

New Realities

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Career Practitioners' Views of Social Justice and Barriers for Practice

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People's career development is strongly influenced by the social systems that surround them. Unfortunately, for many individuals in Canada and other nations, social and political forces limit educational and employment opportunities. There are also inequities in terms of who can access professional services and in the relevancy and benefits of programs designed for culturally diverse populations (Arthur & Collins, 2005b; Bezanson et al., 2007; Arthur & Lalande, 2008).

We need to consider what career development interventions have to offer individuals who are socially or economically disadvantaged, who are underrepresented in our educational systems, who may have limited access to meaningful employment, or who remain underemployed in the labour market. It has been suggested that the term, career, has been constructed around middle and upper class values, while ignoring the differential realities and experiences of people in relation to their work lives (Blustein, Kenna, Gill, & DeVoy, 2008). Repositioning career development practice to focus on work has been advocated (e.g., Blustein, 2006; Richardson, 1993, 2000) in order address the circumstances and needs of those who have significant barriers in their pursuit of meaningful employment.

As a guiding value, social justice is a strong foundation from which to consider the roles and responsibilities of career development practitioners. Trying to reduce career barriers through social justice is an old concept to be revisited with new emphasis (McMahon, Arthur, & Collins, 2008a). Social justice has been a fundamental value in helping people with their occupational choices since the work of Parsons in the early 1900s. Parsons (1909) advocated for youth, women, and people who were poor to help them to improve their lives through securing employment. Parsons' work was seminal in laying a foundation of theoretical and practical advances in the field of career development (Blustein, 2006; Fouad, Gerstein, & Toporek, 2006). However, it seems that we have drifted away from our roots in social justice to interventions that primarily focus on the individual without sufficiently considering the contextual and environmental forces that adversely impact people's career development (Arthur, 2005).

Although more literature on social justice in the field of career development has recently been published (e.g., Blustein, McWhirter, & Perry, 2005; Fassinger & Gallor, 2006; Irving & Malik, 2005), there are few examples to guide practitioners about ways to incorporate social justice into career development practices. To that end, we designed an exploratory study with career development practitioners to include their views about

social justice. We first provide background information on perspectives about social justice. Following this discussion, preliminary research results are presented about how career development practitioners in Canada define social justice, how they link the concept to their practices, and their perceived barriers for implementing career interventions related to social justice.

Perspectives on Social Justice

The philosophy and meaning of social justice has been debated across academic disciplines for centuries. Although social justice has resurfaced as a guiding value for career development practitioners, we have noted that in recent literature, the concept is often not defined, or the meaning of the concept is taken for granted as commonly understood. It is also problematic when multiple and contrasting meanings are suggested, as these imply quite different implications for career development practice. For the purpose of this paper, we review a selection of key perspectives about social justice that help to locate our current use of the term.

In a just society, opportunities, resources, and services are distributed equally and fairly. However, in most societies, some individuals or groups have greater access to educational, economic, and career success than others. This is because certain groups in society hold less power than others and may experience stereotyping, discrimination, or other forms of oppression. This is often the experience of non-dominant groups in Canadian society who are positioned on the basis of cultural factors such as ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, ability, age, language, religion, and socioeconomic status. Individuals from these groups may struggle with access to education and work or have limited opportunities due to power differences in our society and barriers, such as economic disparities, discrimination, or other forms of oppression (Arthur & Collins, 2005a).

The concept of social justice has a long history, dating back to Plato and Aristotle (Reisch, 2002) in the 4th century B.C. Aristotle was considered to have had a conservative view of social justice, one that was primarily concerned with political distribution amongst citizens of the state (Jackson, 2005). According to Aristotle, citizens of the state included Athenian men who owned property (Reisch). Women, foreigners, and slaves were not considered to be important and were ignored in Aristotle's discussions of social justice. From this perspective of social justice, individuals should be given what they deserve, not what they need.

Hobbes, writing in the 17th century A.D., began to acknowledge the presence of different groups in society. Believing most people were barbaric in nature, Hobbes felt it was important to give power to the state or nation to ensure peace within the society, which left the power of the state in the hands of the elite (Reisch, 2002). This provided the rationalization that certain groups needed to be *maintained* for slavery, which led to oppression of many different groups in society (Reisch). Historically then, the concept of social justice has been associated with terms such as getting what one deserves, maintenance of a social class system, and differentials in the distributions of resources and power.

In the 21st century, the concept of social justice has been used as a way to maintain the status quo, promote extreme social reforms, and justify revolutionary action. Conservatives, liberals, radical secularists, and religious fundamentalists have used the term; all claiming their agenda is one motivated by social justice (Reisch,

2002). From a liberalist viewpoint, Rawls (1971) acknowledged that individuals may want to better themselves, but he also acknowledged this must not be done at the expense of others. In other words, just as the individual has rights that must be acknowledged, the interests of the social good must also be considered. In this way, Rawls takes more of a Marxist approach to social justice, by acknowledging that society also has a duty to the individual, which is to allow all individuals to be fully active participants of society (Marx, 1964). Rawls acknowledged the bidirectional relationship between society and the individual in social justice.

Bell (1997) addresses several of the weaknesses that are inherent in the historical definitions of social justice. Bell argues that the overriding goal of social justice is: ...full and equal participation of all groups in a society that is mutually shaped to meet their needs. Social justice includes a vision of society in which the distribution of resources is equitable and all members are physically and psychologically safe and secure. (p.3)

In this definition Bell attempts to address oppressive social class structures, arguing for the importance of social participation and empowerment. Social justice would then emphasize more inclusive decision-making about ways to meet all people's needs, including providing for their physical and psychological safety.

More recently, writers such as Young (1990) have gone further through proposing that social justice should not only include people's basic needs, but also the opportunity for self-fulfillment. Young also acknowledges the role institutions play in allowing or preventing individuals from reaching their full human potential. According to Young, Oppression consists in systematic institutional processes, which prevent some people from learning and using satisfying and expansive skills in socially recognized settings, or institutionalized social processes which inhibit people's ability to play and communicate with others or to express their feelings and perspective on social life in contexts where others can listen. (p. 38)

From Young's (1990) perspective, a just society would be one in which the constraints of oppression and domination are eliminated, allowing people from all groups to develop and reach their full human potential. This would include lifting restrictions on participation in institutions such as education and employment.

Current views of social justice place increased emphasis on the importance of moving beyond acknowledgment of inequities to active intervention to challenge systems, institutions, and cultural norms that result in the oppression and marginalization of certain groups in society (Horne & Matthews, 2006). "This includes actively working to change social institutions, political and economic systems, and governmental structures that perpetuate unfair practices, structures, and policies in terms of accessibility, resource distribution, and human rights" (Fouad et al., 2006, p.1). Based on these definitions, three core components of social justice emerge: (a) fair and equitable distribution of resources and opportunities, (b) direct action to ameliorate oppression and marginalization within society, and (c) full inclusion and participation of all members of society in a way that enables them to reach their potential.

The focus on human development and potential is compatible with more recent views of career that emphasize helping people recognize and realize their potential through expression in vocational and other life roles (Young & Collin, 2000). Yet, as pointed out earlier in the discussion, there is debate about whether the concept of career represents the realities of many peoples' experience and relationships with work (Blustein, 2006).

Linking Social Justice and Career Development Practice

There is growing attention paid to the importance social justice as a guiding value for career development practice (Arthur, 2005; 2008). A key concern is that locating career problems within individuals does little to address social conditions that adversely impact people. Young (1990) builds on the emphasis placed on distribution of resources to examine the social structures that inhibit positive development. From this perspective, ...justice should refer not only to distribution, but also to the institutional conditions necessary for the development and exercise of individual capacities and collective communication and cooperation. Under this conception of justice, injustice refers primarily to two forms of disabling constraints, oppression and domination. (p.39)

Conditions of oppression may be overt, such as public laws and institutional policies, or more covert in terms of well-intentioned help that does not take into consideration the differential distribution of resources and opportunities available to our clients or the reality of social barriers linked to education and employment. According to Young (1990), ...oppression refers to the vast and deep injustices some groups suffer as a consequence of often unconscious assumptions and reactions of well-meaning people in ordinary interactions, media and cultural stereotypes, and structural features of bureaucratic hierarchies and market mechanisms – in short, the normal processes of everyday life. (p. 41)

Working from this perspective challenges career development practitioners to consider how their personal and professional socialization influences their views of people's career development. This includes the nature of career issues, notions of *on track* and *off track*, indicators of success, and a multitude of possible external influences that may be relevant for viewing individuals and their circumstances. In other words, career practitioners need to consider how their worldviews may be similar or different to others and also how they may inadvertently perpetuate attitudes and actions that further disenfranchise some clients.

Young's perspective of social justice also challenges career development practitioners to not only take a broader view of people's career issues, but also to broaden the target of career interventions. Beyond facilitating personal empowerment of clients, professionals 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 (Arredondo & Perez, 2003; Arthur & Collins, 2005a).

It is of concern that the focus of career planning and decision-making is becoming increasingly restricted to remedial interventions (Arthur, 2005; 2008), due to funding mandates and limited resources. For example, the terms of agency funding may dictate that services be designed around short-term outcomes such as job placement of any sort, with insufficient attention given to helping individuals with plans and resources for career development to stabilize or enhance their future economic position. The unemployment and underemployment of Canadians, especially foreign trained workers, has been targeted for years in labour force planning (Dolan & Young, 2004). Yet, it will take concerted efforts to shift policies and practices that place responsibility for career planning on the individual, that emphasize *survival of the fittest* and *hiring those most like us*, to addressing multiple systemic barriers that continue to perpetuate educational and employment inequities for workers from diverse cultural backgrounds.

A key step to reaffirm the value of social justice is supporting practitioners to translate the concept into meaningful career development practices. While we can celebrate our historical roots and the contributions of social justice to the evolution of career development practice, we need to consider what our past has to offer contemporary career practices (McMahon, Arthur, & Collins, 2008a, 2008b). We believe that is important to move beyond conceptual discussions about the meaning of social justice to consider the implications for practitioner roles and responsibilities. As a point of departure, we felt that it was important to include the voices of career development practitioners in the dialogue about social justice. To that end, we conducted an exploratory study, in which career practitioners were invited to define social justice and to identify some of the barriers that they experience in implementing career development interventions related to social justice.

The Current Study

Participants were career practitioners in Canada who volunteered to participate in a larger study on the diversity and social justice competencies of career development practitioners (Arthur, Collins, Bisson, & McMahon, 2008), conducted through an on-line survey. Invitations to participate in the study were sent electronically to career development associations across Canada and confidentially distributed to members. Demographic information was collected to ascertain participants' age range, ethnicity, educational qualifications, years of experience, and setting of their career development practice. Qualitative data was collected through open-ended questions designed to help us better understand the nature of existing social justice challenges and strategies that career practitioners face in their day-to-day work. The following questions were used to determine participants' background training in social justice and their current views of the concept:

- How familiar are you with social justice issues as they relate to career practice?
- Have you ever attended a workshop on social justice?
- Have you ever attended a course on social justice?
- What does social justice in your career development practice mean to you?
- Question 1 was a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from no familiarity to high familiarity. Questions 2 and 3 were formatted as yes/no categories.

The inquiry also focused on career practitioners' views of barriers towards enacting social justice practices. This information was obtained in two ways. First, a check-list of barriers, conceptually driven from a review of the literature (e.g., Helms, 2003; Kiselica & Robinson, 2001) was itemized on the survey, and participants were asked to select all items that applied to their practice.

The second way of identifying barriers to implementing social justice was through critical incidents. The critical incident technique is associated with the case study method in which the specific behaviours of people are examined through open-ended inquiry about the qualitative and subjective descriptions of people, situations, interpretations of experiences (Pedersen, 1995). In essence, critical incidents are brief descriptions of vivid events that people remember as being meaningful in their experience (Brookfield, 1995). Critical incidents have been used extensively in cross-cultural research, including studies conducted pertaining to educational and

employment experiences (e.g., Amundson, Borgen, Jordan, & Erlebach, 2004; Arthur, 2001).

In the larger study, participants were asked to describe an actual session with a client whose career issues were influenced by social justice issues (e.g., lack of resources, inequity, discrimination, etc.). Prompts were provided to guide participants to reflect on the nature of the presenting issues, how those issues were related to social justice, the interventions selected, and outcomes of the intervention. A summary of the results from these critical incidents will be reported in a subsequent manuscript (Arthur, Collins, McMahon, & Marshall, 2008). An additional prompt asked participants to explain any barriers to implementing their choice of intervention. This enabled us to compare the barriers identified through the checklist with actual barriers that were experienced in the design and implementation of career-related interventions.

Responses obtained from the open-ended question and critical incidents were reviewed using a constant comparison method of content analysis (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). The survey data was reviewed initially by one member of the research team to begin creating a taxonomy of emerging categories. New survey data was compared to this taxonomy, adding new categories when required. In the second review of the data, categories were reviewed by two other members of the research team and synthesized to reduce duplication. The results of this analysis produced key categories that portray how career practitioners view social justice and their experience of barriers that detract from social justice practices.

Results

The selected results from this portion of the study are based on 151 career practitioners who wrote about the meaning of the social justice and the barriers they face in practice. Participants were predominantly women (77%), which is reflective of gender distribution in many helping professions. The age range showed the majority of participants in the 30-50 year old bracket, with less than 10% in younger or older age ranges. Approximately 41% of the participants had completed graduate degrees, 28% of participants were educated at the undergraduate level, 16% of participants were educated at college or diploma levels, 13% held a post graduate certificate or diploma, and approximately 3% of the participants listed high school as their highest level of education. The majority of participants (87%) identified their ethnic background as Caucasian Canadians.

The participants had a wide range of years of experience in career development practice. Approximately 27% of participants had practised for 5 years or less, 26% of participants had practised for 6-10 years, 32% had practised for 11-20 years, and approximately 15% of participants had been in the role of career development practitioner for more than 20 years. Table 1 shows the distribution of settings where participants were employed in the field of career development.

Familiarity With Social Justice

Sixty-seven percent of participants checked that they were familiar with social justice, 28% checked that they were unfamiliar with social justice, and the remaining percentage of participants checked the undecided response category. With respect to

prior training related to social justice, 38% of participants had attended a workshop on social justice and 27% of participants had attended a course on social justice.

Table 1

Location of Career Development Practice

Location	N
Career and Employment Centre	32
Not-for-Profit Organization	30
Public High School	19
Public University	18
Government Department	15
Private Practice	11
Public College	7
Youth Agency	5
For Profit Organization/ Business	5
Community Based Agency	3
Other	5

The Multiple Meanings of Social Justice In Career Development Practice

From our study, it became evident that social justice holds multiple meanings for career practitioners. The responses suggest that social justice might be viewed as a larger value comprised of several related constructs. Figure 1 provides list of the top 10 main categories reflected in their definitions of social justice. The percentages in parenthesis show the proportion of participants whose responses contained the category. Selected quotes are included to illustrate how the category connects with the value of social justice.

Figure 1

Categories identified in career practitioners' definitions of social justice.

Category	Excerpts from Definitions of Social Justice
Advocacy (31%)	“I think Social Justice relates to awareness of issues surrounding discrimination of various groups; helping to bring the issues to the attention of everyone; assisting in the removal of barriers; and advocating on behalf of those suffering under various forms of discrimination.”
Equality (29%)	“Social justice is equality for all job seekers. No bias for age, religion, sex, or culture. Opening doors for new immigrants into Canada. No barriers for education and training.”
Self Fulfillment (26%)	“Social justice, as I understand it to be, gives every individual a fair opportunity to pursue the goals one has established for

	himself or herself. The use of the 'fair' does not mean equal but as it relates to opportunities, should offer, depending on one's needs, the occasions to undertake steps necessary to achieve these goals.”
Equal Opportunities (23%)	“Social justice is newcomers' ability to have access to the same opportunities as people who were born in that country. Social injustice is the country's refusal to consider newcomers' educational and work related experiences as valid or at least partly valid.”
Inclusion (23%)	“Social justice is a way of perceiving our social milieu and a set of intelligent actions that provide a greater sense of inclusion and responsibility for each other. With in my practice social justice involves thoughtful actions that address inclusion of people who may be seen to be hindered by her/him self or by others, in contributing to their community and/or to their own well being by virtue of his or her differences...”
Equal Access (18%)	“Social justice refers to my clients’ ability to succeed in the labour market (eg. ability to find and keep a job) and to gain access to the community supports they need to thrive.”
Considering Contextual Influences (29%)	“A social justice perspective involves understanding the client's career concerns in the context of their life and being open to environmental factors that may be or have influenced the client's career expression. I personally have found that a dual focus on the client and the environment, once openly articulated, has been empowering for individuals. As well, I see here an overlap between career counselling and mental health counselling because often clients who are experiencing discrimination, harassment or career barriers initially present with anxiety and depression. I deliberately work in both areas so that I can integrate my interventions with what the client seems to need.”
Client-Centred Resources (10%)	“Client centered means that I provide services that are requested in a manner that fits the clients needs and do not force him or her to jump through hoops established by some funding entity or outdated belief that the service provider knows best.”
Education (8%)	“I think that social justice regarding career practice is two-fold it requires allowing opportunities and accommodations for those facing barriers to the Canadian workplace based on income, language, religion, lack of cultural experience and a myriad of other possible reasons. But also requires education to allow people to adapt themselves when possible and productive to a new work environment and the expectations that come with it.”
Improving Policy (8%)	“I work with Canadian residents as well as new immigrants. For me social justice somehow equals to political issues

	and legislations. “ “Bureaucratic assumptions made when evaluating client access to resources based on clients previous decisions, levels of education, level of motivation, etc... Fair is not always about everybody getting the same, fair is about everyone getting what they need.”
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Within the total number of responses, 96 of the practitioners mentioned specific groups of people and specific cultural influences they thought were related to social justice issues. Figure 2 provides a list of the top ten categories in participants’ responses, followed by excerpts from selected participant responses to illustrate the connections with social justice.

Figure 2

Groups included in career practitioners’ definitions of social justice.

