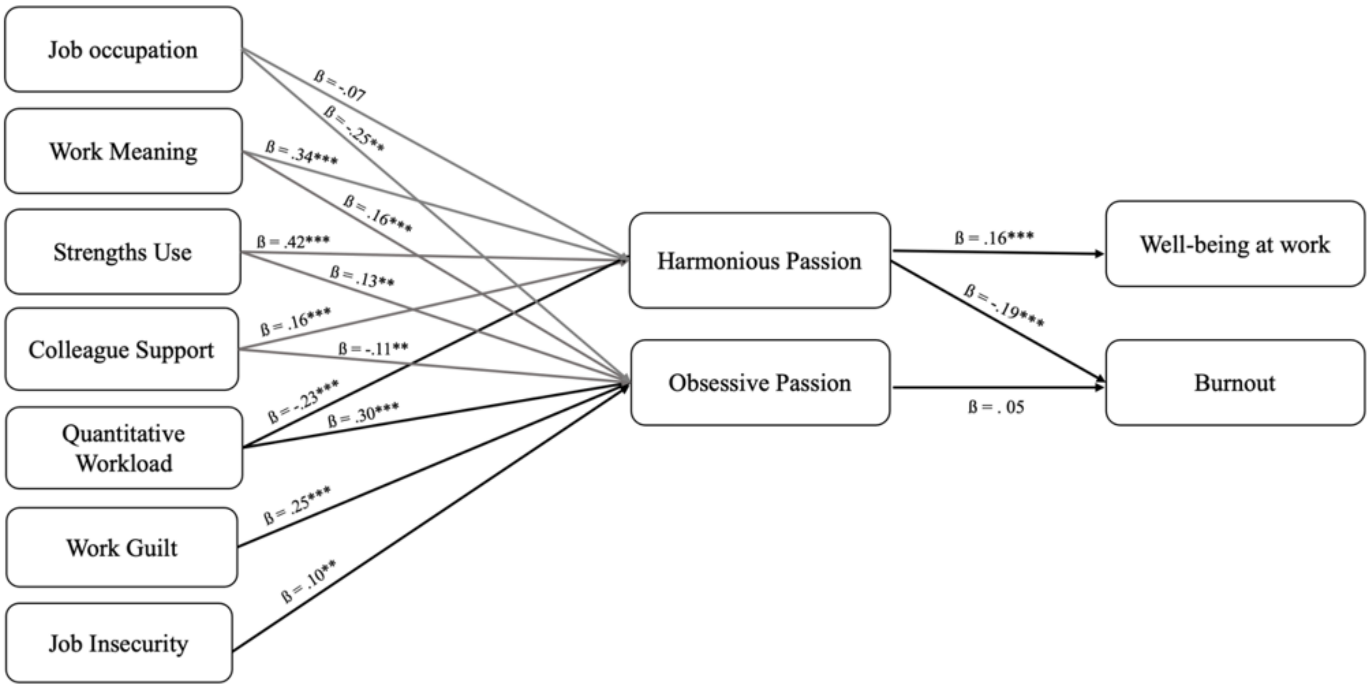
work (meaningful work, β = .23, p<.001; strengths use, β = .28, p<.001; colleague support, β = .32, p<.001) and a direct negative link with burnout (strengths use, β = -.18, p<.001; colleague support, β = -.15, p<.001). Job demands were positively related to OP (H4). Quantitative workload was negatively related to HP. Work guilt (β = .18, p<.001) and quantitative workload (β = .44, p<.001) had a direct positive link to burnout while work guilt was negatively associated with well-being at work (β = -.06, p = .006). Job insecurity was not directly related to burnout (β = .02, p =.484). Finally, HP was positively related to well-being at work (β = .16, p< .001; H1) and negatively related to burnout while OP was not related to burnout (β = .05, p = .105). This result does not support H2.

Indirect Effects

Indirect effects were analyzed using the bootstrap parameter estimator bci.simple in R statistical software. Results from indirect effect analyses supported the mediating role of HP in the relationship between job resources and well-being at work (H3). More specifically, the results indicated significant indirect effects of meaningful work (Indirect effect = .053, 95% BootCI= [.029, .083]), strengths use (Indirect effect = .066, 95% BootCI= [.036, .104]) and colleague support (IE= .026, 95% BootCI= [.011, .048]) on

Figure 1

Results From the Path Analysis on the Relationship Between Job Characteristics, Passion for Work, Well-Being at Work, and Burnout While Controlling for Job Occupation



Note. N = 745; *p <.05, **p <.01, ***p <.001. Standardized beta coefficients are presented. For parsimony, direct links between job demands and resources and burnout and wellbeing are only described in the text.

well-being at work through HP. The results also revealed that through HP, there was a significant indirect effect of quantitative workload on well-being (IE= -.036, 95% BootCI= [-.060, -.018]) and on burnout (IE= .043, 95% BootCI= [.022, .068]). In addition, results supported the indirect effect of meaningful work (IE= -.064, 95% BootCI= [-.095, -.035]), strengths use (IE= -.079, 95% BootCI= [-.117, -.044]) and colleague support (IE= -.031, 95% BootCI= [-.054, -.014]) on burnout through HP. However, the results showed that OP was not a significant mediator of the relationships between job demands and burnout, thus not providing support for H4.

Moderation Analysis

A model including interactions between OP and HP and job demands and resources was also tested and showed good fit to the data (MRL $\chi 2$ (df = 12, N = 745) = 46.22, p<.001; RMSEA = .063 (.00, .09); SRMR= 014; CFI = .966; TLI = .907; GFI = .971). However, HP was not a significant moderator of the association between job demands and burnout. OP was also not a significant moderator of the association between job resources and well-being at work. The results of the moderation analyses are presented in Table 3.

Discussion

The goal of the present study was to gain deeper insight into the psychological health of HSSNW using the JD-R model and the lens of passion for work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Vallerand et al., 2003). Therefore,

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Table 3

Moderating Effects of Harmonious and Obsessive Passion for Work on the Association Between Job Demands and Resources, Well-Being at Work and Burnout

	Burnout			
	ß	**SE**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
Harmonious Passion				
Work Guilt	.17***	.03	.11	.24
HP*Work Guilt	-.03	.04	-.10	.03
Quantitative Workload	.43***	.04	.29	.42
HP*Quantitative Workload	.008	.04	-.06	.08
Job Insecurity	.015	.02	-.04	.07
HP*Job Insecurity	-.021	.02	-.08	.03
R2	.47			
	Well-Being at Work			
	ß	**SE**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
Obsessive Passion				
Meaningful work	.21***	.03	.14	.25
OP*Meaningful work	.002	.02	-.04	.05
Strengths Use	.29***	.04	.19	.32
OP*Strengths Use	-.018	.02	-.07	.03
Colleague Support	.77***	.06	.30	.39
OP*Colleague Support	.035	.04	-.03	.07
R2	.54			

Note. N = 745; *p <.05, **p <.01, ***p <.001. Standardized beta coefficients are presented.

this study identified the job demands and resources specific to HSSNW and explored the mediating and moderating effects of passion in the relationship between job characteristics and psychological health. Results from the path analysis indicated that job resources were positively associated with HP, while job demands were positively associated with OP. However, HP was positively related to well-being, while OP was not related to burnout. Also, some cross-links did occur, due to the cross-sectional design of the study. Moreover, HP significantly mediated the relationship between job resources and well-being, while OP did not mediate the relationship between job demands and burnout. The model testing the moderation hypothesis revealed that passion for work was not a significant moderator of either the health impairment or the motivation path identified by the JD-R model.

Theoretical Contributions

Job Demands And Resources, And Passion For Work

Using the job demands and resources specific to HSSNW previously identified by (Giroux et al., 2022), results indicated that meaningful work, strengths use, and colleague support were positively associated with HP. These results replicate those of Forest et al., (2012), who found that strengths use predicted HP. Furthermore, they confirm some of the conclusions of an unpublished study and a qualitative study, namely that meaningful work and colleague support were also determinants of HP (Hardgrove, 2019; Zigarmi et al., 2009). As for OP, results showed that work guilt, quantitative workload, and job insecurity were the main determinants. No study to date has investigated the influence of two of those job demands (i.e., work guilt and job insecurity) on OP.

To summarize, this study identified several determinants of the two types of passion for work, but further studies are needed to investigate alternative determinants of HSSNW HP and OP. For instance, it would be valuable, in a subsequent study, to use a comparable model to examine the relationship between different determinants (e.g., self-neglect, rumination, or recognition), passion for work and psychological health (St-Louis et al., 2016).

While some relationships between job characteristics (i.e., job demands and resources) and passion aligned with the JD-R model, cross-links were observed between job resources and OP, as well as between job demands and HP. For instance, certain job demands (e.g., quantitative workload) were negatively associated to HP, suggesting their potential to undermine this type of passion. Surprisingly, certain job resources (e.g., meaningful work, strengths use) were positively linked to OP, indicating their potential to influence this type of passion. These findings could be explained by the various tensions experienced by HSSNW at work, as they often navigate meaningful but resource-limited work environments, leading to overcompensation through personal resources (e.g., strengths use) (Giroux et al., 2022).

In this context, recent literature in positive psychology has explored the overuse of strengths and examines its negative impact on the person and on others (Niemiec, 2019). For instance, Niemiec (2019) provides a compelling illustration of how an individual's excessive reliance on kindness, a fundamental character strength, can lead to intrusive behavior overly fixated on others. Niemec (2019) also mentions that the overuse of this strength can result in an increased in compassion fatigue, which is defined as a state of emotional and physical exhaustion experienced by individuals, typically in caregiving roles or professions, due to frequent exposure to situations requiring compassion in response to others' suffering (Figley, 1995).

In a separate study involving nonprofit workers, researchers discovered that an excessive emphasis on team cohesion within group dynamics could stifle individual expression, promoting group thinking and conformity (name deleted to maintain the integrity of the review process; Janis, 1972; Landry, 2007). This suggests that certain job resources, such as meaningful work, might inadvertently foster OP in specific circumstances. Drawing upon the challenge and hindrance theory (Cavanaugh et al., 2000), it may be that, much like for job demands, there are two categories of job resources: those that facilitate task completion and energy renewal, and those that lead workers to over-commit themselves and deplete their energy reserves. Investigating this hypothesis in future studies could provide clarity on its validity. However, it should be noted that, while we observed cross-links between certain variables, the primary associations observed in our study were consistent with the assumptions of the JD-R model.

Passion For Work, Burnout, And Well-Being

The study revealed a positive association between HP and well-being, consistent with previous findings (e.g., Houlfort et al., 2014; Stenseng & Phelps, 2013; Thorgren et al., 2013; Vallerand et al., 2007; Vallerand et al., 2008). However, an unexpected finding was the absence of a relationship between OP and burnout, contrary to several prior studies (Donahue et al., 2012; Fernet et al., 2014; Lavigne et al., 2012; Trépanier et al., 2014; Vallerand et al., 2010). Methodological differences, such as the use of a global score versus separate job demands in analyses, may explain these discrepancies. Thus, including the three job demands as distinct variables in the path analysis suggests that they might have fully explained the variance in burnout. Consequently, OP could not significantly mediate in the relationship between job demands and burnout. Moreover, some studies found no association between OP and distress-related indices, reflecting inconsistency in findings regarding OP's impact on psychological health (Vallerand et al., 2007; Vallerand et al., 2008).

In addition, findings by Philippe et al., (2009a) suggest similar well-being scores among non-passionate and obsessively passionate individuals, leaving the real impact of OP on psychological health undetermined (Vallerand, 2015). Findings remain inconsistent between studies, ranging from support for a negative impact of OP on psychological health, to the absence of support for the existence of such link. These inconsistencies underscore the need to consider OP as an independent variable rather than solely a mediator (Toth et al., 2021). In other words, OP may influence job demands (e.g., work guilt), which may in turn be linked to burnout. This hypothesis should be tested in future studies.

Finally, HSSNW may nurture an OP for the organization's mission, or the social cause being advocated for (i.e., free access to mental health care for all), rather than the work itself. For example, in a study among humanitarian volunteers, St-Louis et al., (2016) investigated their passion for the cause targeted by their organization. They found that an OP for the cause supported by these organizations increased physical symptoms and decreased health over a 3-month period. However, they did not study burnout specifically. Conducting comparative studies to differentiate between passion for work and for the cause supported by nonprofit organizations could shed light on these dynamics.

Passion For Work As A Mediator And A Moderator

The results of the mediation analyses supported the hypothesis that HP was a significant mediator in the relationship between job resources and well-being at work, replicating the findings of Trépanier et al., (2014). The findings also confirmed that HP was a mediator in the relationship between quantitative workload and well-being at work, and between quantitative workload and burnout. This result indicates that quantitative workload could be perceived by workers as both a challenge and a hindrance and that, depending on the circumstances of the job or the worker's experiences in their work environment, it can both nourish well-being and exacerbate burnout (Cavanaugh et al., 2000).

Therefore, it might be informative in future studies to identify what factors contribute to quantitative workload being perceived as a challenge or a hindrance in this particular field. Contrary to findings by Trépanier et al., (2014), the results showed that the association between job demands and burnout is not explained by OP among HSSNW. Thus, it would be relevant to study other types of mechanisms that could explain this relationship, in order to help organizations prevent burnout among their employees and ensure the sustainability of the services they provide to society.

Finally, although passion for work appears to be a compelling construct regarding personal demands and resources, the moderating effect mentioned by the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017) was not identified in this study. The results of a model testing the moderating effect of HP on the relationship between job demands and burnout and the moderating effect of OP on the relationship between job resources and well-being were not statistically significant in this study. Further studies would be needed to verify these results or to investigate other types of personal demands and resources that may moderate the relationships between job demands and resources and psychological health among HSSNW.

Limitations

This study has some limitations that must be considered. First, the convenience sampling method and the use of social media may have led to a greater representation of passionate people in our sample. Second, the used of self-reported questionnaires could have favored greater influence of the common method bias. Furthermore, despite the acknowledged adaptability of the JD-R model across various work environments (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), it should be noted that our findings may not necessarily extend beyond the specific domain of the nonprofit sector. It is also possible that the cross-sectional design encouraged the emergence of cross-link between study variables, facilitating confirmation of other researchers' conclusions (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Moreover, the design of the study did not enable us to determine the direction of the links.

Consequently, it would be valuable to conduct a similar study using a longitudinal design, in order to validate the long-term strength of these links and to better understand the causal nature of the relationships between job demands and resources, passion for work and HSSNW psychological health. Lastly, like most studies using the JD-R model, the workers surveyed did not evaluate whether each demand was a challenge or a hindrance. Future studies should examine the use of the challenge-hindrance theory (Cavanaugh et al., 2000) in relation to the dualistic model of passion.

Practical Contributions

The current findings provide valuable insights for organizations aiming to foster and sustain their employees' psychological health. In the case of HSSNW more specifically, our results show that passion for work is an important lever to promote these workers' well-being at work. Consistent with the principles of the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), addressing personal demands and resources represents a promising avenue to improve intervention for HSSNW, considering the frequent lack of organizational resources and the financial situation of nonprofit organizations (Couturier & Fortin, 2021). To foster the development of HP for work in their employees, managers can implement interventions or practices that allow for the optimization of job resources. More precisely, organizations can assign tasks based on the strengths of each employee or institute practice to recognize the accomplishments of workers and acknowledge the difference they make in the lives of their clients.

On the other hand, organizations can also promote psychological health in the workplace by helping employees reduce the burden caused by excessive job demands. They can offer training in job crafting techniques to reduce the pressure of quantitative workload (Tims & Bakker, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Indeed, such techniques allow employees to better manage their time and energy in relation to the different tasks they must accomplish daily. Moreover, what the results here show is that workers could benefit from learning to set their limits at work and to achieve a better balance in the different spheres of their lives. This could not only reduce their feelings of guilt, but also help them nurture HP for work. Beyond promoting psychological health at the individual and organizational levels, Nielsen et al. (2018) mention the importance of acting at the societal level (i.e., improve funding for nonprofit organizations).

Conclusion

This study suggests that organizational context partly explains the development of two types of passion for work in HSSNW. In our findings, HP more specifically mediated the association between job resources and demands and psychological health. This research allowed us to identify certain characteristics of work on which nonprofit organizations can act to reduce the development of OP and thus prevent maladaptive outcomes, while nurturing the resources that lead to the development of HP and improved psychological health.

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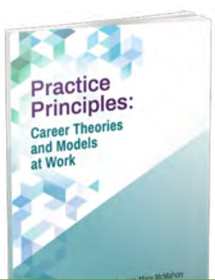

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Description des principaux construits psychologiques évalués et instruments psychométriques utilisés par les conseillères et conseillers d'orientation québécois

Sabruna Dorceus, Yann Le Corff, & Éric Yergeau
Université de Sherbrooke

Résumé

Considérant la place significative des instruments psychométriques dans la pratique des conseillères et conseillers d'orientation (c.o.) québécois, leur grande diversité et le souci à l'égard de leur utilisation adéquate, il apparait nécessaire d'accompagner les c.o. dans leur usage à la lumière de leurs pratiques effectives. Pour ce faire, il importe de connaitre les construits psychologiques évalués et les instruments psychométriques utilisés par ces derniers, lesquels demeurent peu documentés à ce jour. Ainsi, cet article présente les résultats d'une enquête en ligne portant notamment sur les principaux instruments psychométriques utilisés par des c.o. québécois (n = 302) travaillant dans divers secteurs au cours des années 2016-2017. Les résultats montrent d'abord que les principaux construits évalués par les c.o. sont les intérêts professionnels, la personnalité, les valeurs et les aptitudes. Aussi, bien que les c.o. font appel à une grande diversité d'instruments psychométriques, les inventaires d'intérêts professionnels sont les plus utilisés et une certaine place est accordée aux inventaires de personnalité. Cependant, des variations selon les milieux de travail et les populations desservies sont observées. La discussion propose une mise en relation des résultats avec ceux d'une enquête comparable réalisée en 2010 ainsi que quelques pistes de formation initiale et continue.

Mots clés : psychométrie, instruments psychométriques, construits psychologiques, testing, conseillers d'orientation

Remerciements : Les personnes auteures tiennent à remercier le Fonds de recherche du Québec-Société et culture (FRQSC), le Conseil de recherches en sciences humaines et l'Ordre des conseillers et conseillères d'orientation du Québec (OCCOQ) pour l'appui à cette étude. Elles sont également reconnaissantes envers les conseillères et conseillers d'orientation qui ont participé à cette étude.

Place des instruments psychométriques en orientation

L'évaluation est un aspect central de la pratique des conseillères et conseillers d'orientation (c.o.) québécois tel que souligné par le champ d'exercice de la profession qui est orienté autour de l'évaluation du fonctionnement psychologique (p. ex. : intérêts, personnalité, aptitudes, croyances, stratégies adaptatives), des ressources personnelles (p. ex. : connaissance de soi, connaissance du marché du travail, compétences, acquis formels et informels) et des conditions du milieu (p. ex. : famille, pairs, possibilités d'emploi et de formation, contexte socioculturel, conditions économiques) des individus bénéficiant des services d'orientation (Ordre des conseillers et conseillères d'orientation du Québec [OCCOQ], 2010a). Dans le cadre de leurs activités d'évaluation, les c.o. sont donc amenés à évaluer différentes caractéristiques à l'aide d'une variété de moyens d'évaluation.

À cet égard, une enquête par questionnaire réalisée auprès de c.o. québécois indique qu'une proportion élevée d'entre eux utilise sur une base hebdomadaire des outils non standardisés, tels que les entrevues semi-structurées (69,7 % des c.o. sondés) ou non structurées (67,6 %), les observations non structurées (48,9 %) et les questionnaires maison (45,5 %) (Dorceus et al., 2021). Pour leur part, les instruments psychométriques sont utilisés de façon hebdomadaire par 41,5 % des c.o. québécois et au moins 1 à 3 fois par mois par une très grande majorité (71,8 %) (Dorceus et al., 2021). Ceux-ci se distinguent des autres moyens d'évaluation par leur capacité à évaluer des caractéristiques psychologiques de façon standardisée, objective, fidèle et valide (Bernaud, 2007; Guédon et al., 2011). Leur efficacité est d'ailleurs largement reconnue dans le domaine clinique (Hanson et Poston, 2011; Meyer et al., 2001), en sélection du personnel (Schmidt et al., 2016) et en éducation (Sackett et al., 2008). Dans le domaine de l'orientation, ce sont principalement leur capacité à améliorer la connaissance de la personne évaluée, la qualité des décisions et la profondeur des entrevues, l'objectivité de la mesure, ainsi que leur caractère indispensable pour certaines évaluations qui justifient leur utilisation selon les c.o. québécois sondés par Dorceus et al. (2021).

Il existe un grand nombre d'instruments psychométriques disponibles sur le marché qui varient en termes de caractéristiques techniques (p. ex. : coût, temps requis, format), de forces et de limites (Cohen et Swerdlik, 2010; Miller et Lovler, 2016). L'utilisation professionnelle qui en est faite est donc primordiale pour s'assurer de la qualité de l'évaluation et éviter de porter préjudice aux individus en menant à des évaluations erronées ou des décisions injustifiées (Miller et Lovler, 2016; Urbina, 2014). D'ailleurs, différentes normes de pratique fournissent un cadre de référence afin de guider les groupes professionnels dans leur utilisation adéquate des instruments psychométriques. À cet égard, les pratiques des c.o. sont encadrées par le code de déontologie établi par l'OCCOQ et s'appuient également sur le guide des Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing[1] (American Education Research Association, American Psychological Association et National Council on Measurement in Education, 2014).

Considérant la place significative des instruments psychométriques dans la pratique des c.o. québécois, la grande diversité de ces instruments et le souci à l'égard de leur utilisation adéquate, il apparait important d'accompagner de façon éclairée les personnes professionnelles concernées, dont les c.o., dans l'utilisation de ces instruments, notamment via la formation. À cet égard, selon les constats rapportés par Dorceus et al. (2021), la majorité des c.o. semblent généralement satisfaits par rapport à plusieurs aspects de la formation initiale en matière d'évaluation psychométrique. Par ailleurs, il y aurait place à amélioration. En effet, selon les constats de cette étude, moins de la moitié des c.o. (48,8 %) sont d'avis que leur formation initiale portait sur une diversité suffisante d'instruments psychométriques, alors que 33 % des c.o. estiment que leur formation initiale n'était pas suffisamment diversifiée. De plus, près de 22 % des c.o. rapportent que l'étude des instruments psychométriques couverts dans la formation n'était pas suffisamment approfondie et 17 % des c.o. ne considèrent pas que leur formation portait sur des instruments pertinents pour leur pratique. Du côté de la formation continue, l'offre de formation proposant un regard critique sur l'évaluation psychométrique ne semble pas convenir à un peu plus de 20 % des c.o. Ainsi, il importe de connaitre les construits psychologiques évalués et les instruments psychométriques utilisés afin de s'assurer que la formation reflète bel et bien les pratiques effectives des c.o. tout en offrant un regard critique à l'égard de ces instruments.

Études portant sur les construits évalués et les instruments psychométriques utilisés par les c.o.

Un état des écrits scientifiques nord-américains des 20 dernières années montre que les construits évalués et les instruments psychométriques utilisés par les c.o. sont relativement peu documentés. Les quelques études états-uniennes portant sur les personnes conseillères œuvrant dans différents domaines offrent un portrait partiel qui date malheureusement (p. ex. : Agresta, 2004; Blacher et al., 2005). Plus récemment, seule l'étude de Peterson et al. (2014) offre un

1 Il s'agit de la plus récente édition des *Normes de pratique du testing en psychologie et en éducation*.

portrait global des instruments utilisés par des personnes conseillères œuvrant en milieu scolaire, en santé mentale et dans d'autres domaines non spécifiés aux États-Unis. Par ailleurs, malgré le portrait complet, des différences importantes entre la réalité professionnelle de ces personnes conseillères et celle des c.o. québécois, ainsi qu'entre l'offre d'instruments psychométriques aux États-Unis et au Québec, rendent ces résultats peu informatifs pour le contexte québécois.

Au regard des portraits partiels réalisés au cours des dernières années auprès de c.o. canadiens (p. ex. : Samson et al., 2014) et/ou datant de plus de 15 ans (Boudrias et al., 2008; Ordre des conseillers et conseillères d'orientation et des psychoéducateurs et psychoéducatrices du Québec, 2004a, 2004b), l'enquête par questionnaire réalisée par Le Corff et collaborateurs (Dorceus et al., 2014; Le Corff et al., 2011;Yergeau, Le Corff, Dorceus et al., 2012) présente, à notre connaissance, le seul portrait complet des construits psychologiques évalués par les c.o. québécois ainsi que des instruments utilisés. Les données recueillies en 2010 auprès d'un échantillon de 529 c.o. québécois œuvrant dans divers secteurs de pratique indiquaient que le construit psychologique le plus fréquemment évalué par le biais d'instruments psychométriques était celui des intérêts professionnels, suivis par la personnalité, les aptitudes et l'intelligence (Yergeau, Le Corff, Dorceus et al., 2012). Plus précisément, parmi les instruments offerts en français par les éditeurs de tests canadiens, les plus utilisés à ce moment-là étaient le Guide de recherche d'une orientation professionnelle (GROP) (78 % des c.o. sondés)[2], l'Indicateur de types psychologiques Myers-Briggs (MBTI) (38 %), l'Inventaire des intérêts professionnels Strong (36 %), l'Orientation par soi-même (OPSM) (33 %), la Batterie générale des tests d'aptitudes (BGTA) (27 %), l'Inventaire visuel d'intérêts professionnels (IVIP) (26 %), l'Inventaire NEO-PI-R (16 %), les Matrices de Raven (14 %), l'Inventaire de personnalité Jackson - Révisé (JPI-R) (13 %) et le Questionnaire de la personnalité en 16 facteurs (16PF) (9 %). Chez les c.o. œuvrant au secondaire et ayant participé à cette même enquête (n = 136), les mêmes trois construits psychologiques demeuraient les plus populaires, mais quelques variations étaient observées quant aux principaux instruments psychométriques utilisés (Dorceus et al., 2014).

Depuis la réalisation de cette enquête en 2010, de nouveaux instruments ont fait leur entrée sur le marché, tels que l'AFC Holland, dont la première édition a été publiée en 2015 (AFC Holland, 2022) ainsi que l'Inventaire de personnalité Le Corff (Le Corff, 2014). De plus, certains instruments utilisés lors de la dernière décennie n'ont pas été mis à jour (p. ex. : normes vieillissantes), ce qui pourrait avoir conduit à une diminution de leur utilisation (p. ex. : OPSM, 16PF). Il importe également de mentionner que les statistiques de passation des éditeurs ne sont pas accessibles, donc ces données ne peuvent qu'être accessibles par le biais d'enquêtes indépendantes. Ainsi, il y aurait matière à brosser un portrait plus actuel des instruments utilisés par les c.o. québécois qui tient compte de certaines nouveautés dans le domaine depuis la dernière enquête de ce type. Au regard des besoins de formation rapportés plus haut, ce portrait permettrait notamment d'orienter davantage la formation autour d'instruments pertinents pour la pratique des c.o.

En outre, les résultats de certaines études suggèrent que les pratiques relatives à l'utilisation des instruments psychométriques varient selon certains contextes professionnels. Par exemple, l'étude des facteurs associés à la nature du principal construit psychologique mesuré dans le cadre de l'étude de Dorceus et al. (2020) indique que les c.o. œuvrant auprès de certaines populations (p. ex. : population adulte, organisations et entreprises) sont plus susceptibles d'évaluer la personnalité, plutôt que les intérêts professionnels. Il importe toutefois de noter que cette analyse se limitait au principal construit mesuré

2 Les pourcentages correspondent au pourcentage de c.o. qui rapportaient utiliser les instruments proposés « régulièrement » ou « parfois ».

par les c.o. Quant à l'étude de Dorceus et al. (2014), elle montre que certains instruments psychométriques sont davantage utilisés par les c.o. œuvrant dans les écoles secondaires que ceux œuvrant dans d'autres milieux, tels que les cégeps et les universités, les organismes communautaires et le domaine de l'employabilité (p. ex. : GROP, Échelle d'intelligence de Wechsler pour enfants et adolescents, IVIP). D'autres instruments sont davantage utilisés par les c.o. œuvrant dans les autres milieux de travail (p. ex. : Matrices de Raven, BGTA, MBTI). Ainsi, la nature des construits psychologiques évalués par les c.o. québécois ainsi que les instruments psychométriques utilisés varieraient notamment selon les populations desservies et les milieux de travail.

Cet article vise donc à : 1) déterminer les construits psychologiques les plus fréquemment évalués par les c.o. québécois; 2) identifier les instruments psychométriques les plus fréquemment utilisés par les c.o. québécois et 3) comparer les principaux construits évalués et les principaux instruments psychométriques utilisés en fonction de différents contextes professionnels (milieux de travail, populations desservies, expérience professionnelle)

Méthode

Personnes participantes

L'ensemble des c.o. inscrits comme membres actifs au Tableau des membres de l'OCCOQ (N = 2 302) (OCCOQ, 2017) et ayant fourni une adresse courriel valide à leur ordre professionnel a été invité à participer sur une base volontaire à l'étude[3]. Du nombre total d'invitations, 14,7 % des c.o. (n = 339) sollicités ont complété le questionnaire et 13,1 % (n = 302) ont fourni des réponses complètes et valides aux questions reliées aux principaux instruments utilisés, ce qui représente le sous-échantillon initial de c.o. qui utilisent des instruments psychométriques. Il est composé de 81,3 % de femmes et 18,7 % d'hommes presque exclusivement francophones (97,9 %). Près du tiers de l'échantillon détenait 5 années d'expérience et moins (29,1 %), 37 % de l'échantillon possédait de 6 à 15 années d'expérience et le tiers avait plus de 15 années d'expérience (33,9 %). De plus, près de la moitié des c.o. répondants œuvrait dans le domaine de l'éducation (45,7 %), principalement en milieu scolaire secondaire, alors que l'autre moitié œuvrait dans d'autres domaines, tels que l'employabilité (18,7 %) et la pratique privée (5,9 %). Enfin, une grande majorité des c.o. répondants ont rapporté intervenir auprès d'adultes âgés de 18 à 59 ans (77,6 %), alors que la moitié œuvraient auprès de la population adolescente (13 à 17 ans; 51 %) et une minorité ont rapporté travailler auprès d'adultes âgés de 60 ans et plus (17,7 %) ou d'enfants (0 à 12 ans; 3,8 %).

Selon les données publiées dans le rapport annuel de l'OCCOQ (2017), la répartition des personnes participantes semble comparable à celle des membres de l'OCCOQ à l'égard du sexe (81,3 % c. 79,9 % de femmes), et dans une certaine mesure, le milieu de travail (45,7 % c. 46,4 % de c.o. œuvrant dans le secteur de l'éducation; 18,7 % c. 16,3 % de c.o. œuvrant en employabilité). Les informations disponibles ne permettent pas d'établir de constats par rapport à la répartition des personnes participantes à l'égard de la langue, du nombre d'années d'expérience et des populations desservies.

Instrument de mesure

Les données ont été recueillies à l'aide d'un questionnaire bilingue (français et anglais) en ligne (plateforme Limesurvey) d'une durée d'environ 30 minutes. Le questionnaire a été traduit de façon directe (du français à l'anglais) par l'équipe de recherche. Celle-ci est composée de trois personnes bilingues détenant une expérience dans la traduction et la validation

3 L'enquête par questionnaire de laquelle sont tirées les données analysées dans le présent article ciblait également les membres de l'Ordre des psychologues du Québec ainsi que les membres de l'Ordre des psychoéducateurs et psychoéducatrices du Québec.

de questionnaires ainsi que la rédaction d'items.

Le questionnaire s'inspire de celui développé et administré dans le cadre de l'Enquête sur les pratiques en matière d'évaluation psychométrique des conseillers et conseillères d'orientation du Québec (Le Corff et al., 2011), mais a été bonifié afin d'inclure des variables complémentaires propres au projet source d'où sont tirées les données du présent article (p. ex. : questions ouvertes sur les principaux construits évalués et les principaux instruments psychométriques). Ainsi, il porte sur différents aspects des pratiques d'évaluation psychométrique, tels que la place de l'évaluation psychométrique (section 1), les pratiques évaluatives liées à la Loi modifiant le Code des professions du Québec et d'autres dispositions législatives dans le domaine de la santé mentale et des relations humaines (section 2), les motifs d'utilisation des instruments psychométriques et les représentations sociales relatives à ces outils (section 3), les modalités d'utilisation de ces instruments (section 4), les critères de sélection de ces instruments (section 6), les pratiques relatives aux normes professionnelles (section 7), la formation initiale et continue en évaluation psychométrique (section 8) ainsi que des informations sociodémographiques relatives à l'emploi (section 9).

Plus spécifiquement, la section 5 du questionnaire, mobilisée pour répondre aux objectifs de la présente étude, traite des cinq principaux construits psychologiques évalués dans le cadre d'une évaluation psychométrique (identification du construit évalué [variable nominale] et de la fréquence d'évaluation de chaque construit identifié sur une échelle de type Likert en 6 points [variable ordinale])[4] et des cinq principaux instruments psychométriques utilisés (identification de l'instrument utilisé [variable nominale] et fréquence d'utilisation de chaque instrument identifié sur une échelle de type Likert en 6 points [variable ordinale]). Les variables contextuelles à l'étude sont le milieu de travail (le fait d'œuvrer ou non dans les huit milieux de travail proposés[5]; variable dichotomique), les populations desservies en termes d'âge[6] (le fait d'œuvrer ou non auprès des quatre populations proposées; variable dichotomique) et le nombre d'années d'expérience professionnelle (variables comportant trois catégories : 5 ans et moins; de 6 à 15 ans; plus de 15 ans)[7].

