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Australian Journal of Career Development

Volume 12, Number 2, Winter 2003

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James A. Athanasou

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The audience for the Journal includes professionals in educational and academic settings, community and government agencies, and business and industrial settings. Therefore, topics should be presented with implications for practice. Authors of research reports and theoretical discussions should relate their conclusions to the realm of practical applications.

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General Principles

Material will be considered for publication if it meets one or more of the following:

• it expands the body of knowledge;
• it informs in a manner that will develop people’s professional understanding;
• it provides concrete assistance in professional practice;
• it raises philosophical questions related to the field of careers practice;
• it opens a new frontier of knowledge and ideas related to professional practice.

Sections of the Journal

1 Case Studies

Case studies concerning innovative programs and individual work may be submitted. They should be both descriptive and analytical, providing the merits and shortcomings of the situation. Concise presentations of less than 5000 words are preferred.

2 Articles

Articles are invited dealing with career development, planning, guidance and education, labour market and training issues, vocational education and training, occupational information, career management policy, practice and programs. They should be a maximum of 4500 words.

3 Reviews

Books, reports, packages, computer programs or any other material relevant to career practitioners are reviewed in this section. Reviews include an overview of content and critical analysis and should be a maximum of 750 words. If you know of or have material that you feel is relevant, please contact the Editor or forward it directly.

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This section of the Journal is set aside to provide a forum for sharing of relevant information and stimulating discussion and debate. We invite contributions as follows:

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As an academic, books are my tools of trade. I am surrounded by them at my work and always felt comfortable among them from an early age. Some have become trustworthy and constant companions over many years.

Like many people, my bookshelf at home has filled quickly with various volumes and until recent times our house overflowed with books. It wasn’t until one of those days when furniture had to be moved for painting, and a growing adolescent had to be accommodated in what was my study that I decided I had to be a little ruthless. The bookshelf space was finite. So, with a Solomon-like wisdom I developed a few policies: firstly to recognise that my home wasn’t a de facto general library; secondly to get rid of any book which was not used frequently, and finally to ensure that if a book was purchased then another one in my collection had to go.

This tough-minded response has stood me in fairly good stead both at home and at work; it has also ensured that some books have quite strangely stood the test of time. Tucked away in a middle shelf of the little space available to me is a copy of the 1967 edition of Viktor Frankl’s *Psychotherapy and existentialism* (Harmondsworth: Pelican).

I am not a psychotherapist or counsellor; and I would not say that I am a one-eyed Frankl supporter, so it is strange in one sense that it has been able to survive the various bibliomanic purges that characterise my life. If my memory serves me correctly (and fortunately it rarely does nowadays), then it was a reaction against the shallowness of prevailing counselling approaches and a search for something else that led me to look at the ideas of European writers such as Erich Fromm and Viktor Frankl.

You may or may not recall that the late Viktor Frankl (1905–1997) was the Austrian physician who formulated the psychotherapeutic approach of logotherapy. It is not one of your rigorous, testable, parsimonious type theories. Some of the writings on logotherapy that I looked at were a little too self-congratulatory for my liking but there was something of value in this approach.

Frankl described an existential psychotherapy that emphasises human freedom, the desire for meaning, personal responsibility to our conscience and the world around us and above all the primary need of people to find meaning in their life. Frankl was in a Nazi concentration camp from 1942 to 1945 and through the confrontation with these horrors came to recognise the value of a purpose in life.

Life can be made meaningful in a threefold way: first through what we give to life (in terms of our creative works); second by what we take from the world (in terms of our experiencing values); and third, through the stand we take towards a fate we no longer can change (an incurable disease, an inoperable cancer or the like) (Frankl, 1967, p. 25).
While he is best known for his psychotherapeutic approach that stressed our ability to overcome misfortune and suffering, he also emphasised the positive ability to overcome the existential vacuum or inner void that plagues many lives.

The meaning of life must be conceived in terms of the specific meaning of a personal life in a given situation. Each man is unique and each man’s life is singular; no one is replaceable nor is his life repeatable. This twofold uniqueness adds to man’s responsibleness. Ultimately this responsibleness derives from the fact that life is a chain of questions which man has to answer by answering for life … (p. 27).

Leaving aside the exclusive language of his time, the emphasis is on realising the meaning of everyday life for every person. The relevance of Frankl’s perspective, especially his technique of paradoxical intention, may at first glance seem a little remote for career practitioners in their everyday employment, educational or vocational counselling situations.

The aim is to restructure the cognitive schemata or patterns of thinking that dominate our lives. This is not easy.

Quite often a small event – or at other times even a word – can have such long-term implications. I like to think of them as time bombs. These are the sayings and actions of others that we remember. They may explode in our consciousness days, weeks, months or even years later and alter our direction in life. These are the things that have such momentous impact in our lives.

More importantly, the focus of careers work involves assisting others to find direction and Frankl’s ideas may have application in encouraging the fulfilment of a purpose in life, enhancing the potential of each person and moving them along the achievement of their life’s task. It looks as though his book will still be safe on my bookshelf for a while longer.

James Athanasou
University of Technology, Sydney
Mike, how did you come into career work?
I entered the NSW Teaching Service in 1995, after many years of employment in an area in which I was very self-directed and self-managed. Once I settled into teaching, which I enjoyed very much, I began considering my career path within education. As an older person with a well established teenage family I couldn’t imagine myself trying to move up the promotion ladder and so I looked around to see another area of endeavour within education for which my particular experience and skills suited me. I settled on career education. I proceeded to enrol in a postgraduate course in career education in order to gain qualifications, though there was no sign of a career position at that time. The year I was to commence studies (1998) two things happened: the course did not have enough students to run at the particular institution in which I had enrolled, and the careers position came up at St Paul’s Grammar School. I applied for the position and accepted it when it was offered.

Is there one particular career theory that guides your work or do you prefer an eclectic approach?
I think of myself as basically eclectic in my approach. In my first year as a Careers Adviser, I read Colin McCowan and Malcolm McKenzie’s excellent book, *The guide to career education for careers personnel working in Australian schools and colleges*. This book confirmed for me my choice of career education as my education career path. I also found it very helpful in getting a ‘handle’ on what I thought the job entailed. I have returned to it from time to time since. At a theoretical level, the approach I have found most appealing is the Systems Theory Framework championed by Mary McMahon and Wendy Patton. I like this approach because it seeks to provide a holistic perspective in which to draw together and make sense of the ‘good bits’ from a wide variety of other approaches.
Who has been influential in your work?
Obviously the authors referred to. As well, the course and mentoring while I was studying career education had a lasting impact on me. However, unquestionably, the greatest influence in my work has been many of the career practitioners I had the good fortune to get to know, particularly the members of my local school careers network, the Nepean Careers Forum, and the Executive members of the NSW Careers Advisers’ Association. What I have gained from the wealth of their practical knowledge and experience, and from their willingness to share this and give a helping hand to newcomers in the field, is inestimable.

You work at a school. Can you tell our readers something about the careers service in your school?
I feel very privileged to work at St Paul’s Grammar School, near Penrith NSW. Thanks to my predecessor’s hard work, I inherited a well-established Careers Centre and a school Executive that considered the role important. He had built the position into a full-time, non-timetabled position and the careers program was integrated into the personal development section of the Personal Development, Health and Physical Education faculty. I continue to be responsible for and to be a part of the delivery of this program. Students have easy and open access to me and a considerable amount of my time is taken up with one-on-one and small group counselling.

Naturally the role has expanded in the 5 years I have been fulfilling it. It has always included coordination of study skills programs, but now it encompasses the extensive and demanding work of coordinating the Vocational Education and Training courses students access either at school or off-site. Both these areas have natural links within the school context to career education, even if at times they make demands on my time that reduces the time for the ‘pure’ work of career education.

How does the Careers Advisers’ Association operate in NSW? What is its role and key functions? Can you say something about the background of the Careers Advisers’ Association (CAA)?
The CAA is the professional teachers association for career practitioners within government, Catholic and independent schools in NSW. Usually, careers advisers start life as classroom teachers and then move into career education, so they normally have teaching qualifications as well as any career education/counselling qualifications.

As to its role and key functions, I’ll let our constitution speak for itself:

2.1 The objects of the Association shall be:
• To encourage interest in Career Education and to stress its significance in modern society.
• To emphasise the importance of the work of Careers Advisers and to protect and promote their status.
• To ensure that Career Education is recognised as a central and vital part of schooling.
• To encourage the development, interchange and dissemination of ideas, careers information and counselling techniques.
• To work in close cooperation with all other groups and agencies which share an interest in Career Education.

Career education within NSW schools began in the 1970s within government schools due to the advocacy and efforts of a few people, in particular, Angela Glover (lovingly referred to in our circles as ‘the mother of careers’). Gradually it expanded to the point where Catholic and independent schools embraced it and allocated personnel to it. In NSW Government schools the Department of Education and Training’s staffing formula provides a 1.0 allocation (1 full-time teacher) in each Central and Secondary School. In Catholic Systemic and independent schools this allocation varies from as little as 0.2 to 1.0 of a full-time teacher.