Category	Excerpts from Definitions of Social Justice
All People (39%)	“Making sure that policy is in place, and that common practices are consistent with those policies, in order to give ALL people an equal opportunity to find meaningful employment and self-fulfillment.”
Socio-Economic Status (39%)	“Various societal groups have different advantages and disadvantages in achieving educational and career success. Socioeconomic status obviously plays a significant role but this issue is about more than just money. SE status typically depends upon the choices made by parents re: their own education and job choices, sometimes creating a vicious cycle of "under" opportunities that is difficult to break. Intentional choice plays a role but so does the labour market and the current need for post-secondary education as opposed to years past when second education was sufficient.”
Race (37%)	“Assisting clients who have experienced discrimination because of racial, social, psychological, economic status. It involves affirming the individuals worth and potential. Barriers may be realistic, but can be viewed as challenges rather than bars. Ultimately, each person is unique, has value and abilities to contribute to society.”
Gender (31%)	“The issue of social justice would be in reference to low income women trying to live independently, especially after a separation or divorce. Besides the obvious costs related to searching for work, it is difficult to identify what low income women have to offer to an employer. Also, the business community is either unaware or don't care that they hire people offering low wages, and little in the way of benefits or even hours of work to provide an individual with a living wage.”
Age (24%)	“People should have equal access to the jobs for which they are

	qualified. If for some reason, race, colour, age, size, etc. they are excluded without having an equal chance to prove themselves, this is not fair. If they are excluded from career assistance for any reason from our gov't funded centre, this is not acceptable. If in our minds as facilitators we have judged their ability to succeed based on these factors, we have not been appropriate..."
Disability (22%)	"People make career decisions based on availability of training, cost, percentage of those who become employed and the demographics involved. When looking at equity and diversity in the workplace, those are directly related to social justice. Persons with disabilities often are excluded from a lot of workplaces who do not have standards in place to accommodate needs. Those individuals would be limited in their career decision-making process. Issues of inequality greatly impact persons with disabilities for just one."
Immigrants (21%)	"I see social justice as a way of 'evening out' the playing field within the work domain. There are obviously many groups within Canada that experience discrimination, both in their attempts to enter the workforce, and within the workplace itself. One example is the supposed need for New Canadians to have 'Canadian experience' before they land a 'good' job; but of course, this is based on the belief that experience from other countries is somehow 'lesser' or inferior. Career practitioners need a means to help those people who face such types of discrimination."
Sexual Orientation (17%)	"Career practitioners have been the strongest advocates for their clients as they deal with career issues of underserved populations, including racial and ethnic minorities, those with developmental delays, those who live in poverty, new immigrants, gay, lesbian and transgendered clients."
Religion (15%)	"Social justice as it relates to career practice would be assisting and empowering those who may have been, or are, discriminated against, for example, based on religion, race, sexual orientation, gender etc, to be able the enter the workforce equipped to deal with and/or overcome the affects thereof. Also, advocating on behalf of clients to assist them in reaching their fullest potential and enhancing their socioeconomic status."
Criminal Activity (14%)	"As career practitioners we come in contact from many different ethnic respecting the diversity of our society. It requires, fundamentally, that we have compassion for others; even those who have made personal choices that we would not such as substance abuse or criminality."

These themes illustrate the diversity of concepts and meanings that career practitioners expressed related to social justice. Additionally, the examples from their

responses illustrate that for many individuals from identified groups, there continue to be disparities in the options and resources available for their career pathways.

Social Justice Barriers Faced By Clients

A total of 97 of the participants noted specific barriers that inhibit clients in their career development. Note that these are the barriers to social justice faced by clients, in other words, the factors that prevent them from equal access to resources and opportunities necessary for full participation in society and career fulfilment. Later in the paper, we will explore the barriers faced by practitioners in working with their clients to promote social justice. The responses in Figure 3 are organized around 10 categories of client barriers, with the percentages in brackets used to indicate the proportion of participants who responses reflected this category.

Figure 3

Practitioners' views of client barriers to social justice in career development.

Category	Excerpts of Client Barriers
Discrimination (36%)	“Important as careers and employment opportunities may be limited based on various discriminations.”
Poor Policy (24%)	“Client's living on institutionalized income supports/rules are often frustrated, feel powerless, live in substandard housing, eat from food banks and feel like second class citizens. They frequently proper physical and psychological/learning disability assessment, academic/computer upgrading and current professional/industry stands to compete in today's world. A national formal Social Justice group could provide objective standards and best practices to assist government bodies achieve more with their dollars and client satisfaction. Newcomers to Canada need to be included in all areas.”
Oppression (22%)	“Working with persons with Disabilities, I often call employers and inquire about potential jobs for clients, sometimes an employer will state, no I do not want to hire any one from your organization. I believe they have a pre-conceived description of disabled individuals and they are unemployable. They may have had someone working for them in the past and had a bad experience or they just refuse to even entertain the idea of hiring a person with a disability.”
Lack of Opportunity (15%)	“I work with very multi-barriered clients, and I believe strongly that many of my clients are denied access to potential employment because they are or have been homeless, in recovery from addictions, have a criminal record, a mental illness or a physical disability etc. I would like to see my clients given an equal opportunity to access

	<p>meaningful training and employment and to find financial security and job satisfaction in a career that suits and is appropriate for them. In [province named] we provide few options for those in greatest need, and I believe it is the responsibility of a "caring society" to make such options available to all. I believe that a society should be judged by how it treats its most vulnerable members"</p>
Lack of Education (12%)	<p>"Clients are generally referred via EI or Welfare or Disability Income. The levels of past access to education/professional credentials and the current needs of the client often are key indicators to the client's current functional abilities/limitations and standard of living...."</p>
Institutional Barriers (12%)	<p>"Aspects of inequality can become hidden within institutionalized discrimination. Work and hiring practices as well as lack of opportunities for certain communities can directly relate to social justice."</p>
Inequalities (10%)	<p>"A frustrating reality that separates clients, the haves and have nots. It frustrating to work with a client who is so incredibly brilliant, talented, passionate who for financial reasons will not be able to continue or hone their talent. They get lost in the idea that they will work for a few years and come back to pursue that grad program, while knowing that ultimately they will be lost in happenstance which could be a rewarding career but we could have lost the best future doctor, lawyer, etc. It is frustrating that those people who may be able to financially (pursue their program) but due to too few positions won't ever get into their programs."</p>
Lack of Finances (9%)	<p>"I think that there are barriers related to social justice in career practice. If someone hasn't had the opportunity for education in their life due to lack of financial resources, they don't have access to higher paying jobs. If someone is truly poor, they may not have the ability to present themselves (clothes, grooming) in a favourable light to an employer."</p>
Consciousness Raising (8%)	<p>"Social justice as it relates to career practice has to do with exploring careers as not being gender or age specific nor sexual orientation or religious specific (unless it's a religious job you're looking at). Attempting to free a student from stereotypes they may have about certain types of work, for example, the trades for a woman, is an important role for the counsellor. Students needs to become aware that they have interests, skills, and values that will be a fit for a job that can give them an income, success and momentum to do their best because they feel the "fit" and want to do their best and to continue learning. Social justice related to career practice has to do with making students aware of social "themes" that confine their thinking as it relates to themselves and work."</p>

Internalized Oppression (6%)	<p>“...People's choices of education and career may be are expanded or limited, based on their education, financial situation, socio-economic status, gender, age, sexual orientation, language(s), dis/ability, visibly ethnicity (and any other factors as mentioned in your own definition of social justice). There may be rules, or unspoken rules, about who can do what in society. People may also have more choices than they BELIEVE or FEEL they have, but limit themselves because they have internalized beliefs, or unspoken rules, about what a person like themselves will be able to accomplish, or the barriers they will experience. These "rules" often come from their experiences of being excluded, harassed, bullied, etc. In career practice, we help people see their strengths, challenge or see past beliefs, learn new skills/info/perspectives, and prepare to move towards achievable goals.”</p>
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These examples from the definitions of social justice illustrate that a number of external and internal barriers continue to limit the career development of individuals. Practitioners noted many connections between internal and external barriers. Events or conditions in the surrounding environment may be internalized negatively by clients. In turn, internal barriers such as low self-esteem or internalized racism can pose as barriers for action in trying to alleviate external barriers. These are important interconnections when considering the ways that social justice is relevant for career development.

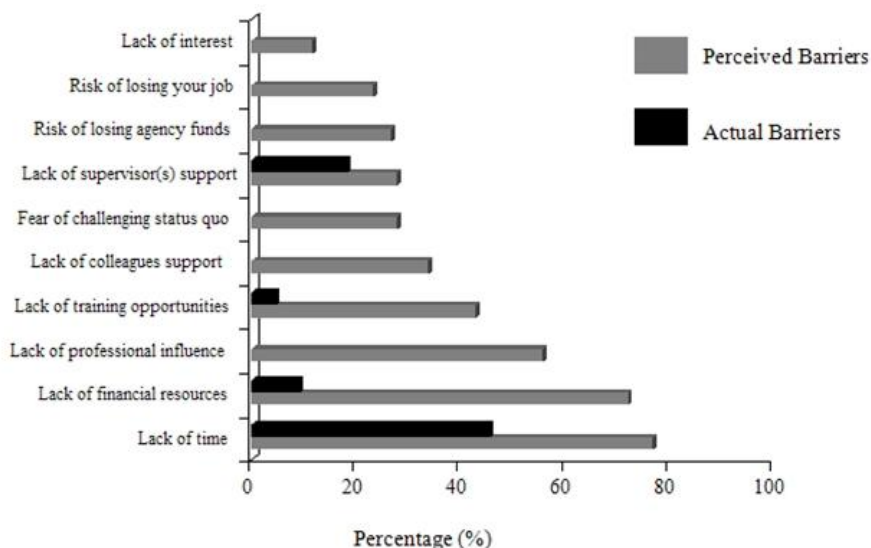
Barriers Experienced by Career Development Practitioners

Although social justice is an appealing concept in terms of supporting people to realize their career development potential, a number of barriers have also been identified to career practitioners implementing social justice interventions. In designing the study, we generated a list of barriers that are commonly reported in the literature (e.g., Helms, 2003; Kiselica & Robinson, 2001). Career practitioners were then asked to indicate if they perceived any of these items as barriers for their practice. As indicated in Figure 4, participants perceived a lack of training, time, funding, and power as the top barriers.

We then examined career practitioners’ responses in the critical incidents that detailed actual practice examples. From this material, four themes provided collaborating evidence of barriers for implementing social justice interventions. The four themes that emerged from their descriptions of their own efforts to implement social justice interventions included: lack of support from supervisors, lack of training, insufficient funding, and insufficient time to spend on social justice interventions. These themes are represented by the shaded bar graph in Figure 4. There is an overlap in the critical incident themes for four of the top six barriers.

Figure 4

Perceived and actual barriers for addressing social justice in career development practices.



Discussion and Implications

The results of this study indicate that, from the perspective of career practitioners, social justice is a multidimensional concept that reflects the definitional themes identified in the historical and current literature. Strong emphasis was placed on the fair and equitable distribution of resources and opportunities (Bell, 1997; Constantine, Hage, Kindiachi, & Bryant, 2007; Morris, 2002), e.g., categories of equality, equal opportunities, and equal access. For participants in this study, social justice was strongly tied to perceptions that particular client populations face structural barriers in their career development. These barriers were clearly linked to the social, economic, and political systems that perpetuate oppression and marginalization within society (Arredondo & Perez, 2003; Fouad et al., 2006; Young, 1990), e.g., public policy, lack of education, finances, and other resources. Participants identified advocacy as a core component of social justice to ameliorate oppression and marginalization within society (Horne & Mathews, 2006; Young, 1990).

The participants expanded on the notion full inclusion and participation of all members of society (Rawls, 1971; Young, 1990; Young & Collins, 2000) by identifying particular groups that face barriers to reaching their potential. From a career development perspective, it is important to note that socio-economic status was the most frequently noted cultural factor, followed closely by race and gender. These results provide support for the position that social views of culture continue to be strong influences on people's career development. In essence, culture and social justice are linked because culture provides access to resources for some people, while placing restrictions and limits on resources to people who are inside or outside of the dominant cultural group (Stead, 2004).

A report by Kerstetter (2002), based on Statistics Canada data from 1999, noted that 50% of family units in Canada held 94.4% of the wealth, leaving only 5.6% to the bottom 50% of the population. Visible minorities have reported the highest level of perceived discrimination (Statistics Canada, 2003). Single women or women parenting alone have the highest rates of poverty in Canada (Canadian Research Institute for the Advancement of Women, 2005). The focus on poverty and on groups most likely to experience poverty is a reminder to us of the issues raised by Blustein (2006) and Richardson (1993; 2000) about positioning career development theory and practice in a way that is meaningful to clients who face barriers to the very basic human need for sufficient access to education and work to sustain their lives. Practitioners in this study identified ethical practice as closely tied to meeting actual client needs.

One theme that emerged from this study that was less clear in the definitions noted earlier in the paper is the idea of consciousness raising (awareness of barriers to social justice on the part of both the practitioner and the client). Social justice involves "...a fundamental valuing of fairness and equity" (Constantine et al., 2007, p. 24). The term *valuing* implies more than simply knowledge; it requires a shift in attitudes, beliefs and assumptions about justice and injustice. Practitioners in this study recognized this awareness in themselves; and also noted that, for some clients, the role of the social justice practitioner may be to support shifts in client attitudes and beliefs that are a result of internalizing oppressive messages from society.

From a social justice perspective, it is important to examine our career theories and our interventions models to ensure that they reflect the needs of the chronically underserved and neglected populations in Canadian society. The results of this study confirm that there are a number of internal and external barriers to practitioners enacting social justice interventions (Helms, 2003; Kiselica & Robinson, 2001). The emphasis on consciousness raising about social justice is important when we note that only about two thirds of participants rated themselves as familiar with the concept of social justice; whereas about one third noted their lack of familiarity. These disparities in training and background knowledge about social justice were evident in participants' responses.

The resurgence of literature on social justice in the career development field appears timely as we consider the relevance of professional training for career development practitioners. It is clear that more attention needs to be paid to the structural barriers that impede people's career development and to interventions that address contextual influences in people's lives (Arthur & McMahon, 2005). However, even though career practitioners may recognise the importance of environmental and systemic influences on the lives of their clients, they often lack training about how to implement related interventions. Curriculum aimed at career practitioners typically addresses theories and models directed at the career planning and decision-making of individuals, provides an overview of barriers to career development, minimal content on systems theories, and does not sufficiently prepare students for addressing systemic change (McMahon, Arthur, & Collins, 2008b). Additional curriculum content to broader social and structural issues was one of the key priorities identified at a think tank on the future of career counsellor education in Canada held in November, 2006 (Burwell & Kalbfleisch, 2007).

Although we are encouraged by the positive responses of career practitioners that included specific examples of their attempts to implement social justice interventions with their clients (Arthur, Collins, McMahon, & Marshall, 2008), their

responses also confirmed earlier literature about multiple barriers for engaging in social justice practices (Helms, 2003; Kiselica & Robinson, 2001). Several career practitioners in this study indicated that lack of administrative support and funding were serious obstacles to meeting the needs of clients. More alarming were accounts in which practitioners felt they would be criticized, punished, or lose their job if they were to use time at their job on interventions such as advocacy or attempting systems change. These results suggest that consciousness raising about the importance of social justice needs to extend well beyond the individual practitioner to the organizational, social-political, and professional levels where the time and money invested in career practices, which were noted as the most common barriers, are controlled. Career practitioners might also benefit from training about how to influence the systems in which they work to garner legitimate support for roles and interventions related to social justice.

Conclusion

Our exploratory study is one of the first inquiries to take into account the perspectives of career development practitioners regarding social justice. It should be noted that this study was based on a volunteer sample and, as such, cannot be considered representative of the views of all career development practitioners in Canada. However, these preliminary results highlight the multiple meanings of social justice and point to some exciting ways that practitioners attempt to integrate social justice into their views of client issues and their ways of working with clients. In turn, it is evident that many practitioners feel restricted in the roles and responsibilities that they believe would make a difference in the lives of their clients. As we consider the meaning of social justice for people's career development, we might also consider what it will take to translate that concept into practice roles and levels of interventions, along with supportive administrative and funding structures. We hope that the orientation to social justice and selected results provided in this discussion will encourage further dialogue about the connections between social justice and career development practice.

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An Examination of Rural Secondary Students' Post-Secondary Education Decisions

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Increasingly, the success of the Canadian economy and its citizens is predicated on a high-skills/high-wage economic strategy – a strategy which presumes the availability of a large pool of post-secondary educated workers. Figures cited by the Government of Canada and the Canadian Council on Learning confirm that the number of jobs requiring post-secondary education and training are increasing on an annual basis and that upwards of two-thirds of all job openings over the next ten years will be in occupations requiring some form of post-secondary education (Canada, 2007; Canadian Council on Learning, 2007). With the demographic reality of the baby boom generation moving toward their retirement years and high school graduate populations in decline in a number of provinces, a larger proportion of Canada's young adults will need to complete post-secondary education and training if the country's future workforce requirements are to be met.

Although the degree to which educational attainment can facilitate upward social mobility is to some extent limited, post-secondary education remains the primary mechanism by which low-income and disadvantaged groups can rise above the socio-economic position of their families and more fully participate in the public sphere. The existing research literature provides relatively few details about how Canadian secondary school students consider and choose their post-graduation destination, be it the workforce or further study. As is the case with many topics in post-secondary education research, considerable study has been given to students' college choices in the United States (Lapan, Tucker, & Kim, 2003). This body of research has been directed toward gaining a better understanding of how students make decisions about their post-secondary education opportunities. Important influencing factors include student academic ability; encouragement, expectations and educational attainment of parents; parental income and socio-economic status; teachers and guidance counsellors; race and ethnicity; and gender (Hossler, Schmit, & Vesper, 1999; Liu et al., 2004; McMahan & Patton, 1997; McDonough, 1997; Sandefur, Meier, & Campbell 2006).

Student choices about post-secondary education are strongly correlated with parental educational attainment (Barr-Telford, Cartwright, Prasil, & Shimmons, 2003; Butlin, 1999; Choy, 1999, 2001; Hango & de Broucker, 2007; Lowe & Krahn, 2000) and the family income levels (Bell & Anisef, 2005; Butlin, 1999; Corak, Lipps, & Zhao, 2003; University of Alberta, 2001). Lower parental educational attainment levels and household incomes tend reduce the probability of post-secondary participation. In her study of the relationship between participation in post-secondary education and family background, Drolet (2005) concluded that, "when taking account of both parental education and parental income, university participation rates are more strongly associated with parents' level of education than with their income" (p. 4).

As Deschenes (2007) points out, there is a "strong correlation between the educational attainment of parents and children, which may contribute to the

transmission of socio-economic status and inequality across generations (p. 271).” Research has shown that the higher the socio-economic status of parents, the “higher” their children’s educational plans extend. Students from more affluent backgrounds are more likely than lower-status youth to pursue post-secondary studies, and when they do go on to participate in post-secondary study higher-status youths are more likely to attend university rather than other types of post-secondary education such as community colleges or private training institutes (Butlin, 1999; Christofides, Cirello, & Hoy, 2001; Corak et al., 2003; Hossler et al., 1999; Looker & Lowe, 2001; McDonough, 1997).

Rural Youth

It is generally understood that urban youth in Canada are more likely to attend university than rural youth. This finding has been substantiated by numerous studies of youth transition from high school (Butlin, 1999; Finnie, Lascelles, & Sweetman, 2005; Frenette, 2004, 2006, 2007b; Hango & de Broucker, 2007; Looker, 1993; Looker & Dwyer, 1998; Shaienks & Gluszynski, 2007; University of Alberta, 2001). Various explanations for this rural/urban participation disparity have been put forward including the effect that proximity to a post-secondary institution has on secondary students’ decisions to enrol in further studies. One possible reason for this is that rural students necessarily incur additional living expenses associated with living away from home. Students who move away from home to complete a 4-year degree often pay an estimated \$20,000 more than those who can continue to live with their parents while studying (Barr-Telford et al.; 2004; Finnie, 2002).

A number of studies have demonstrated that rural students have “lower” educational and occupational aspirations than those of urban students (Bajema, Miller, & Williams, 2002; Conrad, 1997; Haller & Virkler, 1993; Jeffery, Lehr, Hache, & Campbell, 1992). There is also evidence to suggest that rural youths who do choose to continue their education at the post-secondary level are more likely to attend a community college (or other non-university type of institution) rather than a university (Newfoundland and Labrador, 1998; Shaienk & Gluszynski, 2007). These differences have been attributed to the socio-economic conditions in rural communities (Conrad, 1997; Dupuy, Mayer, & Morissette, 2000; Haller & Virker, 1993), the relatively smaller numbers of higher status role models in rural areas compared to that of urban communities (Cahill, 1992; Jeffery, Lehr, Hache, & Campbell, 1992), and differences in the career development and aspirations of rural and urban individuals (Bajema, et al, 2002; Conrad, 1997; Haller & Virkler, 1993; Marshall, 2002). While few specifics are known about the types of information sources that rural students in Canada utilize during the post-secondary choice process, previous research has shown that Canadian youth tend to rely on parents, friends, teachers and guidance counsellors for career advice and help with post-secondary educational plans (Bell & Bezanson, 2006; Looker & Lowe, 2001; Sharpe & Spain, 1991; Sharpe & White, 1993).

