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

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

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

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

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

personality type when devising a career counselling intervention. In particular, in looking at the framework of counselling variable, a significant difference was found between the social and realistic types, with the enterprising types responding similarly to social types and conventional types most similarly to the realistic types.

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

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

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

This research was designed to explore the career counselling preferences of a representational sample of Newfoundland offenders. A career counselling preferences questionnaire was designed to provide an assessment tool for career counselors working with this population. Through a comparison of responses on this questionnaire to responses on two standardized and validated instruments that identify work personality by Holland code (Holland, 1985) and learning style (Kolb, 1984), the ability of this questionnaire to accurately identify these indicators for counselling preferences can be established. In effect, clients demonstrating a propensity towards an abstract

conceptualization learning style were predicted to be more responsive to a self-reflective approach to career counselling than those who preferred to learn through concrete experience. Additionally, this preference for a reflective, less-structured approach was also expected to exist more frequently in artistic, social and enterprising Holland types in comparison to realistic, investigative and conventional Holland types. The degree of correlation of responses to items on the career counselling preferences questionnaire developed for this study with Holland code and Kolb's learning style could result in a new way of approaching career counselling that reduces resistance and increases client responsivity to the intervention, thus increasing effectiveness of the counselling strategy.

## **Method**

### **Subjects**

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

### **Instruments**

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

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

Internal reliability of the SDS scales is moderate: KR 20's for the six scales ranging from .67 to .94 (Holland, 1991). Comparisons of the internal consistency between the 1985 and 1990 revision was examined by Ciechalski (1998) and found to be high (Cronbach's alpha above .95). The retest reliability of the SDS summary scales are reported in the manual to also be favourable (.81 to .92).

The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) was developed from David Kolb's (1984) experiential learning model that holds there is a four stage cycle of learning that is

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

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

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

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

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

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

## **Interview Process**

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

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

## **Results**

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

Strong positive correlations were found between the SDS-E and the CCPQ on each of the six Holland typologies, suggesting a role for the CCPQ in screening for

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

Table 1

*CCPQ and SDS-E Inter-correlations (RIASEC)*

	CCPQ R SDS-E R	CCPQ I SDS-E I	CCPQ A SDS-E A	CCPQ S SDS-E S	CCPQ E SDS-E E	CCPQ C SDS-E C
Pearson	.604***	.343**	.402**	.548***	.534***	.423**
Sig. level	.000	.009	.130	.000	.000	.001
** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$						

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

Table 2

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

	R	I	A	S	E	C
CCPQ Thinker						
Pearson	-.066	.387**	.423**	.347**	.270*	.130
Sig. level	.639	.003	.002	.009	.046	.354
CCPQ Doer						
Pearson	-.011	.126	.081	.282*	.006	-.009
Sig level	.937	.350	.560	.034	.965	.947
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$						

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

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

Table 3

SDS-E and LSI Inter-correlations

		CE	RO	AC	AE	AC - CE	AE - RO
R	Pearson	-.197	.130	-.015	.084	.088	-.019
	Sig. level	.145	.340	.910	.536	.521	.888
I	Pearson	-.104	.051	.346**	-.355**	.296*	-.254
	Sig. level	.437	.706	.008	.006	.024	.054
A	Sig. level	.077	-.275*	.132	-.128	.055	.067
		.578	.042	.337	.353	.692	.627
S	Pearson	.131	-.051	-.016	-.028	-.075	.011
	Sig. level	.326	.703	.905	.834	.573	.935
E	Pearson	-.084	-.110	.187	-.144	.173	-.029
	Sig. level	.530	.410	.160	.280	.194	.827
C	Pearson	-.137	.137	.224	-.329*	.226	-.286*
	Sig. level	.315	.315	.097	.013	.094	.032
*p<.05		**p<.01					

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

**Discussion**

One of the primary purposes of this study was to investigate the idea put forward by Riverin-Simard (1999) that in times of occupational stress, individuals tend

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

These results then, lend support to the existence of a relationship between Holland's artistic, social and enterprising work personalities and a 'Thinker' approach to career distress or transition. However, other findings from this study suggest this whole postulate to be more complex than first proposed, at least for this population. One of the greatest detractors is the results regarding the Investigative typology. Scores for this type on the SDS-E were found to be strongly and positively correlated with the Artistic, Social and Enterprising typologies (as well as the Conventional typology). This effect was replicated through the CCPQ results. Additionally, the Investigative scores on the SDS-E were found to be positively correlated with the CCPQ Thinker scores ( $r = .39, p < .01$ ). It would appear then, that the Investigative typology does not conform to its proposed membership in a 'doing' genre. In fact, higher scores in this typology are correlated to higher scores in the 'thinking' typologies (ASE) as well as to the CCPQ Thinker construct.

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

Alternatively, no significant correlations were found between any of the Holland Realistic, Investigative and Conventional typologies and the CCPQ Doer scores. Upon examination of the relationship of these three Holland types and LSI learning styles, it was found that the SDS-E Conventional type was negatively correlated with LSI active over reflective (AE-RO) scores. Similarly, the CCPQ Realistic type was negatively correlated with LSI Concrete Experience (CE) scores but

positively correlated with LSI Abstract Conceptualization (AC) and Reflective Observation (RO) scores. These findings would not be expected of “doers” and indeed, are somewhat surprising. This is particularly true of the negative correlation between the Realistic type and the LSI Concrete learning style. One possible explanation for this may rest with the LSI’s ability to accurately measure this style. The LSI’s reliability in CE scores for this sample was very low when all 12 items were included ( $\alpha = .33$ ) and was only improved when seven items were dropped ( $\alpha = .65$ ). Also, upon examination of the five remaining items that are used to construct the CE score, it is apparent that the respondents feelings are emphasized (eg. “when I learn, I like to deal with my feelings”, “I learn by feeling”, “I learn best when I rely on my feelings”, “I learn best when I trust my hunches and feelings”) in this learning style. It may be possible that offenders reacted negatively to these items based on this emphasis and, as Realistic types were the most common in this sample, this significant negative correlation was found. Thus, the usefulness of the LSI instrument to indicate an inclination towards a ‘concrete’ learning style in this sample is doubtful. In fact, Kolb in defending the LSI, has often argued that the best measure of his instrument was not reliability, but construct validity (Highhouse and Doverspike, 1987). As well, none of the significant correlations found by Highhouse and Doverspike between LSI styles and Holland type were replicated by this study. Overall, results from the LSI proved to be mixed on finding a means of triangulating evidence in the investigation of Riverin-Simard’s theory. Support for the theory and for the CCPQ’s ability to identify Thinkers, came from the LSI when a positive correlation was found between the LSI Abstract Conceptualization score and the CCPQ Thinker score for participants. However, the positive correlation of the LSI AC score and the CCPQ Realistic typology contradicts the theory, as mentioned above. The impact of this correlation on the theory is somewhat diminished, however, as it was not replicated by the SDS-E Realistic scores. None-the-less, the correlation is opposite to that expected based on the theory and cannot be dismissed, especially when the relationship between the two measures (SDS-E and CCPQ) of Realistic typology is strong ( $r = .60, p < .01$ ).

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

## **Conclusion**

In light of the present findings, it would appear that a place for constructivist approaches, as distinguished by the development of self as a function of construction in the context of social participation, relationships and dialogue (Peavy, 1996), does

indeed exist in the area of career interventions for offenders. The four “thinking” Holland types, Artistic, Investigative, Social and Enterprising, would appear to be most suited to this approach. Based upon the characteristics the CCPQ Thinker items attempted to identify, it would seem that these typologies would benefit from an intervention where reflection and meaningful activity are essential processes and the broader perspective of the client’s whole life is considered as opposed to simply making a career choice or focusing on the occupational aspect of the client’s life. Approaches such as Peavy’s (1992; 1996) outlined earlier, where the intervention will be active, dynamic and re-constructive and the focus of the intervention will be the client’s own perception’s and personal meanings of what was, is and will be significant for them, would be appropriate to include in career interventions for these typologies. Typical constructivist activities such as counsellor elicited stories, metaphors, narratives and dialogues soliciting the clients’ self-reflections would comprise some of the methods used.

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

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## Evaluation of an Online Psychoeducational Career Workshop

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Student support services for post secondary students are commonplace for on-campus students and are increasing in relevance for students who study at a distance (LaPadula, 2003). These services facilitate student admission, registration, retention and other factors contributing to successful student experiences and outcomes. A specific type of student service is that of career counselling and advising, focusing on assisting students with career related decisions, such as choosing courses and acquiring work. This service helps students to make the successful transition from the role of student to worker at the time of graduation. Career counselling and advising can be offered to individual students or to a group in the form of a psychoeducational workshop. Psychoeducational groups are task oriented, facilitate the development of human potential, and use self-assessment and reflection methods to increase self awareness (Authier, 1977).

One such career workshop was successfully offered at the University of Calgary during in-person sessions to groups of 50 students who were preparing to apply for work experience positions (Crozier & Lalande, 1995). Work experience programs, such as cooperative education, internship programs, and practicum placements allow students to alternate work placements and academic terms, thereby increasing their employability. Students also acquire self-knowledge and knowledge of the world of work, and these insights facilitate life long career decisions. The career workshop for these students was designed to enhance their ability to acquire work experience positions, as the application process for these positions is highly competitive. Informal evaluations of these workshops indicated the participants increased their skills and knowledge in the areas of resume writing, interview strategies and job search techniques.

Due to the increasing numbers of students registering for this service and limitations in resources for staffing and space, the option of delivering this career workshop in an online environment was pursued. Other post secondary institutions in the region that offered similar services were approached to discuss the possibility of collaborating in a project to redevelop this workshop for delivery in an online environment. A group consisting of four post secondary institutions was successful in acquiring funding from Alberta Advanced Education to develop a new Internet based program, "Ex-Scape: Experience student and placement education" (Ex-Scape).

This article provides an overview of the Ex-Scape program along with a description of how the original in-person workshop was redeveloped to meet the needs of the collaborating institutions and also be delivered online. Research conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of the new program will be described along with a summary of the results of this research. Implications of these results for the future development of online career development services will be considered.

## **Development and Delivery of Ex-Scape**

The collaborating parties met regularly over a two-year period to revise the content of the original workshop and to reformat it for delivery over the Internet. The content was revised to include specific examples that are relevant to students at each post-secondary institution. It was also updated to include the latest information. The learning objectives of Ex-Scape are to (a) acquire the knowledge of effective job search strategies including resume writing, portfolio development, interview strategies, career research, and labor market information; (b) improve knowledge of personal skills, values, interests and accomplishments related to conducting an effective job search; (c) acquire experiential work positions; and (d) improve the decisions students make about educational programs.

In addition to the redevelopment of content, the web site was designed to provide a high quality, learner-centered environment. The in-person workshop provided students with opportunities for personal development through discussions, self-assessments, reflection and easy access to information from the instructor. Ex-Scape included a number of features to maintain this development and further learning. To engage the students, a number of short animations were developed to introduce content sections. Over 200 audio clips of students and employers who offered tips were included throughout the content as a supplement to the text based information. A series of nine short videos of actors in interview situations were included to demonstrate effective interview strategies. The site is highly interactive, allowing students to complete self assessment quizzes online and prepare sections of their personal resume as they worked through the instructions. Students can also talk to other students and the instructor via the discussion forum or real time chat room, in which employers are occasionally invited to answer questions. Instant access is provided to the many high quality career information resources that are currently available online. In addition to the online program, students participated in two in-person sessions (a) a one-hour orientation session; and (b) a three-hour session where they extend their learning, critique each other's resumes and participate in mock interviews. The program was also designed to be offered as a credit course and includes features for the online administration of competency based assessments and the marking of these assessments by the instructor.