Can you also tell our readers about your role in the Careers Advisers’ Association NSW?
As President of the Association I am privileged to have contact with a wide range of education organisations, businesses and industries. This involves me in a diverse range of things but primarily in being an advocate for career educators in schools and the need for providing within schools adequately for the career needs of students.

From your vantage point as President, what do you see as the future needs of our profession?
Two things. First, the recent establishment of a
national peak body for non-profit career development organisations, the Career Industry Council of Australia, represents a milestone in the move towards putting firmly on the agenda of the public policy makers, especially at the Commonwealth level, the career development needs of all Australians, from the youngest to the oldest. This can only serve to enhance and support the importance of career education and career educators within our schools, as well as within all areas of employment and society. It also marks a significant threshold of practitioner collaboration and coordinated activity unparalleled anywhere else in the world. The winners in this will be our clients.

Second, career counselling is a very broad area ranging from being a subset of therapeutic (psychological) counselling to a related but separate discipline area. As such, many practitioners without psych training do not have any formal training other than their life experiences. Experience counts for a great deal in career education and counselling. However, with the virtually ubiquitous requirement for formal training and qualifications in virtually all areas of work-related endeavour, it is vital that national standards for minimum career development qualifications be established so that people who access career development services can have confidence in the expertise and service they will receive. This is no less a need in the education sector. Within NSW many careers advisers in government and non-government schools have no formal qualifications for the job. In this regard it is very pleasing to note that the NSW Department of Education and Training has just upgraded its Careers Advisers training from an in-house course to a full Graduate Certificate in Career Education and Counselling administered and delivered by RMIT University in Melbourne. However, the need is great for standardised qualifications across the country that anyone entering the career profession can access and that will provide a standard level of competency for the work.

Where do you see careers work heading in the future?
I think the future holds great opportunities wrapped up in tremendous challenges for us. The dramatic changes happening and still in process within the world of work, such as the casualisation of the workforce, means that people’s experience of work is no longer monochrome (a job for life) but involves variations and shifts (such as several jobs over shorter periods of time). This means that ‘repeated transition’ and managing this will be, if it is not already, the norm for most people in their working lives. This is the domain of the career professional. The challenges will be great, and I can’t help feeling some trepidation at the prospect; yet in my experience ‘rising to the challenge’ is a prerequisite for the job of helping people with their career development – after all every individual we deal with has always represented his or her own peculiar challenges, as the scope of career development theories informs us!

And finally, can we say something about Mike Geeves outside his careers role?
In my spare time I hassle my son (he’s 23), cuddle (if they let me) my daughters (21 and 17), pat and cuddle my rabbit (who always lets me), and still enjoy the company of my wife after 27 years of marriage. I enjoy watching movies and TV (I’m a creature of my culture in that respect; I’m a trekkie – watching the action of those who have gone where no one has gone before since the original Star Trek series hit our TV screens in the 60s); reading thrillers and murder mysteries; reading and discussing theology; and eating out with my wife and with friends.

Mike Geeves, on behalf of the Journal my thanks for making your time available to us and answering our questions. We wish you all the best in your many roles in the future and especially for the Careers Advisers’ Association whom you represent.
UNCONSCIOUS INFLUENCES ON CAREER CHOICE: ENTREPRENEUR VS. MANAGER

AYALA MALACH-PINES, Ben Gurion University, Israel

While a large and rapidly growing literature attests to the interest in managers and entrepreneurs, relatively little research focused on comparing these two ‘leaders of the organisational stage’. This type of comparison has a special significance for career counsellors. The current paper addresses the unconscious influences on the career choice of managers and entrepreneurs using a psychoanalytic-existential framework and two case studies that demonstrate its application. The two examples demonstrate the manager’s positive identification with their father compared to the entrepreneur’s negative identification with father. Implications for career counselling are suggested.
their personality and family dynamic have been the focus of much attention in the literatures on managers and on entrepreneurs, especially by writers coming from the psychoanalytic tradition.

A recent study (Pines, Sadeh, Dvir, & Yafe-Yanai, 2002), which compared Israeli entrepreneurs and managers, used a psychoanalytic-existential conceptual framework. The study revealed a number of similarities as well as differences between the managers and entrepreneurs who took part in it.

The current paper is a follow up on that study. Instead of analysing the responses of successful entrepreneurs as compared to high-ranking managers to a lengthy questionnaire (the way it was done in the previous study), the current paper is based on an in-depth examination of two clinical studies of an entrepreneur and a manager who underwent therapy because of a problem of burnout. The focus of the paper is on the unconscious influences on the career choice of the entrepreneur and the manager and their role in the etiology of their burnout.

**UNCONSCIOUS INFLUENCES ON THE CHOICE OF A CAREER**

The choice of a career is a highly significant process that plays a major role in shaping people's aspirations, concerns and actions (Galin, 1988). It is one of the most significant choices made by people growing up in Western culture, with many attempting to find in it a sense of existential significance for their entire life (Becker, 1973; Pines, 1993). It has even been suggested that the importance attributed to careers may be exaggerated. The exaggeration is manifested in the excessive investment of libidinal energy in a career when compared to the energy invested in interpersonal relations, or the tendency to value people according to their professional status (Plus, 1966).

The choice of a career is also a complex and multifaceted process that includes all the spheres of a person's life (Hall, 1996). Since the turn of the century, many attempts were made to classify the factors that influence this process. Parsons (1909–1989) stated that:

1. A clear understanding of yourself, your aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambitions, resources, limitations and their causes.

2. Knowledge of the requirements and conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensations, opportunities and prospects in different lines of work

3. True reasoning on the relations of these groups of facts (p. 5).

Parson's work served as the cornerstone in the development of modern counselling theories that centre on the Person–Environment Fit (e.g., Swanson, 1996). In the fifties, Ginzberg (1951) classified the factors that influence career choices into: Self, Reality and Key people, while Super (1957) classified them into:

1. Role factors – the self and the role
2. Personality factors – intelligence, special abilities, preferences, values, approaches to work, 'personality' and general adaptability
3. Situational factors – social and economic status of the parents, religious background, home atmosphere, parents’ approach, the general economic situation, a state of war or peace, and training opportunities.

It is common today to view vocational choice as a process, the way Ginzberg did, and as an ongoing process that continues throughout the person’s life, the way Super did. However, the modern perspective of ‘life career development’ is broad and holistic (Gysbers, Heppner, & Johnson, 1998). It ‘encompasses all spheres of activity and all corresponding facets of personal identity’ (Hall, 1996, p. 7).

Psychoanalytic theory makes an important contribution to the theories of career development by adding the dimension of unconscious career choices. As noted by Pryuyser (1980), the psychoanalytic vantage point is psychological determinism. It assumes that ‘the work that any person undertakes in almost any environment, excepting only the extremes of slavery and imprisonment, is to some extent determined by personal choice, made at several levels of consciousness’ (p. 61).

According to psychoanalytic theory, people help create their own world both consciously and unconsciously. Childhood experiences (both positive and negative) have a major influence on people's vocational choices. People choose an occupation that enables them to replicate significant childhood experiences, fulfill needs that were unfulfilled in their
childhood and actualise dreams passed on to them by their familial heritage. The ability to choose an appropriate career and function successfully as a professional depends on relationships with key people (especially parents) in childhood (Pines & Yafe-Yanai, 2001). In the next section this perspective is demonstrated in the cases of the entrepreneur and the manager.

**THE ENTREPRENEUR**

An entrepreneur is an individual who is ‘instrumental to the conception of the idea of an enterprise and its implementation’ (Kets de Vries, 1996, p. 856) and is ‘a puzzling figure to large segments of the population in many societies’ (Kets de Vries, 1980, p. 43). As early as 70 years ago, Joseph Schumpeter described the entrepreneur as an innovator and a catalyst of change who continuously does things that have not been done before and do not fit established societal patterns (Schumpeter, 1934; 1965).

Despite controversy (Shaver, 1995), most studies agree that entrepreneurs have distinct personality traits (Aldridge, 1997; Bonnett & Furnham, 1991; Brandstetter, 1997; Cooper & Gimeno-Gascón, 1992; Fraboni & Saltstone, 1990; Frese et al., 2000; Holler, Host, & Kristensen, 1992; Kets de Vries, 1980; 1996; Lynn, 1969; McLelland, 1987; Nicholson, 1988; Plant, 1996; Solomon & Winslow, 1988; Winslow & Solomon, 1987; 1989). Among the traits mentioned most often are high achievement motivation, need for control, independence, assertiveness, initiative, self-confidence, optimism, imagination, persistence in problem solving, single mindedness, leadership, decisiveness, competitiveness, risk taking.

Several studies investigated the effect of culture, gender, education, family background and psychological issues on entrepreneurs (e.g., Cooper, 1986; Cooper & Gimeno-Gascón, 1992; Mul holland, 1996; Vega, 1996). They showed that entrepreneurs tend to be first-born (Hisrich & Brush, 1986), from ethnic and religious minority groups (Kasdan, 1965) and have substantial formal education (Cooper, 1986). They tend to grow up in families where the father was self-employed (e.g., Cromie et al., 1992; Cooper & Gimeno, 1992; Sayigh, 1962) and where the family supported early start-up activities (Dyer & Handler, 1994; Carroll & Mosakowski, 1987).