Conceptual Approaches

social reproduction Theory. Differences in the post-secondary participation behaviours between youths of differing socio-economic backgrounds have been accounted for using the theories of cultural and social capital. Bills (as cited in

Pascarella, Pierson, Wolniak, & Terenzini, 2004) frames cultural capital as the “degree of ease and familiarity that one has with the 'dominant' culture of a society” (p. 252). Cultural capital, conveyed from parents to children, is the sum total of all of the intangible goods, such as the milieu and leisure time that fosters intellectual and cultural reflection, that sustain and predict the academic success and ambition of those in the middle- and upper-income strata. Bourdieu (1977, 1986) argues that the cultural capital inherited by those in the middle- and upper-class produces a confidence and disposition that is a very strong indicator of academic and social success.

Social capital is a form of capital that facilitates the transaction and the transmission of different resources among individuals through their relationships for mutual benefit (Coleman, 1988; McDonough, 1997). Those individuals who have access to information about post-secondary education through their social networks have greater access to cultural capital and are more likely to be at an advantage in accessing and understanding information and attitudes relevant to making decisions about their post-secondary options. In the case of rural student post-secondary education participation rates, theories of cultural and social capital are a critical tool in examining why we observe lower rates of participation amongst rural populations even where their income is comparable to or greater than their urban counterparts. Indeed, Bourdieu (1984) makes the argument that access to the cultural and educational opportunities offered by urban communities is, in and of itself, a form of cultural capital that, like all capital, defines social difference and disparity.

student choice model. McDonough (1997) outlines the three basic approaches that have been taken in the study of college choice decision-making. These include:

1. social psychological studies, which examine the impact of academic program, campus social climate, cost, location, and influence of others on students' choices; students' assessment of their fit with their chosen college; and the cognitive stage of college choice;
2. economic studies, which view college choice as an investment decision and assumes that students maximize perceived cost-benefits in their college choices; have perfect information; and are engaged in a process of rational choice; and
3. sociological status attainment studies, which analyze the impact of the individual's social status on the development of aspirations for educational attainment and measure inequalities in college access. (p. 3)

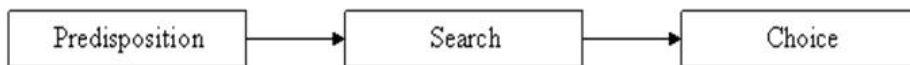
Researchers have developed a number of models that attempt to explain the stages in students' post-secondary decision-making (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2000). The current study takes into account the conceptual model developed by Hossler and Gallagher (1987, as cited in Hossler et al., 1999) which identifies three key stages of post-secondary choice decisions: predisposition, search and choice. This model is illustrated in Figure 1.

In the predisposition phase, secondary school students begin to see post-secondary education as an important step in achieving their personal and occupational goals. During the search stage, which is heavily influenced by parents, students refine their options, develop preferences and consider their qualifications for admission and options for financing their decision. In the final phase, the choice phase, students are

influenced by factors that are both economic and sociological in nature. This model is particularly useful in considering the sequencing of factors that impact the decision-making process for students and parents and the role of guidance officials and other external influences.

Figure 1

Hossler and Gallagher Model of College Choice. Adapted from Hossler, D., Schmit, J. L., & Vesper, N. (1999). Going to college: How social, economic, and educational factors influence the decisions students make. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.



While a small number of research studies have examined student transitions from secondary school to post-secondary education and the workforce in Newfoundland and Labrador (McGrath, 1993; Sharpe & Spain, 1991; Sharpe & White, 1993), none have specifically examined the post-secondary participation and non-participation decisions of rural high school students. The focus of our research for this study was to examine a number of the characteristics and behaviours that influence the post-secondary education decisions of rural secondary school students. Hossler and Gallagher's student choice model and the findings of previous studies of Canadian youth transition were the basis used to select factors that were expected to impact rural students' post-secondary plans and, in the event that they did choose to participate in post-secondary education, whether they would choose university or a non-university institution.

Methodology

Participants

Proportionally speaking, Newfoundland and Labrador has a significantly larger rural population than Canada as a whole. Approximately 40% of the population of the province lives outside centres with a population of 1,000 and outside areas with 400 persons per square kilometre. Most (65%) of the province's 285 schools are considered to be rural schools (Newfoundland & Labrador, 2006).

For this study, we conducted a survey of graduating students at 72 rural schools. These schools had a combined population of 2,113 students in their final year of secondary school. In May and June of 2007, teachers at participating schools administered the questionnaires which were completed by students during classroom time. All completed surveys were then returned to the researchers in the postage pre-paid envelopes. A total of 1,169 students completed and returned surveys out of the 2,113 eligible survey participants. The overall response rate of approximately 60% was considered satisfactory for the purposes of this research.

Outcome Variables

Two outcomes related to rural students' post-secondary education decisions were selected for examination. First, we examined whether or not students planned to pursue studies at the post-secondary level after completing secondary school (0 = no, 1 = yes). Next, of those students who indicated that they planned to continue on with further studies after high school, we examined if students chose a university program (coded 1) or a non-university program (coded 0).

Predictor Variables

Drawing on previous studies of youth transition to post-secondary education that have been carried out in Canada (Anisef, Frempong, & Sweet, 2005; Davies, 2005; Finnie et al., 2005; Frenette, 2004, 2006, 2007b; Hango & de Broucker, 2007; Looker, 1993; Looker & Dwyer, 1998; Sharpe & White, 1993), we designed a survey questionnaire to collect information from rural secondary students about various demographic characteristic and academic performance variables that are known to influence post-secondary education decisions. The questionnaire also included questions about students' after school activities, a series of forced choice items organized on a Likert-type scale regarding secondary students' sources of information about further studies, and a number of questions about potential sources of funding for post-secondary education. Table 1 provides descriptions of the operational definitions used for each of the predictor variables.

Table 1

Description of Independent Variables in the Model

Variable	Description
<i>Demographic characteristics</i>	
Gender	0 = male, 1 = female
Number of siblings	Number of brothers/sisters
Family Structure	0 = one parent, 1 = two parent, 2 = other, dummy coded with one parent as reference category
Generation	0 = first generation (parents did not complete post-secondary education), 1 = legacy generation (at least one parent completed post-secondary education)
<i>After School Activities</i>	
Works part-time	Survey question: "How have you spent your time after school and on weekends this school year?"
Volunteers	
Homework	
Extracurricular (e.g., sports, clubs)	
	0 = no, 1 = yes

Academic Performance

Level III math completed 0 = none, 1 = practical/basic, 2 = academic, 3 = advanced, dummy coded with none as reference category
Overall achievement Self-reported overall average mark in school

Sources of Information

Friends
Parents
Brothers or sisters
College or university students
High school teachers
Guidance counsellor
A College or university campus tour
Promotional materials/brochures
Television or print advertising
Recruitment officer from a post-secondary institution

Survey question: “Listed below are people and sources of information that students often rely on when deciding what to do after high school.”

Rating on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being ‘not important at all’ and 5 being ‘very important’,

Sources of Funding

Unsure of funding
Summer job
Work during academic year
Scholarship/bursary
Student loan
Private bank loan
Personal savings
Tuition voucher

Survey question: “Besides your family, which of the following can you rely on to help pay for post-secondary education”?

0 = no, 1 = yes

Three “demographic characteristic” variables were included in the model for this analysis: gender, the number of siblings they had, their family structure and whether they were “first-generation” students or “legacy generation” students. The family structure variable was operationalized in accordance with the number of parents or guardians that children lived with – one parent, two parents or other for students who reported alternative living arrangements. The “first-generation” student group comprised students whose parents did not complete post-secondary studies while the

“legacy generation” group consisted of students who have one or more parents who completed a post-secondary program at college or university.

Academic performance was measured by two variables. The type of mathematics course completed in Level III (none, basic, academic or advanced) was used as a proxy for the academic rigor of the high school curriculum completed by students. Students’ self-reported overall academic average at school was used to assess their level of overall academic achievement.

Students’ participation in after school activities was assessed by a question in which survey respondents were asked: “How have you spent your time after school and on weekends this school year?” Possible responses to this question included: working part-time, volunteering, homework, and extracurricular activities (e.g., sports, clubs).

The sources of information that students accessed in making their career plans were appraised by student responses to the following survey item: “Listed below are people and sources of information that students often rely on when deciding what to do after high school.” Each of the following 10 potential information sources were rated by respondents on a Likert-type scale (5 = very important, to 1 = not important at all): friends; parents; brothers or sisters; college or university students; high school teachers; guidance counsellor; college or university campus tour; promotional materials/ brochures; television or print advertising; and recruitment officer from a post-secondary institution.

The final set of predictor variables were derived from a survey question that asked students the following: “Besides your family, which of the following can you rely on to help pay for post-secondary education?” Responses included: unsure; summer job; part-time job during the year; full-time job during the year; scholarship; bursary; student loan; private bank loan; personal savings and tuition voucher. In two instances, two items in this set of variables were combined to produce a single item. Part-time job during the year and full-time job during the year became work during academic year; and scholarship and bursary were combined into one variable (scholarship/bursary).

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Of the 1,169 completed surveys, useable data were available for 1,161. Descriptive statistics for the outcome variables and selected demographic characteristic and academic performance and predictor variables are provided in Table 2. Only 12.1% of the rural students indicated that they were not planning to participate in some form of post-secondary education. Of the students who indicated their post-secondary preference, most (58.2%) did not plan to attend university. Most of the students in the study were legacy generation students (57.1%), and 50.8% had completed an advanced-level math course in Level III.

With regard to their after school activities, 83.6% of rural students indicated that they spent some of their time after school completing homework assignments (see Table 3). The second most common type of after school activity selected was extracurricular activity such as sports or clubs (64.9%).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Selected Demographic Characteristic and Academic Performance Variables

Variable		Model 1			Model 2*		
		% Going to PSE (87.9%)	% Not Going to PSE (12.1%)	% Total	% University (41.8%)	% Non-University (58.2%)	% Total
Gender	Male	45.9	58.6	47.5	30.5	56.3	45.5
	Female	54.1	41.4	52.5	69.5	43.8	54.5
Generation	First	40.1	63.6	42.9	32.2	45.8	40.0
	Legacy	59.9	36.4	57.1	67.8	54.2	60.0
Family Structure	1 parent	16.5	25.5	17.3	12.4	19.2	16.4
	2 parent other	81.4 2.1	73.6 0.9	80.7 2.0	86.1 1.5	78.2 2.6	81.5 2.1
Level III math	None	3.6	11.5	4.6	0.2	5.7	3.4
	Basic	18.3	46.8	21.7	1.0	29.4	17.5
	Academic	23.4	18.7	22.9	18.6	26.8	23.4
	Advanced	54.6	23.0	50.8	80.1	38.1	55.7

* A number of students did not provide an indication of their choice (i.e., university/non-university).

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Students' After School Activities

Variable		Model 1			Model 2		
		% Going to PSE	% Not Going to PSE	% Total	% University	% Non-University	% Total
<i>After School Activities</i>							
Part-time work	Yes	32.1	22.2	30.9	35.8	29.3	31.9

	No	67.9	77.8	69.1	64.2	70.7	68.1
Volunteering	Yes	40.2	25.4	38.4	55.0	29.8	40.3
	No	59.8	74.6	61.6	45.0	70.2	59.7
Homework	Yes	85.5	69.3	83.6	98.5	77.0	86.0
	No	14.5	30.7	16.4	1.5	23.0	14.0
Extracurricular	Yes	67.6	45.3	64.9	79.5	59.5	67.8
	No	32.4	54.7	35.1	20.5	40.5	32.2

The 3 sources of information that students relied on most when making their plans for after high school were 1) parents, 2) friends and 3) teachers (see Table 4).

Table 4

Mean Values for Students' Sources of Information

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	% Going to PSE	% Not Going to PSE	% Total	% University	% Non-University	% Total
Friends	3.13	3.35	3.16	3.01	3.22	3.13
Parents	3.77	3.65	3.76	3.80	3.75	3.77
Siblings	2.75	3.17	2.80	2.72	2.75	2.74
College or university students	2.82	2.40	2.77	2.98	2.72	2.83
Teachers	3.07	2.90	3.05	3.29	3.08	2.93
Guidance counsellors	2.77	2.60	2.75	2.89	2.70	2.78
Campus tour	2.44	2.01	2.39	2.51	2.40	2.45
Promotional materials	2.58	1.95	2.51	2.67	2.53	2.59
Advertising (TV, print)	1.94	2.16	1.96	1.86	1.99	1.94
Recruitment officer	2.48	2.14	2.44	2.77	2.28	2.49

As reported in Table 5, the students' anticipated primary sources of funding, aside from their family, were income from a summer job (67.9%), a student loan (61.3%) or employment income earned during the school year (51.3%). Only 7.1% of students indicated that they did not know of any source of funding that they could rely on other than their family.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Sources of Funding for Post-Secondary Education

Variable		Model 1		Model 2			
		% Going to PSE	% Not Going to PSE	% Total	% University	% Non- University	% Total
Unsure of funding	Yes	4.9	23.4	7.1	2.7	5.5	4.3
	No	95.1	76.6	92.9	97.3	94.5	95.7
Summer job	Yes	71.1	45.4	67.9	80.4	66.6	72.4
	No	28.9	54.6	32.1	19.6	33.4	27.6
Work during year	Yes	52.1	46.1	51.3	45.9	56.4	52.0
	No	47.9	53.9	48.7	54.1	43.6	48.0
Scholarship/ bursary	Yes	36.6	12.1	33.6	56.6	23.4	37.3
	No	63.4	87.9	66.4	43.4	76.6	62.7
Student loan	Yes	64.6	37.6	61.3	66.8	64.9	65.7
	No	35.4	62.4	38.7	33.2	35.1	34.3
Private bank loan	Yes	8.6	11.3	8.9	6.8	10.5	9.0
	No	91.4	88.7	91.1	93.2	89.5	91.0
Personal savings	Yes	33.1	21.3	31.6	38.8	29.5	33.4
	No	66.9	78.7	68.4	61.2	70.5	66.6
Tuition voucher	Yes	18.3	3.5	16.5	32.4	9.0	18.8
	No	81.7	96.5	83.5	67.6	91.0	81.2

Logistic Regression Analyses

In recent years, logistic regression analysis has increasingly been employed in post-secondary education and higher education research (Anisef et al., 2005; Arbona & Nora, 2007; Madgett & Bélanger, 2007; Peng, Lee, & Ingersoll, 2002; Wright, Scott, Woloschuk, & Brenneis, 2002; Perna, 2000). As with previous studies, we selected

logistic regression because it can be used to predict which one of two categories a person will belong to given a number of independent predictor variables. Logistic regression was used to examine the significance of the variables in two hypothesized models (described below) which reflect the research questions. These statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 15.0 for Windows.

Model One: Choosing Post-Secondary Education

The first logistic regression was performed to assess the impact of selected factors on the likelihood that students would report that they planned to continue on to post-secondary education after finishing their final year of high school (coded 1) versus not continuing on to post-secondary education (coded 0). The 28 predictor variables entered into the logistic regression equation included 3 demographic characteristic variables, 4 student after school activity variables, 2 academic performance variables, 10 post-secondary information source variables and 8 post-secondary funding source variables.

The full model with all predictors included was statistically significant, $\chi^2(29) = 319.50, p < .001$, indicating that the model was able to distinguish between students who reported and did not report an intention to pursue post-secondary studies. The model as a whole explained between 27.1% (Cox and Snell R square) and 59.7% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in student choices, and correctly classified 93.4% of cases. As shown in Table 6, 12 of the predictor variables made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model. These were: 1 demographic characteristic variable (generation), 3 academic performance variables (math taken in high school and overall achievement), 6 post-secondary information source variables (parents, siblings, post-secondary students, teachers, promotional materials and advertising) and 2 post-secondary funding source variables (unsure and student loan). None of the student after school activity variables was found to be significant.

Table 6

Logistic Regression Predicting Rural High School Students' Likelihood of Choosing Post-Secondary Studies

Predictor	β	SE β	Wald's χ^2	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Constant	-8.681							
<i>Demographic characteristics</i>								
Gender	.556	.354	2.464	1	.116	1.744	.871	3.494
Number of siblings	-.013	.111	.014	1	.906	.987	.794	1.227
Generation	.918**	.338	7.383	1	.007	2.504	1.292	4.856
Two vs. one	-.035	.401	.008	1	.931	.966	.440	2.120

parent family Other structure vs. one parent	.806	1.317	.374	1	.541	2.239	.169	29.569
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*After School
Activities*

Works part-time	.489	.389	1.579	1	.209	1.631	.760	3.498
Volunteers	.649	.388	2.796	1	.095	1.914	.894	4.097
Homework	-.091	.357	.065	1	.799	.913	.453	1.839
Extracurricular	-.044	.335	.017	1	.895	.957	.496	1.844

*Academic
Performance*

Level III math completed								
Basic vs. none	.132	.481	.075	1	.784	1.141	.444	2.929
Academic vs. none	1.532**	.571	7.195	1	.007	4.627	1.511	14.172
Advanced vs. none	2.204**	.582	14.355	1	.000	9.064	2.898	28.347
Overall achievement	.114***	.021	29.805	1	.000	1.121	1.076	1.167

*Sources of
Information*

Friends	.021	.154	.019	1	.891	1.021	.755	1.382
Parents	.630***	.164	14.764	1	.000	1.878	1.362	2.591
Siblings	-	.164	29.708	1	.000	.408	.296	.563

College or university students	.832***	.185	20.162	1	.000	2.297	1.598	3.302
Teachers	-.374*	.172	4.714	1	.030	.688	.491	.964
Guidance counsellors	-.256	.152	2.843	1	.092	.774	.575	1.043
Campus tour	.014	.186	.006	1	.939	1.014	.705	1.460
Promotional materials	.998***	.218	20.923	1	.000	2.714	1.769	4.162
Advertising (TV, print)	-.490**	.182	7.240	1	.007	.612	.428	.875
Recruitment officer	-.205	.164	1.573	1	.210	.814	.591	1.122

*Sources of PSE
Funding*

Unsure of funding	-1.107*	.470	5.560	1	.018	.330	.132	.830
Summer job	.336	.360	.876	1	.349	1.400	.692	2.832

Work during academic year	.243	.362	.452	1	.501	1.275	.627	2.593
Scholarship/bursary	-.547	.560	.955	1	.328	.579	.193	1.733
Student loan	1.157**	.364	10.124	1	.001	3.182	1.560	6.491
Private bank loan	-.977	.568	2.958	1	.085	.376	.124	1.146
Personal savings	.791	.482	2.696	1	.101	2.205	.858	5.666
Tuition voucher	.352	.961	.135	1	.714	1.423	.216	9.355

Note: $R^2 = .523$ (Hosmer & Lemeshow), $.271$ (Cox & Snell), $.597$ (Nagelkerke). Model $\chi^2(29) = 319.60$, $p < .001$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

With all other factors held constant, legacy generation students were more likely to indicate that they planned to continue on to post-secondary education than first-generation students. In fact, the odds that legacy generation students planned to continue to the post-secondary level was 2.5 times greater than the odds for a first-generation student.