## **Evaluation of Ex-Scape**

Evaluation of career development programs has been identified as a critical component of program design and delivery (Flynn, 1994; Hutchinson, 1994). Collins and Burge (1995) encourage the use of summative evaluations to provide student feedback on the effectiveness of computer-mediated learning. Delivering a program online requires the evaluation to determine whether there are problems with the technology or other factors (Powers, 1997). Reviews and evaluations have been conducted on educational courses that have successfully gone online, however there is a scarcity of information regarding the effectiveness of career workshops that are offered via the Internet (Levin, 1997; Monk, 1996). There was a need to assess the knowledge and skill outcomes of students who participated in this new program. There was also a need to compare the outcome success of students in the new course to those students who learned through the traditional in-person method, to determine the effectiveness of

computer-mediated learning. Consequently, the developers conducted an extensive evaluation of Ex-Scape after it had been implemented with the students at three of the post-secondary institutions.

The evaluation was conducted to answer the following questions related to the effectiveness of the Ex-Scape online workshop:

1. Did the students who completed the web-based workshop improve their understanding of how to write a resume, cover letter, and participate in an interview?
2. Did the students who completed the web-based workshop acquire the skills to write a resume, cover letter, and participate in a job interview?
3. Did the students who completed the web-based workshop do as well or better in the careers knowledge and skills outcomes of the course as the students who completed the program offered in the original in-class career workshop?
4. What are the students' experiences regarding participating in an online career workshop?

### **Method**

To assess the effectiveness of the new program, the researchers conducted (a) summative evaluations by measuring career knowledge and skill outcomes through a pre- and posttest design (Kidder & Judd, 1986); (b) an analysis of the students' evaluations of the program; (c) focus groups to determine participants' reaction to the program; and (d) skill and knowledge outcomes for 34 students who completed the program online, as compared to 8 students who completed the program in person.

### **Participants**

Students at three post-secondary institutions in the southern Alberta region of Canada who participated in the ExScape program were invited to participate in the evaluation research. A total of 360 students participated in the evaluation, with 42 students completing pre- and posttest assessments, 291 students completing course evaluations, and 27 students participating in focus groups. The students enrolled in the online course who completed pre- and posttest assessments included 16 out of 25 first- and second-year diploma students from Mount Royal College (MRC) and 18 out of 18 first- and second-year diploma programs from Medicine Hat College (MHC). The majority of these students were female and the average age was 19. The students enrolled in the last in-class course who completed pre- and posttest assessments included 8 out of 50 third-year students at the University of Calgary (U of C). The majority of these students were male and the average age was 22. All students completed the online or in-class course prior to applying for cooperative education or experiential work placements.

Program evaluations for ExScape were administered and completed by 291 out of 600 second- and third-year students from the U of C and MRC. The participants majored in the areas of engineering, general studies, science, social science, and business administration. The majority of students were male and the average age was 22.

Focus groups were conducted at the U of C, MHC and MRC with a total of 27 students who completed the ExEscape program. The students from the U of C were third-year students in cooperative and internship programs in the areas of engineering, science, and general studies. The students from MHC and MRC were first- and second-year diploma students from the areas of health studies and business administration.

## Instrumentation

Assessment tools were developed to measure knowledge in the areas of résumé writing, cover letter writing, and interview techniques. The assessments were in the format of a short quiz with a variety of question types including short answer, multiple choice and true/false questions. The résumé quiz included 20 questions, the cover letter quiz included seven questions, and the interview quiz included 21 questions. These quizzes were offered before and after completion of the program in print form to the in-class students, and in print form or online to the online students. Sample questions are provided in Table 1.

Course evaluations were utilized to survey the students' perception of their skill outcomes and to gather information concerning their impressions of the online workshop. Students completed this survey upon completion of the workshop. The 62-question survey gathered information concerning program objectives, content, instruction, technology, and assignments using a 5-point Likert-type scale. The survey also included six open-ended questions that surveyed (a) students' expectations, (b) features that should be removed or added, (c) their overall rating of the course, (d) whether or not the student would take another online course, and (e) general suggestions or comments. Sample questions from this survey are provided in Table 1.

Table 1

### *Sample Questions – Resume, Cover Letter, Interview Knowledge Assessments and Course Evaluation*

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#### Resume

Name three courses you have taken that could be highlighted on the Education section of your résumé. What were the criteria you used for choosing these three courses?

The disadvantage of having a Career Objective is \_\_\_\_\_.

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#### Cover Letter

It is acceptable with most employers to take initiative and indicate that you will contact the employer in the future.

#### True or False

Cover letters have \_\_\_\_\_ (give a number) main sections, which include (list the sections).

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#### Interview

In preparation for an interview you should review \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_.

Name three strategies that you can use during the Opening of an Interview.

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### *Course Evaluation*

Please indicate if you had any expectations, other than those listed, for this program that were or were not met by this program.

New features I would like to see incorporated into the course include:

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The students in the focus groups were given an opportunity to express their views regarding their learning experiences after they completed the workshop. A semi-structured interview was used employing a list of 9-11 open-ended questions that the participants were invited to respond to. Each interview was recorded with a tape recorder and later transcribed by a professional transcriptionist. A total of six interviews were conducted with focus groups ranging from two to eight students in each group. The length of the interviews was approximately 1.5 hours. Students in each group were guided by the following questions:

1. Please comment on how your experience of registering for the program and whether the program scheduling met your needs.
2. What did you learn from the program you just completed?
3. What was good about how the instruction was delivered?
4. What was bad about how the instruction was delivered?
5. Was the instructor/facilitator helpful?
6. Did you find the information given by students and employers helpful?
7. Were you able to develop tools and strategies that will help you to find or participate in your work/practicum placement?
8. Please give any suggestions you have for improving this program.
9. Do you have any additional comments?
10. Additional questions for students who completed the on-line program:
11. Please comment on the benefits you experienced of completing this program online.
12. Please comment on the difficulties you experienced due to the program being offered online.

### **Procedure**

Students who participated in the last in person session of the workshop at the U of C were asked to volunteer to participate in the research. After this workshop was completed, ExScape was offered online by different workshop facilitators for students at the U of C, MHC, and MRC. The research was conducted over an 18-month period between 1999-2001. During that time the substantive content of the program did not change, however, changes were made based on the informal feedback of the students regarding how the program was offered, for example the time students were given to

complete the workshop on-line varied. All students were required to participate in the workshop prior to applying for the work experiences, however some students completed the program as a credit course, while others completed the program as a non-credit pre-requisite.

## Results

### Data Analysis

Data was analyzed by addressing each of the research questions separately.

**analysis of pre-and post assessments to determine outcome.** Data from the pre- and posttest assessments and from the course evaluations were analyzed to determine whether students who completed the web-based workshop improved their understanding of how to write a résumé, cover letter, and how to do a job interview.

**Résumé knowledge.** A paired sample *t*-test was used to compare each of the student’s pre- and posttest assessment of their résumé knowledge. Thirty out of 34 students completed both the pre- and posttests. Table 2 illustrates that students significantly ( $p < .05$ ) improved their understanding of how to write a résumé in nine of the 19 questions. Their scores were higher in the posttest than in the pretest for 8 other questions, but not significantly higher. A few of the larger differences may be due to general knowledge of résumés. For example, question two asked for three main purposes of a résumé from an employer’s perspective (which may not be general knowledge). The results of the posttest showed a significant improvement of correct answers, whereas, question one, which showed little statistical improvement, asked how many pages a résumé should be and found that most students answered correctly on both the pre-and posttests.

Table 2

*Paired Samples t-test, Résumé Knowledge Assessment – Online Groups (N=30)*

	Maximum Score	Pretest (Mean)	Posttest (Mean)	Post-Pre Mean)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Q2	3	1.33	2.50	1.17	2.43	29	.02*
Q7	1	.43	.80	.37	3.27	29	.00*
Q8	1	.27	.53	.27	2.50	29	.02*
Q10	1	.17	.40	.23	2.25	29	.03*
Q12	4	1.53	2.20	.67	2.09	29	.05*
Q13	6	1.80	3.03	1.23	4.03	29	.00*
Q17	1	.27	.63	.37	3.27	29	.00*
Q18	3	1.23	2.10	.87	3.43	29	.00*
Q19	3	1.07	2.33	1.27	5.00	29	.00*

NOTE: All non-significant paired sample *t*-test analyses were omitted.

\* $p < .05$

In addition to the pre- and posttest assessments, two questions from course evaluations addressed students’ understanding of how to write a résumé. In the first

question, 95% of students agreed or strongly agreed to the statement, “I have learned how to develop the sections of a résumé.” In the second question, 88% of students agreed or strongly agreed to the statement, “I know how to profile my skills in a résumé.” The close-ended survey data supported the quantitative data that students improved their understanding of how to create a résumé.

Cover Letter knowledge. A paired sample *t*-test was used to compare each student’s pre- and posttest assessment of cover letters. The results of this analysis, based on the responses of 29 out of 32 students who completed both the pre- and posttests, are in given in Table 3. Table 3 indicates that students improved their understanding of how to write a cover letter by showing that of the 7 questions, all show improvement with three of these differences being statistically significant at the 0.05 level.

In addition to the pre- and posttest results, one question from course evaluations addressed students’ understanding of how to write a cover letter. The response rate showed that 88% of students agreed or strongly agreed to the statement, “I know how to write a cover letter.” The close-ended survey data supported the quantitative data that students improved their understanding of how to create a cover letter.

Table 3

*Paired Samples t-test, Cover Letter Assessment – Online Groups (N = 29)*

	Maximum Score	Pretest (Mean)	Posttest (Mean)	Post-Pre (Mean)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Q1	1	.97	.93	-.03	-.57	28	.57
Q2	1	.97	.86	-.10	-1.80	28	.08
Q3	1	.86	.93	.07	.81	28	.42
Q4	3	1.62	2.96	1.35	4.12	28	.00*
Q5	6	3.27	4.49	1.21	3.57	28	.00*
Q6	1	.76	.90	.14	1.28	28	.21
Q7	1	.38	.79	.41	3.55	28	.00*

NOTE: All non-significant paired sample *t*-test analyses were omitted.

\* $p \leq .05$

Interview knowledge. A paired sample *t*-test was used to compare each student’s pre- and posttest assessment of the interview. Out of 21 questions, there was improvement in scores for 20 questions in the posttest, with 18 of these differences being significant at the 0.05 level (see Table 4).

In addition to the pre- and posttest results, four questions from course evaluations addressed students’ understanding of how to perform in an interview. In the first question, 83% of students agreed or strongly agreed to the statement, “I know how to profile my skills during an interview.”

In the second question, 86% of students agreed or strongly agreed to the statement, “I have increased my understanding of how to effectively handle the stages of an interview.” In the third question, 86% of students agreed or strongly agreed to the statement, “I understand how my values are important in an interview.” In the fourth question, 72% of students agreed or strongly agreed to the statement, “I can draw from

my past experiences to answer Behaviour Description Questions." The close-ended survey data supported the quantitative data that students improved their understanding of how to perform in an interview.

Table 4

*Paired Samples t-test, Interview Knowledge Assessment – Online Groups (N = 32)*

Maximum Score	Pretest (Mean)	Posttest (Mean)	Post-Pre (Mean)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
Q1	3	1.44	2.41	-.97	3.52	31	.00*
Q2	5	3.97	4.63	-.66	2.45	31	.02*
Q3	3	1.09	2.56	-1.47	5.97	31	.00*
Q4	2	.47	1.06	-.59	4.72	31	.00*
Q5	1	.34	.31	.03	-.30	31	.77
Q6	1	.81	.97	-.16	1.97	31	.06
Q7	1	.69	.91	-.22	2.52	31	.02*
Q8	3	2.10	2.74	-.65	3.07	30	.01*
Q9	3	.52	2.45	-1.94	8.91	30	.00*
Q10	5	1.87	3.42	-1.55	2.95	30	.01*
Q11	2	.55	1.68	-1.13	5.62	30	.00*
Q12	4	2.19	3.94	-1.74	5.37	30	.00*
Q13	2	.19	1.32	-1.13	7.11	30	.00*
Q14	1	.16	.45	-.29	3.06	30	.01*
Q15	1	.47	.94	-.47	4.68	30	.00*
Q16	4	.47	3.13	-2.66	7.73	31	.00*
Q17	9	7.28	8.56	-1.28	3.91	31	.00*
Q18	1	.50	.88	-.38	4.31	31	.00*
Q19	1	.94	1.00	-.06	1.44	31	.16
Q20	1	.72	.97	-.31	2.78	31	.02*
Q21	3	1.16	2.81	-1.21	7.76	31	.00*

\*p< .05

**analysis of data to determine skills outcomes.** A response frequency analysis of the responses to the course evaluations were conducted to determine whether students who completed ExScape perceived that they acquired the skills to write a résumé, cover letter, and participate in a job interview.