Déroulement

La collecte de données s'est déroulée au cours des années 2016 et 2017. Des courriels d'invitation et de rappels ont été envoyés aux

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4 À titre d'exemple, les personnes répondantes avaient à répondre à la question suivante en lien avec les principales caractéristiques évaluées : « Lorsque vous procédez à l'évaluation psychométrique dans le cadre de votre pratique professionnelle, quelles sont les caractéristiques [p. ex. : personnalité] que vous évaluez le plus souvent à l'aide d'instruments psychométriques? ». L'échelle de mesure de fréquence est la suivante : 1 = jamais; 2 = 1 à quelques fois par année; 3 = 1 à 3 fois par mois; 4 = 1 à 3 fois par semaine; 5 = 4 à 6 fois par semaine; 6 = 7 fois ou plus par semaine.

5 Les milieux de travail proposés sont les suivants : école primaire, école secondaire, établissement postsecondaire (cégep, université), employabilité, réadaptation, organisme communautaire (sauf employabilité), entreprise et pratique privée. Les milieux comportant un très petit échantillon ne permettant pas de respecter les prémisses des analyses prévues n'ont pas été retenus (p. ex. : échantillon de sept c.o. pour le domaine de la santé et services sociaux, échantillon de cinq c.o. pour le domaine de la fonction publique). Les catégories ne sont pas mutuellement exclusives, ce qui veut dire que les personnes répondantes pouvaient sélectionner plus d'un milieu.

6 Les populations desservies sont les suivantes : enfants (0-12 ans), population adolescente (13-17 ans), adultes (18-59 ans) et adultes (60 ans et plus). Les catégories ne sont pas mutuellement exclusives, ce qui veut dire que les personnes répondantes pouvaient sélectionner plus d'une population.

7 Un regroupement des huit catégories initiales (allant de moins de 1 an à plus de 30 ans) a été réalisé de façon à mieux refléter la répartition du nombre d'années d'expérience des personnes répondantes.

membres de l'OCCOQ (courriel ciblé) par le biais de la liste d'envoi. Des invitations ont également été diffusées sur les réseaux sociaux de l'équipe de recherche (LinkedIn, Facebook et Twitter), sur les sites Internet de l'Association des psychologues du Québec et de la Société québécoise de la recherche en psychologie (SQRP) et par l'entremise de la liste de diffusion de l'Institut de recherches psychologiques et de la SQRP. Afin d'optimiser le taux de participation, les personnes participantes étaient invitées à indiquer leur adresse courriel à la fin du questionnaire pour participer au tirage au sort d'une tablette électronique.

Plan d'analyse

Dans le but d'identifier les principaux construits psychologiques évalués ainsi que les principaux instruments psychométriques utilisés, un premier tri des réponses nominales valides[8] et complètes a été réalisé suivi d'un recodage de ces réponses pour assurer l'uniformité dans le libellé des construits et le titre des instruments identifiés. Ensuite, deux variables dichotomiques ont été créées pour examiner respectivement l'évaluation ou non de chaque construit rapporté ainsi que l'utilisation ou non de chaque instrument recensé. Ainsi, le nombre de c.o. rapportant évaluer chaque construit identifié, le nombre de c.o. utilisateurs de chaque instrument recensé, ainsi que la fréquence d'évaluation des construits et la fréquence d'utilisation des instruments identifiés ont été comptabilisés. Enfin, des tests de chi-carré ont été réalisés par le biais du logiciel SPSS (version 28) afin de comparer la proportion des c.o. répondants qui évaluent les principaux construits psychologiques identifiés et utilisent les principaux instruments psychométriques recensés en fonction des milieux de travail, des populations desservies et du nombre d'années d'expérience de travail. Au préalable, les postulats liés aux tests de chi-carré ont été vérifiés.

Considérations éthiques

Il importe de préciser que la présente étude a été approuvée par le comité d'éthique de la recherche de l'université d'attache de l'équipe de recherche et est conforme aux règles éthiques en vigueur en matière de consentement libre et éclairé, d'anonymat, de confidentialité et de conservation des données. Afin d'obtenir le consentement libre et éclairé des personnes participantes, un formulaire de consentement était présenté en introduction du questionnaire en ligne. En acceptant de remplir le questionnaire, les personnes répondantes signalaient leur consentement à participer à l'enquête. Après avoir transféré les données de l'enquête dans la base de données, celle-ci a été anonymisée. Afin de garantir la confidentialité, les données sont conservées sur un serveur sécurisé, protégé par mot de passe, de l'université d'attache de l'équipe de recherche.

Résultats

Principaux construits psychologiques évalués par les c.o.

Le Tableau 1 présente les principaux construits psychologiques évalués par les c.o. en termes de taux et de fréquence d'évaluation. Les résultats relatifs aux taux d'évaluation montrent qu'une très grande majorité des c.o. répondants évaluent les intérêts (90,4 %) et la personnalité (82,2 %), les deux principaux construits psychologiques évalués. Ces construits sont suivis des valeurs (35,6 %), des aptitudes (29,1 %), de l'intelligence (ou habiletés cognitives) (18,2 %) et des compétences, tels que la capacité d'analyse et la gestion de conflits (8,9 %). Les autres construits (p. ex. : motivation, sentiment de compétence, rendement, santé mentale) sont très peu évalués, avec des taux allant de 1 % à 3,4 %.

Les constats issus de l'analyse de la fréquence d'évaluation hebdomadaire (au moins une fois par semaine) et

8 À titre d'exemple, en ce qui concerne les instruments psychométriques utilisés, les réponses indiquant une catégorie d'instrument, un construit psychologique ou un modèle théorique plutôt qu'un instrument spécifique ont été considérées comme invalides.

mensuelle (au moins une fois par mois) sont similaires. En effet, une grande majorité des c.o. évaluent au moins une fois par mois les intérêts professionnels (74,3 %) et la personnalité (63,3 %). Les valeurs (30,4 %), les aptitudes (18,8 %), l'intelligence (8,9 %), ainsi que les compétences (6,9 %) conservent leurs rangs au regard de la proportion des c.o. qui les évaluent sur une base hebdomadaire ou mensuelle. Pour ce qui est des autres construits, ces proportions varient de 0,3 % à 3,1 %.

Comparaison des principaux construits psychologiques évalués par les c.o. en fonction de variables contextuelles

Les Tableaux 2 à 9 présentent la comparaison des proportions des c.o. qui évaluent les principaux construits rapportés en fonction du milieu de travail et du nombre d'années d'expérience. D'abord, les résultats indiquent que l'évaluation psychométrique des valeurs et de la motivation ne varie pas en fonction du milieu de travail. Par ailleurs, quelques différences significatives relatives à l'évaluation des autres construits sont observées. En effet, les c.o. œuvrant dans les écoles primaires évaluent davantage le sentiment de compétence que les c.o. qui travaillent dans les autres milieux (14,3 % c. 2,2 %, $p = 0,006$, Phi[9] = 0,15), mais évaluent moins les aptitudes que les autres c.o. (0 % c. 24,6 %, $p = 0,034$, Phi = 0,12). Ensuite, comparativement aux c.o. œuvrant dans d'autres milieux, les c.o. qui travaillent dans les écoles secondaires évaluent davantage les intérêts (81,9 % c. 71,4 %, $p = 0,039$, Phi = 0,11), mais évaluent moins les aptitudes (15,2 % c. 27,4 %, $p = 0,015$, Phi = 0,13). En ce qui concerne les c.o. œuvrant dans le domaine de l'employabilité, ils évaluent davantage les intérêts (87,4 % c. 69,7 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,18), la personnalité (82,1 % c. 62,3 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,19), les aptitudes (35,8 % c. 18,9 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,18) et l'intelligence (25,3 % c. 10,7 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,19) que les c.o. œuvrant dans les autres milieux. De plus, les c.o. œuvrant dans les entreprises évaluent davantage les compétences que les c.o. des autres milieux (42,9 % c. 6,2 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,27). Enfin, les c.o. œuvrant dans les organismes communautaires évaluent moins la personnalité que les c.o. œuvrant dans les autres milieux (38,5 % c. 69,0 %, $p = 0,021$, Phi = 0,13). Ces différences reflètent toutes des effets de petite taille, à l'exception de la différence relative à l'évaluation des compétences chez les c.o. œuvrant au sein d'entreprises qui correspond à un effet modéré.

En ce qui concerne la population desservie, les résultats indiquent que l'évaluation de la personnalité, des valeurs et de la motivation ne varie pas en fonction de l'âge de la population. On note toutefois des différences significatives reflétant des effets de petite taille dans le cadre de l'évaluation des autres construits. D'abord, les c.o. œuvrant auprès des enfants évaluent davantage le sentiment de compétence que les c.o. qui interviennent auprès d'autres populations (15,4 % c. 2,1 %, $p = 0,004$, Phi = 0,16), mais évaluent moins les aptitudes que ces derniers (0,0 % c. 24,5 %, $p = 0,041$, Phi = 0,11). Relativement aux c.o. qui travaillent auprès de la population adolescente, ils évaluent plus les intérêts (79,2 % c. 69,9 %, $p = 0,049$, Phi = 0,11), mais moins l'intelligence (9,8 % c. 19,9 %, $p = 0,009$, Phi = 0,14) comparativement aux autres c.o. Les c.o. œuvrant auprès des adultes âgés de 18 à 59 ans évaluent plus les aptitudes (27,4 % c. 10,5 %, $p = 0,002$, Phi = 0,17) et les compétences que les autres c.o. (9,5 % c. 1,3 %, $p = 0,018$, Phi = 0,13). Quant aux c.o. œuvrant auprès des adultes plus âgés (60 ans et plus), ils évaluent davantage l'intelligence (23,3 % c. 12,9 %, $p = 0,039$, Phi = 0,11), mais évaluent moins les intérêts (60,0 % c. 77,8 %, $p = 0,004$, Phi = 0,16) que les autres c.o.

Enfin, les résultats montrent que l'évaluation des principaux construits psychologiques ne varie pas en fonction du nombre d'années

9 La valeur de V de Cramer ou Phi représente la taille d'effet associée aux différences entres les sous-groupes et s'interprète de la manière suivante : 0,10 = effet de petite taille; 0,30 = effet de taille moyenne; 0,50 = effet de grande taille (Cohen, 1988).

Tableau 1

Taux et fréquence d'évaluation de construits évalués par les c.o. évaluateurs (N = 292)

Construits évalués[a]	Fréquence d'évaluation: Au moins une fois par semaine N (%)	1 à 3 fois par mois N (%)	1 à quelques fois par année N (%)	Jamais N (%)	Nombre total de c.o. évaluateurs[b] N (%)
Intérêts	146 (50,0 %)	71 (24,3 %)	47 (16,1 %)	28 (9,6 %)	264 (90,4 %)
Personnalité	118 (40,4 %)	67 (22,9 %)	55 (18,8 %)	52 (17,8 %)	240 (82,2 %)
Valeurs	60 (20,5 %)	29 (9,9 %)	15 (5,1 %)	188 (64,4 %)	104 (35,6 %)
Aptitudes	27 (9,2 %)	28 (9,6 %)	30 (10,3 %)	207 (70,9 %)	85 (29,1 %)
Intelligence/Habiletés cognitives	12 (4,1 %)	14 (4,8 %)	27 (9,2 %)	239 (81,8 %)	53 (18,2 %)
Compétences	14 (4,8 %)	6 (2,1 %)	6 (2,1 %)	266 (91,1 %)	26 (8,9 %)
Motivation	2 (0,7 %)	4 (1,4 %)	4 (1,4 %)	282 (96,6 %)	10 (3,4 %)
Sentiment de compétence	5 (1,7 %)	4 (1,4 %)	1 (0,3 %)	282 (96,6 %)	10 (3,4 %)
Rendement	4 (1,4 %)	1 (0,3 %)	4 (1,4 %)	283 (96,9 %)	9 (3,1 %)
Santé mentale	2 (0,7 %)	4 (1,4 %)	2 (0,7 %)	284 (97,3 %)	8 (2,7 %)
Comportements adaptatifs	1 (0,3 %)	0 (0,0 %)	7 (2,4 %)	284 (97,3 %)	8 (2,7 %)
Besoins	3 (1,0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	0 (0,0 %)	287 (98,3 %)	5 (1,7 %)
Concept de soi	2 (0,7 %)	1 (0,3 %)	2 (0,7 %)	287 (98,3 %)	5 (1,7 %)
Capacités attentionnelles	2 (0,7 %)	3 (1,0 %)	0 (0,0 %)	287 (98,3 %)	5 (1,7 %)
Fonctionnement identitaire	4 (1,4 %)	0 (0,0 %)	0 (0,0 %)	288 (98,6 %)	4 (1,4 %)
Prise de décision	1 (0,3 %)	1 (0,3 %)	1 (0,3 %)	289 (99,0 %)	3 (1,0 %)
Autres[c]	3 (1,0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	1 (0,3 %)	286 (97,9 %)	6 (2,1 %)

Note. [a] Les réponses invalides (p. ex., crédibilité de l'outil), vagues ou incomplètes (p. ex., fonctionnement psychologique) ont été exclues de la classification. [b] Le nombre total de c.o. inclut les c.o. qui évaluent le construit au moins une fois par semaine, une à trois fois par mois ou une à quelques fois par année. [c] Les construits mentionnés deux fois ou moins ont été classées dans la catégorie « Autres ».

Tableau 2

Proportion des c.o. évaluant les valeurs en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Évaluation des valeurs				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 339	
École primaire			0,27		0,03
Oui	$35,7_a$	$64,3_a$			
Non	$29,2_a$	$70,8_a$			
École secondaire			0,27		0,03
Oui	$31,4_a$	$68,6_a$			
Non	$28,6_a$	$71,4_a$			
Postsecondaire			0,09		0,02
Oui	$27,8_a$	$72,2_a$			
Non	$29,8_a$	$70,2_a$			
Employabilité			3,42		0,10
Oui	$36,8_a$	$63,2_a$			
Non	$26,6_a$	$73,4_a$			
Réadaptation			0,01		0,01
Oui	$28,6_a$	$71,4_a$			
Non	$29,6_a$	$70,4_a$			
Organisme communautaire			0,52		0,04
Oui	$38,5_a$	$61,5_a$			
Non	$29,8_a$	$70,9_a$			
Entreprise			0,46		0,04
Oui	$21,4_a$	$78,6_a$			
Non	$29,8_a$	$70,2_a$			
Pratique privée			0,14		0,02
Oui	$27,8_a$	$72,2_a$			
Non	$30,0_a$	$70,0_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 339	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			0,52		0,04
Oui	$38,5_a$	$61,5_a$			
Non	$29,1_a$	$70,9_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,22		0,03
Oui	$30,6_a$	$69,4_a$			
Non	$28,3_a$	$71,7_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			0,48		0,04
Oui	$30,4_a$	$69,6_a$			
Non	$26,3_a$	$73,7_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,71		0,05
Oui	$25,0_a$	$75,0_a$			
Non	$30,5_a$	$69,5_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			1,36	2, 339	0,06
5 ans et moins	$25,7_a$	$74,3_a$			
6-15 ans	$32,8_a$	$67,2_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$29,8_a$	$70,2_a$			

Note. Les proportions des colonnes représentent la proportion de c.o. qui évaluent (ou non) le construit identifié en fonction de chacune des variables contextuelles. Des lettres en indice différentes indiquent des différences significatives entre les proportions des lignes au niveau $p < 0,05$. Les mêmes lettres en indice indiquent des différences non significatives entre les proportions des lignes au niveau $*p < 0,05$. $**p < 0,01$. $***p < 0,001$. [1] Les proportions représentent le pourcentage de c.o. qui travaillent ou non dans ce milieu. [2] Les proportions représentent le pourcentage de c.o. qui interviennent ou non auprès de cette population.

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Tableau 3

Proportion des c.o. évaluant la motivation en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Évaluation de la motivation				
	Oui (%)	**Non (%)**	**χ2**	***dl*, N**	**V de Cramer/Phi**
Milieu de travail				1, 339	
École primaire			1,14		0,06
Oui	$7,1_a$	$92,9_a$			
Non	$2,5_a$	$97,5_a$			
École secondaire			0,33		0,03
Oui	$1,9_a$	$98,1_a$			
Non	$3,0_a$	$97,0_a$			
Postsecondaire			0,27		0,03
Oui	$3,7_a$	$96,3_a$			
Non	$2,5_a$	$97,5_a$			
Employabilité			0,83		0,05
Oui	$3,2_a$	$96,8_a$			
Non	$2,5_a$	$97,5_a$			
Réadaptation			0,83		0,05
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$2,9_a$	$97,1_a$			
Organisme communautaire			0,37		0,03
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$2,8_a$	$97,2_a$			
Entreprise			1,14		0,06
Oui	$7,1_a$	$92,9_a$			
Non	$2,5_a$	$97,5_a$			
Pratique privée			0,77		0,05
Oui	$1,3_a$	$98,7_a$			
Non	$3,1_a$	$96,9_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 339	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			1,33		0,06
Oui	$7,7_a$	$92,3_a$			
Non	$2,5_a$	$97,5_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,16		0,02
Oui	$2,3_a$	$97,7_a$			
Non	$3,0_a$	$97,0_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			2,67		0,09
Oui	$3,4_a$	$96,6_a$			
Non	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,13		0,02
Oui	$3,3_a$	$96,7_a$			
Non	2.5_a	$97,5_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			1,88	2, 339	0,07
5 ans et moins	$0,9_a$	$99,1_a$			
6-15 ans	$3,4_a$	$96,6_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$3,5_a$	$96,5_a$			

Tableau 4

Proportion des c.o. évaluant le sentiment de compétence en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Évaluation du sentiment de compétence				
	Oui (%)	**Non (%)**	**χ2**	***dl*, N**	**V de Cramer/Phi**
Milieu de travail				1, 339	
École primaire			7,64**		0,15
Oui	$14{,}3_a$	$85{,}7_a$			
Non	$2{,}2_b$	$97{,}8_b$			
École secondaire			2,61		0,09
Oui	$4{,}8_a$	$95{,}2_a$			
Non	$1{,}7_a$	$98{,}3_a$			
Postsecondaire			2,09		0,08
Oui	$5{,}6_a$	$94{,}4_a$			
Non	$2{,}1_a$	$97{,}9_a$			
Employabilité			0,15		0,02
Oui	$2{,}1_a$	$97{,}9_a$			
Non	$2{,}9_a$	$97{,}1_a$			
Réadaptation			0,83		0,05
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$2{,}9_a$	$97{,}1_a$			
Organisme communautaire			0,37		0,03
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$2{,}8_a$	$97{,}2_a$			
Entreprise			0,40		0,03
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$2{,}8_a$	$97{,}2_a$			
Pratique privée			0,77		0,05
Oui	$1{,}3_a$	$98{,}7_a$			
Non	$3{,}1_a$	$96{,}9_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 339	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			8,48**		0,16
Oui	$15{,}4_a$	$84{,}6_a$			
Non	$2{,}1_b$	$97{,}9_b$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,08		0,02
Oui	$2{,}9_a$	$97{,}1_a$			
Non	$2{,}4_a$	$97{,}6_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			0,00		0,00
Oui	$2{,}7_a$	$97{,}3_a$			
Non	$2{,}6_a$	$97{,}4_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,28		0,03
Oui	$1{,}7_a$	$98{,}3_a$			
Non	$2{,}9_a$	$97{,}1_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			0,57	2, 339	0,04
5 ans et moins	$1{,}8_a$	$98{,}2_a$			
6-15 ans	$3{,}4_a$	$96{,}6_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$2{,}6_a$	$97{,}4_a$			

Note. $^{**}p < 0{,}01$.

Tableau 5

Proportion des c.o. évaluant les aptitudes en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Évaluation des aptitudes				
	Oui (%)	**Non (%)**	**χ2**	***dl*, N**	**V de Cramer/Phi**
Milieu de travail				1, 339	
École primaire			4,51*		0,12
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$24,6_b$	$75,4_b$			
École secondaire			5,90*		0,13
Oui	$15,2_a$	$84,8_a$			
Non	$27,4_b$	$72,6_b$			
Postsecondaire			2,75		0,09
Oui	$14,8_a$	$85,2_a$			
Non	$26,3_a$	$74,7_a$			
Employabilité			10,88***		0,18
Oui	$35,8_a$	$64,2_a$			
Non	$18,9_b$	$81,1_b$			
Réadaptation			2,49		0,09
Oui	$35,7_a$	$64,3_a$			
Non	$22,5_a$	$77,5_a$			
Organisme communautaire			0,39		0,03
Oui	$30,8_a$	$69,2_a$			
Non	$23,3_a$	$76,7_a$			
Entreprise			3,00		0,09
Oui	$42,9_a$	$57,1_a$			
Non	$22,8_a$	$77,2_a$			
Pratique privée			1,03		0,06
Oui	$27,8_a$	$72,2_a$			
Non	$22,3_a$	$77,7_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 339	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			4,18*		0,11
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$24,5_b$	$75,5_b$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,09		0,02
Oui	$24,3_a$	$75,7_a$			
Non	$22,9_a$	$77,1_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			9,29**		0,17
Oui	$27,4_a$	$72,6_a$			
Non	$10,5_b$	$89,5_b$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,00		0,00
Oui	$23,3_a$	$76,7_a$			
Non	$23,7_a$	$76,3_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			0,17	2, 339	0,02
5 ans et moins	$24,8_a$	$75,2_a$			
6-15 ans	$22,4_a$	$77,6_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$23,7_a$	76.3_a			

Note. *$p < 0,05$. **$p < 0,01$. ***$p < 0,001$.

Tableau 6

Proportion des c.o. évaluant les intérêts professionnels en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Évaluation des intérêts				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 339	
École primaire			0,95		0,05
Oui	$85{,}7_a$	$14{,}3_a$			
Non	$74{,}2_a$	$25{,}8_a$			
École secondaire			4,25*		0,11
Oui	$81{,}9_a$	$18{,}1_a$			
Non	$71{,}4_b$	$28{,}6_b$			
Postsecondaire			3,27		0,10
Oui	$64{,}8_a$	$35{,}2_a$			
Non	$76{,}5_a$	$23{,}5_a$			
Employabilité			11,31***		0,18
Oui	$87{,}4_a$	$12{,}6_a$			
Non	$69{,}7_b$	$30{,}3_b$			
Réadaptation			0,25		0,03
Oui	$78{,}6_a$	$21{,}4_a$			
Non	$74{,}3_a$	$25{,}7_a$			
Organisme communautaire			3,09		0,10
Oui	$53{,}8_a$	$46{,}2_a$			
Non	$75{,}5_a$	$24{,}5_a$			
Entreprise			2,36		0,08
Oui	$57{,}1_a$	$42{,}9_a$			
Non	$75{,}4_a$	$24{,}6_a$			
Pratique privée			0,08		0,02
Oui	$73{,}4_a$	$26{,}6_a$			
Non	$75{,}0_a$	$25{,}0_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 339	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			0,04		0,01
Oui	$76{,}9_a$	$23{,}1_a$			
Non	$74{,}5_a$	$25{,}5_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			3,88*		0,11
Oui	$79{,}2_a$	$20{,}8_a$			
Non	$69{,}9_b$	$30{,}1_b$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			2,00		0,08
Oui	$76{,}4_a$	$23{,}6_a$			
Non	$68{,}4_a$	$31{,}6_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			8,24**		0,16
Oui	$60{,}0_a$	$40{,}0_a$			
Non	$77{,}8_b$	$22{,}2_b$			
Expérience professionnelle			4,10	2, 339	0,11
5 ans et moins	$69{,}7_a$	$30{,}8_a$			
6-15 ans	$81{,}0_a$	$19{,}0_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$72{,}8_a$	$27{,}2_a$			

Note. *p < 0,05. **p < 0,01.***p < 0,001.

Tableau 7

Proportion des c.o. évaluant la personnalité en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Évaluation de la personnalité				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 339	
École primaire			0,09		0,02
Oui	$64{,}3_a$	$35{,}7_a$			
Non	$68{,}0_a$	$32{,}0_a$			
École secondaire			3,81		0,11
Oui	$75{,}2_a$	$24{,}8_a$			
Non	$64{,}5_a$	$35{,}5_a$			
Postsecondaire			1,34		0,06
Oui	$61{,}1_a$	$38{,}9_a$			
Non	$69{,}1_a$	$30{,}9_a$			
Employabilité			12,30***		0,19
Oui	$82{,}1_a$	$17{,}9_a$			
Non	$62{,}3_b$	$37{,}7_b$			
Réadaptation			0,18		0,02
Oui	$71{,}4_a$	$28{,}6_a$			
Non	$67{,}5_a$	$32{,}5_a$			
Organisme communautaire			5,35*		0,13
Oui	$38{,}5_a$	$61{,}5_a$			
Non	$69{,}0_b$	$31{,}0_b$			
Entreprise			0,77		0,05
Oui	$78{,}6_a$	$21{,}4_a$			
Non	$67{,}4_a$	$32{,}6_a$			
Pratique privée			0,51		0,04
Oui	$64{,}6_a$	$35{,}4_a$			
Non	$68{,}8_a$	$31{,}2_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 339	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			0,25		0,03
Oui	$61{,}5_a$	$38{,}5_a$			
Non	$68{,}1_a$	$31{,}9_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,37		0,03
Oui	$69{,}4_a$	$30{,}6_a$			
Non	$66{,}3_a$	$33{,}7_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			0,99		0,05
Oui	$69{,}2_a$	$30{,}8_a$			
Non	$63{,}2_a$	$36{,}8_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,68		0,05
Oui	$63{,}3_a$	$36{,}7_a$			
Non	$68{,}8_a$	$31{,}2_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			4,83	2, 339	0,12
5 ans et moins	$61{,}5_a$	$38{,}5_a$			
6-15 ans	$75{,}0_a$	$25{,}0_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$66{,}7_a$	$33{,}3_a$			

Note. *$p < 0{,}05$. ***$p < 0{,}001$.

Tableau 8

Proportion des c.o. évaluant l'intelligence en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Évaluation de l'intelligence				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	$\chi 2$	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 339	
École primaire			2,22		0,08
Oui	28,6$_a$	71,4$_a$			
Non	14,2$_a$	85,8$_a$			
École secondaire			3,30		0,10
Oui	9,5$_a$	90,5$_a$			
Non	17,1$_a$	82,9$_a$			
Postsecondaire			0,68		0,05
Oui	11,1$_a$	88,9$_a$			
Non	15,4$_a$	84,6$_a$			
Employabilité			11,60***		0,19
Oui	25,3$_a$	74,7$_a$			
Non	10,7$_b$	89.3$_b$			
Réadaptation			0,23		0,03
Oui	17,9$_a$	82,1$_a$			
Non	14,5$_a$	85,5$_a$			
Organisme communautaire			0,54		0,04
Oui	7,7$_a$	92,3$_a$			
Non	15,0$_a$	85,0$_a$			
Entreprise			0,00		0,00
Oui	14,3$_a$	85,7$_a$			
Non	14,8$_a$	85,2$_a$			
Pratique privée			1,47		0,07
Oui	19,0$_a$	81,0$_a$			
Non	13,5$_a$	86,5$_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 339	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			0,75		0,05
Oui	23,1$_a$	76,9$_a$			
Non	14,4$_a$	85,6$_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			6,81**		0,14
Oui	9,8$_a$	90,2$_a$			
Non	19,9$_b$	80,1$_b$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			3,66		0,10
Oui	16,7$_a$	83,3$_a$			
Non	7,9$_a$	92,1$_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			4,27*		0,11
Oui	23,3$_a$	76,7$_a$			
Non	12,9$_a$	87,1$_b$			
Expérience professionnelle			0,15	2, 339	0,02
5 ans et moins	15,6$_a$	84,4$_a$			
6-15 ans	13,8$_a$	86,2$_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	14,9$_a$	85,1$_a$			

Note. *$p < 0,05$. **$p < 0,01$. ***$p < 0,001$.

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Tableau 9

Proportion des c.o. évaluant les compétences en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Évaluation des compétences				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 339	
École primaire			1,21		0,06
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$8,0_a$	$92,0_a$			
École secondaire			3,20		0,10
Oui	$3,8_a$	$96,2_a$			
Non	$9,4_a$	$90,6_a$			
Postsecondaire			0,41		0,04
Oui	$5,6_a$	$94,4_a$			
Non	$8,1_a$	$91,9_a$			
Employabilité			1,52		0,07
Oui	$10,5_a$	$89,5_a$			
Non	$6,6_a$	$93,4_a$			
Réadaptation			0,40		0,03
Oui	$10,7_a$	$89,3_a$			
Non	$7,4_a$	$92,6_a$			
Organisme communautaire			1,12		0,06
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$8,0_a$	$92,0_a$			
Entreprise			25,53***		0,27
Oui	$42,9_a$	$57,1_a$			
Non	$6,2_b$	$93,8_b$			
Pratique privée			3,62		0,10
Oui	$12,7_a$	$87,3_a$			
Non	$6,2_a$	$93,8_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 339	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			1,12		0,06
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$8,0_a$	$92,0_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			1,78		0,07
Oui	$5,8_a$	$94,2_a$			
Non	$9,6_a$	$90,4_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			5,86*		0,13
Oui	$9,5_a$	$90,5_a$			
Non	$1,3_b$	$98,7_b$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			1,65		0,07
Oui	$11,7_a$	$88,3_a$			
Non	$6,8_a$	$93,2_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			0,73	2, 339	0,05
5 ans et moins	$9,2_a$	$90,8_a$			
6-15 ans	$7,8_a$	$92,2_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$6,1_a$	$93,9_a$			

Note. $*p < 0,05$. $***p < 0,001$.

d'expérience des c.o.

Principaux instruments psychométriques utilisés par les c.o.

Le Tableau 10 présente les principaux instruments psychométriques utilisés par les c.o. en termes de taux et de fréquence d'utilisation. Les résultats indiquent d'abord que les c.o. utilisent une grande diversité d'instruments psychométriques, dont plusieurs (n = 40) ne sont mentionnés que par une seule personne répondante de l'échantillon. Les dix instruments psychométriques utilisés par la plus grande proportion de c.o. sont le GROP (58,6 %), l'Inventaire des intérêts professionnels Strong (21,5 %), l'AFC Holland (18,9 %), la BGTA (18,5 %), le MBTI (17,5 %), l'Inventaire systématique des intérêts professionnels (ISIP) (13,6 %), les inventaires de personnalité NEO (p. ex. : NEO-PI-R, NEO-PI-3) (13,6 %), le test Performance Carrière (12,6 %), l'Inventaire de préférences professionnelles de Jackson (JVIS) (12,6 %) et l'IVIP (10,6 %). Ainsi, huit des principaux instruments utilisés par les c.o. sont des inventaires d'intérêts professionnels. Il importe aussi de mentionner que les questionnaires maison sont aussi utilisés par près de 10 % des personnes qui ont recours à des instruments psychométriques dans le cadre de leur pratique.

En outre, le rang des principaux instruments utilisés par les c.o. diffère légèrement à la lumière du pourcentage de c.o. qui en font une utilisation hebdomadaire (au moins une fois par semaine) et mensuelle (une à trois fois par mois). Le GROP demeure l'instrument psychométrique le plus fréquemment utilisé (40 % des c.o. sondés rapportant l'utiliser au moins une fois par mois), suivi de l'Inventaire des intérêts professionnels Strong (13,9 %), du MBTI (12,6 %), de l'AFC Holland (11,9 %), du test Performance Carrière (10,0 %), de la BGTA (8,9 %), de l'ISIP (8,6 %), des inventaires de personnalité NEO (8,3 %), du JVIS (8,3 %) et de l'IVIP (4,0 %). Ainsi, bien qu'ils occupent respectivement les 5e et 8e rangs en termes de taux d'utilisation, le MBTI et le test Performance Carrière occupent les 3e et 5e rangs en termes de fréquence d'utilisation.