Compared to students who completed no Level III math, the odds that students who completed an academic math course planned to pursue post-secondary education was 4.627 times greater. However, the strongest predictor that students would choose post-secondary studies was the completion of advanced-level Level III (Grade 12) mathematics, recording an odds ratio of 9.06. This indicated that students who planned to continue on to post-secondary education after high school were over 9 times more likely to have completed a Level III advanced math course as compared to students who did not complete any math in Level III, controlling for other factors in the model. Further, the odds ratio of 1.121 for student's self-reported overall academic performance indicated that for every 1% increase in student overall average grades, students were 1.121 times more likely to intend to participate in post-secondary education.

Results of the logistic regression indicated that, among rural students, the likelihood of post-secondary educational plans was influenced by a number of information sources in the post-secondary choice process. Students who relied on their parents, post-secondary students and promotional materials from post-secondary institutions as sources of information in deciding what to do after high school were more likely to have plans to partake in post-secondary education. In contrast, students were less likely to have post-secondary plans if their key sources of information were their siblings, their high school teachers or newspaper, magazine, or television advertising.

Rural students' post-secondary plans were uniquely influenced by the sources of education financing on which they felt they could rely. Students who were uncertain that they could rely on any other source aside from their parents were 33% less likely to have plans to continue on to post-secondary education. However, those students who felt they could rely on student loans as a source of funds were 3.182 times more likely to have post-secondary plans.

Model Two: Choosing University

Table 7 presents the results of the second logistic regression model which was carried out to assess the impact of selected factors on whether students planned to

attend university after high school (coded 1) versus a non-university post-secondary program (coded 0). As before, 28 predictor variables were entered into the logistic regression equation.

Table 7

Logistic Regression Predicting Rural High School Students' Likelihood of Choosing University-Level Studies

Predictor	β	SE β	Wald's χ^2	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Constant	-22.198							
<i>Demographic characteristics</i>								
Gender	-.979***	.241	16.540	1	.000	.376	.234	.602
Number of siblings	.091	.093	.972	1	.324	1.096	.914	1.314
Generation	.313	.239	1.712	1	.191	1.367	.856	2.183
Two vs. one parent family	.006	.321	.000	1	.984	1.006	.536	1.889
Other structure vs. one parent	1.490	1.110	1.803	1	.179	4.438	.504	39.064
<i>After School Activities</i>								
Works part-time	.891**	.256	12.071	1	.001	2.438	1.475	4.030
Volunteers	.635**	.243	6.815	1	.009	1.887	1.171	3.039
Homework	2.133**	.701	9.247	1	.002	8.437	2.134	33.352
Extracurricular	.548*	.260	4.425	1	.035	1.729	1.038	2.881
<i>Academic Performance</i>								
Level III math completed								
Basic vs. none	-2.026	1.569	1.668	1	.197	.132	.006	2.854
Academic vs. none	1.781	1.180	2.276	1	.131	5.933	.587	59.975
Advanced vs. none	2.754*	1.175	5.492	1	.019	15.700	1.569	157.070
Overall achievement	.200***	.021	86.777	1	.000	1.221	1.171	1.274

Sources of Information

Friends	-.334**	.122	7.534	1	.006	.716	.564	.909
Parents	-.160	.106	2.292	1	.130	.852	.693	1.048
Siblings	.090	.097	.860	1	.354	1.094	.905	1.324
College or university students	.012	.112	.012	1	.912	1.012	.813	1.261
Teachers	.475***	.129	13.617	1	.000	1.608	1.250	2.070
Guidance counsellors	.062	.102	.368	1	.544	1.064	.871	1.298
Campus tour	-.140	.111	1.574	1	.210	.870	.699	1.082
Promotional materials	-.260*	.125	4.351	1	.037	.771	.604	.984
Advertising (TV, print)	-.244	.140	3.035	1	.081	.783	.595	1.031
Recruitment official	.477***	.111	18.535	1	.000	1.611	1.296	2.001

Sources of PSE Funding

Unsure of funding	.121	.558	.047	1	.829	1.128	.378	3.371
Summer job	.504	.276	3.343	1	.067	1.655	.964	2.840
Work during academic year	-.224	.238	.883	1	.347	.800	.501	1.275
Scholarship/bursary	.430	.249	2.991	1	.084	1.538	.944	2.504
Student loan	-.125	.254	.242	1	.623	.882	.536	1.453
Private bank loan	1.649***	.449	13.494	1	.000	.192	.080	.463
Personal savings	.097	.245	.155	1	.693	1.101	.681	1.780
Tuition voucher	.760*	.309	6.069	1	.014	2.139	1.168	3.918

Note: $R^2 = .551$ (Hosmer & Lemeshow), $.527$ (Cox & Snell), $.709$ (Nagelkerke). Model $\chi^2(29) = 645.78$, $p < .001$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

The statistically significant model was able to differentiate between students who intended to pursue university and non-university education, $\chi^2(29) = 645.78$, $p < .001$. The model explained between 52.7% (Cox and Snell R square) and 70.9% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in student choices, and correctly classified 94.7% of cases. Thirteen of the predictor variables made a statistically significant contribution to the second model. These variables were: 1 demographic characteristic variable (gender), all 4 of the after school activity variables, 2 academic performance variables (math taken in high school and overall achievement), 4 post-secondary information source variables (friends, promotional materials and recruitment official) and 2 post-secondary funding source variables (other bank loan and tuition voucher).

The analysis showed that, amongst the students who planned to continue on to post-secondary education after completing high school, male students were about 38% less likely than female students to indicate that they planned to attend university. The strongest predictor that students would choose university-level studies was the completion of advanced-level mathematics in Level III. In comparison to students who completed no math in Level III, the odds that students who completed advanced-level math planned to enrol in a university program were 15.7 times greater. Students' self-reported overall academic performance also played a significant role in plans to attend university. The odds ratio of 1.221 for this variable suggests that for every 1% increase in their overall grades the students were 1.221 times more likely to intend choose university.

Participation in all four after school activities included in the student survey increased the probability that students planned to attend university. Of these four, completion of homework had the greatest impact on students' chosen post-secondary destination. Students who indicated that they completed homework after school and on weekends were 8.437 times more likely to plan to attend university. For rural students planning to attend university, working part-time for a wage, volunteering and participating in extracurricular activities increased their probability of choosing university by 2.438 times, 1.887 times and 1.729 times respectively.

The results indicated that Level III students who demonstrated that they relied more heavily on their friends and institutions' promotional materials were more likely to plan to attend a non-university post-secondary program. Those rural students who were more likely to rely on their high school teachers or recruitment officials from post-secondary institutions were more likely to have plans to continue on to university after high school. In terms of the funding that students felt they could rely on, aside from their family, rural students who had earned a tuition fee voucher were 2.139 times more likely to intend to pursue university. Students who believed that they could use a private bank loan to cover their educational costs were 19.2% less likely to select a university program.

Discussion

This study analyzed data from a survey of graduating secondary school students at 72 rural schools to better understand how the decision of students to continue their education at the post-secondary level is impacted by a number of factors. The vast majority of the students in the study indicated that they planned to participate in post-secondary education and, consistent with other studies of rural students' transition plans (Looker & Dwyer, 1998; Newfoundland and Labrador, 1998; Shaienk & Gluszynski, 2007) most of the rural students surveyed in this study opted for a non-university form of post-secondary schooling.

Our analyses involved two separate comparisons. Students who indicated that they had chosen to take part in a post-secondary program were compared with those who had not chosen post-secondary education. Also, students who indicated that they had elected to attend university were compared to those who had selected a non-university post-secondary institution. The findings suggest that rural students' post-secondary education decisions are influenced, albeit somewhat differently, by their demographic characteristics, secondary school academic performance, participation in after school activities, sources of information about further studies and sources of funding for post-secondary education.

In this study, family structure and their number of siblings had no significant impact on the outcome of students' post-secondary decisions. As observed in other research findings (Barr-Telford et al., 2003; Butlin, 1999; Cabrera & La Nasa, 2000; Choy, 2001; Frenette, 2007b; Pascarella et al., 2004), the rural students whose parents had not completed post-secondary education, so called first-generation students, were less likely than their peers to have made a choice to participate in post-secondary education after high school. This finding may have been income-related since income and educational attainment tend to be positively correlated. It also may be the case that "legacy generation" rural students have access to a reservoir of information about post-secondary education that their peers are unable to access.

While gender had no significance influence on whether or not students planned to pursue studies at the post-secondary level, it did play an important role in whether students with post-secondary plans chose a university or non-university program. The observed female preference for university education is consistent with the trends observed at both the provincial (Newfoundland and Labrador, 2005) and national (Canadian Council on Learning, 2007) levels.

There were no significant differences in the model regarding the after school activities of students who did not plan to go on to post-secondary education and those who did. However, when those who were planning to attend were considered alone, we observed significant differences between their participation in part-time employment, volunteering, homework, and extracurricular activities. If we conceptualize these four after school activities as proxies for rural students' industry (working part-time), school engagement (homework), civic engagement (volunteering) and social and cultural capital (extracurricular activities), our findings suggest that compared to rural students who chose non-university post-secondary education, the university-bound rural students exhibit significantly higher levels of industry, school and civic engagement and social and cultural capital. This interpretation would appear to be consistent the results of similar research on the post-secondary participation of Canadian youth (Davies, 2005; Finnie et al., 2005; Shaienks & Gluszynski, 2007)

Also consistent with previous research (Butlin, 1999; Barr-Telford et al., 2003; Finnie et al., 2005; Shaienks & Gluszynski, 2007), our findings suggest that compared to other students, rural students who demonstrate higher levels academic achievement, as evidenced by overall grades, are more likely to plan to pursue post-secondary education. Likewise, university-bound rural students are more likely to have academically out-performed students whose post-secondary plans are for community college or other non-university programs. This was not surprising considering that entrance requirements for post-secondary institutions are tied to high school marks and that universities tend to require higher average grades for admission. Similarly, students who completed a more rigorous high school curriculum, as demonstrated by the level of math completed, were both more likely to plan post-secondary education and more likely at the university level.

There have been few investigations of the specific sources of career and post-secondary education information that rural students tap into as they engage in decisions about their opportunities. Previous examinations of the key career influencers of youth have tended to indicate that young people rely on a combination of sources including on parents, peers, teachers and counsellors (Bell & Bezanson, 2006; Hossler et al., 1999; Looker & Lowe, 2001; Sharpe & Spain, 1991; Sharpe & White, 1993). Our results indicate that rural students who choose to pursue opportunities at the post-secondary

level rely a great deal more than their peers on parents, post-secondary students and promotional materials from post-secondary institutions. Compared to students who chose a non-university option, students who chose university relied significantly more on information provided by teachers and recruitment officials. It is possible that these results might be, in part, explainable by influences that remain unspecified in our model. However, our findings are quite consistent with our understanding that the decision to participate in post-secondary education is a complicated process whereby students' decisions are informed and influenced by a diverse set of information sources.

Our results show that rural students are less likely to plan to go to post-secondary education if they are uncertain about how they can cover the associated costs. This observation is not surprising considering that financial barriers are one of the most commonly cited impediments to post-secondary participation cited by Canadian youth (Barr-Telford et al., 2003; Looker & Lowe, 2001; Shaienks & Gluszynski, 2007). We also observed that students with post-secondary plans are far more likely to indicate that student loans will be a source of their financial support. This is consistent with past research which shows that rural students tend to rely heavily on student loans and accumulate debt as they pursue postsecondary education (Kirby, 2003; Kirby & Conlon, 2006). With respect to the second model's comparison of students who were planning university with those planning for other types of post-secondary education, the single most interesting observation is the lack of difference in these two groups' planned sources of funding. This would suggest that, for rural students who decide to pursue post-secondary education, the specific type of post-secondary education selected is not significantly influenced by their expected sources of funding.

In Summary

Increasing post-secondary participation among rural students continues to be an important policy concern for governments across Canada (Alberta, 2006; Newfoundland & Labrador, 2005; Ontario, 2005; Saskatchewan, 2007). Though not unequivocal, the following three generalizations about the influences on rural students' post-secondary decision-making processes are warranted as they have important implications for policy formulation: 1) rural students' decisions to continue education at the post-secondary level are strongly influenced by academic factors; however, first-generation students and students who do not consider student loans to be a funding option for them are at a particular disadvantage; 2) rural students' post-secondary choice are influenced by a variety of sources of guidance and support that may not necessarily be well-informed sources; and 3) rural students' selection of university and non-university studies are strongly connected to academic factors, gender, and after school activities, but less depended on students' sources of funding.

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The Role of Career Services in Facilitating Local Economic Growth – Opening Doors to Students’ Understanding of Local Opportunities

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Employment opportunities and preferences for university graduates in the post-industrial North American economy differ significantly from the 1960s and 1970s. As the manufacturing sector has declined, the ‘creative’ or ‘knowledge’ (Florida 2002) sector has expanded. According to Florida’s (2010) thesis, new graduates in the early twenty-first century are likely to be recruited for their ‘creative capacity’, in sectors including advertising, research, information technology, real estate, data processing, and insurance.

The change in employment patterns from manufacturing to creativity materialized during the 1980s when significant shifts in global capitalism emerged. The deregulation of the financial markets stimulated an escalation in the availability of international credit and the mobility of investment capital. Capital and finance were no longer locationally-bound; they were free to move across the globe and identify the most profitable locations in which to invest.

The post-Fordist ideologies, inherent in the process of contemporary globalisation, and the impact of time-space compression (Harvey 1989) collapsed ‘certain kinds of spatial barriers [undermining] older and seemingly secure material and territorial definitions of place’ (Harvey 1996, p. 126). Indeed, in 1994, Jessop predicted the ‘end of geography’, arguing that the redefinition and reorganisation of employment practices, the decline in place-based, blue-collar employment, and the rise in international knowledge economies, would erode the importance of ‘place’ that was characteristic of the 1960s and 1970s.

However, the spatial irony resulting from the contemporary globalization of economic activity, is the simultaneous decrease and increase in the importance of ‘place’. This phenomenon, referred to as ‘glocalisation’ (Robertson 1995), involves the enormous geographical dispersal and mobility of capital, and also pronounced territorial concentrations of resources necessary for the management and servicing of that dispersal and mobility (Sassen 2001). In other words, while industry and finance is now transported across the globe at an unprecedented speed (presumably undermining the importance of ‘place’), the coordination of this dispersal is concentrated within financial hubs (thus enhancing the importance of ‘place’).

The rise in the business, technological and knowledge economy has been clustered in ‘global cities’ (Sassen 2001), which has intensified the uneven distribution of employment and wealth, at both the national and international scales. It has redefined place, making it highly adaptable and vulnerable to global economic changes. With fewer constraints, capital, industry and labour are now liberated from the ties that once

bound them to particular places, leaving them more impermanent, mobile and flexible than ever before.

These processes have encouraged fierce competition between cities (Bennett and Savani 2003) as they strive to become financial hubs, by luring businesses, attracting tourists, and enticing visitors (Ashworth and Tunbridge 1990; Kanter 1995; Warnaby 1998). In the mid-1980s, cities across North America began to develop policies designed to attract capital investment, competing with each other to market their locality as the most favourable place to do business profitably.

Attracting and retaining creative and knowledge workers is increasingly recognised as vital for economic development and competitive success. Therefore, since the 1980s, city officials have increasingly implemented policies designed to 'package' and market the city to the new creative class, in an effort to boost local economic development. The creative class, according to Florida (2004), is an important component of urban economic development because they attract innovation, business and capital investments. More specifically, Florida states that companies cluster in urban areas in order to draw from the concentrations of talented, creative workers who are identified as key to enhancing the ability of business to compete in global economic markets.

Creative workers tend to be highly mobile, and make decisions about where to live and work, based upon a perception of the quality of life that a place offers, rather than a sense of loyalty to a particular company (Florida 2009). Florida's creative city model suggests the 'success' of urban economic development is dependent upon how attractive a place is to the creative class. Therefore, urban areas need to work hard to attract and retain a creative labour market, if they are to enhance their regional competitiveness. In this understanding, the new knowledge-based urban economy has heightened the value of developing regional agglomerations of businesses or creative workers. This, in turn, has led to policies and initiatives that seek to foster a unique concrete and imagined 'sense of place' (Florida 2009). The idea is, that if municipal planners create an urban space with high cultural content that is appealing to the creative classes, they will be able to maintain a competitive advantage. Therefore, a city's competitive success depends, in part, on its originality, distinctiveness, and its ability to foster creativity.

Many North American cities have adopted and adapted this model to stimulate and support economic development. Cities continually seek to re-envision and re-invent themselves as 'idealized' places in which to live and work. Place rebranding strategies, physically and discursively, reinvent cities as places that offer a unique and exciting quality of life. These initiatives are designed to beat the competition, and market the city as the most viable location for investment. As such, cities have evolved from places that simply provide businesses with the land, property, work force and industrial infrastructures that they require (Stewart 1996). They have become more than places that offer residents accommodation, retail, leisure and other services (Barke and Harrop 1994). Cities have increasingly become consumable products, in and of themselves (Arguiar et al, 2005), as planners seek to develop a sense of place that is appealing to the new creative class workforce (Florida 2009).

While 'global cities' (Sassen 2001), like Toronto and Vancouver, have been successful in engaging in this strategy to attract and retain creative workers and capital investment, mid-sized regional localities, like Kingston, Ontario (see Fig. 1), have found the process more challenging. This paper explores the role that Student Affairs, more specifically

Career Services, might play in supporting local economic development in mid-sized regional localities.

Figure 1

Kingston Location Map



In universities across North America, the mission of Career Services is typically to provide programs, resources and support that prepare students to manage their career transitions to work and further education. The work in support of this mission typically takes two forms, career education and employer development. The career education mandate is delivered through web pages, workshops, one-on-one career counselling, on-campus career events, and extensive print holdings. The employer development mandate involves, among other things, bringing employers to the campus, either literally or virtually, to recruit students for new graduate positions, summer jobs, and internships. Employers who recruit on campus are usually headquartered in large metropolitan cities in Canada, the United States, or further afield. Most North American recruiters offer students opportunities to live and work in larger urban centres such as Toronto, Montreal or New York, or, in the case of the resource industries, in remote locations close to the extraction sites in northern Alberta or northern Ontario. Increasingly, the work done in support of the employment elements of university career services departments/functions focuses on responding to the career interests of the students who use the service, and meeting the needs of the employers who come to the campus. In both instances, the vast majority of activity is also focused on the urban metropolis, with little attention given to mid-sized regional localities, even when the university is located within such a city.

This study discusses opportunities for municipal governments and university administration to work together to support local economic development in mid-sized university cities. It identifies the largely-neglected, but valuable, labour market that

literally surrounds the campus in these cities, as places of opportunity. The paper suggests that the university campus provides a place in which efforts to retain creative workers can emerge in cities that typically struggle to attract this workforce. It highlights an important role for Career Services in supporting local economic development by opening doors to students' understanding of local opportunities. The empirical data presented in this paper was collected from students of Queen's University in Kingston, Ontario (see Fig. 1). However, the findings of this study have implications for career educators, student affairs professionals, economic developers and planners across North America.