A total of 291 students from the U of C and MRC taking the online program responded to a survey question asking if they acquired skills to develop a résumé; 98% of students agreed or strongly agreed that they did draft a résumé. From the same group of students, 91% agreed or strongly agreed that they did draft a cover letter. A total of 86% of the same group of students agreed that they have acquired the skills to participate in a job interview.

**analysis of students' reported online learning experiences.** Qualitative analyses were conducted on the responses to short-answer questions in the course evaluation and the focus group data. Out of the 291 students who completed the

evaluation survey, 66 students responded to the short answer questions. Each student's response to every short answer question was transcribed and the data was examined to reveal possible categories. Themes quickly emerged for the responses to the short answer questions.

The following themes emerged from students' impressions of what they felt were the most important issues surrounding the web-based course. The frequency of responses categorized in each theme is reported in brackets.

1. Expectations for the course were met (30).
2. Require more time to complete website (20).
3. Would like more interaction with peers, instructors (8).
4. Wanted accurate time line for completion of the course (6).
5. Require more information on specific job search topics (2).

The second theme was identified by students who were given a one-week timeline to complete the workshop. The timeline was adjusted after this group was evaluated.

Out of the 291 students who completed the survey, 194 students indicated that they would take another online course, with 82 students responding to the following question: "In the future, I would take another online course because."

1. Online course is flexible (42).
2. Can work at own pace (23).
3. Online course was very beneficial (7).
4. Able to go back and review material (5).
5. Easy course; user-friendly (3).
6. More time to complete (2).

Out of the 291 students who completed the survey, 78 students indicated that would not take another online course, with 45 students responding to the following question: "In the future, I would not take another online course because."

1. Prefer interaction with instructor and peers (14).
2. Took too long to complete (13).
3. Lack of interest; already covered information (6).
4. Poor, slow connections (5).
5. Not enough feedback (3).
6. Hard to look at a computer screen for long (2).
7. Motivation was a problem (2).

The majority of students indicated that they would take another online course. Students who said they would not take another online course gave a number of reasons including learning style preference, frustration with technology, and concern that it took more time to complete the workshop online than in-person.

The focus groups were taped and the tapes were professionally transcribed. The transcribed data was combined and divided into statements, then colour coded by meaning, grouped into clusters of meanings and finally transformed into four themes. Students' comments were recorded under each theme. The following themes emerged

from the 27 students' impressions of their learning experiences (a) students liked the flexibility of working online, (b) students were able to use the strategies learned online, (c) Ex-Scape offered variety, and (d) special features of the program were helpful.

**comparison of data for in-class and on-line participants.** Data was collected to compare the outcomes of the group of students who completed the workshop in-person with the outcomes of the group of students who completed the workshop online. However, due to the lack of volunteers from the in-class student group the sample size was too small to allow for a meaningful analysis. A simple comparison of the paired samples *t*-test analysis for both groups indicates that the online group had a similar amount of improvement in their knowledge and skills, as did the in-class group of students. See Tables 5, 6, and 7 for a comparison of the statistical results of the online and in-class groups in the areas of résumé, cover letter, and interview knowledge outcomes.

Table 5

*Paired Samples t-test, Cover Letter Knowledge Assessment – Online and In-class Groups*

	Online groups n=29			In-class group n=8		
	<i>t</i>	df	Sig.	<i>t</i>	df	Sig.
Q4	4.12	28	.00*	6.61	7	.00*
Q5	3.57	28	.00*	3.00	7	.02*
Q7	3.55	28	.00*	2.05	7	.08

NOTE: All non-significant paired sample *t*-test analyses in both online and in-class groups were omitted.

\**p* < .05

Table 6

*Paired Samples t-test, Résumé Knowledge Assessment – Online and In-class Groups*

	Online groups n=30			In-class group n=8		
	<i>t</i>	df	Sig.	<i>t</i>	df	Sig.
Q8	2.50	29	.02*	3.00	7	.02*
Q19	5.00	29	.00*	2.65	7	.03*

NOTE: All non-significant paired sample *t*-test analyses in both online and in-class groups were omitted. \**p* < .05

The analysis of the focus groups for students who participated in the online and in-class sessions revealed that both groups (a) thought the information obtained from the workshop was valuable, (b) indicated that they gained confidence for the interview, (c) believed they had prepared a more effective resume upon completion of the workshop, and (d) expressed a desire for more feedback from their instructors. Although the in-class focus group was a small sample size of five students, this data

indicates the in-class students had similar experienced outcomes and the desire for increased instructor feedback, as did the students in the online focus groups.

Table 7

*Paired Samples t-test, Interview Knowledge Assessment – Online and In-class Groups*

	Online groups n=32			In-class group n=8		
	<i>t</i>	df	Sig.	<i>t</i>	df	Sig
Q1	3.52	31	.00*	3.04	7	.02*
Q2	2.45	31	.02*	2.38	7	.05*
Q9	8.91	31	.00*	2.39	7	.05*
Q10	2.95	31	.01*	2.91	7	.02*
Q11	5.62	31	.00*	3.42	7	.01*
Q12	5.37	31	.00*	3.32	7	.01*
Q13	7.11	31	.00*	3.86	7	.01*
Q16	7.73	31	.00*	2.38	7	.05*
Q18	4.31	31	.00*	4.58	7	.00*
Q21	7.76	31	.00*	4.58	7	.00*

NOTE: All non-significant paired sample *t*-test analyses in both online and in-class groups were omitted.

\**p*< .05

### Discussion

The results of this research suggest that the students who participated in ExScape demonstrated a significant improvement in their knowledge in the areas of resume, cover letter and interview. The students also reported that they had acquired the skills to draft a resume, cover letter and perform in an interview. These findings support the use of online delivery as an effective method of delivery for career development workshops.

There is also evidence to suggest that online delivery methods in general can be as effective as in person delivery methods, because there was not a significant difference between the online group and the in-class group in each volunteers' individual pre- and posttest scores. There was also no significant difference when comparing the online group on the in-person group's overall test scores. The effectiveness of the online delivery method, however, is likely determined by the nature of the online web site and instructional design. ExScape utilized a variety of functions to increase student motivation and interaction (animations, interactive forms, samples, video-clips, and audio-clips). In-person instruction was also utilized to supplement the online learning component for skill practice and discussion.

The findings from the students' self reports regarding their positive experiences with online learning in the workshop are consistent with the statistical analysis results. Students indicated that overall they were able to learn from the course and found the flexibility in on-line learning to be beneficial. The focus group results further supported these findings.

However, this research had some limitations that suggest caution must be taken in the confidence one has in these results. The study did not look at potential differences in student retention, motivation, learning styles, class conferencing issues, or instructional time spent online or off line. There were difficulties in obtaining complete data from student volunteers. This resulted in collecting a small sample of pre-and posttests from the last in-class group, and relying on the use of self-reports from students through course evaluations to indicate whether or not students were able to write a résumé and cover letter, and perform acceptably in an interview. Larger samples are required to improve the validity of the results and a control group would also be advisable. It is also difficult to determine whether the effectiveness of online delivery is related to the design and delivery utilized in the ExScape program. Further research is recommended to assess the effect of various web site designs and instructional components on learning outcomes.

The study suggests that career development workshops and perhaps other similar forms of student services can be effectively offered online. With the growing number of students in post-secondary institutions and resource shortages in student services, online delivery of similar career workshops may provide a means to provide services to larger numbers of students. This may also be an effective option for educational institutions that offer degrees online, as the demand for student services increases amongst their student populations.

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## The Relationship Between Negative Career Thoughts & Emotional Intelligence

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

Career indecision has demonstrated empirical relationships with other factors in the literature. In particular, emotional factors such as low self esteem (Chartrand, Martin, Robbins, McCauliffe, Pickerelle & Calliotte, 1994; Resnick, Faubles & Osipow, 1970; Stead, Graham & Foxcroft, 1993), neuroticism (Lounsbury Tatum, Owens & Gibson, 1999) and anxiety (Fuqua, Blum & Hartman, 1988; Holland & Holland, 1977; Larson, Piersel, Imao & Allen, 1990; Ohare & Tamburri 1986; Serling & Betz, 1990; Skorupa & Agresti 1998; Stead Graham & Foxcroft, 1993) have contributed to career indecision.

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

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

The concept of emotional intelligence has become increasingly popular and hotly debated over the last decade, and a number of instruments designed to measure this ability have appeared (Bar-On, 1997; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002; Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998). As with many new

constructs, the exact definition of emotional intelligence varies with the test designer, but all have common core features: awareness of, understanding, expressing, controlling, and managing emotions in oneself and in others (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000). Bar-On, for example, defines emotional intelligence as “effectively managing personal, social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation, solving problems, and making decisions” (Bar-On, 2005).

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

Whereas negative career thoughts have related to various factors within career development research, it only recently been researched within the realm of positive psychology (Lustig & Strauser, 2002). Emotional intelligence has been noted as a significant positive psychological construct (Salovey, Mayer & Caruso, 2002; Salovey, Mayer, Caruso & Lopes, 2004) with career related implications. Research exploring the relationship between emotional intelligence and career thoughts is limited. A study by Brown, George-Curran and Smith (2003) focused on emotional intelligence and career decision-making in a college student sample. Analysis of the data suggested that the emotional intelligence factors of Empathy, Utilization of feelings, Handling relationships, and Self control related positively to career decision-making self-efficacy, and that Utilization of feelings and Self control were inversely related with vocational exploration and commitment. Among the conclusions to their research, authors suggested that further research with emotional intelligence and career development be considered. Moreover, research with non-student adults was suggested.

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

## **Method**

### **Participants**

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

## Instruments

**career thoughts inventory** (Sampson, Peterson, Lenz, Reardon & Saunders, 1996). The CTI measures dysfunctional thinking, related to assumptions, attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, feelings, plans or strategies related to career choice, that inhibits effective career decision-making. The 48 item CTI total score measures a global factor of dysfunctional thinking pertaining to career problem solving and decision-making. Three subscales measure decision making confusion (dmc), commitment anxiety (ca) and external conflict (ec). Decision-making confusion (14 items) refers to the “inability to initiate or sustain decision-making as a result of disabling emotions and/or a lack of understanding about decision-making itself” (Sampson et al., p.28). The Commitment Anxiety (10 items) scale reflects the “inability to make a commitment to a specific career choice, accompanied by generalized anxiety about the outcome of decision-making. This anxiety perpetuates indecision” (Sampson et al., p.28). The External Conflict (5 items) scale reflects the “inability to balance the importance of one's own self-perceptions with the importance of input from significant others, resulting in a reluctance to assume responsibility for decision-making” (Sampson et al., p.28). All factors negatively impact career decision making. Respondents select one of four item responses ranging from 0 (strongly disagree) to 3 (strongly agree). Examples of items are “No field of study or occupation interests me” (dmc), “I can't be satisfied unless I can find the perfect occupation for me” (ca) and “I need to choose a field of study or occupation that will please the important people in my life” (ec).

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

**bar-on emotional quotient inventory (EQi)**(Bar-On, 1997). The EQi measures competencies in emotional, personal and social components of general intelligence. It is a self-report instrument consisting of 133 items for which a client provides a response ranging from “not true of me” (1) to “true of me” (5). In addition to a general EQi score, competencies are measured through five main composite scales: Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Adaptability, Stress management and General mood. The Intrapersonal composite score reflects the inner self. As such it reflects the individuals self regard, emotional self awareness, assertiveness, independence and self actualization. The Interpersonal composite scale represents interpersonal functioning. As such it reflects an individual's empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationships. The Adaptability composite scale represents ones ability to cope with environmental demands. It reflects an individual's reality testing, flexibility and problem solving. The Stress management composite subscale represents an individual's tolerance towards stress and impulse control. The General mood composite scale reflects an individual's optimism and happiness. Examples of scale items are “I'm in touch with my emotions” (Intrapersonal), “I'm unable to show affection”

(Interpersonal), “It’s difficult to begin new things” (Adaptability), “I’m impulsive” (Stress management) and “I generally hope for the best” (General mood).