Comparaison des principaux instruments utilisés par les c.o. en fonction de variables contextuelles

Les Tableaux 11 à 24 présentent la comparaison des proportions des c.o. qui utilisent les principaux instruments psychométriques rapportés en fonction du milieu de travail et du nombre d'années d'expérience. Les résultats indiquent d'abord que l'utilisation de plusieurs instruments varie en fonction du milieu de travail. En effet, les c.o. œuvrant dans les écoles secondaires utilisent davantage le GROP (68,0 % c. 54,2 %, p = 0,024, Phi = 0,13) et l'ISIP (25,8 % c. 8,3 %, p < 0,001, Phi = 0,24) que les c.o. œuvrant dans d'autres milieux. Par ailleurs, ils utilisent moins la BGTA (9,3 % c. 23,4 %, p = 0,004, Phi = 0,17), le MBTI (4,1 % c. 23,4 %, p < 0,001, Phi = 0,24) ainsi que les inventaires de personnalité NEO (3,1 % c. 19,3 %, p < 0,001, Phi = 0,22) que les autres c.o. Les c.o. qui travaillent dans des établissements postsecondaires utilisent plus le JVIS (25,0 % c. 10,8 %, p = 0,013, Phi = 0,15), mais moins le GROP que les autres c.o. (35,0 % c. 62,7 %, p < 0,001, Phi = 0,19). En ce qui concerne les c.o. œuvrant dans le secteur de l'employabilité, ils utilisent plus le GROP (69,2 % c. 54,0 %, p = 0,015, Phi = 0,14), la BGTA (31,9 % c. 12,6 %, p < 0,001, Phi = 0,23), le MBTI (27,5 % c. 12,1 %, p = 0,001, Phi = 0,19) ainsi que les Matrices de Raven (16,5 % c. 5,1 %, p = ,001, Phi = 0,19). Les c.o. œuvrant en réadaptation utilisent davantage la BGTA (41,7 % c. 16,6 %, p = 0,003, Phi = 0,18), les inventaires de personnalité NEO (33,3 % c. 12,1 %, p = 0,004, Phi = 0,17) ainsi que les échelles d'intelligence de Wechsler (25,0 % c. 6,8 %, p = 0,002, Phi = 0,18) comparativement aux c.o. œuvrant dans les autres milieux, mais utilisent moins l'Inventaire des intérêts professionnels Strong que les autres c.o. (4,2 % c. 23,4 %, p = 0,029, Phi = 0,13). En outre, les c.o. œuvrant dans des organismes communautaires utilisent plus l'AFC Holland

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Tableau 10

Taux et fréquence d'utilisation d'instruments psychométriques par les c.o. utilisateurs (N = 302)

Instruments	Fréquence d'évaluation				
	Au moins une fois par semaine N (%)	1 à 3 fois par mois N (%)	1 à quelques fois par année N (%)	Jamais N (%)	Nombre total de c.o. utilisateurs[a] N (%)
Guide de recherche d'une orientation professionnelle	69 (22,8 %)	52 (17,2 %)	56 (18,5 %)	125 (41,4 %)	177 (58,6 %)
Inventaire des intérêts professionnels Strong	15 (5,0 %)	27 (8,9 %)	23 (7,6 %)	237 (78,5 %)	65 (21,5 %)
AFC Holland	17 (5,6 %)	19 (6,3 %)	21 (7,0 %)	245 (81,1 %)	57 (18,9 %)
Batterie générale de tests d'aptitudes	8 (2,6 %)	19 (6,3 %)	29 (9,6 %)	246 (81,5 %)	56 (18,5 %)
Indicateur de types psychologiques Myers-Briggs	12 (4,0 %)	26 (8,6 %)	15 (5,0 %)	249 (82,5 %)	53 (17,5 %)
Inventaire systématique des intérêts professionnels	16 (5,3 %)	10 (3,3 %)	15 (5,0 %)	261 (86,4 %)	41 (13,6 %)
Inventaires de personnalité NEOb	12 (4,0 %)	13 (4,3 %)	16 (5,3 %)	261 (86,4 %)	41 (13,6 %)
Performance Carrière	21 (7,0 %)	9 (3,0 %)	8 (2,6 %)	264 (87,4 %)	38 (12,6 %)
Inventaire de préférences professionnelles Jackson	15 (5,0 %)	10 (3,3 %)	13 (4,3 %)	264 (87,4 %)	38 (12,6 %)
Inventaire visuel d'intérêts professionnels	2 (0,7 %)	10 (3,3 %)	20 (6,6 %)	270 (89,4 %)	32 (10,6 %)
Matrices progressives de Raven	6 (2,0 %)	12 (4,0 %)	10 (3,3 %)	274 (90,7 %)	28 (9,3 %)
Échelles d'intelligence de Wechslerc	3 (1,0 %)	5 (1,7 %)	18 (6,0 %)	276 (91,4 %)	26 (8,6 %)
Orientation par soi-même	4 (1,3 %)	11 (3,6 %)	5 (1,7 %)	282 (93,4 %)	20 (6,6 %)
Inventaire de personnalité Le Corff	3 (1,0 %)	3 (1,0 %)	6 (2,0 %)	290 (96,0%)	12 (4,0 %)
Épreuve Groupements	6 (2,0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	1 (0,3 %)	293 (97,0 %)	9 (3,0 %)
PROFIL – Inventaire d'intérêts professionnels	3 (1,0 %)	4 (1,3 %)	2 (0,7 %)	293 (97,0 %)	9 (3,0 %)
Système d'évaluation du comportement adaptatif -ABAS	0 (0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	6 (2,0 %)	294 (97,4 %)	8 (2,6 %)
Test d'associations implicites	3 (1,0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	3 (1,0 %)	294 (97,4 %)	8 (2,6 %)
Test d'habiletés intellectuelles Wonderlic	1 (0,3 %)	5 (1,7 %)	2 (0,7 %)	294 (97,4 %)	8 (2,6 %)
AFC Compétences Génériques	1 (0,3 %)	2 (0,7 %)	4 (1,3 %)	295 (97,7 %)	7 (2,3 %)
Test de rendement pour francophones	2 (0,7 %)	2 (0,7 %)	3 (1,0 %)	295 (97,7 %)	7 (2,3 %)
Inventaire de personnalité Jackson	2 (0,7 %)	0 (0 %)	4 (1,3 %)	296 (98,0 %)	6 (2,0 %)

cont'd... Taux et fréquence d'utilisation d'instruments psychométriques par les c.o. utilisateurs (N = 302)

Instruments	Fréquence d'évaluation				Nombre total de c.o. utilisateurs[a] N (%)
	Au moins une fois par semaine N (%)	1 à 3 fois par mois N (%)	1 à quelques fois par année N (%)	Jamais N (%)	
Test d'intérêts pour le travail et de personnalité	1 (0,3 %)	3 (1,0 %)	1 (0,3 %)	297 (98,3 %)	5 (1,7 %)
Test TRIMA	1 (0,3 %)	1 (0,3 %)	3 (1,0 %)	297 (98,3 %)	5 (1,7 %)
Échelle d'évaluation Conners	2 (0,7 %)	0 (0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	298 (98,7 %)	4 (1,3 %)
Inventaire psychologique de Californie	0 (0 %)	1 (0,3 %)	3 (1,0 %)	298 (98,7 %)	4 (1,3 %)
Test d'évaluation de l'attention chez l'enfant	2 (0,7 %)	1 (0,3 %)	1 (0,3 %)	298 (98,7 %)	4 (1,3 %)
Échelle de valeurs de carrière	0 (0 %)	1 (0,3 %)	2 (0,7 %)	299 (99,0 %)	3 (1,0 %)
Épreuve individuelle d'habileté mentale	0 (0 %)	0 (0 %)	3 (1,0 %)	299 (99,0 %)	3 (1,0 %)
Indice de personnalité de travail	1 (0,3 %)	0 (0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	299 (99,0 %)	3 (1,0 %)
Inventaire de dépression de Beck	0 (0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	1 (0,3 %)	299 (99,0 %)	3 (1,0 %)
Test de personnalité 10 CP	1 (0,3 %)	0 (0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	299 (99,0 %)	3 (1,0 %)
Inventaire du quotient émotionnel	0 (0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	0 (0 %)	300 (99,3 %)	2 (0,7 %)
Questionnaire de recherche sur la personnalité de Jackson	2 (0,7 %)	0 (0 %)	0 (0 %)	300 (99,3 %)	2 (0,7 %)
Test d'apprentissage et de mémoire verbale - CVLT	0 (0 %)	1 (0,3 %)	1 (0,3 %)	300 (99,3 %)	2 (0,7 %)
Test d'approche et de comportement au travail	0 (0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	0 (0 %)	300 (99,3 %)	2 (0,7 %)
Test d'habileté scolaire Otis-Lennon	0 (0 %)	0 (0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	300 (99,3 %)	2 (0,7 %)
Test d'intelligence fluide et cristallisée - CFIT	0 (0 %)	0 (0 %)	2 (0,7 %)	300 (99,3 %)	2 (0,7 %)
Test de rendement individuel Wechsler	1 (0,3 %)	0 (0 %)	1 (0,3 %)	300 (99,3 %)	2 (0,7 %)
Youth Level of Service/Case Management Inventory	2 (0,7 %)	0 (0 %)	0 (0 %)	300 (99,3 %)	2 (0,7 %)
Questionnaires maison	13 (4,3 %)	10 (3,3 %)	7 (2,3 %)	272 (90,1 %)	30 (9,9 %)

Note. Les instruments mentionnés qu'une seule fois par les personnes répondantes (n = 40) ne sont pas inclus dans ce tableau. [a] Le nombre total de c.o. utilisateurs inclut les c.o. qui utilisent l'instrument au moins une fois par semaine, une à trois fois par mois ou une à quelques fois par année. [b] Cette catégorie regroupe différents inventaires NEO (p. ex. : Inventaire de personnalité NEO-PI-R, Inventaire de personnalité NEO-PI 3). [c] Cette catégorie regroupe différentes échelles (Échelles d'intelligence de Wechsler pour adultes, Échelle d'intelligence de Wechsler pour enfants, Échelles d'intelligence de Wechsler pour la période préscolaire et primaire).

(62,5 % c. 17,1 %, $p = 0,001$, Phi = 0,19) et l'OPSM (37,5 % c. 5,3 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,22) que les autres c.o. En ce qui concerne les c.o. œuvrant au sein d'entreprises, ils utilisent davantage la BGTA (58,3 % c. 17,0 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,21) et les inventaires de personnalité NEO (58,3 % c. 11,9 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,27) que les autres c.o. Enfin, les c.o. œuvrant en pratique privée utilisent plus le MBTI (32,8 % c. 12,2 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,23) et les Matrices de Raven (16,4 % c. 6,3 %, $p = 0,010$, Phi = 0,15) que les autres c.o. Par ailleurs, ils utilisent moins le GROP (43,3 % c. 63,5 %, $p = 0,003$, Phi = 0,17) et l'ISIP (4,5 % c. 17,1 %, $p = 0,009$, Phi = 0,15) que les c.o. œuvrant dans d'autres milieux. Ces différences reflètent toutes des effets de petite taille, à l'exception de la différence relative à l'utilisation des inventaires de personnalité NEO chez les c.o. œuvrant au sein d'entreprises qui représente un effet modéré.

Quelques différences significatives reflétant des effets de petite taille sont également notées en fonction des populations desservies. Ainsi, les c.o. œuvrant auprès des enfants utilisent plus les échelles d'intelligence de Wechsler que les autres c.o. (23,1 % c. 7,6 %, $p = 0,048$, Phi = 0,12). Les c.o. qui interviennent auprès de la population adolescente utilisent davantage l'ISIP que les autres c.o. (19,2 % c. 8,3 %, $p = 0,008$, Phi = 0,16), mais utilisent par ailleurs moins le MBTI (9,0 % c. 26,3 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,23) ainsi que les inventaires de personnalité NEO (7,1 % c. 21,8 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,21) comparativement aux c.o. œuvrant auprès d'autres populations. Relativement aux c.o. œuvrant auprès des adultes âgés de 18 à 59 ans, ils utilisent davantage la BGTA (22,7 % c. 4,7 %, $p = 0,001$, Phi = 0,19), le MBTI (21,3 % c. 1,6 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,22), les inventaires de personnalité NEO (16,9 % c. 3,1 %, $p = 0,005$, Phi = 0,17) ainsi que les Matrices de Raven (10,7% c. 1,6 %, $p = 0,022$, Phi = 0,13) que les c.o. travaillant auprès d'autres populations. Par contre, ils utilisent moins l'ISIP que les autres c.o. (10,2 % c. 28,1 %, $p < 0,001$, Phi = 0,21). Quant aux c.o. œuvrant auprès des adultes plus âgés (60 ans et plus), ils utilisent davantage le MBTI (31,9 % c. 14,0 %, $p = 0,003$, Phi = 0,18), les inventaires de personnalité NEO (25,5 % c. 11,6 %, $p = 0,011$, Phi = 0,15) et les Matrices de Raven (17,0 % c. 7,0 %, $p = 0,026$, Phi = 0,13) que les c.o. œuvrant auprès d'autres populations. Ils utilisent toutefois moins l'ISIP que les autres c.o. (4,3 % c. 16,1 %, $p = 0,033$, Phi = 0,13).

En ce qui concerne l'association entre l'utilisation des principaux instruments psychométriques et l'expérience professionnelle, les résultats indiquent que les c.o. ayant 5 années et moins d'expérience utilisent plus l'Inventaire des intérêts professionnels Strong que ceux ayant de 6 à 15 années d'expérience (29,8 % c. 15,0 %, $p = 0,048$, V de Cramer = 0,15). Par ailleurs, ces derniers utilisent plus le JVIS que les c.o. moins expérimentés (18,7 % c. 6,0 %, $p = 0,032$, V de Cramer = 0,15). Ces différences montrent des effets de petite taille.

Discussion

Cet article avait comme objectif d'identifier les principaux construits évalués par les c.o. québécois ainsi que les instruments psychométriques utilisés et de les comparer en fonction de différents contextes professionnels. Vu le nombre important de résultats comparatifs, qui reflètent d'ailleurs des effets de petite taille à quelques exceptions près, il apparait judicieux de mettre l'accent sur les résultats globaux. De plus, quelques incohérences sont parfois notées entre la nature des construits psychologiques évalués de manière psychométrique, tels que rapportés par les c.o., et les instruments psychométriques effectivement utilisés. La discussion est donc orientée autour de six thèmes s'appuyant sur les résultats interprétables, c'est-à-dire pour lesquels des pistes d'explication plausibles peuvent être avancées.

Prédominance de l'évaluation psychométrique des intérêts professionnels

Les résultats montrent d'abord une prédominance quant à l'évaluation des intérêts

Tableau 11

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent le GROP en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation du GROP				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			0,02		0,01
Oui	$57{,}1_a$	$42{,}9_a$			
Non	$58{,}9_a$	$41{,}1_a$			
École secondaire			5,12*		0,13
Oui	$68{,}0_a$	$32{,}0_a$			
Non	$54{,}2_b$	$45{,}8_b$			
Postsecondaire			10,88***		0,19
Oui	$35{,}0_a$	$65{,}0_a$			
Non	$62{,}7_b$	$37{,}3_b$			
Employabilité			5,94*		0,14
Oui	$69{,}2_a$	$30{,}8_a$			
Non	$54{,}0_b$	$46{,}0_b$			
Réadaptation			2,83		0,10
Oui	$75{,}0_a$	$25{,}0_a$			
Non	$57{,}4_a$	$42{,}6_a$			
Organisme communautaire			0,05		0,01
Oui	$62{,}5_a$	$37{,}5_a$			
Non	$58{,}7_a$	$41{,}3_a$			
Entreprise			1,56		0,07
Oui	$41{,}7_a$	$58{,}3_a$			
Non	$59{,}6_a$	$40{,}4_a$			
Pratique privée			8,70**		0,17
Oui	$43{,}3_a$	$56{,}7_a$			
Non	$63{,}5_b$	$36{,}5_b$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			0,14		0,02
Oui	$53{,}8_a$	$46{,}2_a$			
Non	$59{,}1_a$	$40{,}9_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,09		0,02
Oui	59.6_a	$40{,}4_a$			
Non	$57{,}9_a$	$42{,}1_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			0,46		0,04
Oui	$53{,}2_a$	$42{,}2_a$			
Non	$62{,}5_a$	$37{,}5_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,74		0,05
Oui	$60{,}0_a$	$46{,}8_a$			
Non	$59{,}9_a$	$40{,}1_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			0,15	2, 289	0,02
5 ans et moins	$57{,}1_a$	$42{,}9_a$			
6-15 ans	$59{,}8_a$	$40{,}2_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$59{,}2_a$	$40{,}8_a$			

Note. $*p < 0{,}05$. $**p < 0{,}01$. $***p < 0{,}001$.

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Tableau 12

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent l'Inventaire des intérêts professionnels Strong en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation du STRONG				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			0,49		0,04
Oui	$14{,}3_a$	$85{,}7_a$			
Non	$22{,}2_a$	$77{,}8_a$			
École secondaire			0,00		0,00
Oui	$21{,}6_a$	$78{,}4_a$			
Non	$21{,}9_a$	$78{,}1_a$			
Postsecondaire			0,89		0,06
Oui	$27{,}5_a$	$72{,}5_a$			
Non	$20{,}9_a$	$79{,}1_a$			
Employabilité			0,76		0,05
Oui	$18{,}7_a$	$81{,}3_a$			
Non	$23{,}2_a$	$76{,}8_a$			
Réadaptation			4,77*		0,13
Oui	$4{,}2_a$	$95{,}8_a$			
Non	$23{,}4_b$	$76{,}6_b$			
Organisme communautaire			4,17		0,04
Oui	$12{,}5_a$	$87{,}5_a$			
Non	$22{,}1_a$	$77{,}9_a$			
Entreprise			1,33		0,07
Oui	$8{,}3_a$	$91{,}7_a$			
Non	$22{,}4_a$	$77{,}6_a$			
Pratique privée			0,65		0,05
Oui	$25{,}4_a$	$74{,}6_a$			
Non	$20{,}7_a$	$79{,}3_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			0,33		0,03
Oui	$15{,}4_a$	$84{,}6_a$			
Non	$22{,}1_a$	$77{,}9_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,00		0,00
Oui	$21{,}8_a$	$78{,}2_a$			
Non	$21{,}8_a$	$78{,}2_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			0,11		0,02
Oui	$22{,}2_a$	$77{,}8_a$			
Non	$20{,}3_a$	$79{,}7_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,23		0,03
Oui	$19{,}1_a$	$80{,}9_a$			
Non	$22{,}3_a$	$77{,}7_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			6,09*	2, 289	0,15
5 ans et moins	$29{,}8_a$	$70{,}2_a$			
6-15 ans	$15{,}0_b$	$85{,}0_b$			
Plus de 15 ans	$22{,}4_{a,b}$	$77{,}6_{a,b}$			

Note. *$p < 0{,}05$.

Tableau 13

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent l'AFC Holland en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation de l'AFC Holland				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			3,00		0.10
Oui	$35{,}7_a$	$64{,}3_a$			
Non	$17{,}5_a$	$82{,}5_a$			
École secondaire			1,84		0,08
Oui	$22{,}7_a$	$77{,}3_a$			
Non	$16{,}1_a$	$83{,}9_a$			
Postsecondaire			0,35		0,04
Oui	$15{,}0_a$	$85{,}0_a$			
Non	$18{,}9_a$	$81{,}1_a$			
Employabilité			0,18		0,03
Oui	$19{,}6_a$	$80{,}2_a$			
Non	$17{,}7_a$	$82{,}3_a$			
Réadaptation			0,60		0,05
Oui	$12{,}5_a$	$87{,}5_a$			
Non	$18{,}9_a$	$81{,}1_a$			
Organisme communautaire			10,71**		0,19
Oui	$62{,}5_a$	$37{,}5_a$			
Non	$17{,}1_b$	$82{,}9_b$			
Entreprise			0,02		0,01
Oui	$16{,}7_a$	$83{,}3_a$			
Non	$18{,}4_a$	$81{,}6_a$			
Pratique privée			2,88		0,10
Oui	$25{,}4_a$	$74{,}6_a$			
Non	$16{,}2_a$	$83{,}8_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			1,40		0,07
Oui	$30{,}8_a$	$69{,}2_a$			
Non	$17{,}8_a$	$82{,}2_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,18		0,03
Oui	$19{,}2_a$	$80{,}8_a$			
Non	$17{,}3_a$	$82{,}7_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			0,40		0,04
Oui	$19{,}1_a$	$80{,}9_a$			
Non	$15{,}6_a$	$84{,}4_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,45		0,04
Oui	$14{,}9_a$	$85{,}1_a$			
Non	$19{,}0_a$	$81{,}0_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			0,48	2, 289	0,04
5 ans et moins	$20{,}2_a$	$79{,}8_a$			
6-15 ans	$18{,}7_a$	$81{,}3_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$16{,}3_a$	$83{,}7_a$			

Note. $^{**}p < 0{,}01$.

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Tableau 14

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent la BGTA en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation de la BGTA				
	Oui (%)	**Non (%)**	**χ2**	***dl*, N**	**V de Cramer/Phi**
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			1,29		0,07
Oui	$7,1_a$	$92,9_a$			
Non	$19,3_a$	$80,7_a$			
École secondaire			8,50**		0,17
Oui	$9,3_a$	$90,7_a$			
Non	$23,4_b$	$76,6_b$			
Postsecondaire			0,42		0,04
Oui	$15,0_a$	$85,0_a$			
Non	$19,3_a$	$80,7_a$			
Employabilité			15,19***		0,23
Oui	$31,9_a$	$68,1_a$			
Non	$12,6_b$	$87,4_b$			
Réadaptation			9,10**		0,18
Oui	$41,7_a$	$58,3_a$			
Non	$16,6_b$	$83,4_b$			
Organisme communautaire			0,21		0,03
Oui	$12,5_a$	$87,5_a$			
Non	$18,9_a$	$81,1_a$			
Entreprise			12,95***		0,21
Oui	$58,3_a$	$41,7_a$			
Non	$17,0_b$	$83,0_b$			
Pratique privée			2,57		0,09
Oui	$25,4_a$	$74,6_a$			
Non	$16,7_a$	$83,3_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			1,08		0,06
Oui	$7,7_a$	$92,3_a$			
Non	$19,2_a$	$80,8_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			3,47		0,11
Oui	$14,7_a$	$85,3_a$			
Non	$23,3_a$	$76,7_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			10,60**		0,19
Oui	$22,7_a$	$77,3_a$			
Non	$4,7_b$	$93,5_b$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			2,98		0,10
Oui	$27,7_a$	$72,3_a$			
Non	$16,9_a$	$83,1_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			2,25	2, 289	0,09
5 ans et moins	$23,8_a$	$76,2_a$			
6-15 ans	$17,8_a$	$82,2_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$15,3_a$	$84,7_a$			

Note. ***p* < 0,01. ****p* < 0,001.

Tableau 15

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent le MBTI en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation du MBTI				
	Oui (%)	**Non (%)**	**χ2**	***dl*, N**	**V de Cramer/Phi**
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			3,00		0,10
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$17{,}8_a$	$82{,}2_a$			
École secondaire			17,07***		0,24
Oui	$4{,}1_a$	$95{,}9_a$			
Non	$23{,}4_b$	$76{,}6_b$			
Postsecondaire			2,13		0,09
Oui	$25{,}0_a$	$75{,}0_a$			
Non	$15{,}7_a$	$84{,}3_a$			
Employabilité			10,44**		0,19
Oui	$27{,}5_a$	$72{,}5_a$			
Non	$12{,}1_b$	$87{,}9_b$			
Réadaptation			1,20		0,07
Oui	$25{,}0_a$	$75{,}0_a$			
Non	$16{,}2_a$	$83{,}8_a$			
Organisme communautaire			1,68		0,08
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$17{,}4_a$	$82{,}6_a$			
Entreprise			0,00		0,00
Oui	$16{,}7_a$	$83{,}3_a$			
Non	$17{,}0_a$	$83{,}0_a$			
Pratique privée			15,62***		0,23
Oui	$32{,}8_a$	$67{,}2_a$			
Non	$12{,}2_b$	$87{,}8_b$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			2,78		0,10
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$17{,}8_a$	$82{,}2_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			15,33***		0,23
Oui	$9{,}0_a$	$91{,}0_a$			
Non	$26{,}3_b$	$73{,}7_b$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			13,83***		0,22
Oui	$21{,}3_a$	$78{,}7_a$			
Non	$1{,}6_b$	$98{,}4_b$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			8,92**		0,18
Oui	$31{,}9_a$	$68{,}1_a$			
Non	$14{,}0_b$	$86{,}0_b$			
Expérience professionnelle			2,02	2, 289	0,08
5 ans et moins	$17{,}9_a$	$82{,}1_a$			
6-15 ans	$13{,}1_a$	$86{,}9_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$20{,}4_a$	$79{,}6_a$			

Note. $^{**}p < 0{,}01$. $^{***}p < 0{,}001$.

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Tableau 16

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent l'ISIP en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation de l'ISIP				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			2,50		0,09
Oui	$28{,}6_a$	$71{,}4_a$			
Non	$13{,}5_a$	$86{,}5_a$			
École secondaire			16,10***		0,24
Oui	$25{,}8_a$	$74{,}2_a$			
Non	$8{,}3_b$	$91{,}7_b$			
Postsecondaire			0,03		0,01
Oui	$15{,}0_a$	$85{,}0_a$			
Non	$14{,}1_a$	$85{,}9_a$			
Employabilité			3,18		0,11
Oui	$8{,}8_a$	$91{,}2_a$			
Non	$16{,}7_a$	$83{,}3_a$			
Réadaptation			0,06		0,02
Oui	$12{,}5_a$	$87{,}5_a$			
Non	$14{,}3_a$	$85{,}7_a$			
Organisme communautaire			1,36		0,07
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$14{,}6_a$	$85{,}4_a$			
Entreprise			2,07		0,09
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$14{,}8_a$	$85{,}2_a$			
Pratique privée			6,75**		0,15
Oui	$4{,}5_a$	$95{,}5_a$			
Non	$17{,}1_b$	$82{,}9_b$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			0,88		0,06
Oui	$23{,}1_a$	$76{,}9_a$			
Non	$13{,}8_a$	$82{,}6_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			7,08**		0,16
Oui	$19{,}2_a$	$80{,}8_a$			
Non	$8{,}3_b$	$91{,}7_b$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			13,12***		0,21
Oui	$10{,}2_a$	$89{,}5_a$			
Non	$28{,}1_b$	$71{,}9_b$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			4,55*		0,13
Oui	$4{,}3_a$	$95{,}7_a$			
Non	$16{,}1_b$	$83{,}9_b$			
Expérience professionnelle			1,91	2, 289	0,08
5 ans et moins	$13{,}1_a$	$86{,}9_a$			
6-15 ans	$17{,}8_a$	$82{,}2_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$11{,}2_a$	$88{,}8_a$			

Note. **p* < 0,05. ***p* < 0,01. ****p* < 0,001.

Tableau 17

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent les inventaires de personnalité NEO en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation des inventaires NEO				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	$\chi2$	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			0,55		0,04
Oui	$7,1_a$	$92,9_a$			
Non	$14,2_a$	$85,8_a$			
École secondaire			14,14***		0,22
Oui	$3,1_a$	$96,9_a$			
Non	$19,3_b$	$80,7_b$			
Postsecondaire			0,52		0,04
Oui	$17,5_a$	$85,2_a$			
Non	$13,3_a$	$86,7_a$			
Employabilité			2,61		0,10
Oui	$18,7_a$	$81,3_a$			
Non	$11,6_a$	$88,4_a$			
Réadaptation			8,34**		0,17
Oui	$33,3_a$	$66,7_a$			
Non	$12,1_b$	$87,9_b$			
Organisme communautaire			1,32		0,07
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$14,2_a$	$85,8_a$			
Entreprise			20,78***		0,27
Oui	$58,3_a$	$41,7_a$			
Non	$11,9_b$	$88,1_b$			
Pratique privée			0,07		0,02
Oui	$14,9_a$	$85,1_a$			
Non	$13,5_a$	$86,5_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			0,43		0,04
Oui	$7,7_a$	$92,3_a$			
Non	$14,1_a$	$85,9_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			13,10***		0,21
Oui	$7,1_a$	$92,9_a$			
Non	$21,8_b$	$78,2_b$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			7,92**		0,17
Oui	$16,9_a$	$83,1_a$			
Non	$3,1_b$	$96,9_b$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			6,43*		0,15
Oui	$25,5_a$	$74,5_a$			
Non	$11,6_b$	$88,4_b$			
Expérience professionnelle			3,51	2, 289	0,11
5 ans et moins	$30,0_a$	$85,7_a$			
6-15 ans	$25,0_a$	$90,7_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$45,0_a$	$81,6_a$			

Note. *$p < 0,05$. **$p < 0,01$. ***$p < 0,001$.

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Tableau 18

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent le test Performance Carrière en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation du test Performance Carrière				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			2,23		0,09
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$13,8_a$	$86,2_a$			
École secondaire			0,21		0,03
Oui	$14,4_a$	$85,6_a$			
Non	$12,5_a$	$87,5_a$			
Postsecondaire			0,40		0,04
Oui	$10,0_a$	$90,0_a$			
Non	$13,7_a$	$86,3_a$			
Employabilité			2,29		0,09
Oui	$17,6_a$	$82,4_a$			
Non	$11,1_a$	$88,9_a$			
Réadaptation			0,53		0,04
Oui	$8,3_a$	$91,7_a$			
Non	$13,6_a$	$86,4_a$			
Organisme communautaire			1,25		0,07
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$13,5_a$	$86,5_a$			
Entreprise			1,90		0,08
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$13,7_a$	$86,3_a$			
Pratique privée			1,34		0,07
Oui	$9,0_a$	$91,0_a$			
Non	$14,4_a$	$85,6_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			2,06		0,08
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$13,8_a$	$86,2_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,03		0,01
Oui	$12,8_a$	$87,2_a$			
Non	$13,5_a$	$86,5_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			0,06		0,01
Oui	$12,9_a$	$87,1_a$			
Non	$14,1_a$	$85,9_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,01		0,01
Oui	$12,8_a$	$87,2_a$			
Non	$13,2_a$	$86,8_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			3,45	2, 289	0,11
5 ans et moins	$26,3_a$	$25,6_a$			
6-15 ans	$40,0_a$	$30,4_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$23,7_a$	$30,8_a$			

Tableau 19

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent le JVIS en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation du JVIS				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			0,03		0,01
Oui	$14{,}3_a$	$85{,}7_a$			
Non	$12{,}7_a$	$87{,}3_a$			
École secondaire			0,02		0,01
Oui	$12{,}4_a$	$87{,}6_a$			
Non	$13{,}0_a$	$87{,}0_a$			
Postsecondaire			6,19*		0,15
Oui	$25{,}0_a$	$75{,}0_a$			
Non	$10{,}8_b$	$89{,}2_b$			
Employabilité			1,92		0,08
Oui	$8{,}8_a$	$91{,}2_a$			
Non	$14{,}6_a$	$85{,}4_a$			
Réadaptation			1,75		0,08
Oui	$4{,}2_a$	$95{,}8_a$			
Non	$13{,}6_a$	$86{,}4_a$			
Organisme communautaire			1,21		0,07
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$13{,}2_a$	$86{,}8_a$			
Entreprise			0,22		0,03
Oui	$8{,}3_a$	$91{,}7_a$			
Non	$13{,}0_a$	$87{,}0_a$			
Pratique privée			0,06		0,01
Oui	$11{,}9_a$	$88{,}1_a$			
Non	$13{,}1_a$	$86{,}9_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			0,32		0,03
Oui	$7{,}7_a$	$92{,}3_a$			
Non	$13{,}0_a$	$87{,}0_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,13		0,02
Oui	$13{,}5_a$	$86{,}5_a$			
Non	$12{,}0_a$	$88{,}0_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			0,26		0,03
Oui	$13{,}3_a$	$86{,}7_a$			
Non	$10{,}9_a$	$81{,}9_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,24		0,03
Oui	$10{,}6_a$	$89{,}4_a$			
Non	$13{,}2_a$	$86{,}8_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			6,88*	2, 289	0,15
5 ans et moins	$6{,}0_a$	$94{,}0_a$			
6-15 ans	$18{,}7_b$	$81{,}3_b$			
Plus de 15 ans	$12{,}2_{a,b}$	$87{,}8_{a,b}$			

Note. *$p < 0{,}05$.

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Tableau 20

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent l'IVIP en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation de l'IVIP				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			0,20		0,03
Oui	$7{,}1_a$	$92{,}9_a$			
Non	$10{,}9_a$	$89{,}1_a$			
École secondaire			0,41		0,04
Oui	$12{,}4_a$	$87{,}6_a$			
Non	$9{,}9_a$	$90{,}1_a$			
Postsecondaire			1,59		0,07
Oui	$5{,}0_a$	$95{,}0_a$			
Non	$11{,}6_a$	$88{,}4_a$			
Employabilité			0,10		0,02
Oui	$9{,}9_a$	$90{,}1_a$			
Non	$11{,}1_a$	$88{,}9_a$			
Réadaptation			0,96		0,06
Oui	$16{,}7_a$	$83{,}3_a$			
Non	$10{,}2_a$	$89{,}8_a$			
Organisme communautaire			1,75		0,08
Oui	$25{,}0_a$	$75{,}0_a$			
Non	$10{,}3_a$	$89{,}7_a$			
Entreprise			1,50		0,07
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$11{,}2_a$	$88{,}8_a$			
Pratique privée			2,06		0,08
Oui	$6{,}0_a$	$94{,}0_a$			
Non	$12{,}2_a$	$87{,}8_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			0,13		0,02
Oui	$7{,}7_a$	$92{,}3_a$			
Non	$10{,}9_a$	$89{,}1_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			2,65		0,10
Oui	$13{,}5_a$	$86{,}5_a$			
Non	$7{,}5_a$	$92{,}5_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			0,00		0,00
Oui	$10{,}7_a$	$89{,}3_a$			
Non	$10{,}9_a$	$89{,}1_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			1,02		0,06
Oui	$14{,}9_a$	$85{,}1_a$			
Non	$9{,}9_a$	$90{,}1_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			0,06	2, 289	0,01
5 ans et moins	$10{,}7_a$	$89{,}3_a$			
6-15 ans	$11{,}2_a$	$88{,}8_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$10{,}2_a$	$89{,}9_a$			

Tableau 21

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent les Matrices de Raven en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation des Matrices de Raven				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			1,39		0,07
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$9,1_a$	$90,9_a$			
École secondaire			3,79		0,11
Oui	$4,1_a$	$95,9_a$			
Non	$10,9_a$	$89,1_a$			
Postsecondaire			0,78		0,05
Oui	$5,0_a$	$95,0_a$			
Non	$9,2_a$	$90,8_a$			
Employabilité			10,31**		0,19
Oui	$16,5_a$	$83,5_a$			
Non	$5,1_b$	$94,9_b$			
Réadaptation			2,48		0,09
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$9,4_a$	$90,6_a$			
Organisme communautaire			2,78		0,10
Oui	$25,0_a$	$75,0_a$			
Non	$8,2_a$	$91,8_a$			
Entreprise			1,02		0,06
Oui	$16,7_a$	$83,3_a$			
Non	$8,3_a$	$91,7_a$			
Pratique privée			6,66*		0,15
Oui	$16,4_a$	$83,6_a$			
Non	$6,3_b$	$93,7_b$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			1,29		0,07
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$9,1_a$	$90,9_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			3,56		0,11
Oui	$5,8_a$	$94,2_a$			
Non	$12,0_a$	$88,0_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			5,23*		0,13
Oui	$10,7_a$	$89,3_a$			
Non	$1,6_b$	$98,4_b$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			4,98*		0,13
Oui	$17,0_a$	$83,0_a$			
Non	$7,0_b$	$93,0_b$			
Expérience professionnelle			1,23	2, 289	0,07
5 ans et moins	$9,5_a$	$90,5_a$			
6-15 ans	$10,3_a$	$89,7_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$6,1_a$	$93,9_a$			

Note. *$p < 0,05$. **$p < 0,01$.