University Graduates: Burgeoning Members of the Creative Class

Florida (2002) suggests that human creativity has become the principal driving force of growth and development in cities, regions, and nations around the world. He asserts that one third of the workers in advanced industrial nations are now employed in the 'creative' sector, working in the fields of science and engineering, research and development, technology-based industries, in arts, music, culture, and aesthetic and design work, or in the knowledge-based professions of health care, finance, and law (Florida 2005, p. 3). Employees of these occupational groups constitute what Florida (2002) terms the 'creative class'. These highly-educated individuals are hired for their creative and innovative ideas in the new knowledge-intensive economy.

In many respects, Kingston is a locality that is in an advantageous position for attracting and retaining creative workers, not least because it is home to Queen's University, a highly-selective institution with a local, national and international reputation for excellence in scholarship, research and community spirit. The average entering grade of the 17,500 students, of which approximately 2,700 are graduate students, is 87%. The university has 17 faculties and schools, and offers a variety of degree programs including degrees in Arts and Science (8,600 students), Engineering (2,500 students), Business (1,300 students), Education (700 students), and Medicine (450 students).

Graduates from Queen's are highly employable, with 97% of graduates securing employment within three months of graduation. Thus, each year, Queen's University graduates a potential talent pool of bright, motivated, young professionals who have the knowledge and the skills to offer significant, intellectual capital to Kingston and the surrounding region. Given the captive student audience, the greater Kingston area is well placed to market itself as an attractive place to Queen's students as emerging members of the creative class. Queen's students typically live in the city for four years; therefore, the municipality has an opportunity to showcase the city and try to retain a portion of this creative and professional talent pool. Indeed, both the 2007 (Brainstorm 2007) and 2008 (Brainstorm 2008) *From Learning to Work* surveys identified that Queen's students most frequently cite Toronto (with 44%) as their preferred place to reside after graduation, followed by Kingston (with between 8%-9%). The annual graduating class at Queen's is approximately 4,000 students. Thus, every year around 340 motivated and highly-educated university graduates identify Kingston as a choice place in which to live and work. Given that approximately 5% of Queen's students come from Kingston, this represents a sizable proportion of the University's graduating class, and a near doubling of the available talent pool.

In recent years, university-community relations have been strained, primarily as a consequence of the annual (and unsanctioned) Aberdeen Street party that has become associated with the University's Fall Homecoming celebrations. The street party grew from approximately 5,000 people in attendance in 2005, to about 8,000 people in 2008. The emergency services were overwhelmed with the number of people in attendance, which included both members and non-members of the Queen's community. Many students were injured during the parties, and the police issued numerous fines, made arrests and laid charges.

Initially, the Queen's, the Alma Mater Society, the City of Kingston, Kingston Police, and volunteer groups worked together to try to manage the Aberdeen party. Strategies included raising awareness on campus about the dangers and negative consequences associated with the party and efforts to protect the safety of participants on the night. However, each year the crowd grew in number and following the events in 2008, the University cancelled Fall Homecoming for two years.

Kingston is home not only to Queen's University, but also to the Royal Military College of Canada (RMC), St. Lawrence College and other large, public-sector entities, including Kingston General Hospital, and the Limestone District School Board. The city's employment sector is stable, and career opportunities diverse, with employment in education, biotechnology, health sciences, fuel cells, information technology, transportation and logistics, and business outsourcing.

Despite Kingston's stable and diverse employment opportunities, the city's population growth has been slow, as it struggles to attract and retain young professionals. Between 2001 and 2006, the city's population growth rate was only 2.6% - lower than other local areas, including nearby Belleville (population growth rate = 4.7%) and Peterborough (population growth rate = 5.1%), and lower than the provincial average (Ontario population growth rate = 6.6%). The slow population growth rate, coupled with the aging population (in 2006, 15% of Kingston's total population was over 65, and this is expected to increase in 2011, when the first wave of Baby Boomers turn 65), suggests that, despite the articulated interest, graduates from Queen's University are not remaining in the city.

This raises questions about why students are not remaining in Kingston after they graduate. What factors are encouraging them to leave? What could the city do to encourage them to stay? In its Strategic Plan for 2010-2015, the Kingston Economic Development Corporation (KEDCO) ushered the city towards a creative economy model (KEDCO 2010). It undertook to 'develop labour market strategies to support and assist local employers to connect with potential employees, retain graduates from our institutions (Queen's University, Royal Military College of Canada, St. Lawrence College), grow and retain skilled trades, and attract qualified employees to our city' (KEDCO, 2010). Given the specific goal of retaining Queen's graduates in the locality, what role might the University play in supporting local economic development? How can Career Services link students who want to stay and work in Kingston after they graduate with local employment opportunities?

Understanding what Students Consider when They Decide Where to Live After Graduation

City officials were interested in gathering more information about how to make the City of Kingston more attractive to Queen's students, as newly-emerging, creative workers. They were interested in knowing more about the types of employment sectors that graduates were seeking, the jobs they would like to obtain, and the factors that they

took into account when conducting a job search and considering offers of employment. Thus, in fall 2008, KEDCO commissioned a study that sought to determine factors that affect the attraction and retention of Queen's graduates as creative workers in the 'new economy'. The study investigated students' attitudes about Kingston, and the factors that students consider to be important when making decisions about where to launch their career (see The Monieson Centre 2008).

The collaborative research project was conducted as a partnership between The Monieson Centre, Queen's School of Business Career Centre, Queen's University Career Services and Student Affairs Research and Assessment. Each partner brought an area of expertise that was crucial to the development of the project, including the establishment of the conceptual and theoretical framework, the methodological design, analysis and interpretation of the data, and knowledge about students. The research team met regularly to discuss and steer the development of the project, which was cleared through the Queen's University General Research Ethics Board.

Theoretical Framework

Based on the work of Florida (2009), a theoretical framework was developed to guide the empirical analysis of the factors that are likely to influence student's construction of place and therefore the retention of university graduates. While there are no clear guidelines for measuring how individuals construct a sense of place, we argue that individual's sense of satisfaction with a community, and sense of belonging to a community, are central to this construction. Coinciding with the arguments of Florida (see for example 2004; 2007; 2009), we, first, posit that an individual's satisfaction with a particular place reflects his or her evaluation of the amenities offered by that place. These amenities may include, for example, the physical, cultural, economic and social characteristics of a community. Second, we argue that an individual's sense of belonging is important to the constructed sense of community because it reflects a perceived engagement with the community and its amenities. Third, we posit that these two constructs are related and reciprocal (i.e., each is at least partially endogenously determined by the other) and that these constructs are influenced by an individual's experiences and preferences. Diagrammatically, this framework is illustrated in Figure 2.

Empirical analysis that follows examines the viability of this framework as well as examines the factors that are likely to influence an individual's community satisfaction, sense of belonging, and creative student retention by the City of Kingston.

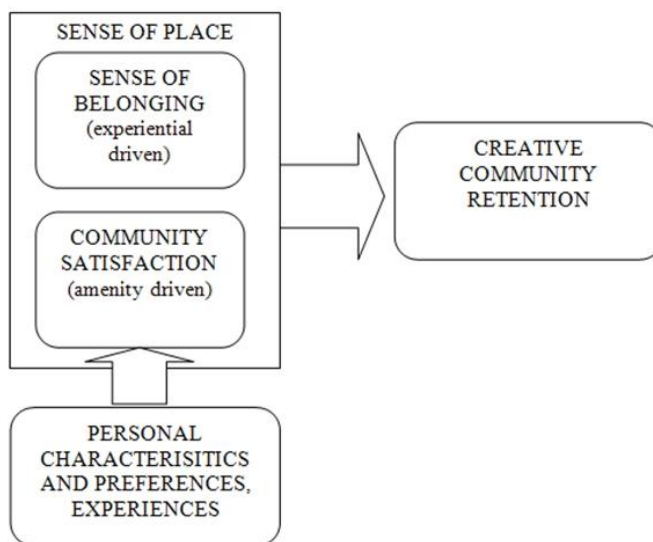
Methodology and Methods

A mixed-methods approach was adopted for this study, because the research questions were broad and complex, and could not be answered sufficiently by utilizing an exclusively quantitative or qualitative research design. Rich and detailed information about students' attitudes towards Kingston, and the factors that they consider when making decisions about where to live and work post-graduation, was needed to understand the dynamic processes that shape and influence students' opinions and decisions. Such an understanding is best obtained through qualitative methods (Creswell 2006). Equally important was the ability to generalize the findings, and consult with larger numbers of students, which required the incorporation of a

quantitative survey phase of data collection. Thus it was felt that a mixed-methods approach would provide a stronger evidence base for conclusions drawn through convergence and corroboration of findings, adding insights and understandings that might have been missed if only a single method had been used (Creswell 2008).

Figure 2

Creative Community Retention Theoretical Framework



Primary data collection began with a series of focus groups in which 28 upper-year undergraduate and graduate students participated. Focus groups were selected because they allow for a broader understanding of perceptions, opinions and understandings about particular issues, problems or opportunities than individual interviews (McMillan & Schumacher 2006). By having a purposefully-selected group interviewed collectively, researchers can increase the quality and richness of data by utilizing and building on the group process and dynamics. The focus group format provided a broad view of students' attitudes towards Kingston, and the factors that they consider when making decisions about where to live and work, post-graduation.

The decision to focus on upper-year undergraduate and graduate students was taken for reasons based in practice and in theory. In the practice of on-campus recruiting, employers focus most of their efforts on senior students, because they will soon graduate and become available for work. This is a population, therefore, whose career-related opinions are interesting to employers. From the perspective of Student Development Theory, Chickering and Reisser (1993) posit that students are not prepared to focus on vocational considerations until they are in third and fourth year and they move into the

Developing Purpose Vector³³.

A random sample of 20 third-year students, 20 fourth-year students and 20 graduate students was drawn from the student record system. International students were excluded from the sample because it was felt that considerations regarding visas, immigration and sponsorship, while extremely important, were outside the parameters of this study, and therefore would potentially complicate analysis. All sixty potential participants received an invitation to participate in a 90-minute focus group. A follow-up email was sent to the same group four days after the original request went out, and a total of 28 students responded to the request for participants.

Three focus groups were held, one for third-year students, one for fourth-year students and one for graduate students. The decision to conduct separate focus groups, based upon year of study, was taken to enable an exploration of participants' shared attitudes and experiences through the lens of their year of study; this assumed that students in different years are at different stages in their career development, and have different needs, experiences and observations. Graduate students, and students in fourth year, are closest to the career stepping-off point, when they leave the classroom and enter the labour market. This can have a significant impact upon their motivation for action (Jacobs and Newstead 2000), sometimes described as *exit velocity*, referring to a return to motivated work and superior performance. For students in third year, that time of egress may remain somewhat distant.

The focus groups were audio-taped and then transcribed. Thematic analysis of the data was conducted to develop items and categories for the broader quantitative and qualitative, web-based questionnaire.

Following analysis of the information generated by focus groups, one hundred and thirty-eight questionnaire items were created. The questionnaire was administered to a random sample of 2,500 third-year, fourth-year and graduate students via a web-based tool³⁴. Survey items included Likert-scale questions and open-ended, qualitative questions. Nine hundred and fourteen students participated in the survey, representing a 37% response rate. Overall, the survey drew on a diverse group of students, although this diversity was not evenly distributed (see for example Table 1).

Table 2

Survey Participant Characteristics

<u>Gender</u>		<u>Citizenship</u>	
Men	206	Canadian Citizen	736
Women	523	Permanent Resident	21
<u>Disability</u>		Other	0
Yes	841	<u>Race</u>	
No	57	Black	3
<u>Household Status</u>		Chinese	68

³³ *Developing Purpose* is Chickering's sixth of seven vectors of student development. In this stage of student development Chickering proposes that students are learning to develop their career goals, personal aspirations and commitments.

³⁴ The survey tool used in this study was StudentVoice (see ca.studentvoice.com).

No Children Living with Me	681	Filipino	2
1 Child at Home	11	Japanese	0
2 Children at Home	6	Korean	6
3 or more Children at Home	4	South Asian or East Indian	29
Other	17	South East Asian	1
<u>Relationship Status</u>		Native Canadian	6
		Arab, West Asian or North	
Single	330	African	11
Dating	319	Latin American	1
Married/Common Law	57	Mixed Origin	15
Separated	1	White	533
Divorced	1	Other	24
Widowed	1	<u>College</u>	
<u>Sexual Orientation</u>		Applied Science	101
Heterosexual	652	Arts & Science	451
Homosexual	19	Business	29
Bisexual	17	Law	24
Other	3	Medicine & Health	86
		Theology	2
		Education	82

Theme	Sub-Theme	Category	Sample Codes
Quality of Life	Social Conditions	Diversity	Discrimination Diversity Othering
		Safety	Crime Halfway houses Prisons
		Poverty and Inequality	Homelessness Poverty
	Economic Conditions	Employment/ Career	Employment opportunities Quality of job Opportunities for growth
	Recreational	Cultural Amenities	Restaurants Entertainment
		Athletics	Athletic opportunities Recreational activities
	Service Availability	Infrastructure	Snow removal Garbage pick-up Parking
		Sustainability	Composting system Recycling program Bike lanes
		Shelter and Services	Types of housing Housing conditions Transportation services
	Place Attachment	Social Attachment	Personal Relationships

		Sense of Community	Welcoming Feels like home Socialize with community members
		Town-Gown Relations	Community integration Community attitudes towards students Municipal officials' attitudes towards students Media representation of students
	Physical Spaces	Home Attachment	Characteristics of home city Hometown location Hometown attachment
		University Attachment	Love Queen's Campus environment
	Place Disattachment	Desire to Leave	Want to leave Plan to leave
		No Sense of Community	Isolated on campus Outsiders Lack of community involvement
Sense of Place	Urban Design	Physical Features	Appeal of downtown Proximity (Walkability) Housing conditions
		Urban Ambiance	Urban atmosphere Quaint
	Urban Aesthetics	Natural Environment	Waterfront Nature trails
		Heritage	Historical elements Architecture
	Local Amenities	Culture	Arts scene Cultural events Farmer's market

A web-based questionnaire was chosen for this study because it provided an effective tool to collect data confidentially from a large number of participants, and because it would facilitate an investigation of the relationship between the variables in the survey items (McMillan & Schumacher 2006). One of the weaknesses of quantitative survey research is the possibility that the researcher's categories might not capture participants' experiences, attitudes or opinions. Using the qualitative data to generate questionnaire items and categories was taken to limit this weakness, and enhance the quality of the data collected (Creswell 2008).

Quantitative data was entered into SPSS and was analyzed using Stata. In addition to generating some investigative descriptive statistics, two probit regression models were developed for estimating the factors that influence participants' sense of belonging and satisfaction with the Kingston community. After testing several model specifications, a bivariate probit regression model was also developed for the purpose of running two regression equations simultaneously while capturing any commonalities in the residuals of these models. The advantage of using bivariate probit regression is that it has the ability to detect correlations amongst the residuals of the two models (see for example Greene 2008). The importance of this is that if the relationship between

these residuals is statistically significant it suggests that influential covariates not captured by these equations are likely similar, implying that the dependent variables may be structurally related.

Two sets of parsimonious covariates were included in the model: first, demographic covariates (such as personal characteristics, faculty of study, etc.) that may be influential were included to control for their effect; second, covariates associated with participants' satisfaction and engagement with various amenities and aspects of the Kingston community were included to estimate their impact on the dependent variables. All covariates were assumed to be independent and not endogenously determined by the dependent variables. Variance inflation factor (VIF) scores were generated for all covariates included in the model to detect and estimate the influence of multicollinearity, which can skew the models results (see for example Tabachnick and Fidell 2007; Greene 2008). While several acceptable VIF limits have been proposed by previous authors (see for example O'Brien 2007), a limit of four was adopted for the purposes of this paper, suggesting that at the limit the standard error associated with a particular covariate would be double what it would otherwise be if it were completely orthogonal (O'Brien 2007; Tabachnick and Fidell 2007; Greene 2008). No VIF scores were found to exceed this limit and almost all were found to be below two. Two VIF scores, however, were situated between two and three, indicating that the standard errors for these covariates were 40% to 60% higher than they would have been if the covariates were completely orthogonal.

Analysis of qualitative survey data was influenced largely by the work of Foucault, who argued that discourse is a transparent vehicle of expression, laden with valuable meanings that reflect the reality of the social and material world (Waitt 2005). Of the 138 questions to which survey participants were asked to respond, 11 provided an opportunity for students to elaborate on the social, economic, cultural, community, and other aspects of Kingston with which they were particularly satisfied or dissatisfied. It is from these individual descriptions that a process of content analysis was conducted to examine the discourses embedded with student responses to questions concerning their lifestyle preferences and their perceptions of Kingston.

Reflecting the questions driving the research, qualitative responses were sorted into two 'content areas' (Baxter 1991): (1) attitudes about Kingston, and (2) factors that influence participants' post-graduation employment search. The data contained in each of the units of analysis was then divided into 'meaning units' (Baxter 1991) that were 'condensed' (Coffey and Atkinson 1996) and 'coded'. A meaning unit consists of words, sentences or paragraphs that are related to each other through the content of their context. According to Waitt (2005), this is especially important, given that in the context of discourse analysis, meanings cannot be confined to a single word or sentence, but are dependent on their 'intertextuality' (p. 171) or relationships with other words or texts. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the written responses provided by each participant served as the meaning units, which were examined individually, and in relation to one other. In order to analyse large quantities of data, it is necessary to condense these pieces of text by shortening the length, while preserving the key words and core meaning. Once condensed, each meaning unit is coded, allowing a researcher to easily identify the key themes and elements of the qualitative response. The whole context was considered when condensing and labelling meaning units with codes, and the various codes were compared based on differences and similarities and sorted into 10 categories, 21 subcategories, and finally, three overarching themes (see Table 2).

Results

Analysis of the collected data revealed that a variety of factors influence students' decisions about where to live and work post-graduation. Each of these factors can be classified into one of three major categories. First, urban socio-economic conditions (including the degree of cultural diversity, poverty and inequality, and the quality and availability of employment), recreational opportunities (both cultural and athletic), and service availability (including snow-clearing, garbage pick-up and the maintenance of public roadways, bike lanes and paths) are factors which define the urban 'quality of life' and attract and/or repel Queen's students to a particular locality. Secondly, 'place attachments', the emotional connections students have with the social and physical qualities of a city, play a considerable role in the decision-making process. Students who feel no sense of community in Kingston express a strong desire to leave the city and to relocate to areas with existing emotional attachments. Finally, participants identified the importance of the cultural features and urban ambiance of a particular environment, for example, the types of restaurants, shopping, and waterfront access available within it. These features characterize the 'sense of place' that Queen's students find appealing.

Florida's (2002) creative class thesis states that talented and creative people will migrate to city-regions that have the right career opportunities, attractive amenity characteristics and social diversity. In keeping with Florida's thesis, student participants reported that factors that constitute a *sense of place* - including urban design, urban aesthetics, and local amenities - along with *quality of life issues* - such as social conditions, recreational facilities, services availability and economic conditions and more specifically, employment and career opportunities (see Table 2) - were important variables in influencing students' decisions about where to live and work after graduation.