Psychoanalysis with entrepreneurs helps explain the family dynamic that shapes their personality. These clinical studies suggest that the childhood of entrepreneurs often involves deprivation and turmoil, with such themes as ‘escape from poverty’ and ‘the parent who went away’ dominating their life stories. The father is portrayed as absent, remote, unpredictable and the rejecting mother as strong, controlling and assuming part of the father’s traditional role. The early experiences of rejection, parental inconsistencies and control are assumed to result in considerable controlled rage, hostility, guilt, and suspiciousness of people in position of authority (Kets de Vries, 1976; 1977; 1980; 1996).

**THE MANAGER**

Management is defined as an ‘executive action that transforms external reality consistently with the personal inner theatre of the leader’ (Lapierre, 1991 p. 71). Managers and their psychological make-up have been the focus of a great deal of research since the sixties (Zaleznik, 1966; Levinson, 1982; Zaleznik & Kets de Vries, 1975). Abraham Zaleznik and Manfred Kets de Vries, coming from a psychoanalytic perspective, focused on the ‘internal theatre,’ the inner life and unconscious forces that compel people into the choice of a career in management (e.g., Kets de Vries, 1989; 1995; Zaleznik, 1966; 1990; Zaleznik & Kets de Vries, 1975; 1980).

Among the characteristic traits of high-ranking managers, they mentioned self-confidence, a need for admiring attention, and a high need for power and influence that can at times become addictive (Kets de Vries, 1991). The high need for control is seen as the result of childhood experiences of uncertainty, lack of control and lack of information. A frequent experience is that of an absence of the father as an authoritative figure that is present, attentive and provides solid emotional certainty.

The absence of the father can be the result of the father’s actual death, or more frequently, the father’s physical absence because of frequent travels abroad or a highly demanding career, or else the father’s emotional absence. A high percentage of the fathers of successful managers were themselves successful managers and were distant fathers that did not have an intimate relationship with either their sons or their
wives. To be a successful manager means psychologically to raise yourself in a better way than your real father did, with better control of your life and its uncertainties. Zaleznik described the essence of this experience as being ‘twice born’. People who are unconsciously propelled to be leaders and are successful in their quest are ‘born’ again, raising themselves, becoming ‘their own father’. Their reflexive longing is to be in charge, in control, to be the father. The need for a corrective emotional experience of control becomes so dominant in the internal theatre of many managers that it often becomes an obsession (Zaleznik, 1991).

ENTREPRENEURS AND MANAGERS COMPARED

While psychoanalytic writings on managers tend not to mention entrepreneurs and those written about entrepreneurs tend not to mention managers, their respective descriptions suggest a number of significant points of comparison. One is the relationship with the father. While both the fathers of entrepreneurs and managers are described as absent, the father of entrepreneurs is described as rejecting, unpredictable and remote; the father of managers, successful managers themselves, are absent due to highly demanding career. This difference may be critical for the psychological development of their sons. In the entrepreneur, the childhood experiences of deprivation and turmoil and father’s rejection are likely to result in negative feelings towards the father and towards people and structures that symbolise the father – people in authority and hierarchical organisations. In the manager, the childhood absence of an admired father is likely to result in identification with the father and with people and institutions that symbolise the father – people in authority and hierarchical organisations.

Based on this reasoning it could be expected that entrepreneurs and managers will have different feelings toward their fathers and toward authority, hierarchy and structure in general – feelings that will manifest in their different career choices and different expectations from their careers. Expectations that if not realised may lead to burnout.

Understanding the relationship between a career choice, disappointment in one’s expectations from that chosen career, and burnout requires the joining of two theoretical frameworks: psychoanalytic theory and existential theory.

According to the existential theory (e.g., Becker, 1973; Frankl, 1976; Yalom, 1980) people need to believe that their life is meaningful; that the things they do – and consequently they themselves – are important and significant. According to Victor Frankl (1976), ‘the striving to find meaning in one’s life is the primary motivational force in man’ (p. 154). Ernest Becker (1973) wrote that people’s need to believe that the things they do are meaningful is their way of dealing with the angst caused by facing their own mortality. In order to be able to deny death they need to feel heroic, to know that their lives are meaningful, that they matter in the larger ‘cosmic’ scheme of things. According to Becker, how people choose to become ‘heroes’ depends to a large extent on their culture prescribed ‘hero system’. In previous eras, religion was the most commonly chosen hero system. Today, one of the most frequently chosen alternatives is work. People who choose this alternative are trying to derive from their work a sense of meaning for their entire life.

If one accepts the premise that many people today are trying to derive a sense of existential significance from their work, the next question to address is why they choose to do it through a particular career? Why does one person try to achieve a sense of meaning by being a manager and another by being an entrepreneur? As noted earlier, psychoanalytic theory answers this question by emphasising the role of unconscious forces that reflect the individual’s personal and familial history (e.g., Kets de Vries & Associates, 1991; Obholzer & Roberts, 1997). People choose an occupation that enables them to replicate significant childhood experiences, gratify needs that were ungratified in their childhood and actualise occupational dreams and professional expectations passed on to them by their familial heritage (e.g., Pines & Yafe-Yanai, 2001). When the choice of a career involves such significant issues, people enter it with high hopes and expectations, high ego involvement and passion. The highest passions tend to lie where there is ‘a metaphoric wound’.

Professional success and realisation of these expectations help heal this ‘metaphoric wound’. But when, instead of healing the childhood trauma, the career re-enacts it, the result is burnout – the physical
emotional and mental exhaustion and deep sense of failure characterising highly motivated individuals when they realise that no matter how hard they try, they cannot derive from their work the sense of significance it was expected to provide (Pines, 1993).

In the recent study that compared Israeli entrepreneurs and managers, a number of similarities (e.g., a high level of commitment) as well as differences (entrepreneurs’ greater risk taking and greater love of challenge) were revealed (Pines et al., 2002). More importantly, for the purpose of the current paper, managers were found to have positive identification with their father and better relationship with both parents as compared to the entrepreneurs’ negative identification with father and greater identification with work.

In the current, follow-up study, the validity of these findings – that were based on an analysis of responses to questionnaires and a total of 100 participants – was examined in the case of only two individuals: an Israeli entrepreneur and an Israeli manager. Instead of a methodology that emphasises the universal, the methodology chosen was one that emphasises the individual and the unique, namely clinical case studies. This methodology enables an in-depth examination (including the influence of unconscious forces) of themes that were unearthed in the questionnaire study.

The manager and the entrepreneur to be described, in addition to being Israeli and born in Israel have other things in common: both of them are in their mid-forties, tall and handsome. Both of them are highly successful professionally, married, and are committed husbands and fathers. Both of them are also second-generation Holocaust survivors. And, finally, both of them came to therapy complaining about burnout. However, one (the manager) has graduated therapy and is very happy in his professional life and personal life, while the other one (the entrepreneur) is still in therapy and struggling with the decision where to go next professionally.

Often, with men of this age, burnout (and the feelings of disappointment, failure, hopelessness, helplessness and depression associated with it) was triggered by a mid-life crisis. Like burnout, the mid-life crisis tends to happen to men with high ideals and motivation. These men start out convinced that they can make a major contribution to society and thus (unconsciously) they expect to derive a sense of existential significance from their work. When they reach middle age, they realise that their contribution may be far smaller than they had hoped. They start feeling empty and disillusioned, painfully aware of their mortality and the passage of time – time remaining and time spent. The feelings of emptiness, disillusionment and depression become translated to burnout (Pines & Aronson, 1988) with its associated lowered sense of accomplishment (Maslach, 1982).

Manager

Dan, 45 years old, big framed and at that time overweight, came to therapy complaining about anxiety attacks and burnout. After seven years as a manager in a company that negotiated between food producers and food packagers and shippers, he felt tired, discouraged and disillusioned. He felt he wasn’t contributing anything significant, and decided it was time to quit.

Dan was married and had two high-school-aged children. (He wanted more children, but his wife refused.) Dan fell in love with his wife because she seemed ‘mysterious and unapproachable’. After 20 years of marriage his main complaint was the lack of true intimacy between them.

Dan is the youngest of three children of parents who are both Holocaust survivors. His two sisters are four and eight years older. Dan describes himself as the ‘overprotected youngest child’, ‘wrapped in cotton’.

Dan’s parents were born in Poland before the rise of the Third Reich. They met in Israel after the war, and seem content in their marriage. His mother, the middle of five children, lost most of her family in a concentration camp. She herself survived the horrible ordeal, but it left her very anxious. Her anxieties focused on food and her love (that was at times suffocating) was expressed primarily by food.