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

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

## Procedure

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

## Results

Table 1

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

	CTI				EQi					
	Total	dmc	ca	ec	Total	Intra	Inter	Adapt	Stress	Mood
Mean	57.5	57.5	59.8	57.0	93.6	92.1	98.9	96.3	96.9	9.8
St. dev.	8.0	9.5	8.0	11.7	14.3	15.8	15.8	13.5	13.4	14.5

N= 392.

Note: Higher scores on CTI mean more negative career thoughts

Table 2

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

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

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

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

correlation matrix for relationships between EQi and CTI variables are shown in Table 1. As can be seen, a significant inverse relationship exists between all EQi and CTI variables. According to Cohen's criteria (Cohen, 1992), the relationship between total EQi and total CTI scores reflected a medium to large effect size ( $r = -.46, p < .001, n = 392$ ).

Table 3

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

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

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

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

Table 4

*Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Emotional Intelligence*

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

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

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

## Discussion

### Question 1:

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

### Question 2:

Results also indicated that of the five composite EQi scales Adaptability accounted for 19% of the variation in total CTI scores while Intrapersonal functioning accounted for 3%. If Adaptability reflects one's ability to cope with environmental demands in terms of reality testing, flexibility, and problem solving, it seems reasonable that a deficit in this salient aspect of EI would negatively affect one's career thinking. It is possible that someone with good Adaptability would be better able to handle career-related changes such as new work duties, geographic moves, or changes in co-worker composition. This type of person may also have a better ability to cope with mood fluctuations that result in potentially career-inhibiting feelings of anxiety, depression, frustration, or unsettledness. High Adaptability may also indicate that someone is better able to draw on their pre-existing resources as a method of coping with career-related change. All of these coping factors may play a role in mitigating against problematic career thinking.

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

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

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

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

### **Question 3:**

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

Researchers were surprised by the non-significant predictive relationships between commitment anxiety and external conflict with generalized emotional intelligence. It is posited that since a non-student adult sample was studied (average age 37), external conflicts common to younger students (parental pressure, educational system, peers, etc) would not be germane. Findings indicating Commitment Anxiety being lower in older persons reflects normative data collected by Sampson, Peterson, Lenz, Reardon and Saunders 1996. This may be due to competing roles (spouse, parent, etc...), responsibilities (mortgages, car payments, etc...), resources (working partners, real estate holdings, savings etc...), lack of options, life experience, and wisdom. Research using discrete age cohorts may assist in clarifying the developmental issues related to emotional intelligence and career thinking.

### **Limitations**

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

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

### Conclusion

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

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## Deliberations on the Future of Career Development Education in Canada

Rebecca Burwell & Sharon Kalbfleisch

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Could we develop a model for career development education that suggests specific educational requirements for those fulfilling different roles within the field? What kinds of enhancements could be made to career development curriculum to ensure that practitioners meet the needs of today's clients? Can education play a role in enhancing the professional identity of the field? These are questions that participants of the "Advancement of Career Counsellor Education in Canada" think tank, held in October 2006, attempted to answer.

The "Advancement of Career Counsellor Education in Canada" research project was conceived in order to begin a process designed to articulate the educational background that the profession believes is necessary for entry into, or advancement within, the field. The first phase of this project involved the production of the *Directory of Career Counselling/Career Development Education Programs in Canada*, available online at Contact Point at [http://www.contactpoint.ca/resources/Directory\\_of\\_Education\\_Programs\\_2006.pdf](http://www.contactpoint.ca/resources/Directory_of_Education_Programs_2006.pdf). The second phase entailed surveying Canadian career practitioners to gain a better understanding of the career paths and educational backgrounds of current practitioners. Over 1,100 career practitioners responded to the survey, and its results are also published in this issue of the *Canadian Journal of Career Development*. The third and final phase of the research project, the think tank, gathered career development educators from universities, colleges, and private training institutions from across Canada to facilitate an in-depth discussion of career development education in Canada (for a list of think tank participants, please refer to Appendix A). This paper outlines the summaries of these discussions and presents associated research. It is our sincere hope that these deliberations, indeed, this research project as a whole, will strengthen the field of career development in Canada and ultimately enhance the quality of career development services for the benefit of all Canadians.

### A Model for Career Development Education in Canada

**the importance of developing an educational model.** In most professions, it is clear what type of education is necessary to fulfill different roles at different levels. For example, within the field of nursing, a nurse practitioner is an independent care provider with the broadest scope of practice relative to other types of nurses who, in addition to a nursing diploma or degree, holds one to two years of post-graduate training. In contrast, a practical nurse works under the direction of a registered nurse or doctor and has one to two years of college education. This type of clarity in education/occupational scope does not exist within the field of career development in Canada. There is currently much diversity in the training and qualifications of practitioners in the field; furthermore, the training and education programs that do exist do not typically lead to clearly defined occupational roles.

In the absence of similar educational guidelines, it has been possible (even easy in some cases) for those with no career-specific education to practice in the field.

Without such career-specific education, many career guidance practitioners receive no thorough grounding in the basic theories of career guidance, little systematic exposure to the social and economic contexts and purposes of career guidance, and no systematic applied training in the techniques that form the basis of its practice (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2004, p. 99).

An educational model has the potential to draw attention to the importance of career-specific education and to ultimately increase the level of training required of career practitioners. Unlike other countries, Canada does not lack training opportunities for career practitioners – in fact, there are currently 37 programs offered by 28 learning institutions in Canada that either focus entirely on career development or have a significant career development component. Further, several of these programs are offered online and are thus very accessible. What is at issue, though, is that these programs vary significantly in terms of entry requirements, length, curriculum content, hours of required practicum placement, and nature of completion document (that is, certificate, diploma, degree, etcetera). Thus, one still has to ask: What type and level of education is required to enter the field of career development? What type of functions is an entry level practitioner qualified to do? What type of education is required to advance within the field of career development, and how do the occupational roles of these advanced practitioners differ from those of entry level practitioners? The development of an educational model offers the opportunity to answer these questions.

The development of an educational model is also ultimately in the best interest of our clients. Currently, the array of job titles and qualifications of practitioners within the field makes it very difficult for consumers to know where to go or what to expect when they seek employment-related assistance. In a study designed to determine the extent to which major career theories and research inform the work of career practitioners with varied qualifications, Brown found that although many clients present with clarified expectations and needs for services, the service options available to clients and the definition of career counseling will largely depend on the training level of the career counseling professional. Consequently, a clearer description and distinction of those who provide services and the types of services available is needed to assist the consumer in the appropriate identification and attainment of his/her goals (2002, p. 125).

The development of a model could also serve to enhance the field's professional identity. Sunny Hansen, in a recent analysis of the career counselling profession's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats, states that one of the threats that seems important to me is what I call the 'deprofessionalization' of career counseling. It seems that increasingly, in some sectors, it has become an 'anyone can do it' profession, a view that actually diminishes the profession (2003, p. 47).

An educational model would certainly go a long way towards reassuring the public and related professionals that the field of career development is a serious one requiring specific training and preparation. An educational model that outlines the scope of practice at each level will also make it easier for practitioners to be cognizant of, and to adhere to, the boundaries of their level of training. Of particular importance in the field is the extent to which a career practitioner can or should provide personal counselling to their clients. That "career counsellors are frequently challenged to work with a career dilemma that encompasses a range of diverse issues and factors in their clients' personal lives" (Chen, 2001, p. 524) has been well studied and is an accepted premise within the field. Many would agree, however, that personal counselling

requires a higher degree of training than is offered by some of the existing programs, typically at least a master's degree. This is not always what happens in the field, however. In Brown's research, he found that both licensed psychologists /counsellors and non-licensed counsellors indicated that they do, in fact, address both personal and career issues in their work with career clients (2002). This is problematic given that some practitioners clearly do not have the level of training needed to be working with clients on such personal issues, but a model that outlines appropriate roles at each level of education will clarify the boundaries and make it easier for practitioners to know where to draw the line with clients and when to refer them on.

Another benefit of developing such a model is that it will provide a benchmark to see how programs at different levels connect to one another and thereby give us the opportunity to build bridges between certificate, diploma, undergraduate, and graduate programs. This will clarify how practitioners can advance within the field. Since there will very likely be both college and university programs within the field over the long term, an educational model will allow us to begin forming relationships that make sense between and among programs. The planned model will also be beneficial for any new programs being developed with respect to understanding how they can best fit into the current schema.

Finally, an educational model could help set the groundwork for certification requirements within the field. While the advantages and disadvantages of certification are beyond the scope of this research, it does seem obvious that a clearly articulated model could assist in the processes of certification that are beginning to take place in numerous provinces.

**the challenges of developing an education model.** Developing an educational model broad enough to incorporate the wide differences that currently exist in career development education across Canada is no small challenge. First, though the field is only in its adolescence, there are fully 37 programs that have either a significant or an entire career development focus. As stated earlier, however, these programs vary significantly; there are no less than seven different types of completion documents represented amongst these 37 programs: certificates of accomplishment, certificates, diplomas, undergraduate degrees, master's degrees, doctorates, and post-master's certificates. While most of these programs are strong in their own right and offer a valuable curriculum, it is the lack of similarity among many of the programs that makes it difficult to integrate them into a model.

Regional differences in career development education pose a second challenge to the development of a model. The differences between Québec and the rest of Canada pose a particular complexity, in that Québec is the only province to regulate the profession:

To be licensed as a career counsellor by the College, candidates must meet the requirements set out in the regulations adopted under the Professional Code of Québec, which state that one must have a master's degree in career guidance and counselling (Turcotte, 2005, p. 7).

It should be noted, however, that not all career development work is regulated in Québec: "The two other major occupations in the field of career development are employment counsellors and career information specialists. These two occupations do not have specific educational and occupational requirements and are not regulated"

(Turcotte, 2005, p. 7). In any case, this is clearly a very different picture from the rest of Canada, and once again, poses a challenge to the development of a nationwide model.

A third challenge involves the multitude of sectors in which career development work is carried out. “School counselors, community college and university career counselors and academic advisers, employment counselors, counselors in employee assistance programs, rehabilitation counselors, counseling and clinical psychologists, and other helping professionals all provide career counseling in organizations and private practice, although with different purposes and intensity. These persons differ in training and knowledge about career counseling and in the approaches to career counseling that they use” (Herr, 2003, p. 11). The question is, how do we deal with these different notions of what type and level of training is appropriate for practitioners in these different sectors? Currently there are educational guidelines or standards for some (for example, guidance staff in secondary schools) but not for others (for example, practitioners in community agencies). It may be necessary for the model to evolve over time in order to encompass each of these sectors.

A fourth challenge is presented by the varying amount of career-specific curriculum within each of the existing programs. Dagley and Salter found in the United States that special nondegree training programs for career development facilitators add a much needed emphasis in career development theory and research, but little in supervised counseling, whereas typical counselor preparation degree programs provide excellent supervised counseling training but little-to-no career development instruction or career counseling supervision (2004, p. 102).

This is not universally the case in Canada, but it is true that the certificate and diploma programs in most cases have more career-specific content than the graduate level programs in counselling psychology (except in Québec, where undergraduate and graduate programs are career-specific). Once again, then, this poses a challenge in developing a model. How do we devise a model that incorporates, on the one hand, programs that are entirely geared to career development with those that are geared more specifically towards counselling on the other?

A final challenge will be to form a collaborative, rather than a competitive, approach to future discussions amongst educators. A culture of competition has historically existed amongst universities and colleges in Canada, as all vie for top students, faculty, and staff as well as for rankings and research dollars. Fortunately, more recent initiatives have demonstrated a new trend towards collaboration, such as the Campus Alberta Applied Psychology: Counselling Initiative, a partnership between the University of Lethbridge, the University of Calgary, and Athabasca University. This type of initiative demonstrates a will and an ability to work together, which bodes well for increased sharing and connections among career development programs and for the development of an educational model, even in this culture of institutional competition.