Student participants also highlighted variables that are marginalized in Florida's thesis. Participants indicated that factors relating to *place attachment* (see Table 2) are important factors that impact their decisions about where to look for employment after they graduate. Understanding the ways in which place attachment, and indeed, place disattachment, to university towns and communities impact local economic development is of interest to Student Affairs professions, not least because these factors are associated with town-gown relations. Within the context of Queen's and Kingston, the unsanctioned street party on Aberdeen Street that has coincided with the University's fall Homecoming, has exasperated town-gown tensions. In turn, the tense town-gown atmosphere has impacted students' place attachment to Kingston and their perceptions of Kingston as a location in which to seek employment and pursue their careers. (For a more detailed exploration of the relationship between town-gown relations and local economic development, see Massey 2009). The purpose of this paper is to explore how Career Services might support local economic development, therefore, analysis and discussion will focus upon students' post-graduation employment preferences, and their opinions about and attitudes towards Kingston's employment and career opportunities. Discussion will, however, include reference to the interrelationship between students' understanding of and attitudes towards the local employment market, and town-gown relations, to provide a deeper understanding of the context within which students' knowledge about local opportunities are developed.

Findings: Post-Graduation Life and Work: What is Important to Students and is Kingston a Choice Location?

To date, the City of Kingston has focused much of its efforts on improving the sense of place and quality of life that the locality offers. This approach is consistent with many city regions across North America. In Kingston, the local authority recently focused its attention on improving the appeal of the waterfront, upgrading existing and constructing new entertainment venues, and encouraging the establishment of diverse restaurants. It has, arguably, been fairly successful in establishing a positive image for the city in this regard; for example, 94% of respondents stated that they were either satisfied or very satisfied with the restaurants in Kingston, 70% with the shopping, and 67% with the entertainment in Kingston. While these issues were important, the study found that they were not the most influential in determining whether Queen's students would consider remaining in the locality after graduation. Rather, qualitative analysis and descriptive statistics suggested that employment prospects and feeling part of the local community were the most influential factors that impacted their decisions about Kingston as a locality in which to live and work. This finding is problematic for Kingston, because 60% of respondents were either dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with Kingston's employment prospects. One interview participant noted,

As a Queen's student, I do not feel as though Kingston offers much for me in regard to employment prospects which is frustrating since I cannot work in a place related to my field alongside studying to gain more skills and become more employable after I finish my degree (Female, Third Year, Arts and Science).

In regard to job prospects, another participant similarly noted, I am looking for a either a government job in natural resources or an environmental consulting job. There are next to no opportunities in Kingston in these sectors (Female, Master's, Arts and Science).

While another asserted, I feel that most of us do not see Kingston as an area where we can truly grow and thrive as we develop our careers - having been here for several years, it would seem to many of us that there are only blue-collar service jobs available or a few, highly competitive research positions (Female, Fourth Year, Arts and Science).

Other participants echoed these sentiments. Another participant said, for example, Employment opportunities seemed to be limited to the sales and service industry from what I have seen of Kingston (Male, Third Year, Arts and Science).

Alongside dissatisfaction with employment opportunities, qualitative data from the survey suggested that feelings of disattachment from the local community were also prevalent amongst participants. One participant noted, for example, I believe Kingston residents dislike the Queen's student community. I believe this mostly stems from the disrespect many students show towards their properties and the city in general (Male, Third Year, Applied Science).

Some participants, however, expressed feelings contrary to those common to most participants. One student noted, for instance, although I live in the [student] ghetto and spend most of my time at home or on campus, ever since I started to play in the Kingston Women's Soccer League I feel like this is my home... I feel like I am contributing to Kingston... and am therefore part of the community (Female, Fourth Year, Applied Science).

This suggests that developing opportunities for students to interact with local residents in positive settings may help to foster stronger place attachments and prompt more Queen's students to remain in Kingston post-graduation. Similarly, an analysis of the survey responses reveals that students who have found summer employment in Kingston are more likely to have developed a favourable view of the city. This may be explained in part by the fact that Kingston is a particularly enjoyable place in the summer with a plethora of town centre festivals, warm weather and bustling tourist industry. Some survey participants noted, for example, Having spent the summer in Kingston has made me feel more like a member of the Kingston community (Male, Third Year, Business). Respondents who have not stayed in Kingston over the summer, by contrast, also consider this experience to be integral to the development of stronger place attachments:

The biggest way I think that Kingston can hope to retain students after graduation would be a) to make them feel more welcomed by the city and b) to employ [sic] more students over the summer. The people that I know who are happier to be in Kingston have often spent a summer here where then can enjoy the waterfront and the various festivals (Female, Fourth Year, Arts and Science).

Quantitative results from the student survey support the findings from the focus groups and written survey responses. Participants identified an array of factors that characterize the 'quality of life', 'sense of place' and degree of 'place attachment' that cities have to offer; but when asked to indicate the relative importance of a selection of urban features which may influence their decisions of where to live post-graduation, a hierarchy of living preferences was revealed (see Figure 3).

Figure 3 indicates that 93% of respondents identified employment prospects as either very important or extremely important to their level of satisfaction with Kingston community, whereas only 23% identified access to a place of worship as being very or extremely important. By comparison, 39% indicated restaurants, 38% indicated shopping facilities, and 52% indicated entertainment amenities were either very or extremely important to their sense of satisfaction with the Kingston community.

In regard to employment, participants were asked to rank their top sectoral choices for summer employment. Listed in Table 3, employment in the education, government and social services sectors was most commonly ranked first, followed by employment in research and the health care sector. Employment in the manufacturing, trades and transport sectors, by contrast, were the least commonly cited sectors selected by students as their preferred area for summer employment.

Interestingly, while employment in education, government and social services was highly ranked by students, nearly half knew little about the employment opportunities in these sectors. Nearly half of participants also claimed to know little about employment opportunities in the arts and culture, health care, and business sectors despite also being popular choices amongst students, suggesting that there may be an incongruence between participant interest, information seeking with the intent of employment, and the availability of information. This is particularly interesting, given that many of the preferred employment sectors identified by participants (namely, research, education, and health) are thriving in Kingston³⁵, suggesting that a breakdown in information sharing about local opportunities for students may exist.

³⁵ For example, in 2009 *Corrections Canada* had 330 vacant positions in Kingston, 230 of which were seeking to attract knowledge workers.

Figure 3

Hierarchy of Amenity Preferences among Queen’s University Students

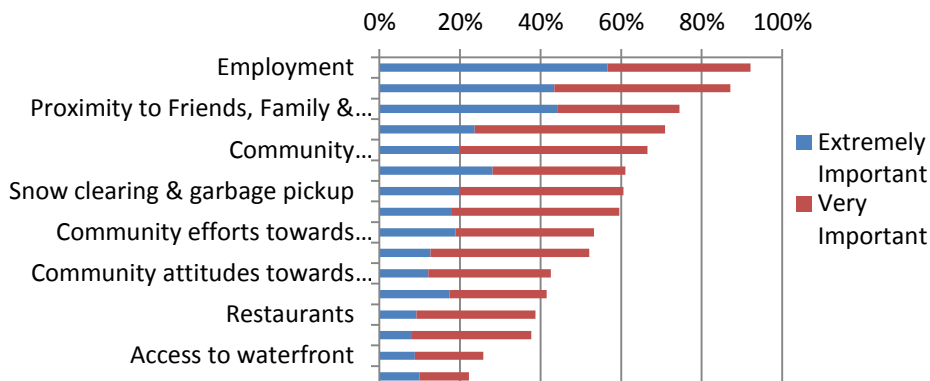


Table 3

Perceived Summer Employment Preferences and Opportunities

Preferred Sector for Summer Employment	Job Availability								
	Unknown		Not Available		Somewhat		Very Available		Total
1 Education, Government, Social & Community Services	211	44%	54	11%	188	39%	23	5%	476
2 Research	129	26%	27	5%	216	44%	123	25%	495
3 Health	108	38%	36	13%	114	40%	26	9%	284
4 Arts, Culture, and Recreation	155	42%	35	9%	147	40%	34	9%	371
5 Business, Finance, Administration	107	41%	46	17%	105	40%	5	2%	263
6 Applied and Natural Science	86	39%	25	11%	97	44%	13	6%	221
7 Sales and Service	44	24%	3	2%	71	39%	65	36%	183
8 Primary Industry	16	42%	8	21%	11	29%	3	8%	38
9 Manufacturing and Processing	14	26%	8	15%	29	55%	2	4%	53
10 Trades and Transport	3	27%	6	55%	2	18%	0	0%	11

This discrepancy between the students’ preferred employment sectors and their perception of the local employment opportunities is problematic for Kingston. Forty-

two percent of participants, for example, indicated that they have not held summer employment in Kingston nor are they interested in looking for employment in the city.

To estimate the impact of employment and other factors on the participant’s level of satisfaction and belonging to the Kingston community, which is assumed to impact their likelihood of retention, several key indicators were included in the bivariate probit model. The results of the model yield important insights into the factors that influence students’ perceived sense of place as well as insights into the theoretical framework. The results, shown in Table 4, indicate that having summer employment in Kingston, living in close proximity to work, and living in close proximity to friends all have a positive and statistically significant effect on the likelihood that participants felt a sense of belonging to the community.

In regard to community satisfaction, the results of the model indicate that those who identified themselves as Canadian citizens (Queen’s is in Canada), and who lived in close proximity to work, recreation and school were more likely to be satisfied with the community than other participants (e.g. recent immigrants). Similarly, the results also indicate that satisfaction with the city’s entertainment amenities, steps toward sustainability, socio-economic conditions, snow and garbage removal, and the city’s road and path maintenance equated to overall satisfaction with the community.

Finally, the results also indicate that the residuals of the two regression equations (which were constructed to estimate the factors that influence participants’ sense of belonging and satisfaction with the Kingston community) are significantly correlated, suggesting that the equations are related. This is further supported by some similarities in the significance levels and the signs (positive or negative) of the covariates included in the two equations (see Table 4), as well as a post-regression correlation test that indicated that a statistically significant relationship exists between the two dependent variables at the one percent level. Overall, these results suggest that there is convergence between feeling a sense belonging to the community and community satisfaction toward the latent concept we define as sense of place. Overall, the model is statistically significant.

Table 4

Bivariate Probit Regression Results for Creative City Retention

Bivariate Probit Regression	Belonging to Kingston Community				Satisfaction with Kingston Community				
	Coeff.	Std. Error	z	P>z	Coeff.	Std. Error	z	P>z	
Applied Science	-0.386	0.218	-1.770	0.076	* -0.060	0.235	-0.260	0.798	
Arts & Science	-0.022	0.178	-0.120	0.903	-0.409	0.188	-2.180	0.029	*
Business	0.024	0.295	0.080	0.935	-0.380	0.307	-1.240	0.215	*
Law	0.164	0.326	0.500	0.616	0.165	0.418	0.390	0.693	
Medicine & Health	0.092	0.218	0.420	0.674	0.123	0.231	0.530	0.594	
Theology	5.359	0.413	12.960	0.000	* -1.359	0.863	-1.570	0.115	*

Gender (Men = 1)	-0.118	0.133	-0.890	0.374		-	0.135	-2.630	0.009	*
						0.353				*
Canadian Citizen	-0.272	0.359	-0.760	0.449		1.060	0.360	2.950	0.003	*
										*
Sexual Orientation (Hetero. = 1)	-0.371	0.258	-1.440	0.150		-	0.257	-0.440	0.660	*
						0.113				
Relationship (Non-single = 1)	-0.154	0.117	-1.310	0.189		0.056	0.118	0.470	0.636	
Children (1 or more Child. = 1)	0.392	0.278	1.410	0.158		-	0.286	-1.660	0.096	*
						0.476				
Disability	0.058	0.204	0.290	0.775		-	0.202	-0.350	0.723	
						0.072				
Year Born	-0.037	0.018	-2.040	0.041	*	-	0.017	-1.840	0.065	*
					*	0.031				
Race (White = 1)	0.216	0.145	1.490	0.136		-	0.160	-2.120	0.034	*
						0.340				*
Kingston Good for Ethnic Minorities	0.115	0.172	0.670	0.504		-	0.188	-1.000	0.317	
						0.188				
Kingston Good for Religious Minorities	0.181	0.183	0.990	0.322		0.187	0.186	1.010	0.313	
Kingston Good for Gay People	-0.012	0.132	-0.090	0.929		-	0.132	-1.010	0.311	
						0.134				
Kingston Good for Immigrants	0.000	0.154	0.000	1.000		0.219	0.170	1.290	0.197	
Kingston Good for Entrepreneurs	0.182	0.118	1.540	0.123		0.099	0.120	0.830	0.408	
Summer Employed Part time	0.495	0.193	2.570	0.010	*	0.156	0.198	0.790	0.431	
					*					
Summer Employed Full time	0.644	0.150	4.280	0.000	*	0.026	0.142	0.180	0.853	
					*					
Restaurant Satisfaction	-0.034	0.088	-0.380	0.703		0.063	0.089	0.710	0.480	
Shopping Satisfaction	0.093	0.078	1.200	0.231		0.078	0.086	0.900	0.366	
Entertainment Satisfaction	0.078	0.082	0.950	0.343		0.225	0.085	2.660	0.008	*
										*
Sustainability Satisfaction	0.069	0.050	1.370	0.171		0.269	0.050	5.340	0.000	*
										*
Proximity between Home and Work	0.247	0.072	3.400	0.001	*	0.128	0.076	1.680	0.093	*
					*					*
Daycare, public schools	0.044	0.052	0.840	0.403		0.051	0.053	0.950	0.341	
Comm. Employment	0.043	0.049	0.890	0.373		-	0.050	-0.570	0.572	
						0.028				

Prosp. Satisfaction										
Opportunity to pursue Academics	0.042	0.055	0.760	0.446	-0.100	0.055	-1.810	0.071	*	
Proximity to Family, Friends etc.	0.124	0.048	2.570	0.010	* * *	0.006	0.048	0.120	0.906	
Comm. Socioeconomic Satisfaction	0.052	0.056	0.940	0.345		0.179	0.057	3.140	0.002	* * *
Mntc. Road, Lanes, Path Satisfaction	-0.104	0.066	-1.580	0.115		0.164	0.069	2.360	0.018	* *
Comm. Snow and Garbage Removal	0.065	0.057	1.130	0.257		0.126	0.059	2.150	0.032	* *
Access to Place of Worship	0.045	0.036	1.270	0.205		0.036	0.035	1.000	0.316	
_cons	0.241	1.053	0.230	0.819	-0.751	1.011	-0.740	0.457		
Number of Obs.	626			Rho			0.266	0.069		
Wald Chi2	1611.56	(68)		Wald Test of Rho=0:	chi	2(13.379	1)		
Prob > Chi2	0.000			Prob>Chi2			0.000			
Log Pseudolikelihood	-704.033									

* indicates statistical significance at 10%, ** at 5% and *** at 1%.

Interpretation and Discussion: Career, Community, Connection

The findings of the bivariate probit model have several implications for creative city retention. In regard to the covariates, summer employment, and proximity to work, school, friends and family appear to have an important impact on participants' sense of belonging. Only proximity to work and school, however, was found to have a likely impact on community satisfaction. Similarly, several covariates were found to have a likely impact on participants' community satisfaction but only year of birth was common across the two equations, while other covariates were statistically insignificant or lay just outside of the 10% significance level. These results have two important implications: first, these results support the assertion that these dependent variables measure different but related measures of an individual's sense of place; second, they suggest that amenities alone (such as good bike paths and entertainment as asserted by Florida (2002) may only partially determine a city's ability to retain new graduates. For example, while sustainability, infrastructure, and entertainment were found to have a positive influence on an individual's likelihood to be satisfied with the Kingston community, they were found to play an insignificant role in the individual's sense of belonging.

The results support Florida's (2004) assertion that a precondition for attracting and retaining creative talent is thick labour markets³⁶. The results from the model indicate that summer work experience plays an important role in influencing the individual's perceived sense of community belonging while perceived positive socioeconomic conditions play an important role in the individual's perceived sense of satisfaction. This suggests that if the university and community wish to retain graduates they will likely have to focus their efforts not only creating meaningful summer employment but also enhancing student perceptions of city's overall socioeconomic vibrancy.

In regard to demographic and other characteristics, the results are not only suggestive of weaknesses in Kingston's employment market and cultural atmosphere, but they also suggest that efforts to retain graduates may be targeted toward certain groups. For example, participants from applied science were less likely to report a sense of belonging to the Kingston community than participants from other colleges, while arts and science students were less likely to be satisfied with the community as a whole. While further research is needed to understand the root of these results, they may be associated with students' perceptions of socioeconomic or other conditions which may be sectorally related (i.e., a lack of arts and culture vibrancy, or a lack of applied science research or firms in the community).

The large number of Queen's students who are interested in finding summer employment in the area presents an opportunity for the City of Kingston to showcase local job opportunities. If students are provided with employment opportunities over the summer, they are more likely to stay during the summer months and develop a stronger sense of belonging to the Kingston community. This, in turn, will increase the likelihood of them considering it a place to live and work post-graduation. If those job opportunities are meaningful and career-related, then this will help to eliminate some of the negative and stigmatising images that students hold about job opportunities in the city. For example, if students are able to secure a placement or internship in the greater Kingston area, then they will have first-hand experience of Kingston's diverse and stable employment base that extends well beyond the retail industry. Such an opportunity will provide them with first-hand experience of the high quality of life that Kingston has to offer, which is in line with Florida's Creative Class theory.

The theoretical contribution of this paper is that these results also suggest that there is a convergence between individuals' sense of community belonging and satisfaction on the latent construct we define as sense of place. While much of the literature on creative economies by Florida (2004; 2007; 2009) and others focuses on amenities as driving force behind labour movement, our results suggest that amenities may only be one aspect of what attracts and retains creative talent. Although amenities are no doubt important, we argue that building a sense of community is equally important. Besides summer employment experience, the results from the bivariate analysis suggest that proximity to work, school, friends, and family also plays an important role in building individual's sense of belonging. These results support Jacobs' (1992) assertion, which Florida (2004) borrows, that proximity and space matter, and, in particular, that spatial proximity and urban design are important for cultivating and fostering a sense of community which Jacobs (1992) further argues goes hand-in-hand with economic vibrancy.

³⁶ Although he is not the first to posit that labour markets are, as one might expect, important

The data collected as part of this investigation raises important considerations for career educators, student affairs professionals, economic developers and planners across North America. It has shown that the largely-neglected, but valuable labour pool market, that literally surrounds university campuses in these cities, are places of opportunity, where municipal governments and university administration can work together to support local economic development.

The final section of this paper provides practical examples of how a university campus provides a place in which to make efforts to retain creative workers in cities that typically struggle to attract this workforce. It highlights an important role for career services in supporting local economic development by opening doors to students' understanding of local opportunities.

Practical Applications: Kingston and Queen's: Working Together Smarter

At Queen's University, the data collected during this investigation has already been used in the development of new partnership initiatives between Career Services and the City of Kingston. Initiatives in support of local economic development have primarily addressed the employer development mission, but substantial opportunity for learning is also being manifest through experiential learning programs, such as internships and community service learning.

Building closer relationships with organizations in Kingston is now a strategic imperative for Queen's Career Services, and is demonstrated in small daily activities, as well as specific program development. Examples include becoming an active partner of industry groups, such as the Eastern Lake Ontario Innovation Network (ELORIN)³⁷, the Kingston Technology Council (KTC)³⁸, whose Innovation Expo includes efforts to recruit Queen's technology graduates, the Kingston Chamber of Commerce and KEDCO. Stronger relationships have also been built with the local, not-for-profit organisations, including Kingston Employment and Youth Services (KEYS)³⁹, whose initiatives are promoted by the staff at Queen's Career Services. Also, the City of Kingston now advertises its summer employment opportunities on the Queen's Career Services website.