Dan’s father was also the middle of five children. He was 20 when the war started. He and his mother were taken to a concentration camp, while his father and brothers managed to escape from Poland. His father never came back to his mother and joined instead an ultra-orthodox religious group. His experiences during the war left Dan’s father closed and hardened. He never talked about his experiences in the concentration camp and he didn’t talk about...
other things either. However, he became a very successful contractor, building big public buildings for the community. Dan’s father is considered a good manager and a man of principle. Because of his work-related travels, Dan’s father was absent from home a lot. As a child Dan remembers sitting on the grass waiting for his father, anxious that he might never come back (like his grandfather). Dan felt that his father was distant, dominant and critical and that his love was contingent on Dan’s success. Dan worked very hard to succeed (in sports, in school, in the army, at work) wanting desperately to get his father’s approval, but the approval never came.

Given his need for his father’s approval, it is not surprising that Dan chose to follow in his father’s footsteps and become a manager. Given the importance of food to his mother (very common among Holocaust survivors), it is not surprising that Dan chose to work in the food industry. (In addition, like other members of his family, he struggled with being overweight all his life.) Given the reasonably good marriage between his parents it is also not surprising that Dan was reasonably successful in combining these two aspects of his work.

As a manager, Dan had to negotiate the needs and demands of two organisations: the farmers who raised chicken and a meat packaging and marketing agency that was distributing the processed meat. Each one of these organisations was headed by a powerful director that Dan respected greatly. It was very important for him to gain the two directors’ affection and respect. During the 7 years of his work as a manager Dan found himself torn between the conflicting demands of these two ‘fathers’ and failing, just like he failed to achieve his own father’s recognition. This failure was the major impetus for his burnout.

Dan’s family background (the youngest and only male child of Jewish parents who are both Holocaust survivors) helps explain the dominance of anxiety (in the form of fear of death) in his life and the choice of food as a way to cope with this anxiety.

The first question addressed in Dan’s therapy was why he chose his career and how was he expected to derive from it a sense of existential significance. This question was addressed with the help of a vocational genogram (Dagley, 1984).

Given the importance of professional success to his father, it was clear that Dan had to choose a career in which he would have a high-ranking position. He followed his father’s expectations by becoming a successful army commander and later on, a manager. (The choice of a career in management can also be attributed to his father’s psychological absence, as noted by Kets de Vries (1989). The content of his occupation – food – is related to his mother’s preoccupation with food. Given his parents’ reasonably happy marriage, Dan was able to combine successfully his father’s and mother’s vocational legacy. But there was something else Dan needed from his work – he needed approval from a father figure, the kind of approval he was unable to receive from his own father. Receiving such parental approval would have given Dan a sense of success and existential significance.

The second question Dan addressed was why he felt a sense of failure in his existential quest, and how this sense of failure was related to his burnout?

As is often the case, the way Dan chose to receive the parental approval he so desperately needed was guaranteed to help him relive his childhood trauma rather than heal it. Dan chose to work for two ‘fathers’ he admired, who had conflicting interests and expectations of him. This way he was guaranteed to disappoint at least one of them. But he succeeded in disappointing them both – thus re-enacting his trauma of disappointment and disapproval by his father. The disappointment and disapproval of these two father figures were major contributors to his burnout. Dan felt he was ‘not contributing anything significant’. His whole life seemed meaningless and inconsequential. Dan’s death anxiety, frequent among men his age was much more severe, as is common among second-generation Holocaust survivors.

The last issue addressed in Dan’s therapy concerned the changes that needed to take place for him to be able to derive existential significance from his work.

Given Dan’s unresolved issues with his father, it seemed clear that this should be the focus of his therapy. For a number of highly emotional sessions, Dan talked about his father, his longing for his father’s approval (both as a child and as an adult) and his great pain at never receiving it. After working through Dan’s fear of his father’s devastating criticism and lack of approval, Dan was encouraged to approach his father and have more personal conversations with...
him. In therapy he would prepare lists of questions to ask his father, and discuss what he would do if his father refused to answer them, or hurt him in some other way. But his father never refused to answer his questions. Actually, he was delighted to be asked about his life and about his feelings and thoughts.

As Dan’s father started opening up, he first talked about his experiences as a child, then he talked about his experiences in Israel after the war, later about his experiences during the war, and finally about himself. Only then did Dan dare ask his father about his feelings towards him. To his astonishment, Dan discovered that his father was very proud of him and that what Dan considered ‘criticisms’ were his father’s misguided attempts to be helpful. When Dan’s father discovered how painful his ‘helpful’ suggestions were, he immediately stopped making them, instead giving compliments and encouragement. With time, the relationship between Dan and his father became increasingly more open, warm and accepting.

This big change in Dan’s relationship with his father caused a significant change in what he wanted in a career. He still knew he wanted to manage (like his father) and he knew he wanted to be involved in the food industry (his mother’s legacy) but he no longer needed a father figure to give him approval. He wanted to build companies (like his father built buildings), and manage them. Dan was also able to master his death anxiety and direct it towards living a more full and rewarding life.

Dan became the director of a company that produced and packaged milk products. The company was in deep financial trouble and Dan saw in this situation the kind of challenge that would give him a sense of existential significance. Dan started work as a consultant, but once his job was done, he could not move on. He simply enjoyed too much both the work and the admiration he received for doing it so well.

Once the work sphere of his life was taken care of, Dan was ready to take on the other sphere that he felt was also burned out – his marriage. Dan’s feelings of being unappreciated and criticised, which he experienced painfully in his relationship with his father, were replicated in Dan’s relationship with his wife. Dan admired his intellectually curious wife and felt inferior to her. As an ‘overprotected’ child, somewhat ‘suffocated’ by his mother’s love, it was only natural for Dan to fall in love with a woman who seemed ‘mysterious and unapproachable’ (a woman like that is sure not to suffocate). In addition, his wife whose parents were also Holocaust survivors was repelled by food, in obvious contrast to his mother whose love was expressed primarily by food. At the end of his therapy Dan understood how he was replicating in his marriage his unresolved childhood issues (Pines, 1999) and was ready for either couple therapy (if his wife was willing to work on their relationship) or for a divorce (if she did not). He now wanted an intimate and loving relationship, a relationship in which he would be respected and appreciated. He believed that he deserved such a relationship.

Dan’s wife did not want to work on the marriage but did not want a divorce either. The marriage was dead for her, but still provided the kind of security she did not feel she could do without. The crisis (initiated by Dan) happened when Dan revealed that he knew his wife was unfaithful to him. Since in the Israeli religious court this is a very serious offence, Dan was able to receive the divorce. Some time later he fell in love with a woman who adored him and felt that he was the most wonderful thing that has ever happened to her. Dan, who also lost a significant amount of weight and became deeply involved in intellectual pursuits, felt happier than he ever did.

Entrepreneur
Avner, 43 years old, tall and handsome with dark hair and skin, came to therapy complaining about depression and burnout. After 20 years as the head of an electronics company he built, he felt depressed and discouraged. The company wasn’t taking off and he was no longer excited about his work. Maybe it was time to quit.

Avner is married and has three children ranging in age from high school to kindergarten. He is not too close to his children and blames in part his wife’s over involvement with them that left him out. Avner fell in love with his wife because she was bright, sharp, direct, outspoken and a giving person. He knew right away that she was the one he wanted to build a family with. After 18 years of marriage he still feels they have a good marriage, based on deep friendship, but is distressed by his wife’s over involvement and lack of boundaries with their children and by her lack of tact and sensitivity towards him. These stresses are clearly
related to the things he found at first most attractive about her (Pines, 1996).

Avner’s father is a Holocaust survivor. He was born in Poland to a very wealthy family. His father was a successful businessman who traded automobile parts. His mother was a housewife and their home was elegant and full of art treasures. The war started when he was 13 and his safe and comfortable world was shattered. His parents were killed by the Nazis and he survived the war hiding his Jewish identity. After the establishment of the state of Israel in 1948 he came to Israel and started working as a mechanic for a public company. He never talked about his experiences during the war. Avner describes him as a difficult man, intelligent but closed, ascetic, unhappy and nervous, with dark moods, a father who never showed love.

His mother, the middle of three children, came from a much more humble background. Her parents managed to escape Poland to what was then Palestine before the Holocaust. Her father was a labourer and her mother a housewife. She herself was born during the war, a period of financial stresses and anxiety in Israel. When she grew up she became an accountant. Avner describes her as very picky and a ‘nag’.

Avner is the oldest of two sons. His brother is 2 years younger and works with Avner in his company. Avner describes a very difficult and stormy relationship with his father in his childhood. As a result of it, he left his home at age 14 to go to a boarding school: ‘I just came to them and said that this is what I’m going to do. They didn’t object. I think that my father was actually relieved.’

Avner’s parents met in Israel and have had a stormy and rather unhappy marriage. The boys were cared for, but did not feel loved. Avner describes his father as a ‘bad father’ with whom he never had a real conversation: ‘He never cared about or appreciated anything I did, was always angry and cared more about the shine on his car than about me.’ Avner did not respect his father as a child and does not respect him as an adult. Despite his engineering skills, which he attributes to his father, Avner does not feel that he received anything else from his depressed, closed and critical father. After leaving home at 14, he never came back, and even now has difficulty coming to his parents for a visit or talking to them, especially to his father.