**presenting a model for career development education in canada.** In spite of the inherent challenges involved in the development of an educational model, members of the think tank were able to formulate a draft model for career development education. While the model requires further elaboration (a working group has been struck to continue its development), it does begin to classify the different types/levels of services provided by career practitioners. It also suggests educational requirements for each type of service.

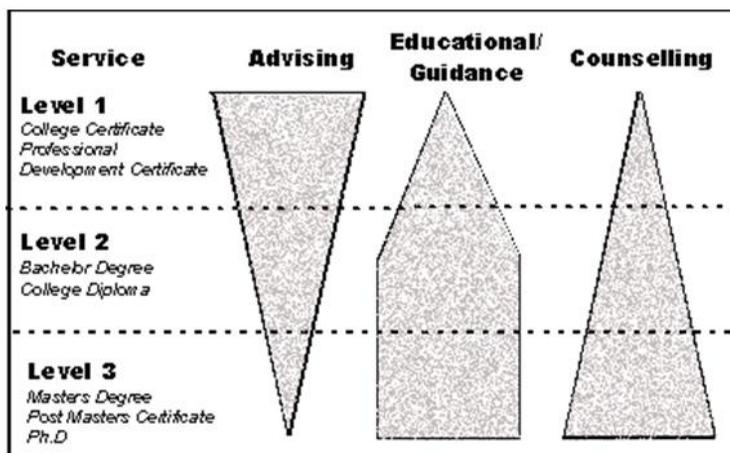
Although differentiated roles within the field of career development have never been clearly defined, the notion that there are multiple roles within the field, rather than one singular role, is not new. Herr has argued that “career counseling can be seen as a continuum of interventions rather than a singular process” (2003, p. 11). Furbish also suggests that career services encompass a range of activities and differentiates between services that are job, occupation, or career related. He defines job issues as those that provide “assistance with the development of employment seeking skills such as CV writing, finding job openings and interviewing skills,” occupational issues as those that call for “assisting clients to examine their preferences and investigate occupations that will satisfy those preferences,” and career issues as those that “are concerned with the holistic integration of work within one’s other life roles and adjusting to transitions within work-life patterns” (2003, pp. 3–4).

The draft educational model devised at the think tank sessions (see Figure 1) also recognizes the notion that there are multiple and distinct roles within the field. Based on previous work done by Borgen and Hiebert (2006, 2002), the model suggests that services carried out by career practitioners can be broken into three types: advising, guidance, and counselling. Each has a different objective and serves a different function. Advising is focussed primarily on the problem at hand, and involves the provision of general, “non-personalized” information regarding a particular topic or focus. For example, describing different styles of résumés to a client would be considered advising, as would helping clients access career information or making them aware of other career services that are available. Guidance is broader in scope and involves the provision of information or psychoeducational services more directly tailored to the client’s needs than the advisory function. Guidance requires the practitioner to first gather information about the client, often through an interview or other kind of assessment, thereby increasing the likelihood that services obtained are congruent with the client’s unique needs. A practitioner who explains to a client how the results of an interest assessment might influence her occupational choice would be providing guidance. Counselling moves beyond information provision to broader issues and could include the application of career counseling to stress reduction; anger management; integrating and resolving conflict between career and other life roles; helping persons reconstruct and reframe past experiences; learning ways to reduce their indecisiveness; assisting in modifying irrational career beliefs; addressing underlying issues that lead to work dysfunctions, including unresolved issues in the family drama being played out in the workplace; providing opportunities for displaced persons to vent their anger and their feelings about personal concerns; job loss; and the loss or diffusion of personal identity (Herr, 2003, p. 11).

Refer to Borgen & Hiebert (2006, 2002) and Hiebert & Borgen (2002) for more information regarding the distinction between advising, guidance, and counselling. This model demonstrates the proportional amount of time that practitioners with different credentials would spend offering the three different types of services: advising, offering guidance, or counselling. The use of such graphics to demonstrate the intensity of various roles is based on previous work done by think tank participant Kris Magnusson (Magnusson, Day, & Redekopp, 1993; Magnusson, 1992). The model suggests that a Level 1 practitioner, who would fulfill primarily an advisory function (and minor roles in guidance and counselling), would require a career-specific college or university certificate. A Level 2 practitioner, whose function would be primarily the provision of guidance (but who would also fill some advising and counselling functions),

Figure 1

*Draft model for career development education. The shaded areas represent the proportional amount of time service providers with differing types of education would spend providing the three principal types of service.*



would require either a career-specific diploma or undergraduate degree (though the latter exists only in Québec at the present time) or a non career-specific diploma or undergraduate degree plus a career-specific certificate or diploma. A Level 3 practitioner might perform a minor advising role, but his or her main functions would be either guidance and counselling, or designing and coordinating career services. Typically, these types of roles would require a master's degree, post-master's certificate, or doctoral degree in counselling psychology or a related field.

Worthy of discussion is the larger counselling role at Level 3. It is becoming increasingly commonplace to expect that those performing a counselling role have at least a master's degree in the counselling field. For example, in most American states, counselling is a regulated occupation requiring one to hold a minimum of a master's degree in counselling or a related field, plus a defined amount of supervised practice in the field. In Canada, there is no governmentally regulated credentialing of the profession, but the Canadian Counselling Association awards their 'Canadian Certified Counsellor' designation only to those holding an appropriate master's degree in counselling that includes a compulsory practicum. The draft model presented here reflects the notion that a higher level of education is indeed required to perform counselling functions.

Members of the think tank agreed that job titles should be created and used consistently to represent the three different levels presented in the model. While there is not yet consensus on what these titles should be, it was suggested that a Level 1 practitioner could be termed a *Career Advisor*, a Level 2 practitioner a *Career Practitioner*, and a Level 3 practitioner a *Career Counsellor*. An umbrella term to describe each of these types of roles within the field of career development must also be determined. This paper, and many others in the field, consistently uses the term *Career Practitioner* to refer to those performing any type of role within the field of career

development. Naturally, if the Career Practitioner title becomes the standard term used to denote Level 2 practitioners, we will need to devise a new umbrella title term.

One of the benefits of this draft model is that it incorporates all programs at all levels as they currently exist. It recognizes that each fills a specific need and does not put any program in jeopardy of being lost or deemed irrelevant. Another benefit is that it acknowledges that some roles within the field do not require in-depth counsellor training – a benefit given that the existing non-degree programs tend to have less counselling-specific curriculum and fewer supervised practicum hours.

A potential drawback of the model is that it could ultimately lead to more expensive service delivery, a risk inherent in any initiative that moves towards professionalization (OECD, 2004). Several think tank participants voiced concern that this model could indeed be ignored or rejected by primary funders concerned about service delivery costs. Communicating the benefits of this educational model to all stakeholders in the field will thus become an important task for the educators group.

**next steps for the model.** While the draft model presented in this paper has made great strides in defining occupational roles and corresponding educational requirements, we must remember that this is only its preliminary form; elaboration in several areas will further clarify and enhance the model. For example, the specific curriculum to be covered at each level needs to be determined, as does the number of hours of required, supervised practicum for each level.

As mentioned earlier, communication of the model to members of the field is also important and needs to be considered along with further refinements. How to communicate the model and with whom will both be important questions to consider. One approach would be to let the logic and value of the model speak for itself, rather than trying to fervently impose it on the field. The model's inherent logic and simplicity bodes well for its potential to have an important future impact on the field of career development in Canada.

As the field continues to grow and mature, it is possible that we will begin to see the development of educational specializations within the field. The possibilities for such specializations are numerous, but one might specialize in working with new Canadians, for example, or in working with individuals diagnosed with a mental illness. Similarly, the need for career development training for linked professions, for example, social workers or human resources professionals, is also beginning to be recognized and may start to be developed some time in the future. How or if such specialization and training for linked professions becomes incorporated into this model will need to be determined. One approach would be to link specializations and training for linked professions to the model, rather than actually embedding them within it.

## **Canadian Career Development Curriculum**

### **Reflections on the Current Situation**

As stated earlier, the first phase of this research project involved the development of the *Directory of Career Counselling/Career Development Education Programs in Canada*. While gathering data about their programs from directors and coordinators in order to compile the directory, additional inquiries were made about the type of curriculum each covered. Most programs contain at least some common content,

including but not limited to career development theories, interviewing skills, group facilitation skills, career assessment, ethics, and working with diverse populations.

Beyond this, there are some significant differences depending on whether the program is non-degree or degree granting. For example, career information, work trends, and work search techniques tend to be covered more often in the non-degree programs, whereas degree programs tend to expand their coverage of general counselling theories. When the career development education model (described in the section above) is more fully developed, it will be important to link different types of curriculum with the different program types/levels.

Another area of divergence was in the number of practicum hours required by programs; they ranged from no practicum requirement to as many as 770 hours. Shorter practicum requirements were connected for the most part with the certificate programs, while greater practicum requirements tended to be associated with diploma, undergraduate, and master's programs. If students enrolled in the certificate programs are already working in the field of career development, they have a natural venue where theory and practice can come together. However, for those not working in the field and/or who have no career development experience, providing an appropriate mechanism for them to connect theory and practice presents a serious challenge. Since the practicum is an ideal way to help students link theory and practice, further discussion by educators of what constitutes a practicum and how many practicum hours should be required is important.

An equally important aspect of helping students relate theory to practice is effective, career-specific supervision. McMahon identified the lack of importance paid to supervision and the relatively few professional articles written about supervision in the career counselling literature as long ago as 2003. Without supervision, especially for a student or a beginning practitioner, it is challenging to put theoretical knowledge into practice. This lack of supervision may also suggest to the trainee that career work is neither complex nor difficult enough to require supervision, a fundamentally incorrect assumption/perspective. It should also be noted that inadequate supervision becomes even more serious as the scope of career development practice expands.

## **The Importance of Expanding the Curriculum**

In addition to working on a draft educational model, the think tank included discussions on what curriculum should be taught at the various levels of practice and how to effectively incorporate new concepts and ideas. Curriculum issues included the following questions: How should personal counselling and career counselling be reconciled in career education programs? How, and to what extent should cybercounselling content be incorporated into the curriculum? Finally, how should career counselling knowledge and skills best be provided to allied professional programs? These issues are discussed later in this paper.

The area given the most attention and that would require the greatest curriculum changes concerned the development of competencies that would expand the focus of career development education beyond providing services to the individual; these changes would help career practitioners address broader issues related to organizational and societal influences. Many of the career challenges individuals face are not the result of individual shortcomings, but rather arise from known deficiencies in systems and/or policies. To effectively address big picture problems, a practitioner

needs such knowledge and skills as advocacy, social planning and social policy, social action, and community development. Through inaction or a lack of attention to macro issues, career practitioners can in fact become a part of the problem. Arthur summarizes these points succinctly: “Career practitioners need to consider how their work inadvertently supports the status quo and be prepared to address social forces that pose as systemic barriers to people’s growth and development” (2005, p. 41).

An example from public policy helps to illustrate how this expansion of the work of the career practitioner can better serve clients. In most countries, career development has been the object of public policy. Nonetheless, career practitioners have not usually been involved in the creation of public policy. Thus, the profession is delegated to carrying out the notions and policies of the government in power without having much affect on them. This lack of direct involvement leads to policies that can adversely impact the delivery of who gets service, how they access that service, and what services are provided (Herr, 2003). When working with immigrants, the counsellor is often obliged to help individuals deal with the constraints imposed by immigration policy or professional certification bodies. These constraints at minimum appear to be fundamentally unfair, and they are, in fact, often inequitable. This is clearly an area where the direct experience of career practitioners could very positively affect public policy; it could potentially have an important, long-term impact on the conditions of employment for many immigrants and refugees while also making more effective use of the national talent pool.

Interestingly, the founder of the field of vocational psychology, Frank Parsons, was committed to social change, social justice, and social action. Dr. King Davis defines social justice as follows: Social justice is a basic value and desired goal in democratic societies and includes equitable and fair access to the societal institutions, laws, resources, opportunities, without arbitrary limitations based on observed, or interpretations of, difference in age, color, culture, physical or mental disability, education, gender, income, language, national origin, race, religion, or sexual orientation (2004, p. 236).