Given the evidence of employer demand for new graduates and a supply of willing students, Career Services committed to a program that would build bridges between Queen's students and Kingston employers. Since January 2009, a number of initiatives have been introduced that connect the two groups. For example, 'Careers in Kingston Day' is a career fair attended by employers located in Kingston, and students interested in working in the area. The inaugural event was held in January 2009 with 17 employers and 374 students taking part. As a direct result of this event, prominent local employers interviewed Queen's students on campus for the first time in more than five

³⁷ ELORIN is a network regional bio-business activity, which aims to influence the success of regional bio-based firms and acts as a catalyst in accelerating the commercialization of research discoveries within the Eastern Lake Ontario region. See <http://www.elorin.ca/>

³⁸ KTC) works closely with large organizations active in the technology community to improve the economic development of the technology-based economy of the Kingston region. See <http://www.kingstontechnology.net/>

³⁹ KEYS is a community-based career, employment, and language training centre offering a variety of programs and services. KEYS has programs and services for youth, adults, persons with disabilities, immigrants, and students. See <http://www.keys.ca/>

years. It was held again in January 2010, with 18 employers presenting their opportunities to 542 students.

Similarly, 'Careers in Public Service Day' is a career event that brings public sector employers and students together. This event is considered to contribute to building the relationship between Queen's and Kingston, because the public sector is the largest employer in Kingston, and many of the participating government departments have large operations based in Kingston (e.g., Corrections Canada, Canadian Forces Recruiting Group, and Service Canada). In January 2009, the event enabled 327 students to visit with nine government departments, and in 2010, it drew a smaller, but still substantial turnout, with 263 students from eight departments.

'Breaking In: Starting A Career in Film and Media' is another example of a program designed specifically to open doors to students' understanding of local opportunities. This workshop, which was delivered at Career Services as part of the Kingston Film Festival, successfully attracted filmmakers and film students, who came together at Career Services, to discuss how one can start a career in this competitive field, that is firmly positioned within the creative economy.

Opening Doors to Students' Understanding of Local Opportunities

Municipal officials and policy planners in many North American cities are employing Florida's theoretical ideas in their urban revitalization and rebranding efforts. In Kingston, despite municipal attempts to redefine the 'quality of place' that the City of Kingston has to offer, students at Queen's University expressed strong dissatisfaction with local employment opportunities. Although a blend of private sector employment, business services and research and development activities have laid the foundations for local economic growth, many students at Queen's University have a negative perception of the quantity and quality of job opportunities currently available in Kingston. Participants indicated that they did not feel there was quality employment in their fields offered by local employers in the city, deterring many from considering the prospect of becoming permanent residents, post-graduation, and encouraging most to relocate to the larger urban centres located nearby (e.g., Toronto, Ottawa, and Montreal in Canada; and in the United States, Syracuse). Although the City of Kingston will not be able to compete with the scale of employment in surrounding areas, students' commitment to remaining in the city could be extended if they were more aware of the local opportunities available. Ensuring that students develop an accurate perception of the quality and availability of employment in Kingston during their time at Queen's will be essential in rebranding Kingston as a place for young, innovative and creative workers.

In addition to reassessing the ways in which the City of Kingston could be marketed to Queen's students as members of the 'creative class', significant improvements to the quality of urban social and material conditions must occur in order to meet their lifestyle needs and preferences. While the perception that there are few jobs is evident in the comments received, of equal concern, also shown by comments, is that students feel alienated and marginalized from the community. In fact, based on their social encounters in the city, many students consider the residents of Kingston to be intolerant and resistant to change, thereby contributing to their supposition that the urban social environment is unfriendly and unwelcoming. Given that the presence of a strong and supportive community is perceived as a 'very important' factor to consider

when choosing where to live and work, improvements must be made to local town-gown relations in order to foster a sense of stronger place attachment to Kingston. These findings both support and contradict Florida's description of the kind of urban social environment which attracts creative workers to a particular city. Although Queen's students are looking to live and work in a community which is tolerant, open, and inclusive, many describe their desire to relocate to a city with stronger social ties than Florida envisions. It is possible that the tensions associated with homecoming have impacted students' perceptions of Kingston and their opinion that it is not a tolerant, open and inclusive community, which in turn has affected their lack of attachment to the city and their desire to live.

Given that the students who indicated feeling part of the Kingston community were more likely to express their willingness to seek employment in the city, increasing the number of students who consider themselves part of the community would likely increase the number willing to consider Kingston as a place to live and work after they graduate. Importantly, this study revealed that many of those who worked in the city over the summer months developed a stronger place attachments to Kingston and, in line with Florida's work, identified the city as offering a better quality of life than those who had not spent the summer in Kingston. The opportunity to interact with local residents off-campus and experience community living was a significant factor in shaping positive opinions about the city. Ensuring that students are encouraged to participate in the community during the year would likely help in strengthening local social relationships and forging stronger social ties.

Kingston has the opportunity to benefit from the fact that it consists of an array of young, talented and creative individuals who, over time, develop an understanding of the sense of place, quality of life, and degree of place attachment the city has to offer. Queen's University has attracted these students to Kingston, now Kingston must find ways to convince them to stay. To some extent, this can be accomplished by promoting the employment opportunities available for students after they graduate, making students feel more welcome, improving municipal service quality, and promoting the progressive environmental improvement projects that are currently underway. Although not all of these features of the urban living environment are emphasized in Florida's conceptualization of the creative city, they are important factors influencing students' decisions of where to live and work. Before this can be accomplished, however, the City of Kingston must recognize and embrace Queen's students' assets and contributions, including their capacity to participate in economic renewal. Although the City has tried to define itself as a unique place, Queen's students have been a neglected labour pool in plans for urban redevelopment. In order to retain them, Kingston must identify and invite them to be part of its creative class by modifying the 'creative city' model to fit their specific needs and urban living preferences. It is only by explicitly acknowledging students value and the complexities of their lifestyle needs and preferences that the City will be able to experience the economic benefits associated with their presence.

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Report on the Canadian Career Counsellor Education Survey

Sharon Kalbfleisch & Rebecca Burwell

This article provides a summary of the results of a nationwide, web-based survey of career practitioners carried out in April/May of 2006. The survey was conducted as Phase II of the research project “The Advancement of Career Counsellor Education in Canada”, whose overarching purpose is to begin a process to develop a collective vision of Canadian career counselling/career development education for the future. This research project is funded by the Canadian Education and Research Institute for Counselling (CERIC).

The survey was conducted specifically to:

- identify career paths leading to, and progression within, the field of career development, including the educational backgrounds of career practitioners;
- understand with what field career practitioners identify professionally (for example, career development, social work, adult education), and what job titles they utilize (for example, career counsellor, career navigator, employment specialist);
- determine how career practitioners perceive the importance of specific skill and knowledge areas relevant to the practice of career counselling/career development, and their perceived ability within these same skill and knowledge areas;
- learn to what extent employers within the field support career development specific education; and,
- provide data to support discussions at a think tank session of career practitioner educators being held in October, 2006, as Phase III of the aforementioned research project.

The survey was administered online by the University of Waterloo Survey Research Centre in April and May 2006 using a questionnaire available in French and English. In order to solicit career practitioners to complete the survey, provincial and national associations within the field of career development were contacted with a request to help disseminate the survey. Those that agreed to inform their members of the survey are listed in Appendix A. Career practitioners were also informed of the survey through the web sites and bulletins of Contact Point and OrientAction.

The survey was completed by 1,180 individuals, 91% of whom were working in the field of career development. Key statistics and demographics of the sample appear in Appendix B. The regional distribution of the sample is relatively representative of the nation (refer to Table B3 in Appendix B), though the Territories were insufficiently represented to be included in the regional analysis. There was also low representation in some employment sectors, and therefore, in order to conduct the analysis, the corporate and private sectors were combined, as were the two non-profit sectors.

The survey findings have been organized thematically into four areas:

1. Practitioners’ Backgrounds
2. Professional Identity

3. Practitioners’ Skills and Knowledge
4. Employers’ Perspective of Career Practitioner Education

The presentation of survey findings is followed by a discussion of implications for the career development community.

Results

Practitioners’ Backgrounds

gender. The ratio of women to men in the sample was 4:1 (refer to Table B-1 in Appendix B). This ratio remained consistent by region, city size, and employment sector. Women and men in the sample also did not differ significantly in terms of educational aspirations, primary job functions, or skills self-assessment.

entry into field. Respondents were asked, “How did you come to enter the field of career development?” Responses to this question were varied and, while they were not quantifiable, the majority of respondents indicated that they had entered the field by one of two paths. Either they had entered the field by accident (for example, “I am employed by a municipal office which won HRSDC contracts to provide employment support services”), or had entered it through a related profession (for example, “I started out teaching life skills, then moved into employment counselling”). Very few indicated an intentional decision to enter the field.

Following up on this line of inquiry, respondents were asked: “Did you make a career change into the field of career development? In other words, have you worked previously in another field?” Seventy percent of the sample stated that they had made a career change into the field (refer to Table I-1 below.) It appears that career development work tends not to be an identifiable career option early in life. This is not unexpected given that there are so few early academic entry points into the profession, with the exception of Quebec.

Table I-1

Worked Previously in Another Field by Region

Worked previously in another field?	BC %	Prairies %	Ontario %	Quebec %	Maritimes %	Total %
Yes	88	77	78	41	82	70
No	12	23	22	59	18	30
Total N	(127)	(106)	(355)	(308)	(200)	(1096)

$X^2 = 168.1$ $p < .001$, $\Phi = .39$ ⁴⁰

⁴⁰ A note about the cited statistics for cross tabular tables: all significant relationships have the Chi-square statistic reported, as well as the significance level (p), and a measure of the strength of the relationship (Phi). The significance level (p) can be interpreted as the probability of a difference at least as large as the one observed, from what would be expected under independence (no relationship). A small value of p is evidence that the observed difference is not due to chance, but instead, a result of a relationship between the row and column classifications.

Those respondents who had made a change into the field of career development were asked to indicate from which field they had entered (refer to Table I-2 below). Forty-seven percent of these respondents stated that they came from a closely related field (counselling, social work, human resources, or teaching), while 53% indicated they had come from a less related field (for example, business, health care, or journalism).

Table I-2

Previous Fields of Work

	Count	%
Teaching	168	22
Business	89	12
Counselling	68	9
Social work	64	8
Human resources	63	8
Clerical	47	6
Clergy work	3	0
Other	267	35
Total	(769)	100

Respondents from Quebec answered these questions quite differently. When asked how they came to enter the field of career development, the majority indicated that it was their desire to help others that led them to the field. Respondents from Quebec were far less likely to have made a career change into the field of career development than respondents from any other region (refer to Table I-1 above). This is likely due to the availability of undergraduate programs within the field, allowing students to make an earlier decision to enter the profession.

age. The average age of respondents was 43 (refer to Table I-3 below). This is significantly higher than the average age of workers in Canada, which is 39 ($t=14.1$, $p<.001$). Only 12% of those in the field are under age 30, 30% are aged 31 to 40, and 58%, a clear majority, are over 40 (refer to Table B-2 in Appendix B).

The average age is lower for respondents from Quebec (refer to Table I-3 below), with a significantly higher percentage of respondents in the age 35 and under category, and a smaller percentage in the over 55 category. Again, this is likely attributable to the existence of undergraduate programs in Quebec that make it possible for students to enter the field at a younger age.

The Phi measure can be interpreted as follows: a low Phi (less than .25) indicates a weaker relationship; higher values, between .3 and .6, indicate a moderate relationship.

Table I-3

Age by Region

Age	BC %	Prairies %	Ontario %	Quebec %	Maritimes %	Total %
35 and under	16	17	25	41	27	28
36 to 45	31	28	28	25	29	28
46 to 55	35	37	32	26	32	31
Over 55	18	18	15	8	12	13
Average	46	46	44	40	43	43
Total N	(129)	(112)	(380)	(320)	(206)	(1147)

$X^2 = 50.4$ $p < .001$, $\Phi = .21$

educational background. Overall, the education level of career practitioners is high. Forty-six percent had completed a certificate or diploma, 83% had completed an undergraduate degree, and 45% had completed a graduate degree (refer to Tables I-4 to I-6 below). Only 3% of respondents had no formal post-secondary education (refer to Table I-7 below). Sixty-three percent of respondents had completed two or more of a certificate/diploma, undergraduate degree, or graduate degree (refer to Table I-7 below). This indicates a highly educated group of individuals.

Table I-4

Education (Certificate or Diploma) by Region

Certificate or Diploma	BC %	Prairies %	Ontario %	Quebec %	Maritimes %	Total %
Yes	61	35	55	36	44	46
No	39	65	45	64	56	54
Total N	(126)	(108)	(358)	(309)	(197)	(1098)

$X^2 = 39.2$ $p < .001$, $\Phi = .19$

Table I-5

Education (Undergraduate Degree) by Region

Undergraduate Degree	BC %	Prairies %	Ontario %	Quebec %	Maritimes %	Total %
Yes	65	89	74	97	87	83
No	35	11	26	3	13	17
Total N	(126)	(108)	(358)	(309)	(197)	(1098)

$X^2 = 98.5$ $p < .001$, $\Phi = .30$

Table I-6

*Education (Graduate Degree) by Region **

Graduate Degree	BC %	Prairies %	Ontario %	Quebec %	Maritimes %	Total %
Yes	30	42	25	83	35	45
No	70	58	75	17	65	55
Total N	(125)	(103)	(354)	(307)	(198)	(1087)

$X^2 = 261.0$ $p < .001$, $\Phi = .50$

* 96% of these are master's degrees; 4% are doctoral degrees

Table I-7

Education Completed

Education	Count	%
No formal education	37	3
Certificate or diploma only	144	13
Undergraduate degree only	233	21
Certificate/diploma & undergraduate degree	192	17
Undergraduate & graduate degrees	332	30
Certificate & undergraduate & master's degrees	165	15
All levels of education achieved	7	1
Total	1110	100

The survey asked respondents to provide the name of the programs they had completed. Some respondents did not provide full details of their programs, indicating simply "B.A.", for example, without identifying their major. Judging by those who were precise, one third of the certificates/diplomas completed were studies directly in the field of career development. The undergraduate degrees most often brought to the field, outside of Quebec, were in Education (152), Psychology (150), Sociology (76), English (46), and Social Work (31). The master's degrees reported outside of Quebec were most often in Counselling Psychology (82), Education (58), Guidance/School Counselling (15), Educational Counselling (14), and Social Work (13).

Quebec respondents, once again, differed significantly from those in other regions (refer to Tables I-4 to I-6 above). While respondents were less likely to have a certificate or diploma, they were more likely to have an undergraduate degree, and far more likely to have a graduate degree. Further, when asked to provide details of their programs of study, the majority reported undergraduate and graduate degrees directly in the field of career development. Consequently, they were least likely to be considering further formal education in the field of career development (refer to Table I-8 below).

years experience in field. A median for years of experience worked within the field of career development was calculated using a linear interpolation. In the sample, the median length of time respondents had been working in the field was eight years. Only 37% of respondents had been in the field over ten years (refer to Table I-9 below).

Age and years of experience are strongly related, as in other professions. In other words, younger workers generally have fewer years of experience than older workers. However, because so many respondents reported making a career change into the field, age and experience do not correspond as closely as one would expect (refer to Table I-9 below). For example, 32% of respondents over the age of 55 possess ten or fewer year's experience.

There is no significant difference in years of experience reported by respondents of each region.

Table I-8

Considering (Further) Career Development Education by Region

Are you considering (further) education in the field of career development?	BC %	Prairies %	Ontario %	Quebec %	Maritimes %	Total %
Yes	51	47	44	29	50	42
No	49	53	56	71	50	58
Total N	(133)	(116)	(386)	(324)	(210)	(1169)

$X^2 = 34.0$ $p < .001$, $\Phi = .17$

Table I-9

Years Experience in Field of Career Development by Age

Years of experience in field of career development	35 and under %	36 to 45 %	46 to 55 %	Over 55 %	Total %
Less than 3	38	12	6	6	17
Between 3 and 5	34	20	14	8	20
Between 6 and 10	25	31	26	18	26
Over ten years	3	37	54	68	37
Total N	(300)	(308)	(331)	(147)	(1086)

$X^2 = 331.4$ $p < .001$, $\Phi = .55$

Professional Identity

work titles. The survey asked respondents to provide their current or most recent job title. A choice of 13 common position titles within the field of career development was offered. Sixty-three percent of respondents selected one of these titles (refer to Table II-1 below.)

Significantly, 37% of respondents did not fit into one of these 13 titles. The words 'career' and 'employment' get attached to a variety of labels including: coach, specialist, navigator, support worker, educator, worker, and coordinator.

It should be noted that in Quebec there is less confusion with respect to job titles. Sixty-nine percent of respondents to the French version of the survey (94% of

whom were from Quebec) use just one term: ‘conseiller d’orientation’ (refer to Table II-2 below).

Table II-1

Current Job Title (English)

	Count	%
Guidance counsellor	113	14
Employment counsellor	103	13
Career counsellor	68	8
Program coordinator	57	7
Facilitator	30	4
Career development practitioner	23	3
Employment consultant	21	3
Career consultant	21	3
Career advisor	19	2
Career information specialist	19	2
Case manager	16	2
Job developer	9	1
Vocational rehabilitation counsellor	8	1
Other	317	37
Total	(824)	100

Table II-2

Current Job Title (French)

	Count	%
Conseiller d'orientation	210	69
Conseiller en emploi	15	5
Conseiller en information scolaire et professionnelle	10	3
Conseiller en ressources humaines	9	3
Conseiller en carrière	7	2
Coordonnateur de programmes	6	2
Gestionnaire de projets	3	1
Conseiller en recrutement du personnel	1	0
Animateur ou formateur	1	0
Conseiller en réadaptation	1	0
Prospecteur d'emplois	0	0
Autre	41	15
Total	(304)	100

professional alliances. The survey asked respondents to indicate the fields with which they identify professionally. When given the option to indicate more than one field, 76% of respondents indicated that they identify, at least to some degree, with

the field of career development (refer to Table II-3 below). However, when respondents were asked to indicate with which field they identify primarily, only 47% indicated that they identified primarily with the field of career development (refer to Table II-4 below). This can likely be explained by the fact that career development work is encompassed in so many disciplines, including Human Resources, Psychology, Social Work, and Counselling.

Table II-3

Fields Identified With Professionally

	Count	%
Career development	897	76
Counselling	705	60
Adult education	340	29
Teaching (elementary and secondary)	242	21
Human resources	234	20
Teaching (post-secondary)	140	12
Vocational rehabilitation	131	11
Social work	130	11
Psychology	114	10
Other	221	19
Total	(on 1180)	

Table II-4

Primary Field of Identification

	Count	%
Career development	448	47
Counselling	209	23
Teaching (elementary and secondary)	60	6
Adult education	52	5
Human resources	42	4
Vocational rehabilitation	30	3
Social work	18	2
Teaching post-secondary	17	2
Psychology	8	1
Other	64	7
Total	(948)	100

Practitioners' Skills and Knowledge

perceived importance and level of ability. Respondents were asked to rate on a scale of one to three the perceived importance and their perceived level of ability within 21 skill and knowledge areas related to career development. Calculating Z scores for the average ratings of skill/knowledge areas allows a ranking in order of importance

and self-assessed competency. Table III-1 presents the list of skills and knowledge in order of ranking, from most perceived importance to least perceived importance, while Table III-2 presents the list in order of ranking from most perceived ability to least perceived ability. Larger Z scores, whether they are positive or negative, indicate a mean farther from the average overall (more of an outlier item).