Right after his army service Avner started his business, manufactures electronic equipment that is now sold all around the globe. Avner does not like the managerial aspect of his work: ‘It bores me to death,’ he says. Some aspects of managing people are particularly difficult. After analysing those difficulties Avner realised that he has great difficulty with employees who reminded him of his father. Two of these ‘father figures’ gave him difficulty for years, drained his energy and caused havoc in the organisation. His difficulties with them were a major contributor to his burnout.

The first question addressed in Avner’s therapy was why he chose his career and how he expected to derive from it a sense of existential significance. This question was addressed with the help of a vocational genogram (Dagley, 1984).

Given his skills in electronics, it seemed natural for Avner to choose a career in this area. His grandfather’s ‘occupational genes’ may have contributed to an interest in a business. The choice of entrepreneurship can be explained by the negative relationship with father that made him feel like a psychological orphan (Kets de Vries, 1989; Pines et al., 2002) Given his parents’ rather unhappy marriage, Avner was not able to combine his father’s (mechanics) and mother’s (bookkeeping) vocational legacy. He had to choose, and he chose to follow his grandfather’s (business selling parts) and father’s (mechanics) legacy. But there was something else Avner needed from his work, something that propelled him unconsciously. He needed to repeat his frustrating childhood experience with a father figure whom he will be able to prove something he was unable to prove to his father – that he is right and worthy of respect. That would have given him a sense of significance.

The second question Avner addressed was why he felt a sense of failure in his existential quest, and how this sense of failure was related to his burnout?

The way Avner chose to receive the acknowledgement he so desperately needed was guaranteed to help him relive his childhood trauma rather than heal it. Avner was extremely considerate towards his frustrating ‘father figures’ investing in them endless hours and energy, that he now sees would have been better spent with his family. But rather than being impressed and convinced, they
became a major cause of stress and problems in the organisation. It is worth adding that Avner's anxiety and depression are frequent among second-generation Holocaust survivors.

The last issue addressed in Avner’s therapy concerned the changes that needed to take place for him to be able to derive again existential significance from his work.

Given Avner’s unresolved issues with his father, it seemed clear that this should be the focus of his therapy. At first Avner had no childhood memories of his father, but as therapy progressed he started having extremely painful memories and was able to talk about his father and his frustration, pain and anger as a child and an adolescent. Avner was not able to approach his father and have more personal conversations with him. The painful memories were too much of an obstacle.

However, Avner was able to master his depression and anxiety and was very excited about the changes he was making in his life. He still feels he wants to make a significant change in his career. He now knows he does not want to manage. He wants to be an entrepreneur. A big international company approached Avner and suggested taking over his company. He is considering this offer seriously, but wants to make sure the change will offer him the kind of challenge that would give him a sense of existential significance, rather than make him a manager of someone else’s company. ‘When I started building my company I couldn’t wait for the morning to break. I want to get back this enthusiasm. I now realise that I pushed the company to new projects because I needed the change and not because the company needed it. A company needs time to integrate, but I keep pushing it to grow because this is more exciting for me. The problem is that if I sell the company, they will want me to remain, and I could never imagine myself as an employee. I need the challenge of an entrepreneurial project to feel alive.’

Avner, who is still very attached to his wife and admires her intellect, felt that she was not sensitive to his feelings (the way his parents were). In therapy he came to understand how he was replicating in his marriage his unresolved childhood issues (Pines, 1999). The realisation enabled a change in his relationship with his children and his wife, so the two of them were now ‘closer than they have ever been before’.

**DISCUSSION**

Dan’s and Avner’s cases demonstrate the basic assumption of the existential perspective, that the root cause of burnout lies in people’s need to believe that the things they do are important and make a significant contribution. Both of them burned out when they felt that they were no longer making significant contribution in their work. Dan’s choice of a career in management and Avner’s choice of a career as an entrepreneur are explained by psychoanalytic theory.

Like most people, Dan and Avner chose their career because of both conscious and unconscious reasons. The unconscious determinants of his vocational choice were internalised images of people and relationships (in both their cases, primarily with their fathers) that reflected their personal and familial history as second-generation Holocaust survivors. Dan and Avner chose an occupation that enabled them to replicate significant childhood experiences of either deprivation and longing or frustration and pain with their fathers.

Based on an existential-psychodynamic perspective, it was essential to address the following three questions in analysing the causes of Dan’s and Avner’s burnout and in treating it:

1. Why did Dan and Avner choose their career and how was it expected to provide existential significance?
2. Why did Dan and Avner feel a sense of failure in their existential quest, and how was this perceived failure related to their burnout?
3. What changes needed to take place for Dan and Avner to be able to derive a sense of existential significance from their work?

These questions were addressed in the context of individual therapy, that in Dan’s case took about 6 months of weekly sessions and in Avner’s case, after 4 months, is still ongoing. Once Dan’s burnout problem was solved, he was very excited about his new work and his new intimate relationship. Avner feels excited about the changes he has already made, and is sure he will eventually figure out what path he wants to take.

The psychoanalytic-existential framework helped Dan and Avner define more clearly where they were stuck, become more accepting of their depression, anxiety and confusion, and make a connection between their burnout, their family background, and
their failed existential search. Figuring out the connection between all these pieces of the puzzle helped Dan make a career choice he seemed truly excited about and helped Avner be clearer about his preferred career choice.

In summary, choosing a career is a complex and multifaceted process that involves both conscious and unconscious choices. The addition of the component of unconscious selection is critical to the full understanding of career choices and the prediction of success and satisfaction in that choice. Identification figures (primarily the parents) and the individual’s relationships with them influence the content of a chosen career, its context (being a hired employee or an entrepreneur) and the level of commitment to the work. Bringing up to consciousness the characteristics of these internalisations makes the process of choosing or changing a career much easier. It also ensures greater satisfaction from the chosen career.

Within the research literature on managers and entrepreneurs, little attention focused on comparing these two ‘leaders of the organisational stage’. The clinical comparison offered in the current paper, as tentative as it is, demonstrates the theoretical and practical importance of such a comparison. It suggests that the unconscious forces that influence managers and entrepreneurs choice of a career and the way they choose to derive a sense of existential significance can and should be addressed in the context of career counselling. Career counsellors should approach managers and entrepreneurs differently, because they are likely to be struggling with different psychological issues. The focus of the work with managers should be on making a connection with the (real) father (Pines, 2000). The focus of the work with entrepreneurs should be on finding positive aspects in the negative internalisation of the parent (Pines, 2002).

Identifying the unconscious component in the choice of a career is a very useful tool in career selection and development. The technique that is recommended for career counsellors is career genogram (family tree). Like a regular genogram, a career genogram describes the individual’s family tree. But in a career genogram the focus is on the occupations, hobbies, career preferences, visions, and self-actualisation of all the relevant family members. Questions that are addressed include the names of parents and siblings, their sex, age, occupations and hobbies, the relationships with and between the parents, parents’ occupational satisfaction and disappointments, the individual’s own career history, vision, and sense of significance derived from work. Other scholars have suggested expanding the career genogram to include three generations (Gysbers et al., 1998, ch. 9) and adding questions about dominant values, myths, as well as ‘ghosts or legends’ in the family (Dagley, 1984).

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The level of professionalism in sport has been increasing over a long period of time and has resulted in extended amounts of time elite athletes now devote to their sporting commitments. As a consequence athletes often find it difficult pursuing an educational or non-sport career pathway at the same time as pursuing success in their chosen sport. Several studies (Cavin-Stice & Knoth, cited in Lavallee, Golby, & Lavallee, in press; Svoboda & Vanek, cited in Lavallee, Golby, & Lavallee, in press; Werthner & Ortlick, 1986) have reported the prevalence of athletes experiencing difficulties with transition processes and due to these findings, career assistance programs have been developed and implemented internationally. Examples of such programs in Australia include the Olympic Job Opportunities Program (OJOP), the Athlete Career and Education (ACE) program, and career assistance programs provided to contracted players of the Australian Football League (AFL) and Australian Cricket Board (ACB) delivered by Coyne Didsbury (CD) Sports. The general aim of these programs is to assist athletes in enhancing opportunities to develop their educational and/or vocational skills while balancing the demands of their sporting careers (Gordon & Lavallee, in press).

EVALUATION OF A CAREER ASSISTANCE PROGRAM FOR YOUTH-AGED CRICKETERS

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The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of a career assistance program for youth-aged male cricketers. Prior to and immediately following a 14-week program an experimental and control group of under 17 male cricketers were administered the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale, Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status (Identity Foreclosure) Scale, and Career Thoughts Inventory (CTI). The experimental group reported significant improvements in career goal decidedness, assistance with specific career skills, increased confidence and decision-making ability, increased awareness of career options, and increased awareness of a need for a career outside sport. The preliminary evidence supports career assistance programming among youth-aged athletes.
While advances in the provision of career assistance for athletes is becoming more evident very little research has been devoted to evaluation of these interventions. Two exceptions are the ACE program evaluations of Gorely, Lavallee, Bruce, Teale, and Lavallee (2001) and North and Lavallee (in press) in Australia and the UK respectively. Results from both reports were generally positive in terms of program content and delivery; however, neither study considered elements related to transition experiences of athletes, which are affected by many factors often unique to the sporting role. These include different reasons for transitions (Lavallee, Grove, & Gordon, 1997; Werthner & Orlick, 1986; Sinclair & Orlick, 1993; Taylor & Ogilvie, 1994), amount of transition planning (Crook & Robertson, 1991; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990; Sinclair & Orlick, 1993) and the degree and effects of both athletic identity (Grove, Lavallee, & Gordon, 1997; Webb, Nasco, Riley, & Headrick, 1998) and identity foreclosure (Murphy, Petitpas, & Brewer, 1996).