Tableau 22

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent les échelles d'intelligence de Wechsler en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation des échelles de Wechsler				
	Oui (%)	Non (%)	χ2	*dl*, N	V de Cramer/Phi
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			3,33		0,11
Oui	$21{,}4_a$	$78{,}6_a$			
Non	$7{,}6_a$	$92{,}4_a$			
École secondaire			0,77		0,05
Oui	$10{,}3_a$	$89{,}7_a$			
Non	$7{,}3_a$	$92{,}7_a$			
Postsecondaire			0,18		0,03
Oui	$10{,}0_a$	$90{,}0_a$			
Non	$8{,}0_a$	$92{,}0_a$			
Employabilité			0,44		0,04
Oui	$9{,}9_a$	$90{,}1_a$			
Non	$7{,}6_a$	$92{,}4_a$			
Réadaptation			9,58**		0,18
Oui	$25{,}0_a$	$75{,}0_a$			
Non	$6{,}8_b$	$92{,}3_b$			
Organisme communautaire			0,75		0,05
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$8{,}5_a$	$91{,}5_a$			
Entreprise			1,13		0,06
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$8{,}7_a$	$91{,}3_a$			
Pratique privée			0,62		0,05
Oui	$6{,}0_a$	$94{,}0_a$			
Non	$9{,}0_a$	$91{,}0_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			3,90*		0,12
Oui	$23{,}1_a$	$76{,}9_a$			
Non	$7{,}6_b$	$92{,}4_b$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,17		0,02
Oui	$7{,}7_a$	$92{,}3_a$			
Non	$9{,}0_a$	$91{,}0_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			0,12		0,02
Oui	$8{,}0_a$	$92{,}0_a$			
Non	$9{,}4_a$	$90{,}6_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,40		0,04
Oui	$10{,}6_a$	$89{,}4_a$			
Non	$7{,}9_a$	$92{,}1_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			2,12	2, 289	0,09
5 ans et moins	$8{,}3_a$	$91{,}7_a$			
6-15 ans	$5{,}6_a$	$94{,}4_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$11{,}2_a$	$88{,}8_a$			

Note. *$p < 0{,}05$. **$p < 0{,}01$.

Tableau 23

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent l'OPSM en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation de l'OPSM				
	Oui (%)	**Non (%)**	**χ2**	***dl*, N**	**V de Cramer/Phi**
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			0,98		0,06
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$6,5_a$	$93,5_a$			
École secondaire			2,46		0,09
Oui	$3,1_a$	$96,9_a$			
Non	$7,8_a$	$92,2_a$			
Postsecondaire			0,13		0,02
Oui	$7,5_a$	$92,5_a$			
Non	$6,0_a$	$94,0_a$			
Employabilité			1,49		0,07
Oui	$8,8_a$	$91,2_a$			
Non	$5,1_a$	$94,9_a$			
Réadaptation			0,19		0,03
Oui	$4,2_a$	$95,8_a$			
Non	$6,4_a$	$93,6_a$			
Organisme communautaire			13,78***		0,22
Oui	$37,5_a$	$62,5_a$			
Non	$5,3_b$	$94,7_b$			
Entreprise			0,83		0,05
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$6,5_a$	$93,5_a$			
Pratique privée			2,66		0,10
Oui	$10,4_a$	$89,6_a$			
Non	$5,0_a$	$95,0_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			0,90		0,06
Oui	$0,0_a$	$100,0_a$			
Non	$6,5_a$	$93,5_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,19		0,01
Oui	$6,4_a$	$93,6_a$			
Non	$6,0_a$	$94,0_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			3,06		0,10
Oui	$7,6_a$	$92,4_a$			
Non	$1,6_a$	$98,4_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,00		0,00
Oui	$6,4_a$	$93,6_a$			
Non	$6,2_a$	$93,8_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			3,73	2, 289	0,11
5 ans et moins	$33,3_a$	$92,9_a$			
6-15 ans	$16,7_a$	$97,2_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$50,0_a$	$90,8_a$			

Note. ***$p < 0,001$.

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Tableau 24

Proportion des c.o. qui utilisent l'IPLC en fonction de variables relatives au contexte professionnel

	Utilisation de l'IPLC				
	Oui (%)	**Non (%)**	**χ2**	***dl*, N**	**V de Cramer/Phi**
Milieu de travail				1, 289	
École primaire			0,64		0,05
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$4{,}4_a$	$95{,}6_a$			
École secondaire			1,60		0,07
Oui	$2{,}1_a$	$97{,}9_a$			
Non	$5{,}2_a$	$94{,}8_a$			
Postsecondaire			0.32		0,03
Oui	$2{,}5_a$	$97{,}5_a$			
Non	$4{,}4_a$	$95{,}6_a$			
Employabilité			3,11		0,10
Oui	$1{,}1_a$	$98{,}9_a$			
Non	$5{,}6_a$	$94{,}4_a$			
Réadaptation			1,13		0,06
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$4{,}5_a$	$95{,}5_a$			
Organisme communautaire			0,36		0,04
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$4{,}3_a$	$95{,}7_a$			
Entreprise			0,55		0,04
Oui	$8{,}3_a$	$91{,}7_a$			
Non	$4{,}0_a$	$96{,}0_a$			
Pratique privée			2,40		0,09
Oui	$7{,}5_a$	$92{,}5_a$			
Non	$3{,}2_a$	$96{,}8_a$			
Âge de la population				1, 289	
Enfants (0-12 ans)			0,59		0,05
Oui	$0{,}0_a$	$100{,}0_a$			
Non	$4{,}3_a$	$95{,}7_a$			
Adolescents (13-17 ans)			0,10		0,02
Oui	$4{,}5_a$	$95{,}5_a$			
Non	$3{,}8_a$	$96{,}2_a$			
Adultes (18-59 ans)			1,39		0,07
Oui	$4{,}9_a$	$95{,}1_a$			
Non	$1{,}6_a$	$98{,}4_a$			
Adultes (60 ans et plus)			0,70		0,05
Oui	$6{,}4_a$	$93{,}6_a$			
Non	$3{,}7_a$	$96{,}3_a$			
Expérience professionnelle			3,03	2, 289	0,10
5 ans et moins	$7{,}1_a$	$92{,}9_a$			
6-15 ans	$3{,}7_a$	$96{,}3_a$			
Plus de 15 ans	$2{,}0_a$	$98{,}0_a$			

professionnels et l'utilisation d'inventaires d'intérêts professionnels en termes de taux et de fréquence d'utilisation, ce qui est cohérent avec les constats de l'étude de Yergeau, Le Corff, Dorceus et al. (2012)[10]. Plus spécifiquement, le GROP et l'Inventaire des intérêts professionnels Strong font toujours partie des instruments psychométriques les plus utilisés par les c.o. Ainsi, le GROP demeure de loin l'inventaire d'intérêts professionnels le plus utilisé. De plus, certains des instruments les plus populaires en 2010 (p. ex. : l'OPSM) (Yergeau, Le Corff, Dorceus et al., 2012) semblent moins utilisés et céder leur place à d'autres instruments (p. ex. : l'AFC Holland, l'ISIP, le test Performance Carrière, le JVIS). Effectivement, l'AFC Holland, qui partage certaines caractéristiques avec le GROP[11], s'est frayé une place dans la pratique des c.o. À la lumière des critères de choix rapportés par les c.o. (Dorceus et al., 2021), le fait qu'il serait adapté aux besoins et caractéristiques des populations desservies, que les c.o. se considéraient compétents à l'utiliser, et que ses propriétés psychométriques seraient jugées satisfaisantes par les c.o. pourrait expliquer la popularité grandissante de l'instrument.

Place des inventaires de personnalité et des tests aptitudes

Les résultats indiquent également qu'une très grande majorité des c.o. évaluent la personnalité et qu'une certaine place est accordée à l'utilisation d'inventaires de personnalité, tels que le MBTI et les inventaires de personnalité NEO. Ces inventaires de personnalité étaient également les plus populaires en 2010 (Yergeau, Le Corff, Dorceus et al., 2012). Il est aussi intéressant de noter que bien qu'il ne se classe pas parmi les dix principaux instruments utilisés par les c.o., l'IPLC, introduit en 2014, se situe maintenant au troisième rang des inventaires de personnalité les plus utilisés par les c.o. devant le JPI-R et le 16PF, lesquels se démarquaient davantage en 2010 (Yergeau, Le Corff, Dorceus et al., 2012). Il est possible que l'IPLC qui, tout comme les inventaires NEO-PI-R et NEO-PI-3, permet de mesurer les traits de personnalité selon le modèle des cinq facteurs, offre une alternative plus économique en termes de temps, tout en offrant des normes québécoises à jour (Le Corff, 2014).

En outre, les aptitudes se classent aussi parmi les principaux construits évalués par près du tiers des c.o. De plus, la BGTA, un instrument mesurant des aptitudes cognitives, perceptuelles et psychomotrices, se place dans le palmarès des dix instruments les plus utilisés par les c.o. tout comme en 2010 (Yergeau, Le Corff, Dorceus et al., 2012). Le fait qu'il s'agit d'un des seuls instruments à mesurer les aptitudes psychomotrices pourrait expliquer sa popularité.

Connaissance des instruments psychométriques mesurant les valeurs

Des constats se dégagent aussi par rapport à l'évaluation des valeurs, un des principaux construits évalués par les c.o. En effet, alors que plus du tiers des c.o. rapportent évaluer de façon psychométrique les valeurs, peu d'instruments permettant de mesurer précisément ce construit

10 Une comparaison systématique entre les données de la présente étude et celles de Yergeau, Le Corff, Dorceus et al. (2012) n'est pas possible. D'abord, les principaux construits ont été identifiés à partir des réponses rapportées quant à la fréquence des instruments psychométriques recensés dans l'étude. De plus, les échelles utilisées pour mesurer la fréquence d'utilisation des instruments sont différentes. Dans le cas de Yergeau, Le Corff, Dorceus et al. (2012), une échelle Likert allant de « Régulièrement » à « Jamais » a été utilisée pour mesurer la fréquence d'utilisation des différents instruments psychométriques à l'étude.

11 Les deux instruments s'appuient notamment sur la typologie de Holland, présentent des normes québécoises et sont des options relativement économiques (AFC Holland, 2022; Roy, 2018). Il importe aussi de mentionner que bien que ces deux instruments sont principalement considérés comme des inventaires d'intérêts professionnels, ils mesurent aussi des éléments complémentaires basés sur la typologie RIASEC (p. ex. : traits personnels, valeurs, sentiment de compétence).

(p. ex. : Échelle de valeurs de carrière) sont mentionnés par les c.o. Tout comme en 2010 (Yergeau, Le Corff, Dorceus et al., 2012), l'utilisation d'instruments permettant d'évaluer les valeurs semble restreinte. Cela révèle ainsi un potentiel de formation portant sur de tels instruments, tels que l'Échelle intégrative de valeurs de travail (ÉIVT ; Busque-Carrier et Le Corff, 2022) nouvellement introduite sur le marché québécois afin d'évaluer les valeurs de travail. Dans une perspective critique, permettant d'ailleurs de répondre à un besoin de formation de certains c.o. (Dorceus et al., 2021), il pourrait être intéressant de mettre en relation les quelques instruments qui visent à mesurer les valeurs afin de faire un choix éclairé.

Contextes professionnels déterminants

Bien que le nombre d'années d'expérience professionnelle soit associé à l'approche d'évaluation psychométrique privilégiée par les c.o. (Dorceus et al., 2023), les construits psychologiques évalués par les c.o. ainsi que les instruments psychométriques qu'ils utilisent varient peu selon l'expérience professionnelle. Tel qu'observé dans d'autres études québécoises ou nord-américaines portant précisément sur les pratiques d'évaluation psychométrique (p. ex. : Dorceus et al., 2020; Hunsley et al., 2013; Jacobson et al., 2015), les milieux de travail et les populations desservies apparaissent plus déterminants que le nombre d'années d'expérience professionnelle quant à la nature des construits évalués et des instruments psychométriques utilisés par les c.o.

Association entre les milieux de travail, les construits évalués et les instruments utilisés

En effet, les milieux sont associés à l'évaluation de certains construits psychologiques et à l'utilisation de certains instruments psychométriques vu le contexte de travail et les populations desservies. En cohérence avec les principaux constats de Dorceus et al. (2014), c'est sans surprise que les c.o. œuvrant dans les écoles secondaires évaluent davantage les intérêts professionnels que les autres c.o., notamment à l'aide du GROP et de l'ISIP. À l'inverse, les c.o. du secondaire seraient moins portés à utiliser des instruments mesurant les aptitudes (p. ex. : BGTA) et la personnalité (p. ex. : MBTI, inventaires de personnalité NEO), ce qui caractériserait davantage la pratique des c.o. œuvrant dans d'autres milieux de travail, un constat également partagé par Dorceus et al. (2014). Ainsi, l'évaluation psychométrique des intérêts professionnels répondrait davantage aux besoins en matière d'orientation des élèves de niveau secondaire (p. ex. : connaissance de soi, identification de métiers et professions qui les intéressent).

En ce qui concerne les c.o. du secteur de l'employabilité, ils se démarquent sur le plan de l'évaluation d'une diversité de construits psychologiques (intérêts, personnalité, aptitudes, intelligence) et de l'utilisation de différents instruments psychométriques (p. ex : GROP, BGTA, MBTI, Matrices de Raven). Cela pourrait s'expliquer par la diversité des populations auprès desquelles ce groupe de c.o. intervient (p. ex., jeunes adultes, travailleurs et travailleuses expérimentés, personnes sans emploi, personnes retraitées) ainsi que la variété des activités professionnelles susceptibles d'être réalisées dans ce secteur (p. ex. : démarche d'orientation ou de réorientation, insertion en emploi, adaptation au travail) (OCCOQ, 2023).

Pour ce qui est des c.o. qui travaillent au sein d'entreprises, faisant partie du secteur organisationnel, deux particularités reflétant des effets modérés émergent des analyses. D'abord, l'évaluation des compétences caractériserait davantage ce groupe de c.o. comparativement à ceux œuvrant dans d'autres milieux. En effet, l'accompagnement de personnes dans le cadre d'un bilan de compétences est l'une des activités professionnelles les plus fréquentes chez les c.o. organisationnels en entreprise (Busque-Carrier et al., 2024). Ensuite, les inventaires de personnalité NEO seraient davantage mobilisés par ces derniers, ce qui est cohérent avec le fait que ces instruments sont généralement utilisés dans le cadre d'activités professionnelles liées à l'évaluation de potentiel, notamment à des fins de sélection (Boudrias et al., 2008), les activités les plus fréquentes chez les c.o. organisationnels en entreprise (Busque-Carrier et al., 2024).

Association entre les populations desservies, les construits évalués et les instruments utilisés

Le fait d'intervenir auprès de certaines populations semble être associé à l'évaluation plus fréquente de certains construits et l'utilisation accrue de certains instruments psychométriques. À cet égard, l'évaluation de la personnalité à l'aide d'inventaires tels que le MBTI et les inventaires de personnalité NEO caractériserait davantage la pratique des c.o. œuvrant auprès des adultes (18 ans et plus) comparativement aux c.o. œuvrant auprès de la population adolescente qui se différencient par une utilisation moindre de ces instruments. Ce constat converge en partie avec des résultats issus de l'étude de Dorceus et al. (2020) qui montraient que les c.o. œuvrant principalement auprès d'adultes âgés de 60 ans et plus était plus susceptibles d'évaluer la personnalité et d'autres construits plutôt que les intérêts. Il faut toutefois mentionner que cette analyse s'appuyait strictement sur la nature du principal construit psychologique évalué par les c.o. plutôt que les cinq principaux construits évalués, tels qu'examinés dans la présente étude. Dans le cadre de la présente étude, certains parallèles peuvent être faits avec les constats en lien avec les milieux de travail. Ainsi, l'utilisation moindre des inventaires de personnalité par les c.o. œuvrant auprès de la population adolescente est conséquente avec les constats présentés plus haut par rapport aux c.o. œuvrant dans les écoles secondaires. De plus, tel que mentionné plus haut, les c.o. semblent mobiliser davantage le MBTI dans le secteur de l'employabilité et les inventaires de personnalité NEO dans le secteur organisationnel vu leurs fonctions principales. Ainsi, la population adolescente n'est vraisemblablement pas celle visée par l'utilisation de ces inventaires.

Bien que ce ne soit pas une pratique dominante chez les c.o. québécois (Yergeau et al., 2012), l'utilisation de tests d'intelligence semble marquer davantage la pratique des c.o. qui interviennent auprès des enfants (p. ex. : échelles d'intelligence de Wechsler) et des adultes (p. ex. : Matrices de Raven). L'utilisation accrue d'un test tel que l'Échelle d'intelligence de Wechsler pour enfants et adolescents ne semble pas caractéristique des c.o. qui interviennent dans les écoles primaires. Il est possible que son utilisation par les c.o. œuvrant auprès des enfants serve à l'évaluation du retard mental, activité pour laquelle les c.o. sont habiletés (Office des professions du Québec, 2021). Quant à l'utilisation d'un instrument tel que les Matrices de Raven auprès d'une population adulte, elle pourrait s'inscrire dans des pratiques d'évaluation de potentiel, notamment la sélection de personnel (Boudrias et al., 2008).

Enfin, il apparait que les c.o. œuvrant auprès des adultes âgés de 18 à 59 ans évalueraient davantage les aptitudes, notamment à l'aide de la BGTA, et les compétences. Considérant que cette population constitue une majeure partie de la population active, l'évaluation de ces construits s'inscrit possiblement dans le cadre de services d'orientation, d'employabilité ou une démarche de sélection de personnel visant à mesurer leur capacité à réussir des activités professionnelles.

Conclusion

Les résultats de la présente étude ont permis de brosser un portrait des construits évalués par les c.o. québécois ainsi que des instruments psychométriques utilisés. Dans une visée de développement professionnel et au regard des besoins de formation en matière d'évaluation psychométrique soulevés par Dorceus et al. (2021), il pourrait être intéressant de s'assurer que l'offre de formation initiale et continue en psychométrie couvre les principaux construits et soit principalement orientée autour de l'évaluation psychométrique des intérêts professionnels, de la personnalité, des valeurs, des aptitudes, de l'intelligence et des compétences. Il serait aussi important de s'assurer que l'offre de formation soit conçue autour des principaux instruments mobilisés, incluant les nouveaux instruments qui prennent de plus en plus de place dans la pratique (p. ex. : AFC Holland, IPLC). L'offre de formation devrait également permettre de couvrir une diversité d'instruments psychométriques, ce qui répondrait d'ailleurs à un besoin mis en évidence par le tiers des c.o. répondants de l'étude de Dorceus et al. (2021). Par ailleurs, au-delà de la considération de la popularité des instruments psychométriques, il serait important de s'assurer que la formation offerte propose un regard critique par rapport aux instruments couverts, ce qui permettrait de répondre à un besoin de formation exprimé par plus de 20 % des c.o., selon Dorceus et al. (2021). L'évaluation critique des instruments psychométriques pourrait notamment porter sur leur fidélité et leur validité, la qualité de leurs normes, leur capacité à répondre à des objectifs spécifiques (p. ex. : prédire la satisfaction professionnelle) et leur validité interculturelle.

En outre, considérant la place de l'évaluation psychométrique des valeurs dans la pratique des c.o., mais de l'utilisation très restreinte d'instruments psychométriques permettant de mesurer précisément ce construit, il apparait pertinent d'offrir de la formation sur les instruments psychométriques permettant d'évaluer les valeurs, tels que l'ÉIVT (Busque-Carrier et Le Corff, 2022). Évidemment, une perspective critique serait à privilégier afin d'amener les c.o. à faire des choix éclairés.

Enfin, vu les différences observées selon les milieux de travail et les populations desservies, il serait pertinent d'orienter l'offre de formation en fonction de ces contextes professionnels. Plus précisément, les formations offertes sur les différents instruments psychométriques pourraient davantage tenir compte des particularités des contextes de travail et des caractéristiques des populations desservies dans la présentation des applications des instruments psychométriques.

Limites de l'étude

En conclusion, il importe de soulever certaines limites méthodologiques de l'étude. D'abord, malgré la mise en place d'une mesure incitative (tirage au sort) recommandée par plusieurs experts (p. ex. : Dillman et al., 2014), le faible taux de réponse limite la représentativité de l'échantillon à l'étude (Beaud, 2016). Ce faible taux de réponse pourrait s'expliquer par l'effet de la longueur du questionnaire, le caractère impersonnel de l'invitation à participer à l'enquête (courriel non personnalisé avec le nom du destinataire) et un manque d'intérêt potentiel par rapport au thème de l'enquête (Blais et Durand, 2016; Dillman et al., 2014). En ce sens, il est possible que les c.o. qui utilisent peu ou pas d'instruments psychométriques dans leur pratique aient été proportionnellement moins nombreux à participer à l'étude. Dans le cadre de futures enquêtes par questionnaire ciblant des groupes professionnels, il serait donc important de réduire encore plus la longueur du questionnaire et vérifier la possibilité de personnaliser les courriels d'invitation par le biais des ordres professionnels pour la sollicitation de leurs membres afin d'optimiser le taux de réponse. De plus, un plus grand échantillon permettrait possiblement d'augmenter l'occurrence de certaines catégories de variables (p. ex. : milieux de travail). À ce sujet, il faut rappeler que la présente étude ne permet pas d'établir de constats par rapport aux spécificités du secteur de la santé et des services sociaux, ainsi que de la fonction publique, vu leur exclusion des analyses comparatives se rapportant aux milieux de travail. Il importe aussi de noter que de multiples analyses ont été réalisées sur l'échantillon, ce qui augmente la probabilité d'erreurs de type I (Howell, 2012).

En outre, bien que les résultats de la présente étude permettent de dégager des tendances générales dans l'évaluation des construits et l'utilisation des instruments psychométriques par les c.o. du Québec, ils ne tiennent pas compte de la diversité des besoins des populations desservies, au-delà de leur âge, dans les différents milieux de travail ainsi que des spécificités culturelles des populations pouvant influencer le choix des instruments utilisés. À cet égard, il est possible que certains instruments perçus comme étant exempts de biais culturels (p. ex. : Matrices de Raven), une hypothèse d'ailleurs remise en question par des chercheuses et chercheurs (Gonthier, 2022), soient privilégiés par les c.o. œuvrant auprès d'individus issus de l'immigration. Il importe également de mentionner que des facteurs externes, tels que la disponibilité des ressources, viennent possiblement teinter la comparaison entre les différents contextes professionnels.

Enfin, quoique le présent article fournit le portrait plus récent des construits évalués et instruments psychométriques mobilisés par les c.o. québécois, on peut penser qu'il y a eu quelques développements depuis la collecte de données. Des changements majeurs ne sont pas notés entre 2017 et 2024 en ce qui concerne les instruments utilisés puisqu'il n'y a pas eu de publication de nouveaux instruments venant transformer le marché. Toutefois, il est possible que les parts de marché de certains instruments, dont la popularité grandissante a été soulignée dans la discussion, aient changé (p. ex. : AFC Holland, IPLC). Concernant la nature des évaluations, il pourrait y avoir eu une augmentation du testing en ligne et une accélération de la disparition du testing papier-crayon (IRP Canada, communication personnelle, 15 mars 2024), notamment à la suite de la pandémie. Pour ce qui est des contextes d'évaluation, la pénurie de main-d'œuvre a entraîné une diminution du nombre d'évaluations effectuées à des fins de sélection de personnel et une augmentation des évaluations faites pour le développement de compétences en vue de la formation et de la promotion à l'interne dans les organisations et entreprises (IRP Canada, communication personnelle, 15 mars 2024).

Pistes de recherches futures

Ainsi, dans le cadre de recherches futures, il serait pertinent de poursuivre ce type d'enquêtes indépendantes sur les pratiques des c.o. en matière d'évaluation psychométrique afin d'en suivre l'évolution, et également dans une visée de développement professionnel au regard des pratiques les plus actuelles. Compte tenu du fait que la présente étude sur la fréquence d'utilisation des instruments psychométriques ne reflète pas nécessairement leur efficacité ou leur pertinence au regard des objectifs d'évaluation des c.o., il serait intéressant d'examiner l'efficacité des instruments psychométriques privilégiés par les c.o. Vu l'exclusion des analyses concernant les secteurs de la santé et des services sociaux et de la fonction publique, l'étude des pratiques propres à ces domaines serait aussi utile. Étant donné les spécificités culturelles des populations pouvant influencer le choix des instruments utilisés, il serait également indiqué d'explorer la nature des instruments privilégiés auprès de ces populations et dans quelle mesure ces instruments sont adaptés aux caractéristiques de ces dernières. Enfin, au regard du contexte de pénurie de main-d'œuvre et des changements observés quant au type d'évaluations réalisées au sein des organisations et entreprises, notamment la hausse des évaluations visant le développement de compétences, il serait opportun d'étudier spécifiquement les pratiques en matière d'évaluation psychométrique des c.o. œuvrant dans le secteur organisationnel.

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Employer Branding: Through the Lens of Career Growth and Organizational Attractiveness

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Abstract

This study delves into the aspect of employer branding, emphasizing career growth opportunities and organizational attractiveness. It evaluated how word-of-mouth and social media influence using the signalling theory paradigm. To strengthen the proposed model, the study conducted an in-depth interview with HR managers in the IT industry. The study applied the SORA (Summary Oral Reflective Analytics) to uncover viewpoints on employee's perceptions and expectations of the organization. It reveals the interdependence of social media and word-of-mouth, highlighting their combined impact on career growth opportunities and organizational attractiveness. The managerial implications highlight the need for firms to align their employer branding initiatives with the values and expectations of prospective employees. Organizations can sharpen their competitive edge through appealing narratives about career growth opportunities shared by employees as a signal through social media. This study also recognizes the vital part of this interconnectedness of career growth opportunities perceived and shared by employees in determining an organization's achievement in the competitive IT landscape.

Keywords: Career growth opportunities, Employer branding, Organizational Attractiveness Signalling theory, Social Identity Theory, Word of mouth, Use of social media,

In today's era of well-advanced technology, a rapidly changing business environment faces corporate challenges in meeting talented executives (Chhabra & Sharma, 2014a). Ambler & Barrow (1996) define an Employer brand as a "package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by employment." Employer branding is now regarded as a desirable strategic tool. The development of an effective employer brand is anticipated to provide a number of advantages, such as reducing employee turnover and raising employee satisfaction. (Saini, Rai, & Chaudhary, 2014). As a result, many organizations use a variety of tactics to keep their talent pool strong. Among these strategies seems employer branding (EB), which is essential for drawing in, nurturing, and retaining talent (Biswas & Suar, 2016). Employer branding expresses the organizational values to prospective and current employees by setting it apart from its competitors. In an era of exemplary connection and information accessibility, the importance of employer branding has grown, solidifying it as a pillar of corporate strategy (Harvey, Beaverstock, & Li, 2019). In the past, goods and services have dominated an organization's reputation. However, when people's talent is often regarded as the most valuable asset in today's workplace, the emphasis has switched to how companies are seen (Kowalkowski, Gebauer, & Oliva, 2017). Consequently, this trend is emphasized by the realization that acquiring and maintaining great personnel is a long-term relationship rather than a one-time transaction (Gonzales, 2016). Employer branding is a comprehensive concept that encompasses several crucial factors. These include the formulation of a compelling Employee Value Proposition (EVP) that describes what employees may expect in terms of career growth, workplace culture, and overall experience. It also entails effectively communicating these characteristics across numerous platforms, such as social media, company websites, and word of mouth (Keyzer, Dens, & Pelsmacker, 2019).

However, a great employer brand appeals to individuals looking for more than merely a job; they want a rewarding and enriching career (Alonso, Parsons, & Pirani, 2022). Furthermore, a strong employer brand boosts employee happiness and retention, lowering turnover costs and fostering a workforce that is involved in the organization's long-term success (Maurya & Agarwal, 2018a). The relevance of employer branding in the digital era has been heightened by technical improvements and the prevalence of social media. Social media platforms are great tools for promoting the employer brand, allowing firms to engage with a global audience and exhibit their workplace culture in real-time (M. Ewing, Men, & O'Neil, 2019). The changing landscape of employer branding influences how organizations present themselves in the competitive talent market as more and more companies realize the mutual benefits of a strong employer brand, talent acquisition and employee satisfaction (Maurya & Agarwal, 2018a).

The primary objective of this study is to establish the relationship between organizational attractiveness and career growth opportunities. Moreover, in-depth interviews with IT HR managers were conducted to provide additional facts regarding what was convicted to support this connection. As a result, SORA (Summary Oral Reflective Analytics) is employed as an analytical tool and a conversational approach to learn more about its organizational strength. The research questions of the study is as follows:

> RQ1: What is the influence of employer branding on the perceived career growth opportunities within an organization?
>
> RQ2: What key elements contribute to a conceptual framework linking employer branding with career growth and organizational attractiveness?
>
> RQ3: What strategic recommendations can be proposed for organizations to enhance their employer branding, ensuring a positive impact on both career growth and organizational attractiveness?

The study is organized methodically, commencing with an introduction to provide context. Subsequently, the literature review explores existing theories and research in detail. The methodology section outlines the research design, emphasizing in-depth interviews. Moving forward, the proposed framework is presented, and a discussion section delves into the findings derived from the interviews. The study concludes by summarizing key insights and implications in the conclusions.

Literature Review

Signaling Theory

The fundamentals of signalling theory propose a signaller, a signal, and a receiver. Signaller has better insider information that is not publicly available or has not reached the receiver (Spencer, 1973). In order for the receiver to receive information based on the signals from the signallers, essential functions must be used in transmitting signals (Connelly, Certo, Ireland, & Reutzel, 2011). However, signaling to the outside market is essential in increasing the competition in the employment market (Wilden, Gudergan, & Lings, 2010). As such, organizations periodically employ high-cost signalling to convey information to the receiver, draw in talent for the employees, and present a professional corporate image to outsiders. For example, employers should be aware of the elements that impact organizational attractiveness. Strategic management and Entrepreneurship increasingly use signaling theory to better understand how information is shared between two parties. Signal cost, or the ability of some firms to absorb the expenses of conveying positive information better than others, is a key challenge in signaling theory. In contrast, some businesses can be motivated to use false signaling because they lack the resources or the desire to invest in such expenditures (Carlini, Grace, France, & Lo Iacono, 2019a). The signaling theory is frequently used to explain how information or signals about an organization's characteristics are revealed during recruitment activities, which may influence potential candidates attracted to the organization. The many recruitment-related activities and information viewed by applicants are perhaps unclear about the organizational traits, recruiter characteristics, or behavior (Celani & Singh, 2011). Signaling through integrated communication channels in employer branding can aid in bridging information asymmetry and provide employees with a consistent message. Consequently, when communications are inconsistent, employees may perceive them negatively, which could diminish their motivation, commitment, and level of satisfaction. Employee attraction results from employer brand signals influencing employees' feelings about their company (Deepa & Baral, 2022).

Employer Branding

Employer branding was initially introduced in the early 1980s to help companies build a more profound sense of employee loyalty towards the brand they work for, leading to enhanced innovations in the talent acquisition market (Maurya & Agarwal, 2018b). According to Ambler and Barrow (1996), the major factors in employer branding are classified as "economical, functional, and psychological benefits"; Financial rewards and compensation comprise economic aspects. Perhaps flexible work arrangements, open communication, health and safety issues, and career growth opportunities are the functional aspects (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul, & Casuneanu, 2020). In addition to a feeling of belonging and the meaning of work, psychological factors are intimately related to organizational values and culture. Employer branding has become one of organizations' key tactics to retain and recruit qualified employees, place them in the right roles within the organization to achieve desired goals, and remain viable in competitive business environments (Chawla, 2019). As a result, the employer brand is what an individual thinks of the organization as a workplace and the benefits it offers prospective and potential employees (Dabirian, Berthon, & Kietzmann, 2019). Through the strategy of employer branding, an employer brand is developed and shared with internal and external stakeholders. However, job applicants were attracted to organizations with certain employer features, such as organizational culture, pay, and brand recognition (Arasanmi & Krishna, 2019).

The concept of employer branding comes from marketing. It assists firms in focusing on how they may promote themselves in their marketplace as an employer of current employees and a potential employer of recruits (M. T. Ewing, Pitt, Bussy, & Berthon, 2002). Indeed, it encompasses the organization's guiding principles, rules, and regulations to attract, motivate, and retain the firm's present and potential employees. According to these definitions, employer branding entails promoting a distinct understanding of what makes a brand unique and desirable as an employer, both inside and outside the organization (K. Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). From the prior studies, organizations with a strong employer brand will attract more skilled and talented candidates (Carlini, Grace, France, & Lo Iacono, 2019b; Chhabra & Sharma, 2014b; Weske, Ritz, Schott, & Neumann, 2020). Therefore, Employer branding helps an organization hire not only talented employees but also increases its productivity and competitiveness (Tanwar & Prasad, 2016)

Career Growth Opportunities

The advancement of career goals, development of professional abilities, and rewards (bonuses, appreciations) are the aspects of career growth opportunities (i.e., promotion speed and remuneration growth). However, it comprises of employees' attempts to progress in their career goals and upskill their knowledge. Moreover, organizations reward such efforts through promotions and compensation (Kumari & Saini, 2018). Generally, there is a link between the attitude and behaviour of the employees and the organization to which they belong to and a mutual effort between employees and organizations (Weer & Greenhaus, 2020). Hence, the possibility for career advancement is also increased by a pleasant workplace where employees can learn and advance their knowledge and experience. (Um-e-Rubbab et al., 2022). Moreover, career growth opportunities is also referred to as a "career ladder," and it pertains to employees' perceptions of their opportunities for growth and progress within an organization (Biswakarma, 2016). Employees prefer to work for supportive, compassionate companies that promote work-life balance, professional growth, career advancement opportunities, recognition, the most outstanding possible pay and benefits, and financial security and stability (Srivastava, Tripathi, & Rajlaxmi, 2021). Studies indicate that career development opportunities are widely identified as vital employment resources that create favourable organizational outcomes, such as more substantial organizational commitment and lower turnover intention (Hanaysha, 2016; Kumar, Jauhari, Rastogi, & Sivakumar, 2018; Nawaz & Pangil, 2016).