Parsons demonstrated in his writings a concern for the marginalized and less fortunate in society (O’Brien, 2001). Until recently, however, both the theory and practice of career counselling have been developed primarily to assist those who live in relative affluence. Those who are less fortunate and who need to work simply to meet their basic needs of shelter and housing have been largely neglected (Whiston, 2003).

There has recently been renewed interest in returning to the roots of career counselling as they were established by Parsons. This calls for a more expansive conceptualization of career theory and practice in order to help clients deal with issues like poverty, discrimination, and oppression. For example, Guichard (2003) discussed career counselling’s evolving goals and called for career practitioners to create a new context for research and practice, one that would attend to the broader context of human development in order to meet the needs of the human community without neglecting the individual in the process.

In related work, Hansen argues that it is no longer enough to match people to jobs. She calls for a more holistic approach to career counselling that requires various life roles and other life dimensions to be taken into account. “A weakness of career counselor education programs is the reluctance or inability to see career counselors as change agents who can help not only *individuals* to change, but *systems* to change as well” (2003, p. 45). She recommends that training programs expand the curriculum to

include related life roles as well as work roles, and that organizational career development be built into training programs. She recognizes that working to meet the needs of a diverse population is an important first step but goes on to say that “the work has just begun” (Hansen, 2003, p. 45). She evidently believes that expanding the curriculum to include the counsellor’s role as an advocate and an agent of change presents a challenge.

In keeping with career practitioners working with a broader conceptualization, there has been a developing commitment to working with multicultural populations in a way that recognizes and is sensitive to cultural differences. The number of journal articles addressing culturally competent career counselling continues to increase. This interest and concern with cultural differences has been extended to an even broader perspective to encompass diversity that includes gender, age, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, social class, ability, and religion. In fact, our curriculum research indicates that diversity is covered in all of the programs surveyed in some way, and that a full 43 percent devote an entire course to diversity issues.

Arthur, however, goes well beyond calling for cultural sensitivity and competence in career counselling, advocating that perspectives on social justice be incorporated into the roles and intervention methods of career practitioners. She also calls for career practitioners to develop the competencies needed to bring about institutional change and to carry out social action roles and systemic interventions. In fact, she has developed 17 competencies that would afford career practitioners the skills to support social justice interventions. She states that “ultimately, the linkage between social justice and career development needs to inform curriculum design for career practitioners” (Arthur, 2005, p. 143).

A review of social work education may provide insights into how such social justice competencies could be built into the education of career practitioners. Social work is a values-based profession. All education for the profession promotes the development and advancement of knowledge and skills that further clients’ well-being and promotes social and economic justice. Within this overarching framework, the curriculum is divided into “micro” and “macro” practice. Micro practice involves interventions aimed at problems confronting individuals, families, and small groups; macro practice, on the other hand, concerns social work interventions designed to bring about change in organizations and communities. In most social work programs, a student chooses to concentrate on either micro or macro practice, but must also take some courses from the other area.

The social work education approach may not be a complete model for the field of career development. It does, however, provide some guidance as to how we might strive to meet two general objectives. The first is to build in the values associated with social justice as a part of the foundation of the career development profession and its educational aims. The second is to build into the curriculum the development of some general skills and awareness regarding macro issues for all members of the profession and perhaps allow some to develop specialized skills in this area.

### **Roadblocks to Incorporating Macro Issues into the Curriculum**

As with any proposed change, there will be uncertainty and some reluctance. What is proposed will require significant adjustments to a program’s curriculum, and this will only happen if educators are convinced of the value and importance of the

changes and thus motivated to incorporate them into the program of study. The motivation and education of educators are particularly important since each program's curriculum is typically very full, and there are many competing interests regarding what might be included. Further, phase one of this research project revealed that little attention is currently paid to macro issues in the programs, possibly because many of the educators themselves are graduates of individually focussed educational programs that do not naturally lend themselves to a macro viewpoint. Hiebert, McCarthy, and Repetto make a related point: "Career counsellor education primarily stems from a psychological background (versus a career development, adult transition, or labour market background), and does not address the diverse career paths and complex labour market that clients encounter" (2001, p. 1). It will be essential to find mechanisms that will keep educators at all levels informed about, and involved in, the evolution of the curriculum.

Practitioners and educators will also need to be convinced of the worth of expanding the curriculum and profession into new and less familiar areas of practice. In part because of their educational backgrounds, and especially in the early years of work, most practitioners are focussed on helping the individual and are not invested in learning how to change large systems and how those systems impinge on their client's lives. In later years, practitioners often develop a frustration with "the system," but they have not, for the most part, developed nor practiced the skills to effect change within it. In a survey of practitioners conducted in the second phase of this research project, macro skills like lobbying government, addressing social justice issues, advocating for clients, program promotion, management, and administration were all consistently rated less important than skills related to direct client work. If practitioners were to realize that career practitioners could and should influence social and political systems and could see a way to help their profession do that, the value they see in their work could change substantially (especially in later years) and provide strong support for the curriculum changes we propose. Effectively instituting these proposed changes will require a program of continuing education for practitioners.

One further roadblock is the lack of quality resource materials on macro issues, including social and economic justice, which can be readily utilized in a classroom or practice setting. This dearth makes it much more difficult for educators to experiment with incorporating these ideas or to adopt recommended curriculum changes. The development of effective educational resources must be a key aspect of an implementation strategy. As is outlined below, a newly formed educational group is beginning to develop educational resources, some of which emphasize social justice and macro-level issues.

### **Next Steps for the Curriculum**

There was considerable support and enthusiasm at the think tank for the evolution of program curriculum towards providing theoretical and practical content on the ideas and values of social and economic justice and on the development of the skills required to promote social change. It is important to note that we are at the very beginning of this endeavour; it is no small task to evolve a curriculum (or curriculum guidelines) on a national level, given the requisite acceptance of the stakeholders of the development of a new lens and an expanded set of competencies. However, if we as

educators were able to incorporate social justice competencies into the curriculum on a nationwide level, Canada would clearly become a leader on the international stage.

The extent to which the various aspects of macro practice should be included at each level of training in the model discussed above will need careful consideration and discussion. For example, it would seem plausible that practitioners involved primarily in advising would need only a general awareness of macro practice issues and their importance as part of the career development environment. This awareness could perhaps be acquired from a well-designed course or module. On the other hand, practitioners primarily involved in counselling would be expected, from a macro perspective, to be able to engage in social planning initiatives, demonstrate advocacy skills with individuals or systems, and contribute to the designing of social policy as it relates to the world of work. A person would need to have at least one course, and perhaps more, that deals with macro theory and practice in order to work in the macro arena.

As noted earlier, a number of other curriculum questions and challenges arose that were not discussed in the depth they deserve owing to time constraints. One issue concerned the interface between career counselling and personal counselling. Career counselling cannot be neatly separated from the counselling that affects the other aspects of the client's life. Because of their particular education, some counsellors are able to deal with many of the major issues in clients' lives, including career issues, personal issues, and even some associated with mental health. Others will not be able to work with these broader issues and problems because they lack the required education, but at a minimum, career practitioners should have the knowledge to recognize personal problems and, when necessary, effectively refer clients to appropriate professionals. This interface will become clearer as the model develops and as the roles of various career professionals are more completely defined.

Cybercounselling, another curriculum issue addressed by the members of the think tank, currently receives little coverage in the training programs we reviewed. Although there has been skepticism of cybercounselling, especially as it relates to ethics, many career practitioners are clearly innovating and engaging in the practice of distance advising/counselling. Cybercounselling presents numerous complexities for career education, for example: What new or different competencies are needed to act effectively from a distance? Can these competencies fit within existing programs? To what extent should students generally be trained in these areas? Do we need a distance career development specialization? These complicated questions require much more discussion.

Yet another issue was how career education can best interface with the curriculum of related professions like social work, human resources, and vocational rehabilitation. These practitioners work with clients whose presenting problems are, for the most part, not directly work related. However, since work is so central to most people's well-being and can cause so much distress, work and career issues are often major contributing aspects of a client's problems. Thus, some knowledge of career development theory and career counselling techniques, as well as awareness of the possibility and importance of referral when career issues are paramount, would benefit related professionals and help them help their clients. We need to consider how important this is to the field, and whether it is possible to raise awareness within our educational institutions so that there is a role for career education programs to provide service courses in allied programs.

A preliminary step has been taken since the think tank, namely the establishment of a group of educators interested in developing written materials on current issues and advances in the field of career development in Canada. The exact form this publication will take is still under discussion, but social justice and social justice competencies as they pertain to career development will be a major focus. It is our hope that this work will lead to the development of an introductory text providing students and faculty with details and overviews of macro issues and a few more badly needed resource materials treating advancements and best practices in Canada. The development of these and other resource materials would help immensely to address pedagogical issues while easing the process of curriculum adjustment.

## **Professional Identity and the Role of Education**

Career development educators, like others involved in the field of career development, are concerned with the field's professional identity. That the services provided by career practitioners receive little visibility and are not generally well understood or sought out by the general public is a commonly felt frustration for those working in this field. A 2006 CERIC survey conducted by Ipsos Reid found that when seeking career planning assistance, a majority of Canadians seek the help of relatives/friends/neighbours (68%), co-workers/associates (67%), or newspapers (67%) rather than the services of a career specialist (47%). That more Canadians would seek career assistance from a friend or relative over a career practitioner offers some proof that "career counseling's identity status resembles that of a client who lacks vocational identity and clearly articulated goals" (Niles, 2003, p. 73).

Of particular concern to educators with respect to professional identity is the number of titles being used within the field to describe this work. In the survey carried out as phase two of this research project, respondents were asked to indicate their job title. Significantly, a full 37% of respondents did not fit into one of 13 common job titles used in the field. (This issue does not carry over to Québec, where 69% of respondents fit into just one job title: *conseiller d'orientation*). This diversity of titles is also seen in the names of career development education programs across the country. While some program titles use the term "career practitioner," others use "career counsellor," "career management professional," "career facilitator," or "career development coach." Clearly this unrestrained use of titles in the workplace and in our program descriptions needs to be addressed, and educators can play a positive role through further development and communication of the education model outlined in the first section of this paper. This model has the potential to begin a process of making titles more descriptive, consistent, and meaningful, both to those in the field and to the general public.

While raising the professional identity of the field is no small task, and further, is one that will most certainly require a multi-faceted effort on the part of practitioners, employers, associations, and government alike, it is the educators' hope and belief that both increasing the profile of career development specific education (through the draft model presented earlier in this paper) and enhancing its curriculum will serve an important function in this regard. Indeed, McCarthy (2001) does suggest that training has a dominant effect in establishing a professional identity.

## Conclusion

As was outlined earlier, this research project was conceived in order to begin a process designed to articulate the educational background that the profession believes is necessary for entry into, or advancement within, the field of career development. This paper developed out of the third phase of the project; bringing together educators from across Canada to a think tank in order to discuss these educational and professional issues. Although subsets of this group meet with some regularity for other purposes, this was the first meeting of career educators that included representatives from French- and English-speaking Canada, from universities and colleges, and from the private sector. Informal reports from participants suggest that these discussions set the stage for some significant progress towards developing an innovative and comprehensive framework for the education of career practitioners in Canada.

The development of an educational model has the potential to be a major step forward for the field. It has the potential to define exactly what education is required to enter the field of career development, how one could advance within the field, and how the occupational roles of the entry-level person differ from those of an advanced practitioner. This clarity of definition alone would help draw attention to the importance of career-specific education and the services that career practitioners have to offer. A well-developed model would also offer consumers more clarity to help them access the type and scope of service they require. This work is far from complete, but we hope that the energy and enthusiasm this project has generated will provide impetus to move the model forward.

The think tank brought to light many important discussions on curriculum that were as valuable as the discussion of the model. With representatives from all educational sectors, the deliberations afforded a rich dialogue on how the curriculum could evolve and expand. One area requiring significant effort is the inclusion into the curriculum of a social justice lens and macro practice competencies. The development of an appropriate curriculum and its adaptation into current Canadian career education programs would advance the field and make international leaders of Canadian career education programs. This challenge is indeed daunting, but it is also tenable. There was a spirit of co-operation among the participants at the think tank that we believe will support the initiative's forward momentum.