It has been established that athletic identity, the degree to which one identifies with the athletic role (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993) is associated with the quality of career transitions. For example, Webb et al. (1998) found that athletic identity was related to retirement outcomes on the factors of self-esteem and feelings of uncontrollability. Grove et al. (1997) reported that the amount of adjustment and the time taken to adjust emotionally and socially after retirement was positively related to the degree of athletic identity. Grove et al. also observed that with a higher degree of athletic identity, there was less pre-retirement planning.

A strong or exclusive athletic identity can lead to a state of identity foreclosure, which Marcia (1966) defined as a characteristic of individuals who hold a set of beliefs or ideals about a component of their identity, which has yet to be challenged. Lack of personal searching and inflexibility are also characteristics of foreclosed individuals who subsequently do not get the chance to fully explore possible roles and behaviours that are necessary for proper identity development (Murphy et al., 1996). Young athletes, for example, can be at a stage where they see themselves pursuing an athletic career exclusively, and may not actively pursue other avenues because their path to achievement has not yet been challenged. In Brown and Hartley’s (1998) study, college athletes who indicated a career choice in the direction of professional sport, and were foreclosed to this idea, showed less career maturity than those who showed interest in other vocations. Similar trends were reported by Murphy et al. (1996), Brown, Glastetter-Fender and Shelton (2000) and Cohen, Chartrand and Jowdy (1995) who found a relationship between level of identity and career decision making. Specifically, they found that those with the least career decision-making difficulties were those with the most successful identity resolution and, in contrast, chronically undecided individuals had the least successful identity resolution.

Recently researchers have repeatedly reported the problem of athletes’ tendencies not to explore career opportunities outside of sport during their athletic careers. For example, Lavallee, Gordon and Grove (1996), who profiled the career beliefs of retired Australian athletes, found evidence of a resistance to plan for post-athletic retirement. North and Lavallee (in press) also reported a reluctance among younger athletes, who perceived themselves to have a significant amount of time left until they retire, to develop concrete plans for their future career. Although some athletes approaching retirement had made plans for life after sport, North and Lavallee (in press) reported that ‘as the demands of the “performance environment” increase, the tendency to pursue sport in all its senses may also increase, affecting to a greater extent the younger athletes coming through the elite sporting system’ (p. 12).

In view of the above career transition experiences reported among younger athletes, the purpose of the current study was to evaluate the effects of a career assistance program on youth-aged athletes. Specifically, the Western Australian Cricket Association (WACA) wished to examine the outcomes of a third-party intervention delivered by TMP Worldwide on particular self-identity characteristics of selected under 17-year-old male cricketers.

**Method**

**Participants**

The sample ($N = 31$) was comprised of male athletes identified by the WACA as talented junior cricketers. The experimental group ($N = 20$) consisted of those
selected in a preliminary squad for a state cricket carnival. Ages ranged from 15 to 16 with a mean age of 15.78 years (SD = .42). Response rate for this group was 69%. The control group (N = 11) consisted of cricketers also identified as talented by the WACA, but who just missed out on selection for the state squad. Ages for the control group were between 15 and 16 with a mean age of 15.64 years (SD = .50). Response rate for the control group was 42%. It should be noted that due to the small sample size, the results should be read with caution.

Instrumentation

The AIMS questionnaire (Brewer et al., 1993) was used to assess athletic identity and is comprised of ten items. Using a seven-point Likert scale participants provided a rating according to the degree to which they agreed with each statement anchored by ‘strongly disagree’ and ‘strongly agree’. Scores for each item were summed to provide an index of Athletic Identity, with high scores representing strong or exclusive athletic identity. The AIMS has previously been shown to be a reliable and valid measure of the Athletic Identity construct (Brewer et al., 1993) and in this study internal consistency for administration was .73.

Identity foreclosure was measured using the six items relating to Foreclosure in the OM-EIS (Adams, Shea, & Fitch, 1979). These items also use a seven-point Likert scale with the same ranges as the AIMS. A score for Identity Foreclosure is determined by summing the scores from each item, with high scores representing high Identity Foreclosure. Adams et al. (1979) demonstrated high internal consistency for the Foreclosure scale and the alpha level for internal consistency of the Foreclosure items used in this study was .75. Because participants reported having difficulty with two questions and because these items decreased the reliability of the instrument they were removed from subsequent analysis.

Career thoughts were assessed using the Career Thoughts Inventory (CTI; Sampson, Peterson, Lenz, Reardon, & Saunders, 1996a; 1996b) which relies on the premise that while dysfunctional career thinking cannot be measured directly, such thinking can be inferred from an individual’s endorsement of the test statements which reflect a variety of dysfunctional career thoughts (Sampson et al., 1996a). Specifically, the test measures four factors. First, there is a global indicator of dysfunctional career thinking, the CTI total, which is the total amount of negative career thoughts determined by summing the scores on each item of the CTI (N = 48 items). Second, there is Decision-Making Confusion (DMC; 14 items) which relates to the inability to initiate or sustain the decision-making process. Third, Commitment Anxiety (CA; 11 items) measures the inability to make a commitment to a specific career choice, accompanied by general anxiety about the decision-making process. Finally, there is External Conflict (EC; 5 items), which relates to the inability to balance the importance of input from significant people with self-perceptions (Sampson et al., 1996b). For each of the latter three sub-components, the total scores are found by summing the scores for the corresponding individual items. Previous testing with the CTI found high internal consistency for each of the four constructs (Sampson et al., 1998). Internal consistency for this administration of the CTI generated reliability coefficients of .95 (CTI total), .89 (DMC), .76 (CA) and .70 (EC). For this study, the questionnaire also included questions of whether participants were involved in career counselling before the intervention and proportions for the experimental and control groups were, respectively, 21.6% and 27.3%.

An intervention evaluation questionnaire, Player Feedback Inventory, was also administered to the experimental group to assess participants’ opinions of the career assistance program. Specifically, players were asked if the program helped them, and if so, how; whether they would recommend this type of program to other athletes; and what could be changed.
to improve the program.

Feedback from the players and parents of these players, regarding the Career Assistance program was gathered by TMP Worldwide. This feedback will be referred to in the results section.

**Procedures**

At Time 1 (pre-intervention) both groups completed the AIMS, Identity Foreclosure and CTI instruments. While the control group pursued normal attendance at school and club cricket, the experimental group additionally participated in the career assistance program for a period of 14 weeks (six sessions plus a summary session). At Time 2 (post-intervention) both groups again completed the same instruments and the experimental group was administered the Player Feedback Inventory.

The career assistance program explored issues such as career models, confidence, values, goal setting, skills and qualities, ideal jobs, study choices, résumé and interview preparation, networking and applying for jobs (TMP Worldwide, 2001, see Appendix 1 for more detailed explanation of topics covered in the workshops).

**RESULTS**

**Quantitative Analysis**

A mixed models ANOVA (analysis of variance) was conducted on the measures Athletic Identity, Identity Foreclosure, and Career Thoughts Inventory (CTI total, Decision-Making Confusion, Commitment Anxiety, and External Conflict). Specifically a two (Treatment: treatment, control) by two (Time: pre-intervention, post-intervention) ANOVA for each construct was performed. Results indicated that there were no significant main effects or interaction effects for Athletic Identity, Identity Foreclosure, CTI total, or CTI Commitment Anxiety.

For the CTI construct Decision-Making Confusion, there were no significant main effects for time or group. There was, however, a significant interaction between group and time ($F = 4.33$, $p = .046$, $\eta^2 = .13$) which indicates that scores for Decision-Making Confusion changed at a different rate over time for the control groups, as illustrated in Figure 1. Comparison of means showed that means for the control group increased between Time 1 and Time 2, and they decreased for the experimental group. These changes were not significantly different, as indicated by paired samples t-tests for the control ($t = -2.09, p = .06$) and experimental ($t = .84, p = .41$) groups.

External Conflict scores were significantly different for the main effects of time ($F = 10.89$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2 = .273$) and group ($F = 6.29$, $p = .02$, $\eta^2 = .178$). The interaction effect between time and group ($F = 14.98$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .341$) was also significant. Effect size was good, with the main effects and interaction accounting for 79.2% of the total variance. A significant difference for the interaction effect implies that scores for External Conflict, illustrated in Figure 2, were significantly different pre- and post-intervention. A paired sample t-test showed that means were significantly different pre- and post-intervention for the experimental group ($t = 5.80$, $p < .01$) but not the control group ($t = -.38$, $p = .71$). Comparison of means shows that the mean score for External Conflict significantly decreased from pre-intervention ($M = 8.75$, $SD = 3.70$) to post-intervention ($M = 4.71$, $SD = 2.63$) for the experimental group, but not for the control group. The amount of dysfunctional thinking in the area of External Conflict decreased for the experimental group.