Organizational Attractiveness

Employer branding is associated with attracting, engaging, and retaining the right talents who professionally match organizational values (Maheshwari, Gunesh, Lodorfos, & Konstantopoulou, 2017). Throughout every organization across the world, selecting the right talents is a challenging task (Liu, Keeling, & Papamichail, 2016). Empirically, some studies show that potential employees are attracted in the early stages of recruitment by seeing the pay, opportunities, location, and flexible work arrangements (Kashive & Khanna, 2017a). However, organizational attractiveness mostly depends upon jobseekers' beliefs about the organization's attributes, such as organizational image, brand, and reputation (Reis, Braga, & Trullen, 2017). Indeed, studies reveal that job peculiarity and organizational characteristics are prominent factors that govern organizational attractiveness (Kim, Mori, & Rahim, 2018). Mostly, jobseekers perceive a psychological outlook toward the organization, which influences them to be part of it (Guillot-Soulez, Saint-Onge, & Soulez, 2019). In order to successfully recruit and retain highly competent people, it is thought to be imperative to create an attractive organizational environment. Essentially, applicants' inclination to pursue and accept employment offers within an organization measures organizational attractiveness (McNab & Johnston, 2010). Furthermore, an organization engages in person-organization (P-O) fit to promote organizational attractiveness. This is another factor influencing organizational attractiveness (Potgieter & Drive, 2018). However, one of the most efficient techniques for increasing the number of qualified applicants is to increase the number of applications in the application pool. Additionally, employers can increase attraction to the organization by improving working conditions, and other HRM practices, such as high-performance work systems, may be considered an organizational trait (e.g., improving salaries and benefits, providing flexible schedules, and career advancement opportunities) (Obeidat, 2019).

Word-of-mouth

Word of mouth is defined as "informal communication between the two parties pertaining to assess personal possessions." It happens in the context of the knowledge and predictive insights of the service users (Ring, Tkaczynski, & Dolnicar, 2016). Although the core of the WOM (word-of-mouth) behaviour is rational, based on online or offline or one-to-one, one-to-many, many–to–to–many forms (Karjaluoto, Munnukka, & Kiuru, 2016). Moreover, in an organization, positive word of mouth (WOM) is a dominant point of sale for employer branding (Charbonnier-Voirin, Poujol, & Vignolles, 2017). Prior research indicates that rather than experts' opinions, advertisements, books, movies, and news, word of mouth (WOM) positively influences organizational attractiveness (Jalilvand, Salimipour, Elyasi, & Mohammadi, 2017). However, in this digital era, word of mouth (WOM) is a dynamic tool that employees use to express their thoughts and experiences to the applicants (Mehrad & Mohammadi, 2017). Such sources provide well-established general information about convenient brands (Kashive & Khanna, 2017b). Indeed, positive and negative word of mouth (WOM) would significantly affect the receiver's perspectives (Li et al., 2018). Thus, increasing the credibility and significance of word-of-mouth advertising by existing employees can help make an organization more attractive. However, word-of-mouth has the capacity to transmit both positive and negative information (Uen, Ahlstrom, Chen, & Liu, 2015). WOM (word-of-mouth) is nine times more effective at achieving a high reaction from the target audience than other channels of information, since it is low cost, trustworthy, delivered quickly, and has a high delivery rate (Ahamad, 2019).

Social Identity Theory

The Social Identity Theory proposed by Tajfel and Tuner in 1979 consists of cognitive and affective perspectives. Cognitive perspective consists of self-image and personal identity, and the affective perspective consists of emotional attachment (Chiang, Xu, Kim, Tang, & Manthiou, 2017). According to this theory, it is "a collection of individuals who see themselves as members of the same social category" (Dutot, 2020). Moreover, this theory provides that an organization would seem to change the attitude of the individuals through self-identity towards the organization (Ma et al., 2021). According to this theory, people desire a positive sense of self-worth and belonging to a social group, which satisfies this desire (Schmalz, Colistra, & Evans, 2015). As per the theory, the necessary components of the Social Identity Theory are cognitive, evaluative, and affective dimensions. The self-categorization process is a part of the cognitive dimension of social identity, which is defined as an individual's consciousness of membership. This evaluation element stands for collective self-esteem, and the affective component entails a commitment to this identification on an emotional level (Wang, 2017). Social identity can result via social constructivism, in which individuals establish verbal and nonverbal communication involving the social propagation of common ideas and concepts (Fujita, Harrigan, & Soutar, 2018). Social media has given individuals a big platform to share their identities. However, individuals are more compelled to engage with a business that enables them to climb the social advancement ladder (Helal, Ozuem, & Lancaster, 2018). Particularly in the social media setting, having the required social media abilities to interact correctly with similar individuals would increase one's social identity and promote intimacy (Yoganathan, Osburg, & Bartikowski, 2021). According to Social Identity Theory, influencing an individual's self-concept toward an organization might also change their behaviour (Ma et al., 2021).

Use of Social Media

Social media is defined as a set of internet-based apps that allow user content creation and exchange based on Web 2.0’s ideological and technological basis (Piric, Masmontet, & Martinovic, 2018). According to research, using social media for human resources helps businesses establish their employer brands and recruit the best personnel (Kaur, Sharma, Kaur, & Sharma, 2015). However, an essential step in introducing and communicating the brand to website visitors is to have a user-friendly and inviting accessible website that provides open information about the organization's internal environment, culture, vision, goal, values, and hiring processes (Cascio & Graham, 2016). Similarly, the web is the foundation of social networking sites, which offer features like creating public profiles, networking with others who share interests, and communicating with them (Kashive, Khanna, & Bharthi, 2020). Therefore, the influence of social media popularity results in more transparency. It is being used more and more frequently to promote job openings and build a positive employer brand (Kargas & Tsokos, 2020). Generally, social media is increasingly becoming a popular avenue for communicating details about the employer brand, particularly among millennial (Kucherov & Zhiltsova, 2021).

Methodology

Research Design

This study was based on the literature on career growth opportunities and organizational attractiveness from Google Scholar, EBSCO, and Proquest. The proposed model is based on the future scope from the literature reviews. By conducting the in-depth interview, the suggested model can enhance the social media and word-of-mouth moderating and mediation function between career advancement and organizational attractiveness. The authors used an interview-based approach to determine the parameters and actual relationship through a detailed evaluation of themes and facts (Haddock-Millar, Sanyal, & Müller-Camen, 2016). This study involved six one-to-one interviews with the senior manager, system analyst, senior software engineer, talent and acquisition manager, data analyst, and senior executive. As part of this study, six IT Indian companies were identified and analyzed. The companies were selected on three criteria: (1) organizational size, (2) mission, vision, and values, and (3) organization focus. Firms are chosen from Information Technology (IT) services.

Data Collection

Each interview lasted 30 to 45 minutes and was conducted face-to-face. Anonymity and confidentiality were promised to each client. The interview with the respondents was conducted in English. All interviews were recorded with the respondent's consent. Following that, a word document with the transcription of the recorded interviews was prepared. This study used secondary sources such as literature, reports, and white papers to further enhance the company's understanding and derive meaningful information from the interviews. The author then analyzed the interviews in light of the parameters of the study questions, and significant findings were obtained as a result. Although the story's details are accurate, each company is referred to by its proxy name according to the participant's agreement to maintain confidentiality.

The objective of the collecting semi-structured interview:

1. To understand the relationship between career growth opportunities and organizational attractiveness.
2. To identify the response from the semi-structured interview regarding the mediating and moderation role of word of mouth and the use of social media between career growth and organizational attractiveness.
3. To provide in-depth insights into these responses and the future implications of these study.

The detailed interview protocol for this study is presented in table 1.

Table 1
Guidelines of the Interview Process

S.NO	Steps
1	Research focus and scope
2	Identify the individuals
3	Frameof research questions
4	Identify the proper research instruments and protocols, including an in-depth interview.
5	Identifies appropriate participants of verticle and a horizontal slice of human resource management
6	Data collection through the semi-structure interview
7	Data recording and transcript
8	Data analysis
9	Literature comparison
10	Article development

This study covers six one-on-one interviews with managers, system analysts, and delivery managers. Table 2 presents the job role, their experience, and data collection methods.

Table 2

Overview of Respondents

Job Role	Years of Experience in the Present Organization	Data Collected Methodology
Senior Manger	8 years	Semi-structured interview
System Analyst	7 years	Semi-structured interview
Senior Software Engineer	5 years	Semi-structured interview
Talent & Acquisition Manger	11 years	Semi-structured interview
Data Analyst	4 years	Semi-structured interview
Senior Exectutive	12 years	Semi-structured interview

Table 3

Interview Process

1	Introduce the participants and interviewer.
2	Research method is explained.
3	Explain the research process and its objectives in detail.
4	Discuss research outcomes ethical issues and obtain consent.
5	Describe the interview's format.

The interview started with a thorough overview of the organization, the employees, employee stickiness, factors leading to it, and its demands. The interviews then turned to the particular subjects covered in the literature. The duration of each one-on-one interview was 25 to 45 minutes. The interviews that followed were manually recorded and transcribed (Haddock-Millar et al., 2016; Hong et al., 2022).

Table 3 represents the interview process used in this study as

As part of this study, six Indian IT companies were identified and analyzed. The companies were selected on three criteria:

1. Organizational size,
2. Vision, Mission, and Values, and
3. Organizational focus.

Table 4 represents the summaries of companies included in the study.

Data Analysis

The researcher in this study examined all of the data gathered using a qualitative analytic method called Summary Oral Reflective analytic (SORA). SORA uses an interactive method that seeks to maintain the context and depth of the data. It was first created by nurses and was detailed by Thompson & Barrett (1997). Using this approach, the researcher actively reflects verbally on new ideas, interpretations, and themes that emerge from the data. Compared to other methods of qualitative analysis that primarily focus on reading transcriptions of participant extracts, potentially ignoring context and aiming for unattainable objectivity, SORA places a strong emphasis on actively listening to the participants' voices and considering the contextual factors (Jahnke, Waldrop, Ledford, & Martinez, 2021). This method allows the data to express itself, which makes it easier for the researcher to remain in close contact with the data and aids the primary themes to come to light more clearly. Although, the participants' interviews were audio recorded and then manually transcribed. In accordance with the SORA protocol, researchers collaborated together to update the transcripts while concurrently listening to the recorded interviews.

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Table 4

Summary of Companies

Buisness Type	Organizational Size	Vision, Mission, and Values	Organizational Focus
Company A	Multinational Information Technology 7development application centers. 402,200 employees	Vision: “We are motivated by the desire to develop products that are invented for life.” Mission:”Building solutions for a better life.” Values:” Future and result focus,Initiativeand determination, Openness, and trust.”	Mobility solutions Industrial Technology Consumer goods Energy and building technology Other business areas
Company B	Multinational Information Technology 145000 employees across 90 countries	Vision:”Educated, skilled, and able women and men are a country’s true strength Mission:”Offering innovative and customer-centric information technology services and solutions.” Values:” Professionalism, quality focus, the dignity of the individual.”	Infrastructure and cloud services Network services Integrated Engineering services Business process services Telecom product engineering Intelligent automation
Company C	Multinational Information Technology Operates in 149 locations across 46 countries 6lakh employees worldwide	Vision: “To be globally significant in each of our chosen businesses.” Mission:” To be a responsible value creator for all our stakeholders.” Values: Pioneering, Integrity,Excellence. Unity, Responsibility”	Hardware sizing Payment processing Technology education services Software management
Company D	Multinational Information Technology 80,000 employees	Vision: “Changing the way we work, live, play, and learn.” Mission:” To shape the future of the internet by creating unprecedented opportunity for our customers, employees, investors, and ecosystem partners.” Values:” To connect everything, innovate everywhere, and benefit everyone.”	VoIP services Hosted Collaboration Solution (HCS) Network Emergency Response Certifications
Comany E	Multinational Information Technology 51,000 employees	Vision:” Built a way of doing business.” Mission:” To engineer an experience that amazes.” Values: Global citizenship, Leadership capability. Market leadership, commitment to employees.	Indigo digital press Web Jetadmin printer management Light Scribe optical recording technology

As a result, team members verbally expressed what they were thinking about themes, concepts, and new ideas. During this iterative process, the researchers reviewed the original audio recordings to ensure a thorough comprehension of the context, evaluate possible researcher bias, refine the identified themes, and extract exemplary quotations that precisely encapsulated the data (Thompson & Barrett, 1997)

Result

During interviews with HR managers, when specifically asked about their understanding of the influence of career growth opportunities on organizational attractiveness, they frequently provided their perspectives on what they encountered. Senior Manager and Software Engineers would commonly share their thoughts and insights.

One of the Senior Manager's interviewed mentioned as:

> See, as a Senior Manager, I view the influence of career growth opportunities on organizational attractiveness as paramount. Employees at all levels seek a job and a personal and professional development trajectory. Offering clear and structured career paths attracts top talent and retains and motivates existing employees. In a competitive job market, an organization that invests in the continuous development of its staff becomes an appealing destination. It fosters a culture of learning and advancement, contributing to the company's overall success. Employees are most likely to commit to an organization that values and supports their career growth.

Following an interview, one of the software engineers stated:

> Good. See as a software engineer, career growth opportunities significantly impact how I perceive the attractiveness of an organization. In the dynamic technology field, staying relevant and advancing in one's career is crucial. An organization that provides a clear path for skill enhancement, promotions, and diverse projects is more appealing. It not only keeps me engaged and motivated but also reassures me that the company values my professional development. The opportunity to learn new technologies, take on challenging projects, and climb the career ladder within the same organization is a key factor in my decision-making process. It adds a sense of stability and purpose to my work, making the organization more attractive.

Recurring themes emerge based on responses gathered from these interviews with software engineers and senior managers. These themes imply that these HR managers agree about the benefits of career growth opportunities and organizational attractiveness. The concepts are divided into three themes (a). clear career paths, (b) competitive edge, and (c) professional advancements

Clear Career Paths

According to two HR managers who conducted an interview, CGO can have an extensive and effective impact on the OA idea, primarily when focusing on a clear career path. After considering their opinions and consulting them, one of the participants responded.

What is your perspective on the clear career path on organizational attractiveness?

One of the Talent and acquisition Managers interviewed mentioned as:

> A clear career path is a fundamental driver of organizational attractiveness. When employees are presented with well-defined trajectories for professional growth, it becomes a compelling factor for both talent attraction and retention. The clarity in career progression fosters a positive work environment, fosters a sense of purpose, and promotes employee satisfaction. This internal satisfaction, in turn, projects a positive image externally. Potential candidates, when joining the organization, are attracted by the prospect of a structured and transparent career journey. In essence, a clear career path contributes significantly to the overall

appeal of the organization, making it stand out in the competitive talent market.

One of the Software Engineer's interviewed mentioned as:

> In the realm of organizational attractiveness, a clear career path is a key influencer. The presence of well-defined career trajectories communicates to employees that the organization is committed to their professional development. This commitment becomes a pivotal factor in attracting and retaining top talent. Employees are naturally drawn to opportunities for advancement and growth. As they experience a transparent path to climb the organizational ladder, it creates a positive perception of the workplace. Prospective candidates, when evaluating potential employers, are inclined to choose organizations that offer a clear roadmap for their career progression. Therefore, a clear career path significantly enhances the overall attractiveness of the organization.

An organization that offers higher growth opportunities creates a mutual investment relationship with employers, which influences employees to have higher commitment and attraction toward the organization (Vande Griek, Clauson, & Eby, 2018). However, prior studies have examined that potential candidates are attracted by the organization's career growth opportunities, which are related to organizational attractiveness (Oh & Myeong, 2021). The previous study has shown that flexible career growth influences organizational attractiveness. Hence, it is the best predictor of job hunting, which is also related to the intention to stay in the organization (Ahamad, Saini, & Jawahar, 2022). However, candidates prefer and be part of an organization that provides career growth opportunities, a flexible working environment, and anticipated organizational support. (Prakash, Yadav, Singh, & Aarti, 2022). Indeed, organizations with positive affirmative action programs are more successful in attracting high-quality applicants. Based on the literature review and this in-depth interview, career growth opportunities in organizational attractiveness can be summarized as the first proposition as follows:

Proposition 1: Career growth opportunities have a significant relationship with organizational attractiveness.

Competitive Edge

Likewise, HR managers identify the pursuit of a competitive edge as a targeted strategy to elevate organizational attractiveness. When examining their viewpoints more closely and in detailed consultation with the HR manager. One of the Senior Executive interviewed mentioned as:

> Yes, achieving a competitive edge is integral to bolstering organizational attractiveness, and word of mouth plays a pivotal role in the dynamic. When we strategically position our organization as a leader in providing not just jobs but career-enhancing experiences, it creates a buzz among our employees. Their positive experiences become stories that resonate within and outside our workplace. This word of mouth becomes a compelling force, attracting top talent and solidifying our reputation as an employer of choice. The competitive edge, therefore, goes beyond tangible benefits; it extends to the intangible power of our employees becoming enthusiastic advocates, contributing significantly to the overall appeal of our organization.

Word of mouth plays a vital role in organizational attractiveness. Generally, word-of-mouth is influenced by employees' experiences in the organization (Hoye & Lievens, 2007). Although word of mouth is an external recruitment source that influences organizational attractiveness and image (Uen, Peng, Chen, & Chien, 2015). The studies show that positive word of mouth is related to organizational attractiveness and strengthened recruitment sources (Hoye & Lievens, 2005). Perhaps word of mouth seems to have an attractive outcome, such as the applicant's intentions and decision to join the organization

(Hoye, Weijters, Lievens, & Stockman, 2016). Moreover, word-of-mouth provides more credible information than recruitment advertising (Hoye, 2012). Furthermore, prior literature has examined the fact that positive word of mouth results in higher organizational attractiveness than negative word of mouth (Lin, 2015).

Proposition 2: Word of mouth has a significant relationship with career growth opportunities and organizational attractiveness.

Professional Advancements

In a similar vein, HR managers acknowledge that professional advancement is directed toward enhancing organizational attractiveness. When examining their viewpoints more closely and in detailed consultation with the HR manager. One of the Data Analyst interviewed mentioned as:

> Very good question! Professional advancement is a crucial factor in shaping organizational attractiveness. Its impact is notably amplified in the digital age, where social media plays a vital role. As employees progress in their careers within our organization, their success stories become a powerful narrative that we actively share on various social platforms. This presents our commitment to professional development and highlights the tangible results of our investments in talent. Social media acts as a dynamic channel to broadcast these narratives, creating a positive image of our organization that fosters career growth. This visibility, driven by professional advancement shared on social platforms, contributes significantly to our overall appeal, making us an attractive employer in the eyes of prospective talents.

Social media is a digital platform through which users connect to the organization's webpage. Studies indicate that seeing information on social media can positively influence potential applicants to the organization (Carpentier, Hoye, & Weng, 2019). Today's technological advancement has led to multidimensional communication. Social media is moving quickly, which has become essential to organizational attractiveness (Wadhawan & Sinha, 2018). However, social media is indirectly related to organizational attractiveness, which is likely to influence how the applicants communicate on these platforms (Carpentier, Van Hoye, & Weijters, 2019). Thus, social media is an influential tool in organizational attractiveness, becoming an external platform for employer branding (Eger, Mičík, Gangur, & Řehoř, 2019). Prior studies emphasized that social media can help build an attractive organizational reputation, which assists in getting more applicants for a job (Kashive et al., 2020). Social media ads are an important source of recruitment and advanced capabilities in sending signals to the applicants (Keppeler & Papenfuß, 2021). So, while examining the relationship between organizational attractiveness and social media, social media may have a significant role, which is formulated as the fourth proposition for the research.

Proposition 3: Social media significantly moderates the organizational attractiveness.

Proposed Framework

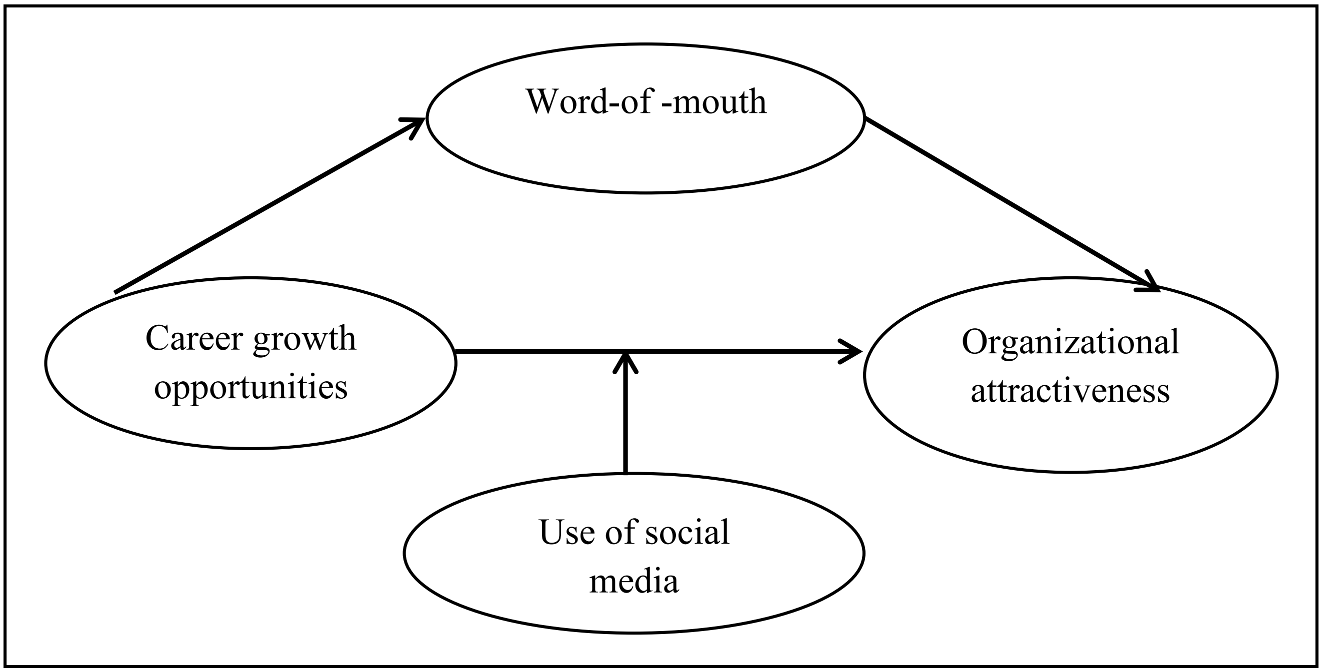
This article proposes a conceptual framework that relates career growth opportunities and organizational attractiveness with the mediating roles of word-of-mouth and the moderating role of social media. It provides insights to academicians and researchers in developing a future research agenda in employer branding. The mediating and moderating roles of word-of-mouth and social media may not be limited to the relationship between career growth opportunities and organizational attractiveness. However, they can be extended to explain various employer branding outcomes.
Figure 1. Proposed Framework

Discussion

RQ1: What is the influence of employer branding on the perceived career growth opportunities within an organization?

Figure 1

Proposed Framework



Specifically, job seekers want professional advancement chances that promote job opportunities in the organization (K. B. Backhaus, Stone, & Heiner, 2002). As envisioned, workplace attributes and work experiences determine organizational attractiveness (Saini & Jawahar, 2019). Perhaps organizations are always using strategies to attract applicants; however, employees also assess the organizations by seeing their concerns and anticipating organizational support (Mir, Amin, Omar, & Khan, 2022). Career advancement is one of the key factors that individuals consider when assessing employment prospects, making an organization much more attractive overall. However, skilled and talented employees are more likely to be attracted to organizations that provide clear pathways for career progression (Wong, Wan, & Gao, 2017; Zy, Mathafena, & Ras, 2009). Although a company promotes professional growth and offers advancement opportunities, employees become more willing to stick around (Davidescu et al., 2020). Consequently, employers who place a high priority on career advancement and development have a favourable reputation. This reputation can improve the company's image and increase its attractiveness to potential workers. Investments in mentoring programs, training courses, and ongoing education convey an organization's dedication to staff development (Dabirian, Kietzmann, & Paschen, 2018).

> Absolutely. Our employer brand communicates a clear message about our commitment to employee development. It is not just about the job but the journey within our organization. For instance, when potential candidates see our branding efforts emphasizing a culture of growth, it immediately sets the expectation that we value and invest in the professional development of our team workers.

It provides insight into the influence of career growth opportunities on organizational attractiveness.

RQ2: What key elements contribute to a conceptual framework linking employer branding with career growth and organizational attractiveness?

Each person's view of professional progression inside an organization can be significantly influenced by word-of-mouth or informal communication between employees and their networks (Oraedu, Izogo, Nnabuko, & Ogba, 2020). Probably, when current or former workers share positive experiences regarding their professional development, advancement chances, and general career growth inside the organization, a powerful tale is built (Colbert, Bono, & Purvanova, 2016). This might persuade prospective employees that the company cares about its employees' development and success, making it a desirable place for those looking to succeed in their careers (Durocher, Bujaki, & Brouard, 2016). Positive word-of-mouth promotes a positive employer brand by presenting the organization as an appealing place to work. As a result, the organization draws in top talent and becomes more competitive in the labor market (Monteiro et al., 2020). Social media advertising goes beyond official campaigns to offer an authentic view of the workplace culture, prospects for professional advancement, and corporate culture. Social media is essential in helping individuals to shape and advance their careers. Professionals can highlight their abilities, successes, and interests on LinkedIn, Twitter, and industry-specific forums. It facilitates the design of a polished online persona for individuals. Anyone can improve their exposure in their sector and personal brand by creating a well-curated profile that includes endorsements, suggestions, and a thorough summary (Kreiss & Mcgregor, 2018). Global networking can be facilitated by social media; expanding their professional network is possible for professionals through connecting with mentors, peer and leaders in the sector (Cullen-lester, Maupin, & Carter, 2017; Trust, Carpenter, & Krutka, 2018).However, these key elements are more significant with the fact of HR managers response on it.

Social media is a powerful channel for employer branding. We use platforms like LinkedIn, Instagram, and Twitter to present our workplace culture, values, and commitment to employee development. Through regular updates, employee spotlights, and engaging content, we create a narrative highlighting our organization as an attractive workplace. This is not only aids in talent acquisition but also reinforces our positive employer brand among our existing workforce.

Consequently, the key elements of career growth opportunities and organizational attractiveness, such as word of mouth and social media, play a vital role in organizational attractiveness.

RQ3: What strategic recommendations can be proposed for organizations to enhance their employer branding, ensuring a positive impact on both career growth and organizational attractiveness?

Organizations can execute a multidimensional approach to improve employer branding and guarantee a favourable effect on career advancement and organizational attractiveness. First and foremost, a distinct and appealing Employee Value Proposition (EVP) that highlights the unique advantages and opportunities that the organization provides needs to be defined (Deepa & Baral, 2020). However, the corporate website, social media accounts, and recruitment materials would all convey this message uniformly. Additionally, organizations can use success stories and employee testimonials to provide fundamental insights into opportunities for professional advancement within their organization (Kossek, Su, & Wu, 2017). Second, social media is essential to creating and preserving employer brands. Organizations may demonstrate their workplace culture, values, and dedication to employee development by actively participating on social media sites like LinkedIn and Twitter (M. Ewing, Men, &

Neil, 2019). Furthermore, it is imperative for firms to prioritize professional development initiatives, providing chances for training, mentorship, and ongoing education to demonstrate their dedication to advancing their workforce (Price & Reichert, 2017). Third, it is crucial to practice open communication and transparency. Indeed, building trust and promoting a favorable employer brand are two benefits of sharing company goals, changes, and accomplishments (Maurya & Agarwal, 2018a). Fourthly, an organization can adjust and change to meet the demands of its workforce by using ongoing feedback systems and employee surveys to pinpoint areas that need improvement (Mabkhot, Al-Ahmari, Salah, & Alkhalefah, 2018). Consequently, by implementing these strategic guidelines, firms may build a strong employer brand that draws in top talent, keeps qualified employees on staff, and promotes a continuous improvement and development culture.

Theoretical Contributions

Firstly, the psychological contract refers to individuals' and organizations' integrated assumptions and mindsets regarding their shared work responsibilities. Organizational psychological contracts are shaped and strengthened by social media use, career advancement, and word-of-mouth. Secondly, social identity theory (SIT) holds that individuals define social groups to which they belong and that these groups form the basis of their sense of self-worth and self-concept. In the workplace, social identity is influenced by word-of-mouth, career advancement, and social media use; thirdly, according to signalling theory, individuals use signals to communicate information about themselves, and in the professional sphere, job advancement is a powerful signal. Indeed, employees who have experienced advancement and skill development enlighten peers and prospective employers about their valuable qualities. Perhaps the novel combination of these variables adds a new dimension to the existing literature. The proposed study model will serve as a road map for analyzing the drivers of employer branding because it has been customized to the most recent bits of information.

Managerial Implications

Globally, developing countries are aggressively working to achieve Agenda 2030's employer branding goals. In this circumstance, this paper may have various practical applications for HR managers. This proposed framework will aid HR managers in formulating new strategies to attract talented executives. Firstly, programs that empower employees to share their positive experiences should be encouraged and supported. Secondly, the proposed model creates a strong social media strategy that actively engages employees and external stakeholders, providing regular updates on career advancement, personnel accomplishments, and organizational efforts. Thirdly, it is important to optimize internal communication approaches to ensure employees are aware of opportunities for advancement and the organization's commitment to professional development, which fosters trust and strengthens the internal employer brand. Fourthly, employee recognition programs that recognize career achievements should be implemented or improved.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the conceptual framework offered emphasizes the symbiotic relationship between career progression, word of mouth, and social media. Employer branding fundamentally serves as the compass, outlining an organization's purpose and fundamental principles. One important factor is career advancement, which influences and is shaped by the corporate brand. Word-of-mouth acts as a spark, enhancing the brand via true tales that employees reveal. Consequently, social media acts as a dynamic amplifier, exposing the employer brand visually to a global audience. Finally, in order for an organization to succeed, it is critical to understand how social media, career development, and word-of-mouth are all related. Developing a strong, appealing corporate identity through social media and reputation-building is just as important to employer branding initiatives as supporting individual career success. In the end, this synergy positions the company as an employer of choice in the competitive talent landscape by fostering an environment at work where individual and organizational success flourish. Future research can expand the model's concept by examining the interactions between the identified variables. This research area will benefit to both academia and industry through further empirical investigation of the proposed models with the addition of control variables. However, to obtain meaningful insights into the connection between career growth opportunities and organizational attractiveness, the proposition brought forth by the existing theoretical model above may be empirically investigated. Similarly, HR directors, line managers, and employees can yield insights on employer branding. Besides the outcome variable, organizational attractiveness could be further extended to explore the study for further exploration of employee stickiness and person-of-organization fit.

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Career Decision Self-Efficacy Mediates the Relationship Between General Self-Efficacy and Career Decision-Making of Undergraduate Students

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Abstract

Career decision-making has remained a constant challenge for students due to a lack of appropriate policy aimed at assisting students in making informed career decisions. This paper examined whether general self-efficacy of undergraduate students would predict their career decision-making through career decision self-efficacy. We obtained data from a convenience sample of 453 undergraduate students in a Ghanaian public university in a cross-sectional survey. The sample comprised 261 (57.6%) males and 192 (42.4%) females, with ages ranging from 18 to 33, and an average of 21.32 (SD = 2.25) years. Data were analysed using Hayes PROCESS for mediation (model 4). General self-efficacy significantly predicted both career decision self-efficacy and career decision-making. Also, career decision self-efficacy was a better predictor of students' career decision-making than general self-efficacy was. Furthermore, career decision self-efficacy significantly mediated the relationship between general self-efficacy, and career decision-making. We concluded that even though both general self-efficacy and career decision self-efficacy were relevant predictors of career decision-making, context specific self-efficacy is more relevant than general self-efficacy. Implications of the findings for interventions and policy have been discussed within the social cognitive career and the self-determination theories.

Keywords: career decision self-efficacy, general self-efficacy, career decision-making, context-specific self-efficacy, self-determination

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University education is a pivotal period in the exploration of potential career objectives because during undergraduate school years, students make crucial career decisions that influence their career aspirations, plans, and goals. However, studies have suggested that undergraduate students across the globe face a dilemma in making career decisions (Macgregor, 2007; Watson et al., 2010). Indeed, Azhenov et al. (2023) and Kırdök and Harman (2018) also affirmed that the youth and university students experience difficulty in making career decisions, and these difficulties could hamper their decision-making processes or lead to inappropriate career decisions (Kırdök & Harman, 2018; Hayden & Osborn, 2020).

Career decision-making difficulties represent the challenges encountered by individuals in their career-related decisions that need to be handled adequately before making career decision (Bacanlı, 2016). Gati et al. (1996) indicated that career decision-making difficulties span across three facets, namely lack of readiness, lack of information, and inconsistent information. Difficulty in career decision-making could be attributed to a lack of knowledge among students about the world of work as a result of ineffective school curriculum that does not address early career preparation of the learners (International Labour Organisation, 2011). Kırdök and Harman (2018) also indicated that these difficulties could emanate from lack of problem solving and decision-making skills, and the more individuals lack problem solving and decision-making skills, the more likely they are to encounter difficulties in their career decision-making process (Azhenov et al., 2023; Çolakkadıoğlu et al., 2011). In addition, the main sources of career decision-making challenges among undergraduate students may be attributable to lack of information, ignorance, and a lack of exposure to career options (Austin, 2010; Stikkelorum, 2014). This lack of information, knowledge, and capacity to make informed and good career decisions leads to a reduced career decision self-efficacy.