Table III-1 indicates that respondents rate macro career development skills (such as new program development, program promotion, project management, program administration, addressing social justice issues, and lobbying government) as having less importance than skills and knowledge related to direct client work (such as one-to-one interviewing skills, group facilitation, and career counselling techniques). Table III-2 indicates that respondents also rate their level of ability within each of these macro areas as lower than those related to direct client work.

Table III-1

Importance Ratings in Order of Rank

	Average Rating	Z Score
Ethics	2.9	1.44
One-to-one interviewing	2.9	1.44
Career/labour market information	2.8	1.08
Career counselling techniques	2.8	1.08
General counselling theory	2.7	0.72
Work search strategies	2.7	0.72
Career assessment	2.7	0.72
Career development theory	2.6	0.36
Local & global work trends	2.6	0.36
Group facilitation	2.6	0.36
Working with diverse populations	2.6	0.36
Working collaboratively with community partners	2.6	0.36
Advocating on behalf of clients	2.5	0
Developing new programs	2.4	-0.36
Job development	2.3	-0.72
Proposal/report writing	2.2	-1.08
Program promotion	2.2	-1.08
Project management	2.1	-1.44
Program administration	2.1	-1.44
Addressing social justice issues	2.1	-1.44
Lobbying government	2.1	-1.44

Table III-2

Ability Ratings in Order of Rank

	Average rating	Z Score
One-to-one interviewing	2.7	1.51
Ethics	2.6	1.15

Work search strategies	2.6	1.15
Group facilitation	2.6	1.15
Career/labour market information	2.5	0.78
Career counselling techniques	2.5	0.78
General counselling theory	2.4	0.42
Working with diverse populations	2.4	0.42
Working collaboratively with community partners	2.4	0.42
Career development theory	2.3	0.05
Local & global work trends	2.3	0.05
Career assessment	2.3	0.05
Proposal/report writing	2.3	0.05
Advocating on behalf of clients	2.3	0.05
Developing new programs	2.1	-0.31
Project management	2.1	-0.68
Job development	2.0	-1.04
Program administration	2.0	-1.04
Program promotion	2.0	-1.04
Addressing social justice issues	1.9	-1.41
Lobbying government	1.6	-2.5

Quebec respondents repeatedly differ from other regions in both their ratings of the perceived importance and their level of ability within each of these skill and knowledge areas (refer to Tables III-3 and III-4 below). Table III-3 indicates practitioners in Quebec rate 13 scales as less important than other provinces, and two scales as more important.

Table III-4 indicates that practitioners in Quebec rate their competence in 14 scales as lower than those in other provinces, and one scale as higher. Practitioners in Quebec are, on average, younger than in the rest of Canada, and young people (age 35 or under) in the sample did tend to have significantly lower self-assessments of skill and knowledge than older age groups, thus potentially explaining why they generally rated their competence as lower. Another possible explanation for these lower ratings of ability is that in Quebec practitioners are more highly educated, and have more career development specific education. It is then possible that the respondents rate their skills lower on the Socratic grounds that “the more you know, the more you realize what you do not know”.

Table III-3

Average Importance Ratings by Region

Knowledge or Skill	BC	Prairies	Ontario	Quebec	Maritimes	F sig p value
General counselling theory	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.8*	2.7	.001
Ethics	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.8*	2.9	<.001
Career development	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	.02

theory						
Career/labour market information	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.6*	2.8	<.001
Local & global work trends	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.5*	2.7	<.001
Work search strategies	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.4*	2.7	<.001
One-to-one interviewing	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	Not sig
Group facilitation	2.6	2.5	2.6	2.5*	2.6	.001
Career counselling techniques	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	Not sig
Career assessment	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7	Not sig
Proposal/report writing	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.3*	2.2	<.001
Job development	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.4	Not sig
Project management	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.0	2.1	Not sig
Program administration	2.2	2.2	2.2	1.7*	2.2	<.001
Program promotion	2.3	2.4	2.3	1.8*	2.2	<.001
Working with diverse populations	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.3*	2.7	<.001
Advocating on behalf of clients	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.2*	2.7	<.001
Addressing social justice issues	2.1	2.3	2.2	1.8*	2.3	<.001
Working collaboratively with community partners	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.2*	2.7	<.001
Developing new programs	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.1*	2.5	<.001
Lobbying government	2.2	2.3	2.1	1.8*	2.2	<.001

*Significant Post Hoc Scheffe comparison tests – region differs from most or all other regions.

Table III-4

Average Ability Ratings by Region

Knowledge or Skill	BC	Prairies	Ontario	Quebec	Maritimes	F Sig p value
General counselling theory	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5	Not sig
Ethics	2.8	2.6	2.7	2.5*	2.7	<.001
Career development theory	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	.04

Career/labour market information	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.4*	2.5	<.001
Local & global work trends	2.5	2.3	2.4	2.2*	2.2	<.001
Work search strategies	2.7	2.5*	2.7	2.5*	2.6	<.001
One-to-one interviewing	2.7	2.6*	2.7	2.8	2.8	.01
Group facilitation	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.4*	2.6	<.001
Career counselling techniques	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.5	Not sig
Career assessment	2.4	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.3	Not sig
Proposal/report writing	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.4*	2.3	.006
Job development	2.0	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	Not sig
Project management	2.2	2.2	2.2	1.9*	2.1	<.001
Program administration	2.2	2.2	2.1	1.6*	2.1	<.001
Program promotion	2.3	2.2	2.2	1.7*	2.0	<.001
Working with diverse populations	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.2*	2.4	<.001
Advocating on behalf of clients	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.1*	2.6	<.001
Addressing social justice issues	1.8	1.9	2.0	1.7*	2.1	<.001
Working collaboratively with community partners	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.1*	2.5	<.001
Developing new programs	2.2	2.3	2.3	1.8*	2.2	<.001
Lobbying government	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.3*	1.7	<.001

*Significant Post Hoc Scheffe comparison tests – region differs from most or all other regions.

Employers' Perspective of Career Counsellor Education

hiring. Respondents were asked whether their organization, where relevant, sought to hire individuals with education specifically within the field of career development. Seventy-three percent of respondents stated that their organization sought to hire those with education specifically in the field of career development (refer to Table IV-1 below).

In terms of education and accreditation, Quebec stands out with 93% of the respondents identifying that their organizations seek specific career development education. Quebec's regulation of the field no doubt accounts for this figure.

Table IV-2 below shows that many employers are seeking undergraduate or graduate level education over certificate or diploma level programs.

Table IV-1

Employer Seeks Career Development Specific Education by Region

Does organization hire individuals with career development specific education?	BC %	Prairies %	Ontario %	Quebec %	Maritimes %	Total %
Yes	78	55	63	93	61	73
No	22	45	37	7	39	27
Total N	(110)	(86)	(303)	(276)	(164)	(939)

$X^2 = 97.4$ $p < .001$, $\Phi = .32$

Table IV-2

Education Levels Sought

	Count	%
Certificate	148	16
Diploma	216	23
Undergraduate degree	362	38
Master's degree	385	41
Doctorate	29	3
Total	(on 948)	*

* Respondents could select more than one level.

encouragement. Next, respondents were asked to indicate if their organization encouraged further career development specific education (refer to Table IV-3 below). Sixty-nine percent indicated that their organization encouraged career development specific education to some extent or a great deal. Differences in results were significant by sector, not region. Those respondents in the post-secondary education sector, for instance, indicated that 81% of their organizations encouraged continuing education in the field to some extent or a great deal.

Table IV-3

Employer Encourages (Further) Career Development Education by Employment Sector

To what extent does organization encourage (further) education in field?	Government %	Education %	Post-Sec. Education %	Corporate or Private %	Non-Profit %	Total %
A great deal	27	18	41	40	34	31
To some extent	39	43	40	28	36	38
A little	27	28	15	24	22	23
No at all	7	11	4	8	8	8

Total N	(162)	(206)	(165)	(83)	(342)	(958)
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$X^2 = 40.5$ $p = .001$, $\Phi = .21$

funding. The subsequent questions addressed the number of organizations that provide funding for further education for their employees and the amount allocated for funding (refer to Tables IV-4 and IV-5 below). While 88% of all respondents indicated that their organizations funded further education, 73% of that number indicated that they received \$1,000 or less annually to pursue this education or training. Viewed by sector, the corporate/private and post-secondary sectors give the most support. The primary and secondary education sector is the least likely to receive more than \$1,000.

Table IV-4

Provision of Funding for Further Education by Employment Sector

Does employer provide funding to you for further education?	Government %	Education %	Post-Sec. Education %	Corporate or Private %	Non-Profit %	Total %
Yes	86	85	98	84	88	88
No	14	15	2	16	12	12
Total N	(166)	(213)	(168)	(81)	(345)	(973)

$X^2 = 18.9$ $p = .001$, $\Phi = .14$

Table IV-5

Amount of Funding Provided by Employment Sector

How much funding is provided?	Government %	Education %	Post-Sec. Education %	Corporate or Private %	Non-Profit %	Total %
Under \$500	33	61	27	34	45	42
\$500 and \$1,000	32	27	35	26	31	31
Over \$1,000	35	12	38	40	24	27
Total N	(114)	(169)	(146)	(61)	(254)	(744)

$X^2 = 55.7$ $p < .001$, $\Phi = .27$

Respondents who are currently enrolled in an education program report higher levels of encouragement from the organizations where they work than those not currently in school (refer to Table IV-6 below). As well, respondents who report plans to further their education in the field, also report higher levels of encouragement than those not planning to continue their education (refer to Table IV-7 below). There is no difference in the reported presence of funding, nor in the amount of funding provided

for education, by either those currently enrolled, or those considering future enrolment. It appears that encouragement, and not funding, is the key factor influencing whether employees are enrolled or plan to enroll in a program.

Table IV-6

Encouragement from Employer by Current Enrolment

Currently Enrolled in Education Program	A great deal %	To some extent %	A little %	Not at all %	Total N
Yes	48	25	24	3	119
No	29	41	21	9	857

$\chi^2 = 24.4$ $p < .001$, $\Phi = .16$

Table IV-7

Encouragement from Employer by Future Enrolment

Considering Future Enrolment in Education Program	A great deal %	To some extent %	A little %	Not at all %	Total N
Yes	38	35	22	5	373
No	26	41	23	10	614

$\chi^2 = 20.5$ $p < .011$, $\Phi = .15$

Discussion

Practitioners' Backgrounds

Survey results related to career practitioners' backgrounds revealed several points of interest. First, the data revealed that most practitioners outside of Quebec did not enter the field through an intentional decision making process. Many enter the field as a second career and possess a variety of educational backgrounds, including education in Social Work, Psychology, Education, and Sociology. While this diversity in backgrounds does lend a certain richness to the field, it also raises the possibility that many may be practicing without the requisite skills and knowledge to be effective career practitioners. They may lack, for example, knowledge of the labour market, career counselling techniques, or career development theory.

Second, the data showed that the average age of respondents was higher than the average age of workers in Canada. This raises two important concerns. There is first the issue of whether we will be able to meet consumer demand for career practitioners in the coming years. When this age factor is considered alongside the fact that most entered the profession as a second career, there is also the issue of whether some

practitioners simply do not have the years of experience required to gain the expert status in the field that they might have achieved had they entered the profession earlier.

Third, the data also revealed that on average career practitioners have spent fewer years working in the field than have those in other occupations. With a median of only eight years experience in the field, practitioners perhaps do not possess the level of expertise that is common to other fields. For example, within the teaching profession, the median for years of experience within the field in Ontario is approximately 15 years (Ontario Teachers' Pension Plan, June 2006). Again, the authors wonder if facilitating earlier entry into the field would allow for greater levels of expertise to be developed within the field.

Professional Identity

Survey results related to professional identity also reveal some interesting points of discussion. The vast number of different job titles, and the fact that relatively few respondents identified primarily with the field of career development, are suggestive of a weak professional identity. The authors suggest the field strive to establish a limited set of meaningful titles to describe the work we do. In other professions, such as nursing, job titles often reflect the education level, level of responsibility, and duties that are performed by the individual. For example, the term 'nurse practitioner' implies post-graduate diploma or degree training, the term 'registered nurse' implies undergraduate level training, and the term 'registered practical nurse' implies diploma level training. This would help the general public and the field to better understand what different practitioners offer. As well, this could lead to an enhanced professional identity.

Further, while the issue of whether the career counselling/development field should become regulated across the nation is beyond the scope of this paper, we do live in a time of 'creeping credentialism.' It seems prudent to position the profession to deal with potential self, public, and government interest in regulating the profession. If this field were to become more organized or regulated in some fashion, a necessary first step would be to agree upon a consistent and descriptive set of job titles. It would be difficult or impossible to organize any credential or license with the current array of titles.

This professional identity issue is further complicated by the fact that most career practitioners graduate from other disciplines such as Psychology, Sociology, or English. Our challenge then is to develop a process through which career development can evolve to be the primary work identity of more practitioners and through which career development can become known as a clearly defined professional specialty. We might look at the evolution of other disciplines to help address this challenge. For example, statistics was initially viewed as a branch of mathematics, but as it evolved and the usefulness of statistical ideas and concepts became more apparent, it was able to define itself clearly as a discipline in its own right. University departments of statistics are now typically separate from mathematics; they develop statistical theory and play a key role in defining the discipline, and are often involved with the teaching of statistics to other disciplines like Economics, Psychology, Sociology, and Engineering.

Practitioners' Skills and Knowledge

The next part of the survey examined practitioners' perceptions of the importance of specific skill and knowledge areas relevant to the field of career development, as well as their perceived ability within these same skill and knowledge areas. An interesting finding is that macro skills appeared to be less important to practitioners. The authors believe this can lead to an interesting discussion on the appropriate curriculum for career practitioners.

In Phase I of this research project, a review of the areas of curriculum covered in career counselling/career development programs revealed that macro issues received significantly less attention than skills and knowledge related directly to client work. The lack of a macro viewpoint is detrimental, even when one's job involves mostly one-on-one interactions. Without a sense of these issues (the big picture, as it were), career practitioners can become too focused on the idea of pathologies or problems as residing in the individual; they may ignore broader cultural factors. For example, knowledge of macro issues is crucial when writing proposals for funding. Without an appreciation for the political environment and how to approach government, it is difficult to get and maintain funding. We wonder, then, if it would be prudent to include more macro area skills and knowledge into career counselling/career development programs so that students at minimum have a beginning awareness of 'big picture' issues. While client-based knowledge and skills may be what students are initially seeking, helping students gain a macro perspective will aid them in their work with individuals by broadening their lens as well as helping them as they advance in their careers.

It is interesting how high so many of the respondents rated their skills and knowledge. The authors wonder if this is because so many career practitioners enter the field without career development specific education, making it possible that they do not realize the extent of the theory base behind the profession, and as a result feel they hold all or most of the required skills to work in the field. Many practitioners do come into the field with related human service and counselling experience, and indeed, these skills go a long way in enriching their work. However, we believe that without a comprehensive knowledge of career development theory and career counselling techniques, for example, a career practitioner cannot practice in the field to full advantage. The vast number of certificate and diploma programs that have been developed in the past fifteen years does speak at least in part to some employers' and practitioners' recognition of the need for career development specific skills and knowledge.

Employers' Perspective of Career Practitioner Education

The survey results on the employers' perspective of career counsellor education were particularly interesting in terms of hiring practices. Respondents were asked whether their organization, where relevant, sought to hire individuals with education specifically within the field of career development. Seventy-three percent of respondents stated that their organization sought to hire those with education specifically in the field of career development. On the one hand this seemed encouraging. In other professions; however, we suspect that this number would be closer to 100%. For example, within the field of social work, it is currently uncommon for someone to obtain a position without the requisite education. In some professions, it

is impossible to obtain a position without the professional education and accreditation. For example, a person could not obtain a position as a nurse unless they had received the required education to become a registered nurse, practical nurse, or nurse practitioner.

Given the relative youthfulness and complexity of the field of career development we were encouraged by many of the survey findings. The field has a clear strength in that the educational level of practitioners is high and in that many are considering further career development specific education. The more traditionally organized career development programs in Quebec are a particular strong point in that they provide a Canadian educational model that can help shape an educational model for all of Canada. As well, the large number of career practitioners (1,180) who completed the survey is indicative of the commitment and enthusiasm of those working in the field and of their interest in the field's advancement.

The authors are pleased with the richness of the data that the survey has produced. We would like to acknowledge the effort made by the many career practitioners who took the time to complete this survey, as well as to thank the University of Waterloo Survey Research Centre for their assistance in developing the survey and in analyzing the data.

Appendix A

Table of Participant Associations

Table A-1: Participant Associations

Association of Career Professionals International
Canadian Association of Career Educators and Employers
Canadian Career Information Association
Canadian Counselling Association
Career Development Association of Alberta
Career Education Society
Career Management Association of BC
Guidance Council of the Alberta Teachers Association
Manitoba School Counsellors' Association
New Brunswick Career Development Action Group
New Brunswick Teachers' Association
Newfoundland and Labrador Counsellors' and Psychologists' Association
Nova Scotia Career Development Association
Ontario Association of Youth Employment Centres
Ontario School Counsellors Association
L'Ordre des conseillers et conseillères d'orientation et des psychoéducateurs et psychoéducatrices du Québec
Prince Edward Island Teachers' Federation
Saskatchewan Career Work Education Association

Appendix B: Respondent Demographics

Table B-1: Gender

	Count	%
Male	237	20
Female	943	80
Total	(1180)	100

Table B-2: Age Groups in 5-Year Intervals

	Count	%
16 to 20	5	0
21 to 25	24	2
26 to 30	112	10
31 to 35	182	16
36 to 40	159	14
41 to 45	163	14
46 to 50	177	15
51 to 55	184	16
56 to 60	114	10
Over 60	38	3
Total	(1158)	100

Table B-3: Province or Territory of Residence

	Count	Count as % of Survey Sample	Population as % of National Population*
Alberta	72	6	10.1
British Columbia	133	11	13.2
Manitoba	29	3	3.6
New Brunswick	57	5	2.3
Newfoundland and Labrador	52	4	1.6
Northwest Territories	2	0.2	0.1
Nova Scotia	85	7	2.9
Nunavut	1	0.1	0.1
Ontario	386	33	38.9
Prince Edward Island	16	1	0.4
Quebec	324	28	23.5
Saskatchewan	15	1	3.1
Outside Canada	7	1	N/A
Total	(1179)	100	100

*Source: Statistics Canada

Table B-4

Population of Town/City Where Employed

	Count	%
10,000 or less	198	17
Between 10,000 and 50,000	206	18
50,001 to 100,000	152	13
Above 100,000	594	51
Not currently working	16	1
Total	(1166)	100

Table B-5: Employment Sector

	Count	%
Not in field	42	4
Government	180	16
Secondary education	235	21
Post-secondary education	186	16
Corporate	23	2
Private or independent	92	8
Not for profit (charities)	79	7
Not for profit (other than charities)	298	26
Total	(1135)	100

Table B-6

Primary Functions of Work

	Count	%
Providing direct service to clients, one-to-one or in a group	861	76
Managing or supervising a program or department	334	30
Writing and developing career related tools or resources	366	33
Designing new programs and services	351	31
Developing/analyzing public policy related to career development	74	7
Teaching and/or conducting research in career development	206	18
Other function	63	6
Total	(on 1128)	*

*Does not sum to 100 as respondents could select more than one function.