Chi square tests for goodness of fit were performed to determine any significant differences between levels of decidedness of participants’ career goals. The three levels were yes, unsure and no. The
analyses used the frequencies of responses at the three levels for Time 1 as the Expected Frequencies for responses at Time 2, to examine whether there was a difference between responses at Time 1 and 2. This was performed for both the experimental and control groups. Chi square analyses showed that there were no differences for responses pre- and post-intervention for the control group. There were also no differences for the experimental group between no responses and unsure responses, but there was a significant change from unsure (pre-intervention, 8 responses, post-intervention 6 responses) to yes responses (pre-intervention 11 responses to post-intervention 13 responses), $\chi^2 = 4.32$, with a significance level of .04.

**Descriptive statistics**

Descriptive statistics from the Player Feedback surveys were positive. The first question asked whether a number of factors were positively influenced by participation in the program. The percentages of those responding yes ranged from 40% to 90% ($M = 63.1\%$) and only 5% said that the program didn’t help them in any way. Participants were almost unanimous (95%) in recommending this type of program be used in the future.

Results from the descriptive analyses were supported by feedback collected by the program providers, TMP Worldwide, who were interested in knowing which specific aspects of their program were most useful. Participants tended to prefer the practical parts, such as résumés and interviews, followed by assessing skills and qualities, and goal setting/work choices. The least useful parts tended to be the less practical elements such as lectures on values, coping styles, and career models.

**Qualitative Analysis**

Content analysis of the Player Feedback data arranged all participant responses first into lower, then higher order categories. An independent researcher, trained in the area of content analysis, created a separate categorisation of the same data which resulted in an 87.5% inter-rater agreement. The researchers then discussed the responses that they disagreed on and placed them into categories that both researchers agreed were suitable. A summary of these data is illustrated in Table 1.

Four main categories that were classed as positive were identified. These were: Help with specific career skills, Awareness of a need for a career outside sport, Increased confidence or decision-making ability, and Increased career options.

Help with specific career skills was further divided into four main categories. These were networking (1 response), specific career information (4 responses) e.g. ‘The course displayed different avenues of seeking a career’ and ‘(provided me with) career books’, skill identification (2 responses) for example, ‘It showed me what to do with the skills I have’, and résumé/interview preparation (4 responses) for example, ‘(I was) provided with information towards interviews and résumés’ and ‘Résumé part was helpful’.

There were 16 responses (from 10 participants) for the category Awareness of a need for a career outside of sport. Examples are:

‘It helped me think of my life outside of sport.’

‘… people that play sport and are young and good think that sport is the only thing around. But when they came to this program they found out different.’

‘I definitely know now that I need a career outside of sport.’

There were 12 responses (from 12 participants) in the category of Increased confidence or decision-making ability. Examples of these responses are:
### Table 1: Content Analysis of Player Feedback Surveys

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive feedback</th>
<th>Number of Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Help with specific career skills (11)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Networking (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. ‘Showed me how to network.’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Specific career information (4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. ‘The course displayed different avenues of seeking a career.’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Skill identification (2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. ‘It showed me what I could do with the skills I have.’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Résumé/Interview preparation (4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. ‘It helps you look for and succeed in future jobs and interviews.’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Awareness of need for career outside of sport (16)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. ‘I recommend it for other athletes so that they don’t think they can play sport for the rest of their lives.’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Increased confidence or decision-making ability (12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. ‘I am more confident now’ and ‘It is now easier to make a decision.’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Increased career option awareness (12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. ‘(The program) can give a good perspective of what is out there.’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recommendations for the program in future</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. General (15)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Speakers from university and TAFE.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Less skills identity and more information about university courses or occupations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Not in as much detail.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Introduce it to earlier age groups.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Recommend it particularly to elite squads.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- More interview preparation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Recommend it only for sports you can get paid for.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Work with people one-on-one as well as in a group.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Try to make it a little more exciting (include some games or something).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Just a more general program.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I found this program (to be) very beneficial and highly recommend it to other athletes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Nothing to change.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- (Don’t need to) change anything, it is an effective program.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Recommend the program for all athletes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Negative (8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Session length and quantity (5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. ‘More breaks during the two hours’, ‘shorten the sessions’ and ‘not as many sessions.’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Other (3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. ‘maybe make the program optional as some people I spoke to said there wasn’t much in it for them’, ‘recommend the program depending on how these athletes are, if they are not interested then don’t bother’ and ‘recommend the program but not in that much detail.’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Neutral/No change (10)                                                       |                     |
|                                                                              |                     |
|                                                                              |                     |
|                                                                              |                     |
|                                                                              |                     |
|                                                                              |                     |
|                                                                              |                     |

*Note that the numbers in parentheses indicate the number of responses in that category.

*A more detailed table is available in the unpublished thesis *Evaluation of a career assistance program in youth-aged cricketers* by K. Bobridge, The University of Western Australia.*
‘I can do what I want to do.’

‘Helped me realise what jobs are available to me and which jobs suit me. Before the sessions I didn’t have a clue about what I wanted to do. Now I have a fair idea.’

‘I will have a better chance of getting a job.’

There were also 12 responses (from 10 participants) in the category of Increased career options awareness. Examples of these include:

‘The program broadened my view, opportunities and possibilities.’

‘Made me think of careers I wouldn’t have (thought of) previously.’

‘Gave me a good idea of the careers available to me.’

Negative feedback included recommendations related to length or quantity of the sessions, including reducing the length of the sessions (3), having more breaks during the session (1) and having fewer sessions (1). Other negative feedback was varied, and example responses were:

‘Maybe make the program optional as some people I spoke to said there wasn’t much in it for them.’

‘(I would recommend) the program depending on how these athletes are, if they are not interested then don’t bother.’

‘(I would recommend) the program but not in that much detail.’

Individual comments from the TMP Worldwide surveys also indicated that some players found things unnecessary when they had done them before. For example, when asked what was of least benefit some replies were:

‘Résumés. Because I’d already done it at school and found it repetitive.’

‘Portfolio writing because I did that in year 8.’

Other recommendations came from the TMP Worldwide surveys, in response to whether one-on-one counselling would be beneficial. The majority of both players and parents said they thought this was a good idea. Ninety per cent of parents said that their son would have benefited from individual counselling, and 55% of players said they would like to have had the chance to do individual counselling. Those that said they wouldn’t like individual counselling (10) either:

- didn’t understand the question (they thought it was a choice between individual or group sessions) (5)
- already knew what they wanted to do in regards to career options. (3)
- weren’t at that level yet (1)
- no reason (1)

Those that indicated that they would like to have access to one-on-one interviews gave reasons such as they were still undecided, or they thought it would be more focused on them and make it easier for them to ask more questions, for example:

‘I feel I would have talked a bit more.’

‘Because it is more concentrated on myself.’

‘Because I am still undecided on a career.’

**Conclusions**

Contrary to expectations and hypotheses generated from previous research this investigation showed no significant changes from pre- to post-intervention for Athletic Identity, Identity Foreclosure, and for three of the four measures of career development (CTI). Results suggest that self-identity and career development issues may not be as simplistic as implied in the research design utilised.

There were, however, positive changes evident in the area of External Conflict suggesting that the program helped players become better at balancing their own judgments with those of significant others. This is related to the construct of Identity Foreclosure, and suggests that changes in research design may be necessary to examine more directly the relationship between identity development and career maturity and the effect of career assistance on career development.

According to participants, the program definitely helped them with career development in a number of ways. They reported an increased awareness of a need for a career outside sport and a majority stated that they were more inclined to pursue a career outside sport, and that they could see themselves in other
important roles besides a sportsperson. They became more aware of increased career options available to them and reported that they were more likely to pursue these options. Although there was no change in Athletic Identity, self-reports from the players suggest that they became more open-minded about careers outside of sport, which is an encouraging result.

Players received assistance with specific career skills including networking, career information, skill identification and résumé and interview preparation. The most useful parts of the program were said to be the practical elements such as résumés and interviews, assessing skills and qualities, goal setting and work choices.

Participants also reported increased confidence about their decision-making abilities, and having the resources and skills to pursue career goals. Gaining these practical skills and confidence in regard to career goals is a positive result, as this can enable athletes to develop career opportunities outside of sport, which is associated with increasing the quality of career transitions in and out of competitive sport.

Based on preliminary study findings and participant feedback, recommendations for future provision of career assistance programs in sport are as follows:

1. While descriptive statistics showed that a small number of participants in both groups were involved in career assistance before the study, there seems to be a general need to increase awareness of career assistance programs.

2. Minimising periods of peak concentration during career assistance workshop sessions is recommended particularly for athletes in this age group. This would allow participants to gain the full benefit of the information provided.

3. A facilitative approach is recommended to encourage independent decision making about what athletes want for their future career path. Providing practical relevant information appears to be a popular and important part of this process.

4. Individual counselling and mentoring may be beneficial for those athletes requiring more intensive assistance. Regular reviews throughout the program could assist in identifying those participants who need extra assistance.