Career decision self-efficacy refers to individuals' degree of confidence that they can successfully engaged in tasks associated with making a career choice and with commitment to a career (Crisan & Turda, 2015). It also denotes the degree of confidence held by a student regarding their own ability to engage in activities relevant to educational and work-related information collection, planning of goals, and decision-making (Peterso, 1993). Empirical studies have reported that approximately 20% to 60% of new students entering institutions of higher learning are usually undecided about their intended career paths (Adedunni & Oyesoji, 2013; Onoyase & Onoyase, 2009). This situation may result in university graduates pursuing careers that are unrelated to their college majors. Thus, many students experience job frustration due to deficiency in career decision self-efficacy and their career productivity is affected. This is consistent with studies that have shown that people get jobs that are not in line with their careers or professional training, but go in for what is available instead of what is in their professional interest, ability or skills (Godia, 2009; Machio, 2007; Muigai, 2007). The literature suggests that factors including the context in which the individual lives, their personal aptitudes, and educational attainments influence the career decision-making process (Watson et al., 2010).

Career decision-making has remained a constant challenge for students due to a lack of appropriate educational policies and defective curricula. The ILO (2011) attributed the limited information and inadequate career and work-related knowledge amongst youth to inadequate educational curricula that do not address early career preparation of students. Maraya (2011) also noted that there is generally a lack of career guidance policy in educational institutions aimed at assisting students in making appropriate career decisions, making it challenging for students to make informed career decisions (Stikkelorum, 2014). The situation with career decision-making in the Ghanaian context is not different from that of the youth globally. For instance, Brew and Ngman-Wara (2018) argued that some Ghanaian university graduates entering the world of work have little or no knowledge on how to match their programmes of study to their career choice. Also, Ocansey (2000) observed that as a result of the challenges and frustrations in career decision-making, most of the youth in Ghana leave their career for fate to decide. It is significant to note that when there is a mismatch between the individual's aptitude, values and orientation, dissatisfaction and lack of commitment to the career could occur. It is therefore important that various psycho-social, personal, and situational variables that influence the career decision-making process are explored to facilitate career guidance processes in order to reduce the negative consequences.

Statement of the Problem

The unemployment rate keeps surging worldwide and this together with economic turmoil in the aftermath of the current COVID 19 pandemic makes a good career decision more imperative. Available data have shown that career mismatch contributed to an estimate of 75.8 million of the younger population being unemployed globally, a trend that could precipitate talent inadequacy, stifle economic growth, and ultimately alter the way workforce issues and challenges are approached (International Labour Organisation [ILO], 2022). The ILO estimates have also indicated that the Global youth unemployment rate has increased slightly from 12.9% in 2015 to 13.1% in 2016 through 2017, and the COVID 19 pandemic has really hurt the young population. The pre-pandemic level of youth unemployment estimates in 2019 of 69 million, was six million below that of 75 million in 2021, and reported to be 73 million in 2022 globally. The situation in Africa was estimated at 12.7% in 2020, and more than

20% of the youth are neither in an employment, education, nor in skills training. This trend keeps worsening over the years, which has implications for the career decisions of youth.

In addition, career indecision has been identified as the most common impediment to career advancement among today's youth. The majority of young people are more interested in achieving self-actualisation through a university degree than in pursuing a career that promotes the development of talents and skills that are market-driven (Ogutu et al., 2017). In this regard, the process of aligning career decisions with the choice of educational programme and requirements has become more complex with the evolution of advanced technology in the world today (Onoyase & Onoyase, 2009).

In the literature, we observed that despite the relevance of self-efficacy in the career decision-making of students, there is a dearth of research in Ghana that explored how both generalised and career decision self-efficacies of university students predict their ultimate decision-making regarding their career. Previous studies only focused on factors that determine career selection in relation to the programme of choice of senior high school students (e.g. Brew & Ngman-Wara, 2018). It is significant to note that senior high school students in Ghana are generally not considered ready for the world of work; hence there is the need for them to proceed to acquire university degrees before making a fairly informed career decision. Also, within these studies, career decision self-efficacy and expectations have not been fully investigated. Self-efficacy is important for university students so that they have a high assurance they can approach difficult tasks and challenging goals; yet the particular factor that influences a university student's ability to approach the challenge of determining their career choice appears to be unknown within the Ghanaian context. Additionally, few studies explore the mediating role of career decision self-efficacy in the relationship between general self-efficacy and career decision-making of university students. The present study is to fill this research gap.

With the current difficulty that many students face in accomplishing the task of making career decisions, it is important that more research is conducted to understand how self-efficacy relates to one's ability to make a career decision. This study, therefore, examined self-efficacy and career decision self-efficacy as predictors of career decision making of university undergraduate students. Onoyase and Onoyase (2009) have suggested that most students in institutions of higher education have little idea about the career path they want to take. In the current study, we examined the levels of both general and career decision self-efficacy, as well as the career decision-making potentials of undergraduate students. Literature suggests that individuals may have generalised self-efficacy, and/or self-efficacy in relation to specific situations, context or activity.

The social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) postulates that self-efficacy beliefs of individuals are the predominant causal mechanism involved in guiding important aspects of their psychological functioning and initiation of a cause of action. Duru and Soner (2024) emphasised the importance of self-efficacy in career decision-making, and noted that several personal and psychosocial factors affect career decisions of individuals. In this study, we explored the general belief in capabilities (generalised self-efficacy), as well as specific belief in the capabilities to successfully make career decisions (career decision self-efficacy) among undergraduate students of a public university in Ghana. We argue that both generalised self-efficacy and career decision-making self-efficacy would play significant roles in the ultimate decision-making regarding one's career. However, career decision self-efficacy would be a more proximal determinant in making career decisions than generalised self-efficacy. Thus, when both are in the model, generalised self-efficacy would account for less variance in career decision-making than career decision self-efficacy would. In view of this, we modelled career decision self-efficacy as a mediating variable between generalised self-efficacy and career decision-making.

Theoretical Background and Development of Hypotheses

Self-Efficacy and Career Decision-Making

Social cognitive career theory has been used in studies investigating students' career decision-making processes (Liu et al., 2022). This theory includes self-efficacy and outcome expectations to help explain individuals' career interests. The theory primarily focuses on the decision-making process while weighing various career options. Wendling and Sagas (2020) employed the social cognitive career theory of career management model to investigate predictors and underlying theoretical mechanisms of college athletes' career planning processes for life after sport. Their findings suggested that the career self-management model is a useful theoretical model that explained 62.7% of the variance on career planning. Bandura et al. (2001) have suggested that the self-efficacy of students shapes the type of career and occupational level they pursued within a given field. Thus, it seems that self-efficacy may be crucial in widening the career aspirations of students. This is because as students' self-efficacy increases so does their career aspiration. Empirical studies (e.g, Crisan & Turda, 2015; Dos Santos, 2020; Ogutu et al., 2017) have reported significant relationships between self-efficacy and career decision. For example, Previarzya and Asmarany (2023) found that higher self-efficacy is associated with better career decision-making because individuals with higher self-efficacy have higher motivation and belief in their capability to engage in career exploration activities. The self-belief sustains their career exploration activities and information seeking, even in the face of difficulties. In line with literature, we expect general self-efficacy to positively predict self-efficacy related to career decision-making (career decision self-efficacy). We therefore hypothesised that:

1. General self-efficacy of undergraduate students will significantly predict their career decision-making
2. General self-efficacy of undergraduate students will significantly predict their career decision self-efficacy

Career Decision Self-Efficacy and Career Decision Making

Researchers hold varying points of view about the relationship between career decision self-efficacy and career-related variables such as vocational expectation and career barriers (Betz et al., 2005; McWhirter et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2006). Some empirical studies have found significant correlations between career decision self-efficacy and career decisions (McWhirter et al., 2000), whereas others have reported no significant relationships between the two constructs (Brown et al., 2000; Patton & Creed, 2007). Based on the inconsistent findings, we hypothesised a non-directional relationship between career decision self-efficacy and career decision-making. In addition, we expect career decision self-efficacy to be stronger in predicting career decision-making than the general self-efficacy. Also, we expect general self-efficacy to predict career decision-making by first influencing their career decision-self-efficacy, then ultimately their career decision-making. In view of the foregoing arguments, the following two hypotheses have been formulated:

3. Career decision self-efficacy of undergraduate students will significantly predict their career decision-making
4. Career decision self-efficacy of undergraduate students will significantly mediate the relationship between general self-efficacy and their career decision-making

Methods

Design and Sample

The paper employed the cross-sectional research design, involving a convenience sample of 453 undergraduate students pursuing various courses in a Ghanaian public university. This comprises 261 (57.6%) males

Table 1

Distribution of Sample by Level in the University

Level	Frequency	Percentage
First-year 100	228	50.3
Second-year 200	114	25.2
Third-year 300	60	13.2
Fourth-year 400	51	11.3
Total	453	100

and 192 (42.4%) females, with ages ranging from 18 to 33, and an average age of 21.32 years (SD = 2.25). Approximately 13% of the sample were married, and most were first year Level 100) students, with final year students being the least (see Table 1). Insert Table 1 here

Data Collection Instrument

General Self-Efficacy

The 10-item general self-efficacy scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995) was used in the present study. The scale is unidimensional and has good psychometric properties. Responses are rated on a 4 -point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (Not at all true) to 4 (Exactly true). A sample item is: *"I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort."* Composite scores on the scale range from 10 to 40, with higher scores representing high self-efficacy. Reported reliability coefficients of Cronbach's alpha range between .76 and .90 (e.g., Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). In the present study, the reliability was estimated using Cronbach's alpha, and .83 was obtained. Sample item on the scale is *"I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough."*

Career-Decision Making Self-Efficacy

The short-form of career decision-making self-efficacy scale (SFCDMSE; Betz et al., 1996) was used to measure career decision self-efficacy in this study. The 5-subscale format in the original scale is eliminated in this scale, and the total number of items was reduced to 20 items. We therefore used the general factor, unidimensional scale in this study. The response format is a 10-point Likert-type scale, 0 (*no confidence at all*) to 9 (*complete confidence*), and the total score is obtained by adding ratings on the 20 individual items. Thus, the range of possible scores extends from 0 to 180, with higher scores indicating greater career decision-making self-efficacy. Sample item is: *"How confident are that you decide what you value most in an occupation."* The scale has good reported coefficient alpha value (e.g. α = .93: Betz et al., 1996).

Career Decision-Making

The Career Decision Scale (CDS: Osipow et al., 1980) was employed as a measure of career indecision. The original CDS is an l8-item instrument, with items1 and 2 (e.g., *I have decided on a major and feel comfortable with it. I also know how to go about implementing my choice*) reflecting decidedness with respect to career and college major choice, respectively. Items 3-18 (e.g., *I need more information about what different occupations are like before I can make a career decision*) form a general indecision index. A composite indecision score could be obtained by reversing the scores of items 1 and 2, and summing the scores across the 18 items (Osipow et al., 1980).

In present study, three of the items on the general indecision sub-dimension did not load adequately were omitted, leaving 15 items. Responses to the items were rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale, ranging from *"not at all like me"* (1) to *"exactly like me"* (4). The summation of items 1 and 2 provides a measure of educational and vocational decidedness; whereas, the summation of items 3-15 provides a general career indecision score. However, the indecision scores were reversed to measure decidedness (career

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Table 2

Possible Score Ranges and Categorisation of Score Levels

Variable	Range	Low	Mod	High
Self-efficacy	10-40	10-19	20-29	30-40
Career Decision SE	0-180	0-59	60-119	120-180
Edu & Voc Decidedness	2-8	2-4	4-6	7-8
Career Decision	13-52	13-25	26-38	39-52
Global Career Decision	15-60	15-29	30-44	45-60

decision-making), instead of indecision. Scores on the educational and vocational sub-dimension range from 2 to 8, with higher scores indicating more decidedness. Scores on the decision-making sub-dimension range from 13 to 52, with higher scores reflecting better career decision. A global career decision-making index was also obtained by summing all 15 items, with scores ranging from 15 to 60, with higher scores indicating better overall career decision-making. "Kush and Cochran (1993) used the CDS as a measure of confidence in making a career decision" (Osipow & Winer, 1996, p. 119). The scale has reported internal consistency of Cronbach's alpha of 84 (Osipow et al., 1980).

Results

The main purpose of the paper was to find out the extent to which general self-efficacy of undergraduate students relate with their career decision self-efficacy, and ultimately, how the two measures relate with their career decision-making. All measures were continuous and obtained through self-report questionnaires from a sample of regular undergraduate students. Hayes PROCESS micro for SPSS (model 4), was used to test the hypotheses, due to the basic mediation model hypothesis.

Preliminary Analysis

Preliminary analysis involved test of normality of the dependent variable, linear relationship between the predictors and the criterion, and multi-collinearity of the predictors. The histogram presents graphical representation of the test of normality of the dependent variable, career decision-making, and it showed that the distribution of the scores was fairly normal (see Figure 1).

The Pearson's correlation coefficients also showed that there were significant linear relationships between the predictor variables and the criterion, and that the predictor variables were not extremely (collinearly) related. The correlation between generalised self-efficacy and career decision-making was $r(451) = .357$, $p < .001$, while that between career decision self-efficacy and career decision-making was $r(451) = .506$, $p < .001$. The relationship between generalised self-efficacy and career decision-making was also $r(451) = .554$, $p < .001$.

Levels of General Self-Efficacy, Career Decision Self-Efficacy, and Career Decision-Making

Estimates of the mean scores and standard deviations to give a general overview and levels of the scores are presented in Table 3. Generally, the scores of the students on general self-efficacy and career decision self-efficacy were high, while that of career decision-making was moderate. Further analysis indicated that 56.3% and 59.6% of the students scored high on general self-efficacy, and career decision self-efficacy respectively. The majority of them (53%) had moderate and 41.1% had high scores on career decision-making. Less than five percent (4.6 and 2.5%) were within the low categories of general self-efficacy and career

Figure 1

Career Decision-Making Scores Distribution

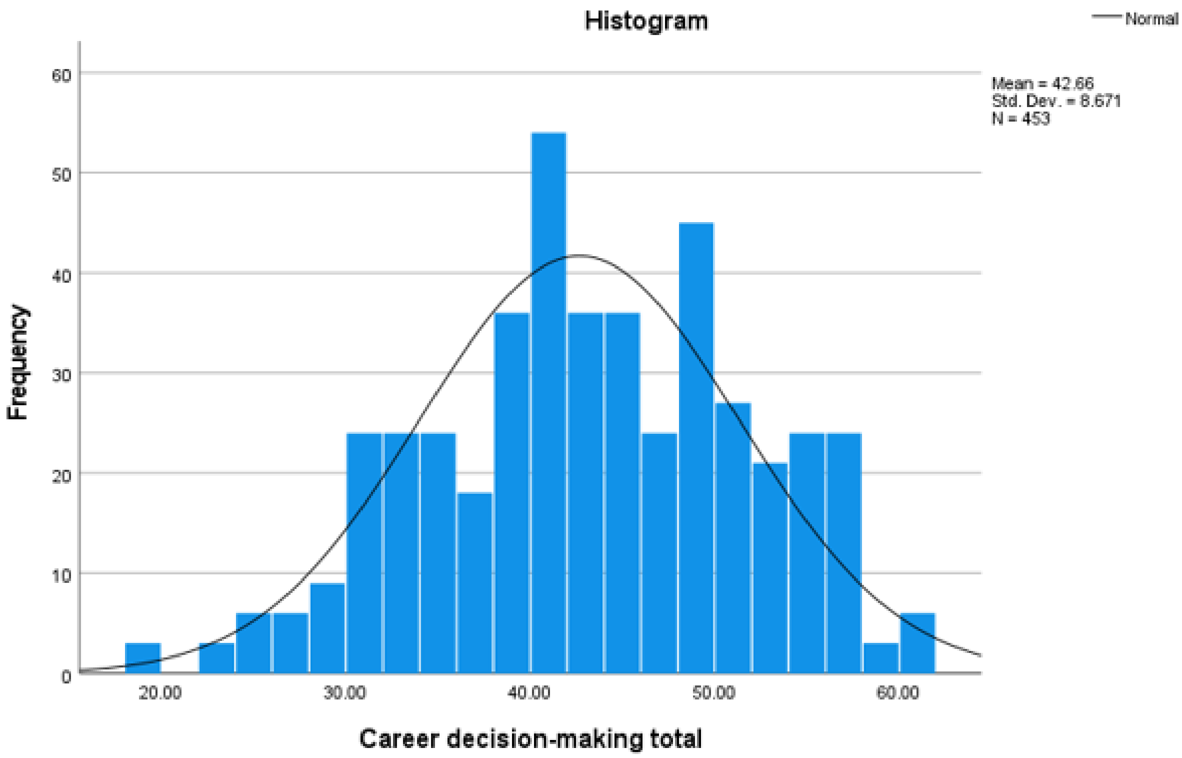

Table 3

Score Ranges, Means Scores, and Standard Deviations

Variable	Score Range	Mean	SD	Remark
Self-efficacy	10-40	30.13	5.67	High
Career Decision SE	0-180	125.36	32.43	High
Edu & Voc Decidedness	2-8	4.45	1.18	Moderate
Career Decision	13-52	38.21	8.49	High
Global Career Decision	15-60	42.66	8.69	Moderate

decision self-efficacy respectively, while 5.9% were in the same category for career decision-making.

Research Hypotheses

Hayes PROCESS for mediation and moderation analysis was used to test Hypotheses 1 to 4. Specifically, model 4 for basic mediation analysis was used, since there is only one mediating variable. All scores were mean centred, and the significance of the coefficients was estimated using 5000 bootstrap samples at .05 level of significance.

***H1**: General self-efficacy of undergraduate students will* *significantly predict their career decision-self-efficacy*

The first model tested the relationship between general self-efficacy and career decision self-efficacy. The results showed that general self-efficacy related positively with career decision self-efficacy, β = .554, p < .001, and accounted for 30.7% of the variance in career decision self-efficacy. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

***H1:** General self-efficacy will significantly predict career decision-making.*

***H1**: Career decision self-efficacy will significantly predict career decision-making*

In the second model, career decision-making was regressed on general self-efficacy and career decision self-efficacy. Both general and career decision self-efficacy significantly predicted career decision-making, and accounted for 26.5% of the variance (R = .515, R2. = .265, *p* < .001) in career decision-making. Considering the relative strength of career decision self-efficacy (β = .445, *p* < .001) and general self-efficacy (β = .111, *p* = .023) in predicting career decision-making, the results showed that career decision self-efficacy was a stronger predictor than general self-efficacy.

***H1:** Career decision self-efficacy will significantly mediate the relationship between general self-efficacy and career decision-making*

The test for mediation effect (Table 4) showed that career decision self-efficacy significantly mediated the relationship between general self-efficacy and career decision-making, b = .378; β = .246, [CI: 291; 477]. Both the total (β = .357, *p* < .001) and direct (β = .111, *p* = .023) effects of general self-efficacy on career decision-making were significant. Thus, general self-efficacy of students in this sample significantly and positively predicted both their career decision self-efficacy, and career decision-making. Moreover, career decision self-efficacy of the students positively predicted their career decision-making potentials, and mediated the relationship between their general self-efficacy and career decision-making.

Discussion of Findings

The purpose of the study was to find out how general self-efficacy relates to career decision-making, through career decision self-efficacy. Three direct hypotheses and one mediating hypothesis were tested. Generally, the students' score for general self-efficacy and career decision self-efficacy were high, while that of career decision-making was moderate. General self-efficacy significantly predicted both career decision self-efficacy and career decision-making. Also, career decision self-efficacy significantly predicted, and was a stronger

Table 4

Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects of Generalized Self-Efficacy on Career Decision-Making Through Career Decision Self-Efficacy

Effect	Unstand	SE	T	P	LLCI	ULCI	Cs (β)
Direct	.170	.074	2.284	.023	.024	.316	.111
Indirect (CDSE)	.378	.047	-	-	.291	.477	.246
Total	.538	.067	8.122	.000	.415	.680	.357

Cs = Completely standardized   Total effect model summary: R = .357; R-sq. = .128, P < .001 predictor of career decision-making than general self-efficacy. The test of mediating effect indicated that career decision self-efficacy significantly mediated the relationship between general self-efficacy, and career decision-making.

As our findings show, general self-efficacy of the students positively predicted their career decision self-efficacy. This suggests that the general self-efficacy of the students is reflected in their career exploration activities and beliefs regarding their educational and career-related abilities, which could be linked to a wide-range of career options. General self-efficacy, being the belief in the capabilities of an individual to successfully organise and execute the courses of action (Bandura, 1995), suggests that individuals with high self-efficacy tend to have higher motivation and belief in their abilities to engage in career exploration activities. Similarly, higher decision-making self-efficacy could lead to a firmer decidedness in career decision-making activities. The initiation and sustenance of an activity is motivated largely by how one feels and what the individual thinks about the event or situation at hand (Brew & Ngman-Wara, 2018). Our findings also suggest that undergraduate students with higher self-efficacy scores have the belief that they can more effectively handle life issues and make career decisions. Extant literature indicated that general sense of self-efficacy has been associated with accomplishment of goals deciding on issues across various spectrum of life (e.g., Previarzya & Asmarany, 2023). The findings of the current study are in consonance with previous studies which reported that higher self-efficacy is associated with better career decision-making (Brew & Ngman-Wara, 2018); Crisan & Turda, 2015).

Furthermore, our findings showed that career decision self-efficacy significantly predicted career decision-making (and was a stronger predictor of it than general self-efficacy). These findings suggest that career decision self-efficacy influences career decisions, achievements and adjustment behaviours, all of which are necessary for career development among undergraduate students. Pinquart et al. (2004) have illustrated the importance of career decision self-efficacy in successful school-to-work transition that would influence future career development. Career decision self-efficacy is the belief of an individual that they can successfully make career decisions. This is specific to the career decision-making process, unlike the general self-efficacy that is about the overall confidence and belief in one's ability to successfully complete a task in general sense. These findings imply that undergraduate students with higher beliefs in their abilities to make career decisions are able to make the best of the surrounding contexts or the potential career opportunities such as goal selection, planning, and seeking for occupational information. Having accurate and effective occupational information might influence students' job expectations upon graduation. As our findings show, career decision self-efficacy was the strongest predictor of career decision-making. The significant effect size suggests that career decision self-efficacy may tend to have a facilitation role in enhancing the decision level of undergraduate students. Bandura (1977) argued that one can be successfully and satisfactorily employed only if one has career decision self-efficacy, the belief and confidence in different possibilities to get employed and to explore the available options before making the career decision. Thus, the career decision self-efficacy of an individual is critical in career-related activities and decisions. The findings of our study confirm the literature regarding previous studies on career adaptability and career decision-making which have reported that career decision self-efficacy significantly predicted career decision-making and career adaptability among students as well as existing workers (Gadassi et al., 2013; Loo & Choy, 2013).

The present study also tested the mediation effect of career decision self-efficacy in the relationship between general self-efficacy and career decision-making. The findings show that career decision self-efficacy significantly mediated the relationship between general self-efficacy and career decision-making among undergraduate students. The findings of the current study corroborate previous studies (Kim & Lee, 2018) reporting the mediating effects of career decision self-efficacy in social support and locus of control towards career adaptability. In situating our findings within the framework of the social cognitive career theory, it is significant to note that career decision self-efficacy has a direct relationship with the set goals of an individual. The findings suggest that undergraduate students who have higher career decision self-efficacy may tend to have higher aspirations and would therefore, find it easier to achieve their set goals. Similarly, career decision self-efficacy helps students to be better prepared for their future careers as well as having the tendency to visualise future success for themselves. This is consistent with previous studies on career adaptability and career decision-making which have shown that students with higher levels of career aspirations mediated by career decision self-efficacy demonstrated higher adaptability (Gadassi et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2021). This characteristic is key to the performance of task and it has great impact on work behaviour irrespective of knowledge and skills.

Conclusion and Implications

The findings in the current study indicate that general self-belief in one's ability to successfully execute tasks tends to influence self-beliefs in specific aspects of life, such as self-belief in making career decisions. We can also conclude from our findings that self-efficacy in specific domains of life is more relevant for actual execution of those tasks than general self-efficacy. As shown in this study, even though general self-efficacy predicted career decidedness, the strength of the more specific career decision self-efficacy in predicting actual career decidedness was far greater. Thus, career decision self-efficacy is a more proximal antecedent of career decision-making than general self-efficacy is. Again, we conclude from the current study that career decision self-efficacy helps or is relevant in explaining how general self-efficacy could influence the level of career decidedness of an individual. Thus, general self-efficacy influences career decidedness through the specific career decision self-efficacy.

The implication of the current findings is that measures and interventions by career professionals, as well as industrial and organisational psychologists to improve the general self-efficacy of the Ghanaian youth especially those in higher education institutions would be very valuable in helping them explore and take decisions in specific domains in their lives. Also, awareness creation among university students or the youth in Ghana regarding career opportunities and encouraging them to take necessary step to explore those opportunities would be valuable in enhancing their career decision self-efficacy, and ultimately career decidedness.

Given that university or college years are significant developmental period to shape career identity and career decisions of students, the process of aligning career decisions with the choice of educational programmes within the context of higher education landscape in Ghana is key. We therefore recommend that the Counselling Centres in higher education intuitions and academic departments should incorporate career counselling programmes into their curricula as well as other extra curricula activities to create awareness and knowledge about various career options for students. These programmes could help in equipping the students relevant career information and knowledge and boosting their career decision self-efficacy and career decision-making. This would also help the students to be career ready and exploring options available to them before completing their programmes of study. In addition, a university-wide policy for all undergraduate programmes to incorporate industrial attachment into their programmes to provide students with opportunity to have practical workplace experiences would be essential in shaping and empowering the students to make informed career decisions. When informed career decisions are made after exploration of various options, the individual is more likely to be satisfied and committed to the chosen career path.

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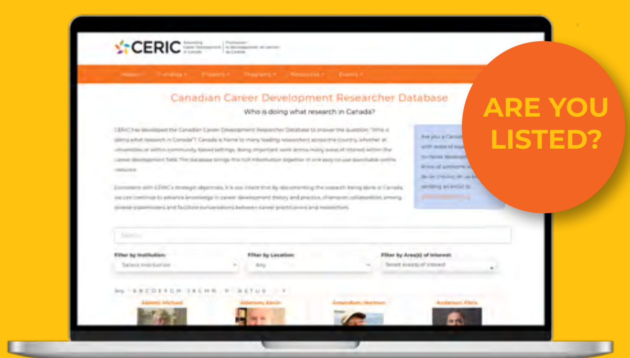

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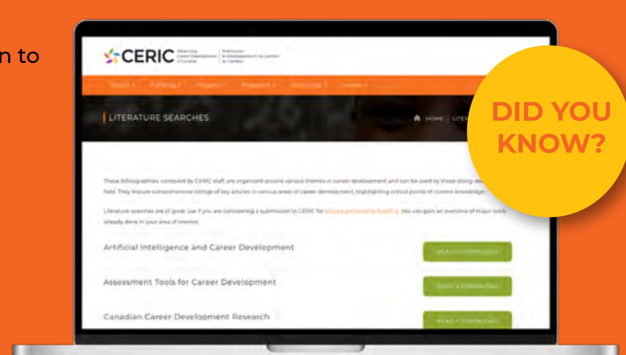

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The Relationship Between New Career Approach Attitudes and Subjective Career Success Perceptions of Typical and Flexible Employees

Öztürk Uygar. *Bitlis Eren University*
Yıldırım Elvan. *Sakarya University*

Abstract

This study centers on the examination of three distinct concepts, which have undergone adaptation from conventional paradigms to contemporary perspectives. The primary focus of this research lies in the comparative analysis of full-time and part-time employees concerning their assimilation of these new conceptual frameworks. This study aims to compare and examine the relationships between typical employees and flexible workers and examine the boundaryless career attitude, protean career attitude, subjective career success perceptions, and their sub-dimensions. The research was conducted using 895 questionnaires (412 flexible-time employees, 483 full-time employees) administered to individuals working in private employment agencies. T-test analysis was employed to test the research hypotheses and identify differences. According to the results, flexible workers have higher boundaryless career attitudes, psychological mobility, physical mobility, and value-driven career attitudes compared to typical workers. Regarding subjective career success, typical workers have higher perceptions of recognition, meaningful work, influence, quality work, authenticity, growth and development, and satisfaction than flexible-time workers. In general, it was found that flexible workers have higher boundaryless career attitudes, while typical workers have higher perceptions of subjective career success.

Keywords: Flexible Working, Career Development, Boundaryless Career, Protean Career, Subjective Career Success

Authors Note: This article is derived from the doctoral dissertation written by Uygar Öztürk under the supervision of Elvan Yıldırım.

Until recently, the traditional career development model, which emphasized full-time, long-term organizational employment and a solid commitment to one's employing organization, had been the foundation of much of the career research (Valcour & Ladge, 2008). However, significant changes have occurred within the context of the knowledge-driven economy. These changes, driven by globalization, rapid technological advancements, organizational downsizing, relentless competitive pressures, and the democratization of working life (Gratton & Ghoshal, 2003), have reshaped the world where careers unfold (Enache et al., 2011). Factors such as reduced job security (Cappelli, 1999), increased workforce diversity, outsourcing practices, widespread adoption of flexible and temporary employment (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), and a growing emphasis on leveraging intellectual capabilities to create and sustain competitive advantage (Powell & Snellman, 2004) have all contributed to these transformative shifts. The current academic landscape prominently highlights the evolving nature of careers, with contemporary scholarly articles consistently delving into this paradigm shift. Indeed, careers have changed substantially in recent years, assuming a more intricate and unpredictable trajectory (Akkermans & Kubasch, 2017).

The significant changes in today's work environment, such as rapid technological advancements, flattened hierarchies, and financial collapses leading to decreased job stability, have reduced individuals' opportunities to pursue linear upward movements with preplanned careers within a single organization over time. This phenomenon has brought about a perspective on careers characterized by the shifting of career responsibilities from organizations to employees (Volmer & Spurk, 2011).

The changes like work have also impacted the concept of individual careers in the contemporary business world (Greenhaus et al., 2000). With the increased flexibility in work arrangements, the boundaries of career fields are also expanding (Arthur et al., 1999). Employment contracts have also evolved in the context of career change in rapidly transforming economies. Individuals have managed their careers and assumed responsibility for them (Rousseau, 1995; Arthur et al., 1999). In contemporary work environments, employees are increasingly expected to manage and direct their careers (Volmer & Spurk, 2011).

In the context of reduced job stability and frequently changing work environments, it has become increasingly challenging for employees to pursue a linear, upward trajectory within a single organization throughout their careers. Gradually, employees face an increased need to take responsibility for their careers (Volmer & Spurk, 2011). Individuals' thoughts about their careers also need to adapt to the changing paradigm of careers.

Many researchers in the field of careers argue that boundaryless careers are inevitable and need to be embraced. In this regard, project-based work has been designed since the 1980s. Transactional relationships have replaced organizational commitment, and boundaryless careers have become dominant (Banai & Harry, 2004). Many definitions also include an unquestioned comparison with traditional careers. For instance, considering today's more dynamic and unstable corporate environments, individuals no longer expect lifelong employment at a single organization or a steady climb on the corporate ladder (Eby et al., 2003). Contemporary research (Kost et al., 2020; Duggan et al., 2022; Kundi et al., 2021) also indicates the proliferation of boundaryless careers across sectors.

Studies examining the motivators of boundarylessness have found that when engaging in boundary-spanning mobility, these are generally determined by organizational or labor market factors rather than career orientation (Forrier et al., 2009). While some criticisms are related to the systemic nature of the new career, there are also various types of discussions. In the early 1990s, prevailing thoughts revolved around the nature of careers. Radical changes in organizational redesign by practitioners and rethinking by scholars have initiated debates about the changing nature of work in a changing economy (Tams & Arthur, 2007).

The notion of boundaryless careers, initially proposed by Arthur & Rousseau (1996), may be considered a misnomer as systems inherently depend on boundaries to delineate their identities (Sullivan, 1999). In practical terms, the concept of a boundaryless career does not imply an utterly limitless career trajectory but rather signifies a career that transcends traditional boundaries (Inkson, 2006; Zeitz et al., 2009). Roper et al. (2010), critically examining the literature, argue that boundaryless careers' discourse aligns with broader neoliberal narratives, emphasizing individual responsibility instead of social or organizational responsibility for economic and career outcomes. Issues such as the risks in global financial markets, changes in the delivery of social services, and the depletion of natural resources increase the vulnerability of careers embedded in established economic production modes (Tams & Arthur, 2007).

The globalization of economies, rapid technological advancements, and increased competition have not only brought changes to organizational work environments but also made careers less predictable, directing employees to take more responsibility for their career development (Guan et al., 2019; Haenggli & Hirschi, 2020). Organizational hierarchies are becoming flatter and upward advancement opportunities are decreasing (Hall & Associates (1996). As a result, self-directed and individually customized career paths have gained importance and become more suitable for successful career development (Wiernik & Wille, 2018).

The concept of career success in the literature can be traced back to the early theoretical distinctions made by Hughes (1958). Efforts have been consistently made to distinguish between objective and subjective career success. At the core of Hughes's framework, objective career success encompasses universally accepted and measurable values such as promotions, status, and salary. On the other hand, subjective career success is shaped by the individual's self-reactions to their increasing career experiences (Lee et al., 2006).