We would like to thank the educators who attended the think tank for their enthusiastic support of this research project and for the tremendous contributions that set the stage for more discussion and forward movement. We would also like to express our thanks to CERIC for their professional and financial support of this endeavour.

## Appendix A

### Think Tank Participants

Nancy Arthur	University of Calgary
Robert Boudouin	Université de Moncton
Marie-Denyse Boivin	Université Laval
Bruno Bourassa	Université Laval
Mildred Cahill	Memorial University
Deborah Day	Acadia University

Edwidge Desjardins	Université du Québec à Montréal
Carmen Forrest	First Nations University
Marcelle Gingras	Université de Sherbrooke
Bryan Hiebert	University of Calgary
Kon Li	Kwantlen University College
Kris Magnusson	University of Lethbridge
Greg Morrow	George Brown College
Nathalie Perreault	OrientAction
Geoff Peruniak	Athabasca University
Deirdre Pickerell	Life Strategies Inc.
Natalee Popadiuk	Simon Fraser University
Blythe Shepard	University of Victoria
Rob Straby	Conestoga College
Beverly Walters	Bow Valley College

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## Délibérations sur l'avenir de L'enseignement en Développement de Carrière au Canada

Rebecca Burwell & Sharon Kalbfleisch

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

Le projet de recherche intitulé « Promotion de la formation des conseillers d'orientation professionnelle au Canada » a été mis sur pied afin d'entamer un processus destiné à définir le type de formation, nécessaire selon les membres de la profession, pour entrer et évoluer dans le secteur. La première phase du projet a été consacrée à la compilation d'un *Répertoire des programmes de formation en orientation professionnelle et en développement de carrière au Canada*, qu'on peut télécharger (en anglais) à l'adresse suivante :

[http://www.contactpoint.ca/resources/Directory\\_of\\_Education\\_Programs\\_2006.pdf](http://www.contactpoint.ca/resources/Directory_of_Education_Programs_2006.pdf)

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

### Un Modèle pour L'enseignement en Développement de Carrière au Canada

**de l'importance d'établir un modèle éducationnel.** Dans la plupart des professions, on sait généralement quel est le type de formation nécessaire pour pouvoir exercer une fonction particulière. Prenons par exemple les soins infirmiers : une infirmière praticienne est autorisée à prodiguer un large éventail de soins de façon indépendante et possède, en plus de son diplôme d'infirmière, une ou deux années de formation supplémentaire. En comparaison, une infirmière auxiliaire travaille sous la supervision d'une infirmière autorisée ou d'un médecin et possède une ou deux années

de formation postsecondaire. Cette clarté en matière de formation et de vie professionnelle n'a pas cours dans le secteur du développement de carrière au Canada. Il existe actuellement une grande diversité de formations et de compétences chez les intervenants; qui plus est, les programmes d'enseignement en place ne conduisent généralement pas à des attributions professionnelles précises.

L'absence de lignes directrices comparables explique que des gens sans formation spécialisée en orientation professionnelle aient pu, parfois très facilement, entamer une pratique. Sans un programme d'enseignement spécialisé, de nombreux praticiens de l'orientation professionnelle ne reçoivent pas d'enseignement approfondi dans les théories de base de l'orientation professionnelle, ils sont rarement systématiquement mis en contact avec les contextes socioéconomiques et les finalités de cette orientation et ne bénéficient pas d'une formation appliquée systématique dans les techniques qui constituent la base de la pratique (Organisation de coopération et de développement économiques, 2004, p.106).

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

Nos clients auraient également tout intérêt à ce qu'un tel modèle soit mis en place. L'éventail des intitulés de postes et des compétences qu'on rencontre actuellement dans le secteur fait qu'il est très difficile pour le consommateur de savoir où aller et à quoi il doit s'attendre quand il entreprend une démarche d'orientation professionnelle. Dans une étude destinée à déterminer dans quelle mesure les théories en développement de carrière et la recherche viennent soutenir le travail des intervenants, peu importe leurs compétences, Brown a noté que bien que de nombreux clients se présentent avec des attentes et des besoins bien définis, le type de prestations proposées et la nature même de l'orientation vont dépendre largement du niveau de formation de l'intervenant. C'est pourquoi une description et une définition plus claire du rôle des prestataires et du type de services proposés sont essentielles pour aider le consommateur à identifier et atteindre ses objectifs (2002, p. 125).

La mise en place d'un modèle pourrait aussi être utile pour améliorer l'image professionnelle du secteur. Sunny Hansen, dans une analyse récente sur les forces, les faiblesses, les perspectives d'avenir et les menaces associées à la profession de conseiller d'orientation professionnelle, déclare que l'une des menaces importantes à mes yeux est ce que j'appelle la déprofessionnalisation » de l'orientation professionnelle. Il semble que de plus en plus, dans certains secteurs, ce soit devenu une

profession « que tout le monde peut faire », une façon de voir qui, de fait, rabaisse la profession (2003, p. 47).

Un modèle éducationnel aiderait certainement à rassurer le public et les intervenants sur le fait que le secteur du développement de carrière est une affaire sérieuse qui exige une formation et une préparation spécialisées. Un modèle éducationnel déterminant les grandes lignes de la pratique professionnelle à tous les échelons permettrait aux intervenants d'être conscients et d'adhérer aux limites fixées par leur niveau de formation. Un des points essentiels est de savoir dans quelle mesure un intervenant peut ou doit proposer des services de counselling individuel à ses clients. Le fait que les « consultants soient fréquemment confrontés à un dilemme professionnel qui repose sur un ensemble de préoccupations et de facteurs liés à la vie personnelle de leurs clients » (Chen, 2001, p. 524) a été bien étudié et est une prémisse acceptée au sein de la profession. Plusieurs s'entendent cependant pour dire que le counselling individuel exige une formation plus poussée que celle proposée à l'heure actuelle par certains programmes (il faudrait au minimum un diplôme de maîtrise). Ce n'est pourtant pas ce qu'on remarque dans la profession. Dans l'étude de Brown, les psychologues de même que les conseillers, autorisés ou non, ont indiqué qu'ils prenaient effectivement en compte tant les enjeux personnels que professionnels des clients venus pour une orientation professionnelle (2002). Cette pratique est problématique dans la mesure où certains intervenants n'ont pas le niveau de formation requis pour aborder avec leurs clients des questions personnelles. C'est pourquoi un modèle qui déterminerait les rôles associés à chaque niveau de formation serait utile pour clarifier les limites et aiderait les intervenants à déterminer jusqu'où ils peuvent aller avec le client et quand vient le moment de les référer à un autre professionnel.

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

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

**de l'importance d'établir un modèle éducationnel.** Établir un modèle éducationnel suffisamment large pour qu'il puisse intégrer les différences importantes qui existent actuellement au Canada dans l'enseignement en développement de carrière ne sera pas chose facile. En effet, bien que le secteur n'en soit qu'à ses débuts, on compte plus de 37 programmes d'enseignement offrant un cursus entier ou substantiel en développement de carrière. Nous l'avons mentionné plus tôt, ces programmes d'enseignement présentent de grandes différences entre eux; il n'y a pas moins de 7 types de diplômes différents parmi les 37 programmes : attestation, certificat, diplôme,

baccalauréat, maîtrise, doctorat et diplôme d'études approfondies. Si la plupart de ces programmes sont valables en soi et proposent un cursus intéressant, c'est le manque de similarité entre eux qui fait qu'il est difficile de les intégrer à un modèle.

Les différences régionales dans l'enseignement en développement de carrière représentent une deuxième difficulté au développement d'un modèle. Les différences entre le Québec et le reste du Canada complexifient la donne, en ce sens que le Québec est la seule province à réglementer la profession : Pour obtenir d'elle l'autorisation de porter le titre de conseiller d'orientation, les candidats doivent répondre aux exigences établies dans les règlements adoptés en vertu du Code des professions du Québec, lequel stipule qu'il faut avoir une maîtrise en orientation professionnelle (Turcotte, 2005, p. 7).

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

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

Une quatrième difficulté est l'importance relative accordée au développement de carrière à l'intérieur des programmes d'enseignement existants. Dagley and Salter ont noté qu'aux États-Unis, certains programmes spéciaux de formation non diplômant pour facilitateurs de carrière ont ajouté à leur cursus des éléments de théorie et de recherche dans le domaine du développement de carrière, mais proposent peu de counselling supervisé; en revanche, les programmes d'enseignement qui mènent au diplôme de conseiller fournissent une excellente supervision en counselling, mais peu ou prou d'enseignement en développement de carrière ou de supervision en orientation professionnelle (2004, p. 102).

Ce n'est pas le cas partout au Canada, mais il est vrai que les programmes de certificats et de diplômes sont, la plupart du temps, plus orientés vers le développement de carrière que les programmes de niveau maîtrise en psychologie de l'orientation (sauf au Québec, où les programmes de baccalauréat et de maîtrise sont spécialisés en

développement de carrière). Encore une fois, cela représente une difficulté pour le développement d'un modèle. Comment établir un modèle qui intègre, d'une part, les programmes d'enseignement entièrement tournés vers le développement de carrière avec ceux, d'autre part, tournés plutôt vers le counselling?

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

**proposer un modèle pour la formation en développement de carrière au canada.** Malgré les difficultés inhérentes au développement d'un modèle éducationnel, les participants au groupe de réflexion ont pu établir un modèle provisoire pour l'enseignement en développement de carrière. Le modèle demande bien entendu à être amélioré (un groupe de travail a été désigné pour continuer à le développer), mais il a le mérite d'établir des catégories pour les différents types et niveaux de service proposés par les intervenants en développement de carrière. Il propose également des exigences de formation pour chaque type de prestation.

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

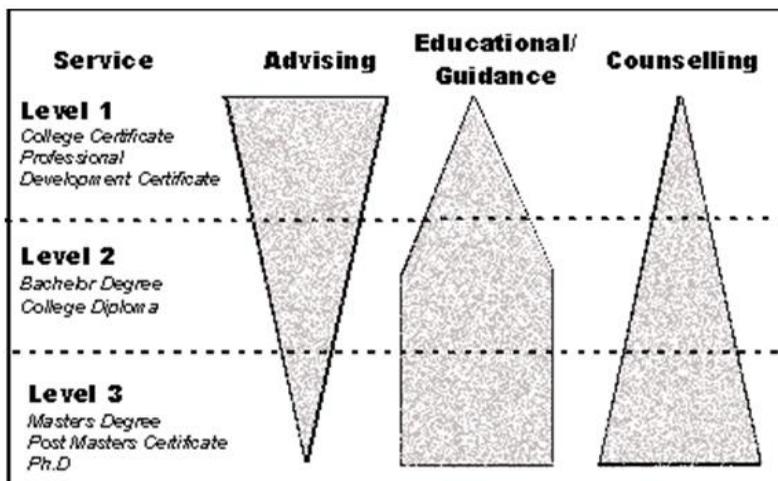
Le modèle éducationnel provisoire conçu lors des séances du groupe de réflexion (voir ill. 1) prend aussi en compte l'idée que la profession englobe des rôles multiples et distincts. S'appuyant sur les travaux précédents effectués par Borgen et Hiebert (2006, 2002), le modèle propose de répartir les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

information générale et « non personnalisée » sur un sujet particulier (par exemple, expliquer à un client les différentes formes de curriculum vitae est considéré comme du conseil, tout comme l'aider à obtenir de l'information professionnelle ou le conseiller sur d'autres types de services d'orientation). L'orientation a une portée plus large et vise à fournir des informations ou des services psychopédagogiques mieux adaptés aux besoins du client que le simple conseil. L'orientation demande que l'intervenant rassemble d'abord de l'information sur le client, souvent grâce à un entretien ou une autre forme d'évaluation, s'assurant ainsi que les services proposés seront probablement mieux adaptés aux besoins particuliers du client. Un intervenant qui explique à un client comment une évaluation des champs d'intérêt pourrait influencer ses choix professionnels, propose un service d'orientation. Le counselling va plus loin que la fourniture d'informations. Il concerne des problèmes plus globaux et pourrait inclure l'utilisation de l'orientation professionnelle pour réduire le stress; la gestion de la colère; l'intégration et la résolution des conflits entre la carrière et les autres rôles de la vie; le soutien aux personnes pour reconstruire et recadrer les expériences passées; une méthode d'apprentissage pour atténuer leur manque d'esprit de décision; l'assistance pour modifier des attentes professionnelles irrationnelles; la prise en compte de problèmes sous-jacents qui conduisent à des dysfonctionnements, y compris les problèmes familiaux non résolus qui se répercutent sur le travail; la possibilité donnée aux personnes déplacées d'exprimer leur colère et leur ressentiment à propos de problèmes personnels; la perte d'emploi; la perte ou la diffusion de l'identité personnelle (Herr, 2003, p. 11).