Career success is also one of the concepts that undergo this transformation. More specifically, it is uncertain how individual evaluations of career success have changed over time, why subjective evaluations have developed over time, and in which aspects (Shockley et al., 2016). Examining how subjective perceptions of career success change over time is essential (Hupkens et al., 2021). Recently, scholars have argued that in the current society where boundaryless careers have become a prevalent phenomenon, the subjective indicators of career success have gained greater importance (Arthur et al., 2005; Heslin, 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Objective career success (e.g., promotions and salary increases) may appeal to some organizations (Smale et al., 2019). Many employees have adopted a boundaryless or self-directed multidimensional mindset and no longer expect traditional lifetime employment or advancement within a single organization (Hirschi & Koen, 2021; Kundi et al., 2021). As a result, changes in organizational structure and employee attitudes emphasize the significant role of subjective career success (Shockley et al., 2016). In other words, the criteria for subjective career success have transformed into understanding what constitutes personally meaningful careers and how individuals experience their career success (Ng & Feldman, 2014). These structural and attitudinal changes together highlight the role of subjective career success, where non-objective factors play an increasingly significant role in defining career success (Arthur et al., 2005; Sullivan, 1999; Wang et al., 2012).

Career success is an essential area in human resource management research. Moreover, career success has become more significant, especially in boundaryless organizations that offer numerous career opportunities in today's context. Employees no longer rely solely on objective measures such as wages, job titles, and authority to assess their career success through established indices. Subjective career success is significant for employees (Dai & Song, 2016). When conducting an analysis of all articles published between 2012 and 2016 in four prominent career journals (Career Development International, Career Development Quarterly, Journal of Career Assessment, and Journal of Career Development), it was observed that the most researched topic by authors was career success (Akkermans & Kubasch, 2017).

Many employees have now embraced a self-directed, multidimensional, or boundaryless mindset, which no longer envisions lifetime, upwardly mobile career trajectories within a single organization. These structural and attitudinal changes together highlight the role of subjective career success, where non-objective factors play an increasingly significant role in defining career success (Arthur et al., 2005; Sullivan, 1999; Wang et al., 2012).

Forty-six percent of studies on subjective career success have measured career satisfaction, 24% have measured overall success perceptions, and 4% have measured both simultaneously. In other words, subjective career perception has predominantly been investigated as a unidimensional concept with a very high percentage. Career satisfaction is an essential dimension of subjective career success, yet it alone leaves the concept incomplete (Heslin, 2003). Recently, multidimensional scales have been developed to measure subjective career success. One of these scales measures subjective career success in three dimensions (Pan & Zhou, 2015), while another measures it in eight dimensions (Shockley et al., 2016). A newly developed scale with a multidimensional and multicultural structure (Briscoe et al., 2021) has also been employed. In this study, subjective career success has also been treated as a multidimensional concept.

Literature Review

The proliferation of atypical work arrangements has led to a transformation in career approaches. Physical mobility (hierarchical or lateral) can be functionalized with various career transitions between jobs, organizations, professions, industries, geographic locations, and employment patterns (e.g., unemployment, part-time employment, full-time employment, self-employment) (Guan et al., 2019). Flexible work and new career approaches have become mutually compatible. Many researchers have explored the boundaryless and protean career as new career approaches or symbolized them as the representations of new career approaches in their studies (Aydın Göktepe, 2016; Briscoe & Finkelstein, 2009; Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Çakmak-Otluoğlu, 2012; Çakmak, 2011; Gubler et al., 2014; Park, 2010; Redondo et al., 2021; Seçer & Çinar, 2011; Segers et al., 2008; Verbruggen, 2012).

The assumption that an individual's career will unfold within a single organization, which is the essence of the traditional career, is no longer feasible in today's career structure. This situation has arisen due to the increasing prevalence of flexible work arrangements, leading to decreased employment guarantees. In this context, flexible work cannot offer a linear career path. The nature of upward career advancement, commonly known as the traditional career, can also be altered due to flexible work. As a result, employees have realized the necessity of managing their careers when organizations no longer provide employment guarantees (King, 2000).

The changing forms of work, flexibility in the career domain, employability, and networking have caused the traditional understanding of a career to change meaning, such as permanence, continuity, and stability. As the prevalence of flexible work arrangements is based on familiar work standards in the traditional career definition, it indicates the need for new career approaches to replace traditional career understanding (Marler et al., 2002). Another factor in transforming traditional to modern career approaches is the diversity of employment relationships. In traditional employment, individuals with fixed-term contracts were committed to their organizations, while in a boundaryless career, employability within the mobility framework has replaced this commitment with flexibility (Lo Presti et al., 2018). With the disappearance of this organizational commitment, individuals have become more attached to their careers rather than the organization.

Environmental changes, such as increasing globalization, rapid technological advancements, growing workforce diversity, and the rising utilization of outsourcing and part-time and temporary employment, have transformed traditional organizational structures, employer-employee relationships, and labor dynamics (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Market forces, globalization, outsourcing, and organizational restructuring, among other emerging trends, are challenging the upward career mobility perspective (Inkson et al., 2012). Boundaryless careers have become prevalent in organizations that rely on the external labor market for staffing at all employee levels, employ seasonal or temporary workers, and transition to contract-based employment as part of their organizational downsizing strategy (Lazarova & Taylor, 2009).

Long-term, full-time employment is no longer the norm in businesses (Biemann et al., 2012), and the prevalence of alternative work arrangements (part-time work, fixed-term contracts) has significantly increased, particularly in the last decade (Spreitzer et al., 2017). Alongside the structural changes in the labor market, attitudes have shifted among many employees who seek greater control over their career progressions (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011). Such employees strive to achieve benefits and satisfaction according to their standards rather than relying on their employers for these outcomes (Weng & McElroy, 2012).

Businesses must adapt to various changes, such as economic, technological, and structural fluctuations, as well as increased competition in markets. These changes have brought about transformations in employment and production methods in the business world. Both employees and employers find flexible work practices inevitable. Nowadays, more than merely ensuring production quality and employers' satisfaction with employees is required. For employees, achieving work-life balance, one of the most essential components of subjective career success, has gained significant importance. Implementing flexible work arrangements in businesses has become necessary for establishing work-life balance. In many countries that have made progress in economic and social domains, flexibility practices have been recognized as a significant factor in balancing work and personal life. In the business world, lean production, flexible production, and post-Fordist production concepts are generally expressed to meet the changing demands of customers and markets with zero stock, zero defects, and high-quality production through flexible work methods (Kavi, 1999). The same applies to personnel management in reducing idle capacity.

There are three distinct dimensions of career success among part-time working professionals and managers. These are characterized as: "having a life beyond work (work-life balance)," "performing well (influence)," and "engaging in challenging tasks and continuing professional growth and development (growth and development)." These conceptualizations of career success demonstrate that organizations have much to learn about the changing priorities and values of their professional and managerial employees. Moreover, to remain competitive in attracting and retaining the best knowledge workers, leaders should be aware that they must redesign their reward systems and career paths (Lee et al., 2006).

The questions to be answered in this study are as follows:

- Do the new career approaches attitudes differ based on the flexible work and typical work variables?
- Does the perception of subjective career success differ based on the flexible work and typical work variables?

Hypotheses Development

The research was conducted within the framework of three main hypotheses. Hypotheses H1, H1a, and H1b were formulated for the comparison of flexible and typical workers regarding the boundaryless career and its sub-dimensions, namely the boundaryless mindset and organizational mobility attitude. Hypotheses H2, H2a, and H2b were established for the comparison of flexible and typical workers regarding the protean career and its sub-dimensions, namely self-directed and value-driven attitude. Hypotheses H3, H3a, H3b, H3c, H3d, H3e, H3f, H3g, and H3h were formulated for the comparison of flexible and typical workers regarding the subjective career and its sub-dimensions, namely recognition, meaningful work, influence, quality work, authenticity, personal life, growth and development, and satisfaction perceptions.

The boundaryless career attitude may vary depending on whether individuals work in the public or private sector (Volmer & Spurk, 2011). This sectoral distinction may also differ based on the type of employment. In other words, the perception of boundaryless career may vary between typical and flexible-time employees.

It is known that approximately 97% of flexible workers have a fragmented career trajectory (Biemann et al., 2012). In this case, flexible working enables compatibility with changes in organizations and sectors. The boundaryless career attitude of flexible workers may be more fragmented and characterized by higher mobility. In this context, one of the research hypotheses is formulated as follows.

H1: There is a Significant Difference in the Boundaryless Career Attitudes Between Typical and Flexible-Time Employees

A person may display variable attitudes within themselves. On the other hand, they may not prefer boundaryless mobility, meaning they may rely on a single organization for career advancement. In this case, there are numerous possibilities. Is it possible for high status related to social identity in organizations to deter mobility? (Briscoe et al., 2006). To further clarify the question, is it possible for a typical employee to consider more mobility than a flexible-time employee?

Flexible-time employees spend less time in the workplace and engage in more extra-organizational roles than typical employees (Katz & Kahn, 1978). At the same time, flexible employees are believed to have a different reference network than typical employees (Feldman, 1990; Miller & Terborg, 1979). As flexible employees have more diverse work locations, contacts, projects, and interactions with various organizations and managers compared to typical employees, the hypothesis is formulated as follows.

H1a: There is a Significant Difference in Psychological Mobility Attitudes Between Typical and Flexible-Time Employees

The study conducted by Segers et al. (2008) found that status, salary, job security, and advancement desire were the factors influencing physical mobility. In this regard, typical employees may have a lower physical mobility attitude than flexible-time employees because status, job title, traditional career progression, job security, and salary are perceived more positively for typical employees than flexible-time employees.

Previous research has shown a positive relationship between physical mobility and salary increase for typical employees (Amuedo-Dorantes & Serrano-Padial, 2007). From another perspective, if the salary remains the same or the conditions need to be improved in the new location for typical employees, it may decrease their motivation for mobility. Another study revealed that flexible employees experienced continuity issues in communication and workplace relationships with the organization (Feldman, 1995; Godfrey, 1980). Decreased communication and interaction for flexible employees could increase their physical mobility attitude.

Regarding job security, it was found that typical employees are more satisfied than flexible-time employees (Still, 1983). Thus, flexible-time employees may have higher perceptions of physical mobility than typical employees. On the other hand, a specific employment contract's binding nature may hinder typical employees' physical mobility. In this context, one of the hypotheses of the research can be formulated as follows.

H1b: There is a Significant Difference in the Physical Mobility Attitudes Between Typical and Flexible-Time Employees

Individuals with a high protean career attitude are continuous learners who are always open to new possibilities and perceive their careers as a series of learning experiences (Hall, 2002, 2004). Individuals with a high protean career attitude are eager to enhance their talents and knowledge. These desires can allow individuals to engage in different jobs and transitions between various roles (Öngel et al., 2021). Flexible-time employees often perform tasks of different nature, continuously learn new things, and lack a standardized work routine, which can further enhance their knowledge, skills and abilities. This situation may lead to a higher prevalence of a protean career attitude among flexible-time employees.

Research suggests that a protean career positively affects individuals in situations with limited employment security regarding coping with job loss, job search, and reemployment (Briscoe et al., 2012; Waters et al., 2014). Since flexible employees generally have lower job security than typical employees, a positive impact on their protean career perceptions could align with a higher protean career attitude.

However, protean career attitudes may only be equally prevalent among some employee groups (Inkson et al., 2010). Research on flexible-time MBA students indicates that individuals' beliefs in their skills and abilities have a stronger influence on their career direction than external factors (Özbilgin et al., 2005). Hence, flexible employees may have higher protean career attitudes than typical employees.

In this context, one of the hypotheses of the research can be formulated as follows.

H2: There is a Significant Difference in the Protean Career Attitudes Between Typical and Flexible-Time Employees

Individuals who self-direct their careers imply taking responsibility for their careers themselves rather than relying on the organization for career guidance (Çakmak-Otluoğlu & Bulut, 2020). Flexible employees, often hired during busy times or by other companies, may have lower chances of the organization planning their careers compared to typical employees. Consequently, they may need to plan their career paths differently.

A protean career, which involves individuals self-directing their careers, can significantly motivate individuals to rely less on recruiters, career counselors, and employment agencies (private employment agencies) and instead take charge of their direction (Waters et al., 2014). Self-directed work in uncertain and turbulent environments enhances individuals' skills (Briscoe et al., 2012). Such uncertainty and lack of a fixed work schedule are present in flexible employment. In one qualitative study, flexible workers expressed clear statements such as "Career development is not really up to the organization. If I really want to progress, I have to take responsibility for my career advancement" (Sargent & Domberger, 2007). The self-directed career attitude of flexible employees appears to be higher than that of typical employees. In this context, one of the hypotheses of the research can be formulated as follows.

H2a: There is a Significant Difference in the Self-Directed Career Attitudes Between Typical and Flexible-Time Employees

Being value-driven means making career decisions closely aligned with one's values rather than being guided by objective rewards or others' values (Briscoe et al., 2006). Although values themselves are seen as enduring beliefs (Rokeach, 1973), research has shown that the degree to which we express our values through our words, actions, and behaviors can vary over time and situations (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Situations where career guidance might vary based on these values can differ concerning occupation, income status, and position within the organization (Kale & Özer, 2012). In this context, one of the hypotheses of the research can be formulated as follows.

H2b: There is a Significant Difference in the Value-Driven Career Attitudes Between Typical and Flexible-Time Employees

Individuals with a high preference for mobility may be less inclined to invest in their internal career development as they prioritize limited time with their current employer (De Feyter et al., 2001). Generally, research indicates negative relationships between flexible working arrangements and career opportunities (McDonald et al., 2008). Studies have shown that individuals with longer organizational tenure and less organizational mobility tend to report higher career satisfaction (Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1993). Similarly, findings from other studies reveal that certain forms of psychological and physical mobility may adversely affect individuals' career success (Verbruggen, 2012).

These results suggest that extreme career restraint (i.e., either inactivity or excessive mobility) can be detrimental to individuals' career success, while moderate and voluntary changes may increase it. Individuals with moderate career mobility are more likely to access new opportunities than those who do not (Guan et al., 2019). A strong correlation exists between participation in flexible work arrangements and the slowing down or halting of existing career paths (McDonald et al., 2008).

It is hypothesized that flexible employees, who often need to work with more than one employer, may have lower levels of physical and psychological mobility compared to typical employees with more stable perceptions of career success. In this context, one of the research hypotheses can be stated as follows.

H3: There is a Significant Difference Between the Subjective Career Success Perceptions of Typical and Flexible-Time Employees

The concept of partial inclusion proposes that individuals are partially or incompletely integrated into the functioning of social systems. Flexible-time employees are less integrated into the organization's social system than typical employees (Eberhardt & Shani, 1984). Additionally, it is predicted that typical employees may experience higher levels of situations such as fame, status, reputation, and recognition in their workplaces or sectors compared to flexible-time employees. On the other hand, since flexible-time employees are assigned tasks or duties with lower levels of significance compared to typical employees, there is a higher probability that their perceptions of recognition may be lower. In this context, one of the research hypotheses can be stated as follows.

H3a: There is a Significant Difference Between the Recognition Perceptions of Typical and Flexible-Time Employees

Businesses have high expectations that flexible-time employees can perform highly repetitive tasks during the busiest hours of the workday. This perception may lead to the belief that flexible-time employees' efforts and contributions differ from typical employees (Conway & Briner, 2002). In qualitative research, flexible employees have critically questioned the meaningfulness of their work, stating reasons such as "I started questioning why I pursued this type of job experience and what it meant" and "I was involuntarily pushed into such jobs" (Sargent & Domberger, 2007).

One study found that over 78% of typical graduate employees were either very satisfied or satisfied with their jobs, while only 47.7% of flexible employees expressed satisfaction (Denton, 1987 as cited in Levanoni & Sales, 1990). Additionally, several studies comparing job satisfaction between flexible and typical employees have reported lower job satisfaction levels among flexible employees than typical employees (Wotruba, 1990, as cited in Karatuna & Basol, 2017). A study conducted in Turkey aligned with the literature, where flexible employees reported significantly higher scores for statements like "I would consider changing my employment status if given the opportunity" and expressed less satisfaction with their employment status. A significant portion of the flexible sales employees in the study indicated that they would be more satisfied with their jobs if they transitioned to typical employment. The study's findings suggest that flexible sales employees are less satisfied with their jobs than typical sales employees, primarily due to their lower incomes and dissatisfaction with their employment status (Karatuna & Basol, 2017). In this context, one of the research hypotheses can be stated as follows.

H3b: There is a Significant Difference Between Typical and Flexible-Time Employees' Perceived Meaning of Work

Flexible-time employees lack sufficient knowledge about organizational issues and policies to express negative attitudes due to their lack of participation in organizational functionality (Eberhardt & Shani, 1984). As they usually do not hold any title or position, flexible employees cannot influence the functioning of the jobs. According to management science, decision-making is a responsibility delegated through authority transfer to managers. Managers also have an impact on achieving the overall objectives of the organization based on their expertise areas. However, flexible employees typically perform tasks that do not require expertise and can be done by anyone, resulting in limited impact on the organization. In this context, one of the research hypotheses can be stated as follows.

H3c: There is a Significant Difference Between the Perceived Influence of Typical and Flexible-Time Employees

Typical employees perceive their jobs more comprehensively than flexible-time employees (Levanoni & Sales, 1990). Flexible work experiences may not influence professional development among young individuals, as most of these jobs are low-level, unpretentious, entry-level sales, service, or manual labor positions that pay only about 40% of the average (Stern & Nakata, 1989). Flexible-time employees working in these secondary jobs may have lower ratings regarding job performance, earnings, sense of accomplishment, ability to produce quality work, and perceptions than typical employees. In this context, one of the research hypotheses can be stated as follows.

H3d: There is a Significant Difference Between Typical and Flexible-Time Employees' Perceived Quality of Work

Some individuals may find the key focal points of career success early in their careers and adhere to them throughout their careers. For example, young entrepreneurs born into a family with an entrepreneurial attitude and mindset toward their career as self-employed may promote autonomy throughout their careers (Hupkens et al., 2021). At the organizational level, flexible-time employees have been found to be treated differently by the organization in terms of the scope of work, benefits, task variety, autonomy, and advancement opportunities (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984; Feldman, 1995; Levanoni & Sales, 1990). Flexible-time employees' perceptions of autonomy and authenticity may be lower than typical employees. In this context, one of the research hypotheses can be stated as follows.

H3e: There is a Significant Difference Between the Perceived Authenticity of Typical and Flexible-Time Employees

In a study, flexible work was found to be particularly important for families with young children and showed a mitigating effect on work-life balance. Flexible work is preferred to manage both childcare and livelihood (Parlak, 2016). Typical employees can achieve work-life balance when they can adjust their non-work commitments in advance and as desired, meaning that their lives are not solely centered around work. Individuals can manage their work-life balance effectively by notifying in advance of the days when they will not work during flexible working hours (Berkmen, 2018).

According to a recent qualitative study, "Now, career success is part of the bigger picture of life, so life is a big umbrella, and then career and career success are just part of it. When you were younger, you didn't think about the whole picture. You think about titles, money, and cars, but now my family comes first" (Hupkens et al., 2021). Perceptions of work-life balance may vary depending on factors such as age, marital status, and the number of children, in addition to the interplay between typical and flexible work arrangements. In this context, one of the research hypotheses can be stated as follows.

H3f: There is a Significant Difference in the Personal Life Perceptions Between Typical and Flexible-Time Employees

Regarding the function of career communities in enhancing subjective career success, Parker et al. (2004) argue that career communities provide support to their members in increasing subjective career success through motivations of understanding why they work together, developing expertise related to the job, and building relationships with those who possess knowledge about succeeding in their careers (Park, 2010). Traditional career planning involves providing necessary training and development practices to meet future personnel demands for typical employees. Additionally, since typical employees work continuously, their perceptions of self-development may differ from those of flexible employees who work part-time. In this context, one of the research hypotheses can be stated as follows.

H3g: There is a Significant Difference in the Perceptions of Growth and Development Between Typical and Flexible-Time Employees

Flexible workers can encompass unskilled laborers, such as those working in challenging employment conditions and precarious positions, and highly skilled professionals like architects and software engineers. The career satisfaction of flexible workers, whether skilled or unskilled, can vary significantly. Flexible workers entering the labor force with low skills tend to have fragmented and limited careers (Ashford et al., 2018; Kost et al., 2020).

Physical mobility has a negative impact on career satisfaction. This negative impact is caused by factors such as low wages, temporary job contracts, and external resourcing (Karakuş, 2017). These factors that decrease career satisfaction are inherent characteristics of flexible work. Additionally, flexible employees often engage in secondary jobs. Since most of them are in the early stages of their careers, their career satisfaction may be lower than that of typical employees. In this context, one of the research hypotheses can be stated as follows:

H3h: There is a Significant Difference in the Perceptions of Career Satisfaction Between Typical and Flexible-Time employees

Methodology

Participants and Procedure

The research was conducted on typical and flexible-time employees working under private employment agencies in Istanbul province. In this context, private employment agencies operating in Istanbul were identified, and the purpose of the research was explained to the managers and project coordinators. Research questionnaires were administered online. Out of 908 returned questionnaires, 13 were incomplete and were excluded from the study. The research analyses were conducted with the remaining 895 questionnaires (There were 412 flexible workers, 226 males and 186 females, and 483 typical workers, 165 males and 318 females). The authors obtained a letter of approval from the university ethics committee for research permission.

Measures

Protean Career Attitude

We used the Turkish version (Çakmak, 2011) of the Protean Career Attitude Scale (Briscoe et al., 2006). It includes two dimensions: self-directed career management (eight items, e.g., “I am responsible for my success or failure in my career”) and value-driven orientation (six items; e.g., “In the past, I have sided with my own values when the company has asked me to do something I do not agree with”). Responses were collected via a five-point rating scale ranging from (1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree). Cronbach’s α was 0.77.

Boundaryless Career Attitude

We used the Turkish version (Çakmak, 2011) of the Boundaryless Career Attitude Scale (Briscoe et al., 2006). It includes two dimensions: Boundaryless Mindset Scale (eight items; e.g.,” I enjoy job assignments that require me to work outside of the organization”) and Organizational Mobility Preference (five items; e.g.,” If my organization provided lifetime employment, I would never desire to seek work in other organizations”). Responses were collected via a five-point rating scale (1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree). Cronbach’s α was 0.73.

Subjective Career Success

We used the Turkish version (Budak & Gürbüz, 2017) of the Subjective Career Success Scale (Shockley et al., 2016). It includes eight dimensions: recognition, meaningful work, influence, quality work, authenticity, personal life, growth and development, and satisfaction. Each sub-dimension consists of three items. Sample item: “My career is personally satisfying”. Responses were collected via a five-point rating scale ranging from (1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree). Sample item is: I have found my career quite interesting. Cronbach’s α was 0.92.

Additionally, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to examine the underlying factor structure of the scale. The Direct Oblimin rotation method was used for all the scales. The results of KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure) and sig (significance) for the Protean career attitudes scale were KMO=.805, sig=0.000, variance=44.45% for boundaryless career attitudes scale was KMO=.821, sig=0.000, variance=49,93%, which showed that the correlation matrixes were suitable for factor analysis.

The suitability of the subjective career success scale for factor analysis was assessed based on the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy, which yielded a value of 0.911 and a statistically significant p-value of 0.000 (<0.05). Subsequently, a factor analysis was conducted, revealing an eight-factor structure for the scale. The cumulative percentage of explained variance accounted for by the scale was 76.66%. Examination of the factor loadings of the individual items indicated a range of values between 0.578 and 0.910.

Results

Relationship Between New Career and Subjective Career Success

According to Table 1, there is a positive relationship between type of employment and boundaryless career (r=0.313, p<0.01), psychological mobility (r=0.180, p<0.01), physical mobility (r=0.270, p<0.01), and values-driven career (r=0.197, p<0.01). On the other hand, there is a negative relationship between type of employment and subjective career success (r=-0.250, p<0.01). There is a positive relationship between boundaryless career and protean career (r=0.173, p<0.01), while there is a negative relationship between subjective career success and protean career (r=-0.109, p<0.01).

Table 1

Mean, Standard Deviations and Bivariate Correlations Among all Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Type of Employment**	1.46	0.49	-						
BCO	3.24	0.49	0.31*	-					
Boundaryless Mindset	3.82	0.61	0.18*	0.76*	-				
Organizational Mobility	2.32	0.83	0.27*	0.64*	-0.00	-			
PCO	3.85	0.47	0.06	0.17*	0.26*	-0.04	-		
Self-Directed	4.00	0.55	-0.09	0.06	0.24*	-0.19*	0.80*	-	
Values-Driven	3.67	0.63	0.19*	0.21*	0.17*	0.12*	0.80*	0.30*	-
SCS	3.83	0.56	-0.25	-0.10*	0.23*	-0.44*	0.28*	0.39*	0.05

Notes: *p < 0.01; ** Included Flexible-time employee/Typical employee

Table 2

Differences and Hypothesis Testing of Typical and Flexible Employees in Boundaryless Career

	Group	n	M	SD	t	p (sig.)	H	Hypothesis Test
Boundaryless Career	Typical	483	3.10	0.50	-9.966	0.000	H1	Supported
	Flexible	413	3.41	0.42				
Boundaryless Mindset	Typical	483	3.72	0.61	-5.460	0.000	H1a	Supported
	Flexible	413	3.94	0.58				
Organizational Mobility	Typical	483	2.12	0.84	-8.485	0.000	H1b	Supported
	Flexible	413	2.57	0.74				

Table 3

Differences and Hypothesis Testing of Typical and Flexible Employees in Protean Career

	Group	n	M	SD	t	p (sig.)	H	Hypothesis Test
Protean Career	Typical	483	3.82	0.47	-1.909	0.057	H2	Not supported
	Flexible	413	3.88	0.48				
Self-Directed	Typical	483	4.05	0.53	2.798	0.005	H2a	Supported
	Flexible	413	3.94	0.56				
Value-Driven	Typical	483	3.56	0.66	-6.058	0.000	H2b	Supported
	Flexible	413	3.81	0.58				

Table 4

Differences and Hypothesis Testing of Typical and Flexible Employees in Subjective Career

	Group	n	M	SD	t	p (sig.)	H	Hypothesis Test
Subjective career	Typical	483	3.96	0.51	7.631	0.000	H3	Supported
	Flexible	413	3.68	0.58				
Recognition	Typical	483	4.42	0.56	8.068	0.000	H3a	Supported
	Flexible	413	4.06	0.72				
Meaningful Work	Typical	483	4.07	0.78	7.693	0.000	H3b	Supported
	Flexible	413	3.64	0.90				
Influence	Typical	483	3.72	0.84	7.619	0.000	H3c	Supported
	Flexible	413	3.29	0.83				
Quality Work	Typical	483	3.87	0.70	4.861	0.000	H3d	Supported
	Flexible	413	3.63	0.79				
Authenticity	Typical	483	3.87	0.70	4.861	0.000	H3e	Supported
	Flexible	413	3.63	0.79				
Personal life	Typical	483	3.49	1.02	-1.655	0.098	H3f	Not supported
	Flexible	413	3.60	0.91				
Growth and development	Typical	483	4.30	0.65	8.459	0.000	H3g	Supported
	Flexible	413	3.91	0.72				
Satisfaction	Typical	483	3.62	0.88	3.325	0.001	H3h	Supported
	Flexible	413	3.42	0.93				

New Career and Subjective Career Success Differences Between Flexible and Typical Employees

As seen in Table 2, within the scope of the developed hypotheses, flexible employees significantly exhibit higher levels of boundaryless career, physical mobility, and psychological mobility attitudes compared to typical employees. Thus, hypotheses H1, H1a, and H1b are supported.

According to Table 3, there is no significant difference in protean career attitudes between flexible and typical employees. However, significant differences are found in the sub-dimensions of self-directed career management and value-driven careers. The direction of these differences is that typical employees exhibit higher levels of self-directed career management attitude than flexible employees. In contrast, flexible employees show a higher level of value-driven career attitude than typical employees. Thus, hypotheses H2a and H2b are supported.

According to Table 4, typical employees have a significantly higher perception of subjective career success than flexible employees. When analyzing the sub-dimensions of subjective career success, typical employees show significantly higher perceptions in terms of recognition, meaningful work, influence, quality work, authenticity, growth and development, and satisfaction compared to flexible employees. However, no significant difference is found in the perception of personal life between typical and flexible employees. In this context, hypotheses H3, H3a, H3b, H3c, H3d, H3e, H3g and H3h are supported.

Discussion

The research comprehensively compares flexible and typical workers in terms of three distinct new career approaches and their sub-dimensions. These new career approaches are the boundaryless career, protean career, and subjective career success. These new career concepts and their sub-dimensions have been analyzed by comparing them in the context of traditional and contemporary employment models. In other words, an attempt has been made to understand whether typical or flexible employment is more suitable for the new career approaches.

According to the analysis conducted in the study, flexible employees have significantly higher perceptions of a protean career attitude than typical employees. This data can be attributed to the traditional sense of continuity experienced by typical employees who work in the same organization, in the same sector, and with the same people daily, leading to higher organizational commitments than flexible employees. As flexible employees experience more fluidity in their career paths, they naturally have a more protean or boundaryless career attitude. The finding that building connections with more people increases the protean career attitude (Lazarova & Taylor, 2009) aligns with the result that flexible employees have higher protean career attitudes due to their increased interactions with various individuals.

According to the study's findings, flexible employees have a higher psychological mobility attitude than typical employees. This result can be explained by flexible employees establishing more connections, engaging in various projects, taking on more non-organizational roles, and performing their tasks in different locations than typical employees. One of the reasons for higher psychological mobility in flexible employees may be the differences in status and organizational identity within the organization. The fact that flexible employees have different reference groups (Feldman, 1990; Miller & Terborg, 1979) is also consistent with the research result.

The analysis results for physical mobility indicate a significant difference between flexible employees and typical employees. This difference suggests that flexible employees have a higher level of physical mobility attitude. The contract types of flexible employees and typical employees differ from each other. While typical employees have indefinite-term contracts, flexible employees have fixed-term or on-call work contracts, which may contribute to increased physical mobility among flexible employees. The high level of physical mobility attitude in flexible employees is consistent with the research results, as they may have lower organizational belongingness and communication with the organization or perceive flexible work as temporary due to its nature.

The analysis results for protean career indicate that although there is no significant difference in attitude scores between flexible employees and typical employees, the scores of flexible employees are higher. Both groups have obtained high scores. Flexible employees may perceive that their knowledge, skills, and experiences rapidly increase due to their involvement in multiple job descriptions, tasks, projects, jobs requiring different competencies, exposure to different organizational cultures, and working in different cities. This situation can also enhance their employability, making it easier for them to find employment in case of unemployment or when entering the job market for the first time.

Self-directed career attitudes involve a significant amount of individuality and subjective values. Flexible employees are often hired to perform tasks for other companies. In this case, it seems unlikely that the company will include flexible employees in organizational career planning. They will have to make their career plans. The results align with the study conducted by

Waters et al. (2014). According to the results, there is a significant difference based on the work style. However, the self-directed career averages of both work styles are high.

According to the research findings, there is a significant difference in value-driven career attitudes between typical employees and flexible employees, with flexible employees showing higher levels. Value-driven career attitudes can vary over time and in different situations (Katz & Kahn, 1978) and can also differ based on work style.

According to the research findings, typical employees have significantly higher perceptions of subjective career success than flexible employees. Excessive mobility or immobility in careers can have a negative impact on career success (Guan et al., 2019). Additionally, flexible employees may have lower perceptions of subjective career success due to being responsible for multiple managers and employers, working in constantly different job characteristics, and having higher mobility. In flexible work arrangements, individuals with primary occupations other than their main job, such as students or homemakers, may also have lower career success. These findings are consistent with previous studies by Igbaria & Guimaraes (1993) and McDonald et al. (2008).

The research findings regarding the perception of recognition indicate that typical employees have significantly higher perceived recognition than flexible employees. This could be attributed to flexible employees having lower levels of fame, status, and reputation than typical employees. Additionally, the nature of flexible work may involve less significant tasks compared to typical roles, which complements the analysis results.

Typical employees have higher scores in the dimension of perceived meaningful work compared to flexible employees. In other words, typical employees find their work more meaningful than flexible employees. Previous studies such as Conway & Briner (2002), Sargent & Domberger (2007), and Karatuna & Basol (2017) support the findings of this research, as they indicate that flexible employees often work during the most demanding hours, perform similar tasks repetitively, involuntarily engage in flexible work, and express less satisfaction.

The research indicates that typical employees have significantly higher perceived influence levels than flexible employees. Flexible employees may lack sufficient knowledge about organizational issues and policies (Eberhardt & Shani, 1984). Moreover, flexible employees generally do not hold titles such as manager or supervisor. The higher perceived influence of typical employees in organizational decisions aligns with the findings of this study.

According to the results, typical employees have significantly higher perceptions of quality work compared to flexible employees. Flexible employees often work in low-level positions (Levanoni & Sales, 1990) and engage in unpretentious jobs such as sales and service with lower pay (Stern & Nakata, 1989), which may result in lower perceptions of quality work.

According to the authenticity perception findings, typical employees have significantly higher authenticity levels than flexible employees. The control and direction of careers may vary depending on the employment type for both flexible and typical employees. Due to differences in autonomy, job scope, and task diversity perceived by employers for flexible employees (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984; Feldman, 1995; Levanoni & Sales, 1990), the lower authenticity level among flexible employees supports the research findings.

According to the research findings, there is no significant difference between the personal life (work-life balance) perceptions of typical employees and flexible employees. This situation can be explained by the suitability of flexible work for students attending school, mothers with children, and disabled individuals who cannot work for long periods. Within these circumstances, individuals whose primary roles are studying, motherhood, or facing physical challenges can achieve a better work-life balance through flexible work arrangements. On the other hand, the importance of establishing work-life balance becomes more apparent with age due to the inability to spend time with family (Hupkens et al., 2021). This situation rationalizes the significance of work-life balance in every form of employment.