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

### III. 1

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



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

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

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

Un des avantages du modèle provisoire est qu'il intègre tous les programmes d'enseignement à tous les niveaux tels qu'ils existent à l'heure actuelle. Il reconnaît que chacun de ces programmes répond à un besoin spécifique et ne leur fait pas courir le risque de disparaître ou d'être considérés inefficaces. Un autre avantage est qu'il

reconnaît que certaines tâches au sein de la profession n'exigent pas une formation approfondie de conseiller d'orientation – un avantage en ce sens que les programmes non diplômants qui existent actuellement ont tendance à offrir moins de spécialisation en counselling et moins d'heures de stage supervisé.

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

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

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

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

## **Programmes D'enseignement en Développement de Carrière au Canada**

### **Réflexions sur la Situation Actuelle**

Nous l'avons dit plus tôt, la première phase de ce projet de recherche a été consacrée à la compilation d'un *Répertoire des programmes de formation en orientation professionnelle et en développement de carrière au Canada*. La collecte de données auprès des directeurs et coordonnateurs de programmes nous a permis par la même occasion de nous renseigner sur le contenu de chacun des programmes : la

plupart d'entre eux comportent un tronc commun minimum qui couvre, entre autres, les théories en développement de carrière, les entretiens, la facilitation sociale, l'évaluation professionnelle, l'éthique et le travail avec des populations diverses.

Mis à part cela, on note des différences importantes selon que le programme d'enseignement est diplômant ou pas. Par exemple, des sujets comme l'information sur les carrières, les tendances du marché du travail ou encore les techniques de recherche d'emploi sont plus souvent pris en compte dans les programmes d'enseignement non diplômants, tandis que les programmes diplômants ont tendance à donner plus d'importance aux théories générales sur le counselling. Lorsque le modèle éducationnel en développement de carrière (décrit plus haut) sera mieux défini, il sera important de proposer différents types de contenus pour les différents types et niveaux de programmes d'enseignement.

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

Une autre façon d'aider les étudiants à faire le lien entre théorie et pratique est une supervision efficace en développement de carrière. McMahon a fait remarquer le manque d'importance accordé à la supervision et le peu d'articles écrits à ce propos dans la littérature sur l'orientation professionnelle jusqu'en 2003. Sans supervision, particulièrement pour un étudiant ou un intervenant débutant, il est difficile de mettre les connaissances théoriques en pratique. Ce manque de supervision pourrait aussi faire croire aux stagiaires que le travail en développement de carrière n'est ni complexe ni suffisamment difficile pour qu'une supervision s'impose, ce qui est une façon de voir fondamentalement erronée. Il faut rappeler qu'une supervision inadéquate a des conséquences sérieuses au fur et à mesure que s'étend la pratique d'un individu en développement de carrière.

## **De l'importance de Développer le Contenu des Programmes D'enseignement**

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

La question à laquelle on a accordé le plus d'attention et qui influencerait le plus le contenu des programmes est celle du développement de compétences autres que celles acquises dans les programmes d'enseignement en développement de carrière, dont les préoccupations concernent avant tout les prestations aux individus; ces changements pourraient aider les intervenants en orientation professionnelle à élargir leur intervention pour y inclure les enjeux relatifs aux influences organisationnelles et sociétales. Les difficultés professionnelles auxquelles les individus font face reposent souvent, non pas sur des lacunes individuelles, mais plutôt sur des carences connues à l'intérieur des systèmes et des politiques. Pour prendre en compte ce problème de manière efficace, un intervenant doit posséder des connaissances et des compétences dans des domaines tels que la défense des intérêts, la planification et la politique sociale, l'action sociale et le développement communautaire. Si l'intervenant accorde trop peu d'attention aux enjeux globaux ou fait preuve d'inaction à leur endroit, il peut devenir lui-même une partie du problème. Arthur résume brièvement cela : « les intervenants en orientation professionnelle doivent comprendre comment ils peuvent engendrer sans le vouloir un statu quo et doivent être préparés à confronter les forces sociales, barrières systémiques à la croissance et au développement des individus » (2005, p. 41).

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

Il est intéressant de noter que le fondateur de la psychologie du travail, Frank Parsons, prenait à cœur le changement social, la justice sociale et l'action sociale. Le Dr. King Davis définit la justice sociale de la manière suivante : La justice sociale est une valeur essentielle et un but recherché dans les sociétés démocratiques. Elle comprend l'accès juste et équitable aux institutions sociétales, aux lois, aux ressources, aux perspectives d'avenir, sans limite arbitraire fondée sur l'observation ou l'interprétation de différences du point de vue de l'âge, de la couleur, de la culture, des déficiences physiques ou mentales, de l'éducation, du genre, des revenus, de l'origine nationale, de la race, de la religion ou de l'orientation sexuelle (2004, p. 236).

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

individus moins privilégiés qui doivent travailler simplement pour pourvoir à leurs besoins vitaux ont été largement ignorés (Whiston, 2003).

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

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

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

Arthur va beaucoup plus loin dans ce sens et propose d'intégrer la justice sociale dans les rôles et les méthodes d'intervention des intervenants en orientation professionnelle. Elle appelle aussi les intervenants à développer les compétences nécessaires pour provoquer le changement institutionnel et pour travailler sur l'action sociale et les interventions systémiques. Elle a déterminé 17 formes de compétences qui permettraient aux conseillers d'orientation d'avoir les aptitudes requises pour appuyer les interventions en justice sociale. Elle déclare que « tôt ou tard, l'articulation justice sociale/développement de carrière doit être prise en compte dans la conception des programmes de formation pour les intervenants en orientation professionnelle » (Arthur, 2005, p.143).

Un examen plus approfondi de l'enseignement donné en travail social pourrait nous aider à comprendre comment les aptitudes à la justice sociale pourraient être intégrées à la formation des intervenants en orientation professionnelle. Le travail social

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

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

### **Les Obstacles à L'intégration des Enjeux Globaux aux Programmes D'enseignement**

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

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

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

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

### **Prochaines Étapes pour le Contenu des Programmes**

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

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

systèmes et contribuent à l'élaboration de la politique sociale en ce qui concerne le monde du travail. Un individu devra suivre au moins un cours, voire plus, portant sur la « macro » théorie et la « macro » pratique, s'il veut évoluer dans ce domaine.

Comme on l'a mentionné plus tôt, un certain nombre de questions touchant aux contenus et aux enjeux de programme n'ont pas fait l'objet de discussions aussi approfondies qu'on l'aurait souhaité en raison du manque de temps. Une de ces questions portait sur la zone de contact entre l'orientation professionnelle et le counselling individuel. On ne peut pas établir de séparation nette entre l'orientation professionnelle et le counselling qui porte sur les autres aspects de la vie d'un individu. Certains intervenants sont en mesure, grâce à leur formation, de travailler sur les aspects importants de la vie d'une personne (au travail, dans la vie personnelle, ou même parfois en ce qui concerne la santé mentale). D'autres intervenants, en revanche, sont incapables de gérer ces situations compte tenu des lacunes de leur éducation. Il faudrait au minimum que les conseillers d'orientation possèdent les connaissances suffisantes pour identifier les problèmes d'ordre personnel et, si nécessaire, référer leurs clients vers des professionnels capables de les accompagner. Cette zone de contact va se préciser au fur et à mesure que le modèle va prendre forme et que les rôles des différents intervenants seront mieux définis.

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

Autre enjeu soulevé : comment peut-on au mieux faire le lien entre l'enseignement en développement de carrière et l'enseignement donné aux professions apparentées, comme le travail social, les ressources humaines ou encore la réinsertion professionnelle. Ces intervenants travaillent avec des clients dont les problèmes ne sont pas liés, la plupart du temps, au monde du travail; mais parce que le travail est si important pour le bien-être des individus et qu'il peut être à la source de tant de désespoir, les enjeux liés au travail et à la carrière forment souvent l'essentiel du problème. C'est pourquoi une connaissance des théories en développement de carrière ainsi que des techniques d'orientation professionnelle, de même qu'une sensibilisation aux possibilités existantes et à l'importance de diriger un client vers les services appropriés quand les problèmes liés à la carrière sont primordiaux, seraient profitables aux professionnels des domaines apparentés et leur procureraient un soutien dans l'aide qu'ils apportent à leurs clients. Nous devons envisager l'importance de cela par rapport à notre domaine et voir s'il est possible de sensibiliser nos maisons d'enseignement à ce qu'il y ait une place accordée dans les programmes apparentés à des cours en développement de carrière.

Une étape préliminaire a été franchie depuis que le groupe de réflexion s'est réuni : la mise sur pied d'un groupe composé d'enseignants souhaitant rédiger des documents sur les enjeux et les améliorations actuels dans le domaine du développement de carrière au Canada. La nature exacte de cette publication reste à

définir, mais il est certain qu'on fera une place importante aux questions de justice sociale et de compétences en justice sociale. Nous espérons que ce travail va mener à la rédaction, d'une part, d'un texte introductif permettant aux étudiants et au personnel enseignant d'acquérir plus d'information et des perspectives sur les enjeux globaux et, d'autre part, de matériel pédagogique traitant des améliorations et des pratiques exemplaires au Canada. La rédaction de ces documents et d'autres encore va aider grandement à prendre en compte les enjeux pédagogiques, tout en permettant que soit facilité le processus d'ajustement des programmes d'enseignement.

## **L'image Professionnelle et le Rôle de L'éducation**

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

Les enseignants sont particulièrement préoccupés par les différentes appellations d'emploi utilisées pour décrire ce type de travail. Lors de l'enquête effectuée dans la seconde phase du projet, il a été demandé aux répondants d'indiquer l'intitulé de leur poste. De manière significative, 37 % d'entre eux ont mentionné des intitulés qui ne correspondent pas aux treize appellations d'emploi habituellement recensées. (Ce problème ne concerne pas le Québec, où 69 % des répondants ont indiqué une seule et unique appellation d'emploi : conseiller d'orientation). Cette multitude d'intitulés se retrouve également dans le nom des programmes d'études à travers le pays. Tandis que certains utilisent le terme « intervenant en carrière » (career practitioner), d'autres utilisent plutôt « conseiller en carrière » (career counsellor), « spécialiste en gestion de carrière » (career management professional), « facilitateur en développement de carrière » (career facilitator), ou encore « accompagnateur en développement de carrière » (career development coach). Ce libre usage d'appellations diverses dans nos lieux de travail et dans nos programmes d'enseignement est une question qu'il faut résolument soulever. Les enseignants peuvent jouer un rôle positif en développant et en faisant connaître le modèle éducationnel décrit dans la première partie de cet article. Ce modèle peut aider à concevoir des appellations plus descriptives, cohérentes et porteuses de sens, autant pour les professionnels du secteur que pour le grand public.

Soulever la question de l'image professionnelle n'est pas une tâche facile et demandera à ce que les efforts soient concertés (intervenants, employeurs, associations, gouvernement). Mais les enseignants espèrent vivement que le fait de rehausser le profil de l'enseignement spécialisé en développement de carrière (grâce au modèle provisoire

décrit plus haut) et d'améliorer le contenu des programmes conduira au but recherché. McCarthy (2001) déclare à cet effet que la formation joue un rôle important dans l'établissement d'une image professionnelle.

## Conclusion

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

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

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

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

## Annexe A

### Participants au groupe de réflexion

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

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