One of the research findings is that typical employees have significantly higher perceptions of growth and development (personal development) compared to flexible employees. Flexible employees, who often hold secondary jobs and work primarily for income, may not feel a sense of growth due to the informal and irregular nature of their learning experiences. On the other hand, typical employees benefit from systematic and organizational training within the corporate framework, allowing them to specialize by consistently performing the same tasks, thus confirming the research results.

Typical employees have significantly higher perceptions of career satisfaction compared to flexible employees. This finding is expected, as some employees may have lower incomes due to working on flexible or on-call contracts and functioning as external resources (Karakuş, 2017). Flexible employees often work in temporary positions and may face more challenging career advancement opportunities than traditional career paths.

In summary, the mode of employment plays a significant role in boundaryless career, protean career, and subjective career success. Overall, flexible employees exhibit higher boundaryless career attitudes than typical employees. Conversely, typical employees perceive subjective career success more than flexible employees.

Practical Implications

In modern career approaches, the differentiation between typical and flexible employment is influenced by factors such as continuity in the job, the meaningfulness of work, type of employment contract, frequency of external assignments, organizational affiliation, job descriptions and responsibilities, work values, perspectives, status, and repetitive nature of tasks. In the context of new career approaches, various factors such as the downsizing of businesses, streamlining, increased use of external sources, a rise in temporary contracts, enhanced individual freedoms, inevitable career plateaus, and changes in job characteristics have driven the traditional career towards obsolescence. However, asserting that all traditional career models have been entirely replaced and universally accepted by new career models (Aytemiz Seymen, 2004) is not accurate. Despite the popularity of boundaryless and protean careers, it is essential to acknowledge that traditional and linear careers still prevail in specific organizations, industries, and countries (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Moreover, numerous studies have demonstrated that many employee groups still adhere to organizational careers even in environments where boundaryless careers are expected to dominate (Inkson et al., 2012). Similarly, Lips-Wiersma & Hall (2007) have affirmed that the traditional career has not vanished completely.

As a new employment model, the concept of flexible working, with its pros and cons, generally benefits businesses, employees, and economic indicators. However, it is a matter that needs attention from the labor force perspective. Flexible working is a system that should be embraced in the age of neoliberalism. For those who voluntarily prefer this form of employment, flexible working is undoubtedly reasonable and has valid reasons. However, on the other hand, for those unwillingly forced into flexible working, it poses challenges regarding income, social security, career concerns, and personal development obstacles. Certain precautions need to be taken before the widespread adoption of flexible working. The social security system should also consider flexible working from a humanitarian perspective, allowing people to achieve a certain income level and gain retirement rights. In summary, for flexible working to be fully trusted, it is essential to have highly developed, humanistic, and well-crafted social policies as guarantors. Otherwise, the number of individuals with incomes well below the minimum wage, struggling to make ends meet, and elderly individuals over 65 unable to access retirement benefits will increase.

Limitations and Future Research

This study is limited to 895 individuals employed under private employment agencies operating in Istanbul. The research findings are limited to the data collected using the scales of protean career, boundaryless career, and subjective career success, which are used as new career approaches.

In the ethical context of the boundaryless career, there are criticisms regarding the possibility of experiencing low consumption and employment in relatively smaller jobs due to one's capacities (Van Buren, 2003). In this context, it is essential to ask the following question to ensure the appropriateness of the recommendations at the end of the research: Are modern career principles only for highly employable individuals with good education, such as doctors and engineers? If so, academic and sectoral studies should be directed accordingly.

Further studies can be conducted on how flexible workers affect businesses' human resource policies or practices. Generally, human resource practices are modeled after typical employment. Investigating the effects of this transformation on human resource functions would be beneficial. On the other hand, most academic studies on flexible work focus on social security and labour law. There is a need for more research on the performance, adaptation, and organizational commitment of flexible workers.

Conclusion

More conceptual research is needed to increase awareness among both typical and flexible workers. On the other hand, the logic of individuals' ability to direct their careers and values should be questioned because it is not conceivable for an individual to be more professional than organizational career planners or training and development specialists. In this case, individuals need to direct their careers according to the demands of the job market. In other words, if individuals develop themselves according to their desires, preferences, and values, but the qualifications demanded by the job market are different, they will not be able to meet the supply and demand of the job market.

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Distinct Paths to Protean Career Attitude: Family and Peer Support as Mediated by Grit Among Emerging Filipino Adults

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Abstract

Although career development is almost identical to personal development, emerging adults have been more active in finding the best career for themselves in recent years (Benardo & Salanga, 2019). Social cognitive career theory (SSCT) offers concepts such as social factors and personal factors that can explain the dynamics of career attitudes. Following the arguments of the theory, 415 respondents answered a scale on social support, a measure of grit, and a scale of protean career attitude to test the assumption of the hypothesis derived from SSCT. Although personal factors such as grit and social support correlated with protean career attitude, the results showed a different path of career attitudes depending on its source. Although grit fully mediated family support and protean career attitudes, peer support directly predicted protean career attitudes without any mediation from grit. This suggests that there are different kinds of support emerging adults need when it comes to their family and that of their peers. The outcome of this study can serve as a basis for career development programs that both workers and employers can benefit from.

Keywords: Social support, grit, protean career attitudes, emerging adults, career development

Following the completion of their academic degree, the demand on building one's career has been enduring and has pressured emerging adults internally and externally. Furthermore, emerging adulthood is a time of opportunity and possibilities (Wood et al., 2017), while it is also a time of distress associated with establishing one's career (Matud et al., 2020; Wood et al., 2017). This is reflected in the increased incidence of job hopping reported among emerging adults (Daud, 2016) implying uncertainty in career development. Internally, career development is an outcome of one's persistence to achieve goals despite hurdles. Likewise, external pressures from society also thrust the need for development in one's career. Therefore, studies analyzing the dynamics of career development are worthwhile and necessary to create programs or guidance in career development.

Social Cognitive Career Theory attempts to explain the connections among social support, cognitive factors, and career development by attributing relationships and subjective interpretations as a precursor to one's career. Following this theory, social support from both the family and peers determines how one would improve the conditions of their career, vocation, or occupation. Similarly, success from career endeavors was perceived in seminal research (Stoffel & Cain, 2018) as an outcome of grit, the capacity to persist in exerting effort in the face of challenges, setbacks, and stagnant development, fueled by a strong and enduring passion (Duckworth et al., 2007). However, how would social factors move towards persistence of goals, then later, towards a more specific scheme for building one's career? This study tested a path model of protean career attitude from social support as mediated by their levels of grit.

Protean Career Attitude

PCA is defined as an aspiration for individual development and fulfillment (Volmer & Spurk, 2010). Hence, it enhances underlying professional achievement and job efficiency, as well as improves interest in work (Deci & Ryan, 2008, as cited in Sultana & Malik, 2019). Furthermore, PCA refers to individuals accepting responsibility for their career advancement and adapting to the changing dynamics of the job industry. This construct has been renowned for its comprehensive viewpoint, forward-thinking characteristics, and acknowledgment of a career as both a source of passion and personal fulfillment (Hall, 2002, as cited in Volmer & Spurk, 2010).

Social Cognitive Career Theory

Testing models of protean career attitude expands substantiation of the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT). This theory expounds that there are influences such as personal predispositions and social factors that determine how a person shapes one's career (Lent et al., 1994, as cited in Thompson & Dahling, 2012). As SCCT is built upon the tenets of social cognitive theory (Wang et al., 2022), people's self-efficacy, a key concept in Bandura's (1977) theory, expresses as self-directed attitude toward one's career. Moreover, values, such as persistence in one's goal, are one of the cognitive facilities of individuals. As such, we extracted the hypothesis that social support influences an individual's career management such as protean career attitudes.

Social Support Predicts Protean Career Attitude

Aside from the theoretical bases, the hypothesis that protean career attitude develops from social support has already been supported through various literature and models (Lent et al., 1994, as cited in Thompson & Dahling, 2012). Advocating social support among adolescents can lead to enhancing their general well-being and success in their careers (Cobo-Rendón et al., 2020). Support from colleagues aids employees in adapting to and overcoming job-related difficulties and limitations (Campos & Distor, 2022). However, literature has been limited in comparing the influence of support coming from family and support coming from peers in career development. Family and peer support should have a different impact in one's career choices is an argument that Erikson's psychosocial development theory supports.

Grit Predicts Protean Career Attitudes

External influences from family and peers are not the only factor that leads to career development. Personal factors, such as one's persistence in one's goal have its impact in job enrichment, enlargement, and design. Individuals actively managing their career paths through self-directed career management deviate from conventional trajectories and organizational norms (Sirén et al., 2018). Grit serves a versatile role in domains like career adaptability, self-regulated learning, and academic success. Notably, individuals with high levels of grit were more inclined to exhibit enhanced career adaptability (Li et al., 2021; Lim et al., 2021). Workers may enhance their careers because it is their own personal responsibility to develop the progression of their jobs. People with high levels of grit and resilience are more likely to fulfill their job responsibilities, resulting in a feeling of personal career success and satisfaction (Koekemoer et al., 2023). Enhanced productivity, well-being cultivation, and active workplace participation have also been ascribed to grit (Niemiec, 2017; Ting & Datu, 2020). In addition, the concept of grit encompasses the individual's steadfast dedication to pursue goals that are related to obtaining the highest levels of performance (Datu, 2021).

Present Study

We built the hypothesis of the present study on a theoretical foundation and a review of the relevant research literature to understand and suggest how workers could develop their career. Although grit may be an impetus to achieve career progression, within a collectivist culture, grit may play a middle role between social support and protean career attitude. Grit develops as an outcome of support from the relationships a worker has. In its very nature, collectivist cultures consider a task successful if they attribute those successes to their relationships such as family, peers, and their community. Notably, grit can positively impact an individual's life purpose, career motivation, and adaptability throughout their career path (Li et al., 2021; Lim et al., 2021). As such, we hypothesized that social support, both from family and peers, serves as a predictor of protean career attitudes values driven and self-directed career management while being mediated by grit.

Methods

Participants

Participants comprised 415 Psychology graduates, who were preparing to take their licensure examinations as Psychometrician, of which 360 (86.7%) were female, participated in the study. The group's mean age was 23.22 (SD = 2.27) years old, consisting mostly of fresh graduates from Batch 2023 (82.2%), Batch 2022 (10.4%), and Batch 2021 (7.5%). Most of them were single and first-time takers, accounting for 410 (98.8%) and 409 (98.6%) respondents, respectively. More than half of the sample, 217 respondents (52.3%), were full-time reviewees, while the remaining 198 (47.7%) were part-time reviewees, denoting that they had either a part-time or full-time job alongside. In addition, it is worth noting that the respondents came from all 17 regions of the Philippines.

Instruments

Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS)

MSPSS is a 12-item self-report questionnaire developed by Gregory D. Zimet, Nancy W. Dahlem, Sara G. Zimet, and Gordon K. Farley in 1988 (Zimet et al., 1988). It purports to measure PSS from family, peers, and significant other, with each source of social support consisting of four items (e.g., "My family really tries to help me," "I have peers with whom I can share my joys and sorrows," and "I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me"). These three subscales are treated as separate scales, so the PSS of the respondents were represented by their total score for each subscale. Since most of the respondents were single, we also omitted the significant other subscale. The instrument utilized a seven-point Likert-type scale, wherein the options range from 1 (very strongly disagree) to 7 (very strongly agree). In the present study, the family and peer subscales exhibited an internal consistency of α = .919 and α = .927, respectively. These values indicated that the items accurately measured PSS from peers and family.

Grit Scale

The Grit Scale is a 12-item self-report questionnaire developed by Angela L. Duckworth, Christopher Peterson, Michael D. Matthews, and Dennis R. Kelly in 2007 (Duckworth et al., 2007). It has two dimensions (i.e., consistency of interest and perseverance of effort) that intend to measure the grit of adolescents and adults across life in general. These dimensions are not treated as separate subgroups, making it suitable for measuring grit as a general construct, which the current study proposed. As the instrument adopted a five-point Likert-type scale, the respondents rated how well each item (e.g., "I have achieved a goal that took years of work" and "My interests change from year to year") applied to themselves from 1 (not like me at all) to 5 (very much like me). The total score of the respondents in the two dimensions, with the items about consistency of interest being reverse scored, represented their level of grit. In the present study, the scale yielded an internal consistency of α = .809, denoting that the items highly measure the construct they claim to measure.

Protean Career Attitude (PCA) Scale

The PCA Scale is a 14-item self-report questionnaire developed by Jon P. Briscoe, Douglas T. Hall, and Rachel L. Frautschy DeMuth in 2006 (Briscoe et al., 2006). It measures PCA in terms of two dimensions: self-directed career management and value-driven decision-making. Items 1-8 encompass the former dimension (e.g., "When development opportunities have not been offered by my company, I've sought them out on my own"), while items 9-14 encompass the latter one (e.g., "It doesn't matter much to me how other people evaluate the choices I make in my career"). These items were slightly modified in the study by assuming a future verb tense to make them suitable for the respondents, who are yet to develop and navigate their career paths. The instrument also adhered to a five-point Likert-type scale, which required the respondents to rate each item from 1 (to little or no extent) to 5 (to a great extent). Since the current study adopted the two dimensions of the scale to assess PCA, the respondents had two separate scores catering to these dimensions. In the present study, the scale yielded internal consistency coefficients of α = .844 for self-directed career management and α = .813 for values-driven decision-making. These values proved that the items highly measure the dimensions of PCA.

Procedure

Initially, we sought the approval from an institution's ethics review committee to conduct the study. Upon approval, a pilot test was done to assess the quality of the instruments and prepare for the actual data-gathering process. We then proceeded to recruit respondents by distributing the informed consent form and the research instruments through a Google Forms link and a generated QR code. After gathering sufficient respondents, we collated and transferred their data to a password-protected folder before employing appropriate statistical techniques for analysis and interpretation.

Results

Table 1 shows the correlation among grit, support from peers and family, and the two components of protean career attitudes: self-directed career management and values-driven decision-making. Although grit was positively associated with support from family, r (413) = 0.186, $p < .001$, it was not observed to be correlated with support from peers, r (413) = 0.084, $p = .08$. Both protean career attitudes correlated with grit; self-directed career management, r (413) = 0.226, $p < .001$, and values-driven decision-making, r (413) = 0.210, $p < .001$.

As also illustrated in Table 1, support from family was associated with self-directed career management, r (413) = 0.137, $p < .01$, but not with values-driven decision-making, r (413) = 0.047, $p = 0.341$. On the other hand, both protean career attitudes; self-directed career management, r (413) = 0.235, $p < .001$, and values-driven decision-making, r (413) = 0.150, $p < .01$, were associated with support from peers.

Table 2 shows significant models of self-directed career management explained 11% of the variance in self-directed career management scores, F (6 ,408) = 9.56, $Adj\ R^2 = .11$, $p < .001$. Likewise, the variance from

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Perceived Social Support (PSS), Grit, and Protean Career Attitude (PCA) of BLEP Reviewees

Variables		Cronbach's Alpha, α	Mean	Standard Deviation
Perceived Social Support	Family	0.919	4.85a	1.48
	Friends	0.927	5.51a	1.25
Grit		0.809	3.46b	0.58
Protean Career Attitude	Self-directed Career Management	0.844	4.16b	0.54
	Values-driven Decision-making	0.813	3.92b	0.66

Table 2

Pearson Correlation Coefficient of Perceived Social Support (PSS), Grit, and Protean Career Attitude (PCA) of BLEP Reviewees

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
PSS from the family	-				
PSS from friends	0.339***	-			
Grit	0.186***	0.084	-		
Self-directed Career Management	0.137**	0.235***	0.266***	-	
Values-driven Decision-making	0.047	0.150**	0.210**	0.534***	-

Note: **p < .01 ***p < .001

values-driven decision-making model, F (6, 408) = 4.96, $Adj\ R^2$ = .05, $p < .001$, can be explained from demographic variables, social support, and grit only at 5%. It shows that grit predicted both self-directed career management, B = 0.15, SE = .03, $p<.001$, and values-driven decision-making, B = 0.12, SE = 0.03, $p<.001$. High score of grit was correlated with an increase in protean career attitudes. As shown in table 2, support from peers indicated an increase in both factors of protean career attitudes: self-directed career management, B = 0.18, SE = 0.04, $p<.001$, and values-driven decision-making, B = 0.12, SE = 0.04, $p < .01$. These results are consistent with the hypothesis that career management is shaped by an individual's grit and social support.

We found the hypothesized model of protean career attitude and the gathered data from the licensure examination reviewees were of excellent-fit: $\chi 2$ (3) = 1.76, p = 0.623, GFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.018, CFI = 1.000, RMSEA = 0.000 (p = .873), SRMR = 0.010. The model, as shown in Figure 1 and Table 3, exhibits that support from family significantly predicts grit among reviewees, B = 0.19, SE = 0.06, CI = 95% [0.1067, 0.3280], $p < .001$. On the other hand, support from peers increases both dimensions of protean career attitude: self-directed, B = 0.22, SE = 0.04, CI = 95% [0.1062, 0.2630], $p < .001$, and values-driven career management, B = 0.13, SE = 0.04, CI = 95% [0.0314, 0.1800], $p < .01$. Correspondingly, grit also predicted an increase in both self-directed, B = 0.25, SE = 0.03, CI = 95% [0.0973, 0.2100], $p < .001$, and values-driven career management, B = 0.25, SE = 0.03, CI = 95% [0.0601, 0.1670], $p < .001$.

Interestingly, as seen in Figure 1, the two sources of social support have varying effects on the protean career attitudes. Although support from peers directly predicted both self-directed and value-driven career management, support from the family required grit to increase the respondent's protean career attitude. Grit fully mediated support from the family and self-directed career management, B = 0.03, SE = 0.01, CI = 95% [0.0120, 0.0540], p < .01. Likewise, grit fully mediated family support and value-driven career management, B = 0.03, SE = 0.01, CI95% [0.0080, 0.0420], p<.01.

Discussion

The analyzed path from social support, grit, and protean career attitude exemplifies two general paths of career development: one from family support and another from peer support. Both paths enrich the understanding of career establishment among emerging adults and, likewise, support SCCT.

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Table 3

Multiple Linear Regression of Self-directed Career Management and Values-driven Decision-making of BLEP Reviewees

	Self-directed Career Management		Values-driven Decision-making	
	B	SE	B	SE
Sex[a]	-0.10	0.59	-0.49	0.56
Age	-0.03	0.09	-0.01	0.09
Review Status[b]	0.69	0.40	0.44	0.38
PSS from the Family	0.01	0.04	-0.03	0.03
PSS from Friends	0.18***	0.04	0.12**	0.04
Grit	0.15***	0.03	0.12***	0.03
Model Summary	F (6,408) = 9.56***, $Adj\ R^2$ = .11		F (6,408)=4.96***, $Adj\ R^2$ = .05	

Note: [a] (0 = male, 1 = female)
[b] (0 = part-time review, 1 = full-time review)
**p < .01 ***p < .001

Indirect Effect of Family Support on Protean Career Attitude

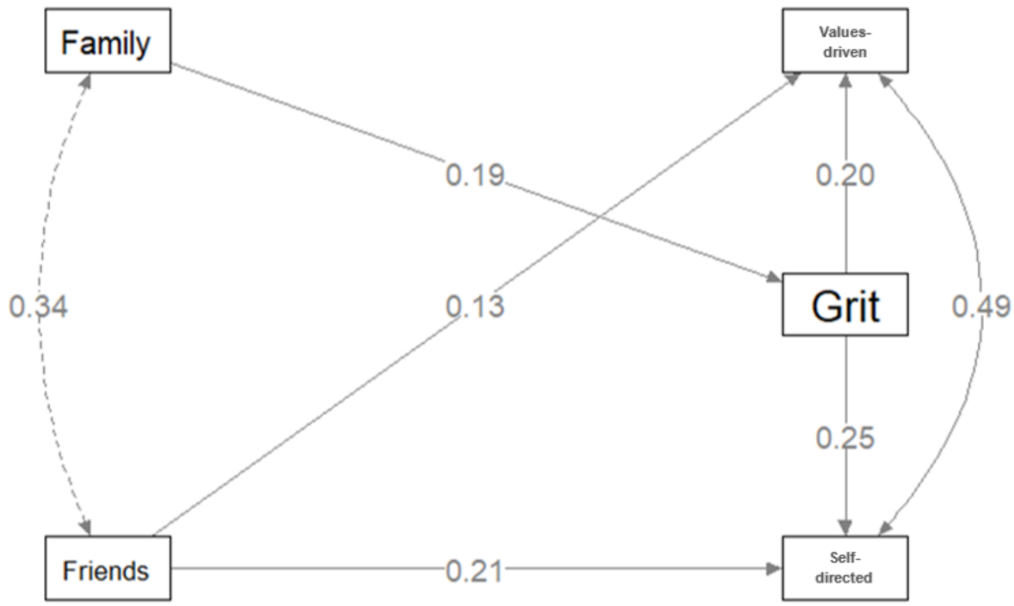
Family support had a subtle impact on career development. Although there was no direct path between support from the family and career attitudes among emerging adults, it was suggested by McMahon and Watson (2022) that career development starts as early as 14 years old. This impact does not translate directly to protean career attitudes in emerging adulthood. Alternatively, it may have been translated into a trait that could bolster career development.

Turan et al. (2014) found that social support has a direct relationship with career exploration. This implies that the more high school students receive substantial support from their families, friends, and significant others, the more they scout for career opportunities. Among these three sources of social support, however, social support from friends has the greatest influence on career exploration. Accordingly, Chan (2017) argued that social support from the family affects career development. This reflects on the proclivity of emerging adults to consult with their parents when it comes to making career-related decisions and to anchor their career beliefs on the experiences of their parents and other social networks. Notably, these two studies yielded contrasting results with the present study, which could be explained by the unique feature of Protean Career Attitude that entails self-directed career management and values-driven decision-making as opposed to relying on others about career-related matters (Briscoe et al., 2006).

Despite no clear impact on career attitudes, family support triggered the need to persist in one's overall goal. In past research, goals of emerging adults could vary from securing employment and having good health to building their own families (Hill et al., 2011; Salmela-Aro et al., 2007). An alternative view would be that the foundation of an emerging adult's persistence in their goal leading to their career development would be their family. This finding fully supported the collectivistic orientation that the Filipino respondents embrace (Garcia et al., 2012, as cited in Bernardo & Salanga, 2019; Salazar-Clemeña,

Figure 1

A Path Analysis of Perceived Social Support (PSS), Grit, and Two Dimensions of PCA: Self-directed Career Management and Values-driven Decision-making



2002, as cited in Bernardo & Salanga, 2019).

As such, several factors could explain why family support bolsters goal persistence that later leads to career development. First, early socialization from the family could have oriented career development. Career development may also have a lifelong foundation from the workers' experience from their family. Next, collectivistic culture reflected the influence of family support on career development through one's grit. The influence of these factors is reinforced by the SCCT, providing a perspective that both social and cognitive factors have an impact on career attitudes.

Direct Effect of Peer Support on Protean Career

It is notable to observe, unlike family support, that peer support is not a predictor of grit. Although supported by peers, their persistence in achieving their goals, which may be greater than that of their career progression, would not be enhanced. In a study among students in Chicago Public Schools, Eskreis-Winkler et al. (2014) found that perceived peer support did not predict grit. However, it is noteworthy that being Asian, together with teacher support, demonstrated the cultivation of grit among the high school juniors. This contradicts the findings of Kim and Lee (2022), which suggest a significant correlation between social support and grit. Likewise, this current paper dissected the impact of peer support in career attitudes using a path model.

Although peer support did not predict grit, it directly predicted the protean career attitude. Their socialization with their friends affects whether they like or dislike a certain career. Specifically, peers may support each other in terms of information regarding occupations. For instance, Angeline and Rathnasabapathy's (2021) study shed light on the weight of the viewpoints and advice of adolescents' peers and family before committing to a particular decision. The peer can provide a realistic job preview as well as the levels of expectations on a certain career (Lahif et al., 2021; Salim et al., 2023). Lahif et al. (2021) described peers as authors of actual and relevant experience and that the familiarity and similarity among peers appeared to improve the openness and preference of individuals to listen to their peers over advisers. In past literature, there was observed peer support influence in career in terms of career decision self-efficacy and career development (Hirano et al., 2022; Salim et al., 2023). It was established that the higher the peer support, the greater the capacity to create career-related decisions.

Additionally, the peer's influence on career may be that of fear of missing out (FoMo). Dou et al. (2021) found a negative association between college students' perceived social support and FoMo. This is supported by Brown and Kuss (2020) who found that FoMo has a negative relationship with a similar construct, social connectedness. However, Davis et al. (2023) discovered no correlation between the two. With that, it is apparent that socialization with peers dictates the career trends (Chan, 2017), and even the economic advantages of one's career (Corcoran & Clark, 1984). Emerging adults can share what careers would be in demand and create peer referrals. Peer support can also serve as a career network emerging adults can use to build their career. Even though peer support did not predict grit, which we viewed as cognitive component of SCCT, peer support in one's career may still be cognitive through informational support peers can provide in career development (Chui et al., 2020; Li et al., 2019).

In conclusion, the results emphasized the description of key individuals in the career development of fresh graduates. That is family support enhances grit which can contribute to increased protean career attitude. On the other hand, peer support directly increases protean career attitudes. This result expounds SCCT by providing a dynamic on the social, from family and peers, and cognitive factors that lead to career development. Nevertheless, the results of the study can be utilized, both by academic institutions and organizations, as a springboard for programs that would support fresh college graduates to enhance their career.

Despite the statistical strength of its result, this study is not without its limitations. Mainly, as the study respondents were from a single program, its results cannot be generalized to all other programs, such as those without licensure examinations. Hence, we recommend to future researchers to include other fields of study, higher or lower educational programs such as vocational tracks and graduate levels, and those who have been working in a company for a longer tenure compared to the respondents of this research.

Likewise, the social support in this paper has been studied with an overall measurement system which cannot identify best practices of support system or which specific support, either financial, emotional, or informational support were needed by the respondents. We recommend an exploratory inquiry would resolve these limitations.

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Book Review

Book Review of "Mapping the Future of Undergraduate Career Education"

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Abstract

This review evaluates the book *Mapping the Future of Undergraduate Career Education: Equitable Career Learning, Development, and Preparation in the New World of Work*, edited by Melanie Buford, Michael Sharp, and Michael Stebleton. It provides an informative overview of the current practice of and key theoretical understandings of career education in postsecondary. In this incredible book, 20 authors come together across 17 chapters presenting a wide range of concepts exploring the changes in and impacting Career Education. It includes the realms of work transformations and generational cohorts, sheds light on the crucial role of career education in promoting equity diversity and inclusion, introduces the latest innovative practices employed across the field, and delves into experiential learning integrations with career education. This review provides a comprehensive summary of the text's key points and strongly recommends that it be used not only as a textbook for graduate studies, but also as a valuable resource for professionals involved in guiding and supporting students' career education.

Mapping the Future of Undergraduate Career Education: Equitable Career Learning, Development, and Preparation in the New World of Work. Buford, Sharp, & Stebleton (2023)

With the ever-evolving field of career development and education, it is crucial to have a source that offers fresh perspectives to align this field with current research and practices. Brown and Lent's Career Development and Counseling has served as such a valuable resource for many years. However, while it is an invaluable resource for those who work in career counseling it has limitations when it comes to its applicability in the broader field of career education. In the field of career education, there is a strong emphasis on work-integrated learning and experiential learning, which are closely tied to career counselling, coaching, advising, and both formal and informal teaching opportunities. These can range from classroom-based career education for academic credit to workshops, seminars, and an array of career-focused events designed to benefit students. Career education at the postsecondary level goes beyond career counseling. It encompasses a diverse and interdisciplinary realm that combines counseling, psychology, education, and business. (Young, 2023).

Being an interdisciplinary field with so many components, it can be difficult to find unifying theories in career education. Most programs that connect with career education tend to be aligned with theories based in career counselling, postsecondary student supports and education, or human resources and industrial relations. With the emergence of a new generation entering the workforce and a significant number of individuals leaving it, alongside the rapid advancement of technology to enhance work conditions and productivity, and the profound impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, now is an opportune moment to provide a text that truly empowers career education advocates from diverse backgrounds. This text will help them navigate the complex and interconnected realm of postsecondary career education, which encompasses a multitude of disciplines.

The book *Mapping the Future of Undergraduate Career Education: Equitable Career Learning, Development, and Preparation in the New World of Work*, edited by Melanie

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Buford, Michael Sharp, and Michael Stebleton is a valuable resource for career counseling and development, as well as for anyone interested in the history and future of Career Education in higher education. More than twenty prominent and emerging researchers in Career Development, Education, and Counseling have contributed to this compelling work. The book consists of seventeen chapters, which are categorized into four distinct parts. These sections explore the future of work and postsecondary career education, emphasize the importance of equity and inclusion in career education, discuss the significant changes occurring in career education delivery and context, and highlight the ongoing integration of experiential learning and career education. This book is essential because it recognizes the evolving approach to career education and career development support in Canada. It highlights the shift from primarily relying on Counselling Therapists to embracing a broader and more interdisciplinary group of career development professionals (Dietsche & Lees, 2017) providing career education.

The work of career development professionals has always been based in the foundations of Parsons and Dewey at the beginning of the last century and been adapted and molded by the theorists that came after such as Holland, Super, and Kolb. Most career education work of the last thirty years, this text included, is firmly situated in the modern theorists starting with Savickas and Krumbotlz, changing the narrative of the work into constructivist and towards a critical understanding of individuals and their contexts. This text contributes to the field by wholeheartedly embracing the Psychology of Working Theory, as advocated by Blustein, Autin, and Duffy. This shift is of great significance because, just like career education, PWT is an interdisciplinary approach that draws connections not only with career counseling theorists, but also with education theorists like Freire, and organizational behavior or economics theorists such as Crant or Bertrand.

This book is laid out in four sections. Part one provides an overview of the changes to work, generational cohorts in the workplace, and career education from just before and since the pandemic. Part two focuses on how career education can be a force for change in equity and inclusion in society and the workplace. Part three identifies several new and innovative directions in career education both in theory and in practice. While the concluding section explains how tightly experiential learning is integrated in the current understanding of career education.

Part one's focus on the changes to employment, career education offerings, and generational cohorts provides a solid foundation for the rest of the text. Some key concepts are around new innovations in career education. Most visible are the expansion of various technologies as a way of serving a larger number of people as well as supporting traditionally underserved students. It also explores the new alignment of career education in universities, formalizing the connection with experiential learning, moving it from student affairs areas to academic affairs areas, and in some surprising changes having them report directly to the president. Sadly, some parts of this section are already appearing outdated. The anticipated outcome of the emergency changes during the pandemic failed to materialize, as innovation collided with institutional resistance and budget constraints.

The discussion of generational change and work experiences is especially important for anyone hoping to use this as a course textbook. The changes described in the generation shift seem to result from watching older generations like Gen X and Elder Millennials only achieve success through flexibility. The current generation entering university is experiencing a dramatic shift in career paths. Gone are the days of following a single profession or working for a single employer, even breaking away from the influence of their own parents. Instead, these stories have become relics of the past, passed down from their grandparents. The section closes out with a critical examination of the depressing spiral that would occur if we allowed the future of work to be written by those who only wish for wealth extraction. The thrust of the final chapter is that because the envisioned future is harmful to the individual, Career Development should not accept it but should instead work to help individuals envision a new and successful future and be able to work toward it.

Part two focuses on understanding the traditionally underserved and under examined students in postsecondary. This builds upon the foundation laid in part one, urging career education providers to see their work as being emancipatory. Career education plays a crucial role in bridging the gap between privileged wealthy white students and those who lack the same advantages. It not only equips individuals with the necessary skills and abilities for successful employment, but also cultivates a deep understanding of discriminatory hiring practices. By instilling this critical awareness, career education prepares future leaders to oversee fair and inclusive hiring systems. The importance of understanding work and workplaces extends to teaching intentional adaptability and other essential tools for thriving in today's unpredictable and demanding work environment. Much of the section is focused around making the teaching of the hidden curriculum of career explicit.

Not all of this section translates to the field outside the United States of America. Perhaps, ironically, the chapter on internationalization includes a substantial amount of US specific advice and recommendations that don't transfer into the Canadian context due to national legislation and policy. In addition, many of the section's assumptions about what the lasting changes from the pandemic would be did not end up coming to pass, at least outside of the US.

Part three examines and expands on the innovations mentioned in the first two parts. The chapters in this section provide a more theoretical understanding that supports future career development research such as examining career education from ontological, pedagogical, and instructional points of view. Though starting with a comparatively weak chapter explaining the Stanford Life Design Lab model, the remainder of the section examines key modern theories and innovations. It includes wonderful expansions on career construction and life design theories as well as Krumboltz's work on Happenstance Learning Theory, ensuring that the most impactful theories of the past decades continue to be relevant. More importantly, this section contains a substantial discussion of narrative or story-based career development practice. Narrative approaches are especially useful for those of us working with individuals who have not been well served by traditional approaches.

Completing the book in part four is a deep dive into the merging of experiential learning and career education into one department, which has become common in modern universities and colleges. This section focuses heavily on practical applications for individuals who may be leading transitions into a unified department or who are hoping to champion such a transition within their own institution. By providing four different pathways to linking experiential learning with career education departments, this section points the way forward for many who work in or support undergraduate career education.

Though not every chapter of this book lives up to expectations, as a whole the book offers an extraordinary exploration of the recent past, present, and promising future for postsecondary career education. It will increase the understanding for those who will be providing and supporting career education, career counseling, and career development supports to students. It provides a strong basis in modern career development, experiential learning, and psychology of working theory. It also provides practical and actionable changes that can be implemented in most postsecondary institutions that will lead to improving the educational experience of undergraduate students. Although originally aimed at graduate students seeking to enhance their understanding of career education in postsecondary institutions, this text is equally valuable for anyone involved in postsecondary career education, including administrators,

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service providers, and recruiters collaborating with postsecondary institutions.

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