Researchers evaluating the effect of career assistance programs in the future could benefit from studying identity issues in more depth in regard to their relationship with, and effect on, career development. This could be done by examining identity changes across the stages of career development rather than looking at the changes of identity within one stage, as was done in this study. Assessing the relationship between identity status and career maturity is something that has to be taken into account if it affects participants’ reception of career assistance. Examination of this relationship could provide greater insight into how career assistance programs help by concentrating on the developmental processes involved.

Using a larger sample size and conducting correlational analysis may help to further examine relationships between identity and career issues, and to gain a more comprehensive picture of the effects of identity development on career development. Regression analysis could also be used to examine the independent effects of identity constructs and career assistance on career development. Finally, a longitudinal research design is recommended to examine career development across a more realistic time frame. Such a life-span design will allow for natural progression rather than focus on immediate change.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
The authors gratefully acknowledge the assistance and contributions of Dean Holder, Jamie Snadden, Michael Veletta, Kate Saw, and Olivia Cunningham (Western Australian Cricket Association) and Ian Wardrobe and Bob Southwell (TMP Worldwide) during this research project.

REFERENCES


### APPENDIX 1: CAREER MANAGEMENT PROGRAM (TMP WORLDWIDE)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Workshop 1</th>
<th>Workshop 2</th>
<th>Workshop 3</th>
<th>Workshop 4</th>
<th>Workshops 5 &amp; 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| - Career models  
  - Careers today and yesterday  
  - Traditional career model  
  - Old and new work paradigms  
  - Parallel careers concept  
- Control and change management  
  - Internal and external control  
  - Positive self-talk  
  - Being a ‘yes’ person  
- Values  
  - Deciding their most important values  
- Homework  
  - A letter from the future | - Homework  
  - Letters from the future  
  - Discussion  
  - Goal setting  
  - SMART goal setting plan  
  - My life plan 2001–2005  
- Skills and qualities  
  - Matching skills good at and skills enjoyed  
  - Considering work that has those skills  
- Transferable skills concept  
- Homework  
  - Self-directed search | - Homework  
  - Self-directed search – discuss and interpret  
  - Work environments preferred  
  - Interests  
  - Occupational work settings  
  - Ideal job formula (Skills + work environment + interests = ideal job description)  
- Options to consider  
- Action plans  
  - Researching options  
  - A framework  
  - About better management and control of career  
- Homework  
  - Interview two people in the industry of choice | - Study choices  
  - Matching work options with study  
  - The process  
  - Pathways – TEE and non TEE  
  - Considering options  
  - Non TEE/VET  
  - TEE  
  - TAFE/University  
  - Traineeship/Apprenticeship | - Résumé  
  - Template  
  - Competency based  
  - Hidden job market  
  - Networking  
  - Letter of application  
  - Interviewing  
  - Competency based – ‘how’ |
THE BABY AND THE BATHWATER: MAKING A CASE FOR WORK EXPERIENCE

ANNETTE GREEN, School of Education, Charles Sturt University
ERICA SMITH, School of Education, Charles Sturt University

Few Australian school students, particularly those completing their senior secondary years, now leave school without some experience of workplaces. While well over half of school students now have part-time work, the traditional work experience program is still the most common way in which secondary students gain some knowledge of workplaces. However, little policy attention is expended on work experience and it is viewed in some quarters as a ‘poor relation’ of structured work placements, which form part of VET in schools programs. This article presents findings about work experience derived from a recent study of school students’ learning in workplaces. School-based case studies and employer interviews were used to augment the data from a survey of 1451 school students. Despite other forms of workplace engagement becoming more common, it is argued that work experience should be retained. While aspects of work experience can be improved, it is argued that the baby should not be thrown out with the bathwater.

Most school students have had some experience of workplaces before they complete secondary school, and work experience is the most common way in which this happens. In work experience, a student in Year 10 and/or Year 11 will typically spend a week or a fortnight in a place of employment which he or she has selected. The school may offer some assistance in gaining entry to a workplace and may visit or telephone the workplace sometime during the period of work experience. Because of the increased incidence of other ways of engaging with workplaces, the most common being part-time work (Robinson, 1999) and work placements (Malley, Ainley, & Robinson, 2001) there
has been some debate during the last decade about the value of work experience (Billett, 1998). Perceptions of work experience as an inferior experience were strengthened by early writings about structured work placements (e.g., Smith, 1994) which emphasised the advantages of structured placements over work experience. Such advantages included the new role of workplaces as sites for learning specific skills. By comparison, work experience was seen to be vague and unfocused. Currently, funding is available to support structured work placements, through organisations such as the Enterprise and Career Education Foundation, and allocations by State Education Departments. By comparison, there is much less support in the form of resources or specified staff available to support work experience at national or state level. (This is not to say there is no interest; New South Wales, for example, allocates resources to work experience as part of Career Education and Work Education programs. New South Wales produces booklets for parents and for employers about workplace learning (Department of Education & Training, 2001a and 2001b) which cover both work experience and structured work placements.)

With these debates in mind, a research project was carried out to compare and contrast the learning experienced by senior secondary students during different types of workplace engagement (Smith & Green, 2001; Smith & Wilson, 2002). Carried out in New South Wales and South Australia in late 2000, the project involved a survey of 1451 students Years 10, 11 and 12 in 13 schools, five school-based case studies, employer interviews and interviews with senior government officials and those working in the vocational learning area for other organisations. This paper reports on those parts of the findings which relate to work experience.

**RESEARCH METHOD**

Thirteen schools in New South Wales and South Australia were asked to administer a questionnaire to all students in Years 10, 11 and 12. A copy of the complete questionnaire and more detailed discussion of the methodology are available on the NVCER website at http://www.ncver.edu.au/ncver.htm. Schools were selected to provide instances of rural/metropolitan, government/independent/Catholic, those with a high non-English speaking background (NESB) population, and with a significant Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander (ATSI) component. Unfortunately more returns from SA than NSW, and from independent than government schools, meant that the 1451 responses were disproportionately weighted towards non-government schools – half of the responses were from non-government schools. Five school case studies were also carried out, all in public schools to redress the balance of the survey responses; a special group of Year 12 students was convened; and employer interviews in four locations were carried out in two locations by focus group and two by individual interviews. The findings of the study were circulated to a number of stakeholders in the two States and nationally for validation and comment.

**FINDINGS**

**Incidence and nature of work experience**

Analysis of Year 11 and 12 figures showed that the participation rate in work experience was 87%. By contrast, only 18% of students had undertaken structured work placements and 54% had undertaken formal paid work, excluding family businesses. Rural students showed higher participation in work experience than metropolitan schools, and government schools had a slightly higher participation rate than non-government schools.

Work experience provided opportunities to sample most industry areas. Some 62.9% of paid student-workers worked in retail or fast food, cafes and restaurants, while only 24.8% of work experience students were in those industries. Work experience placements were far more likely than paid work to be in ‘career’-type industries such as health, personal and community services (19.9% of work experience students) or government administration including education (13.8%). These are industries which do not offer much opportunity for part-time teenage employment. Teachers mentioned a small number of industries which did not accept work experience students. These included industries such as airlines and building, where there might be difficulties relating to safety requirements.

Work experience provided an opportunity to work with adults rather than other teenagers as often happens in part-time jobs. Table 1 clearly indicates that working with adults was a feature of work
experience compared with paid work and even with structured work placements.

It might be expected that close access to adult workers would offer better learning opportunities. Literature on workplace learning in apprenticeships, for example, emphasises the importance of an adult in introducing a young person to a workplace and to tasks (Harris, Willis, Simons, & Underwood, 1995). Working with adults experienced in the industry potentially allows more opportunity to learn about careers in an industry and, indeed, to explore opportunities for employment with the host employer specifically.

Benefits of work experience

A common debate about workplace engagement for school students is whether it is intended to ensure students learn about workplaces or learn in workplaces (Sweet, 1995, p. 16). Generally work experience is seen to relate to the former, and structured work placements to the latter, although Misko (1998) has shown some cross-over between the two areas of learning. Work experience programs provide an opportunity to check out possible career options, to learn about the culture of workplaces, to investigate how workplaces operate, and to learn about a specific occupational area (Smith & Harris, 2001). Watts (1991) lists a number of aims of work experience in schools: enhancing, motivational, maturational, investigative, expansive, sampling, preparatory, anticipatory, placing and custodial. However, work experience has recently lost status as a means of preparing students for work. For example, despite work experience being aligned to career education, recent articles on career decision making (Albion, 2000) and alternative strategies in career education (Gibson, 2000) do not include work experience in the frame of reference.

The research reported in this paper indicated that work experience was seen by most participants as a process of career sampling and of familiarisation with workplaces. Even students with paid jobs and/or vocational placements reported finding work experience useful. Some 64.8% of students who also had paid jobs said they found work experience useful. Eighty-three students gave reasons for this opinion. Analysis of their comments showed that nearly two-fifths of these 83 students said that work experience enabled them to experience a different area of work and a quarter said that work experience helped with career planning. Some typical comments from these students were:

‘Because I was able to experience a different occupation.’

‘It broadened my view of careers.’

‘I got to learn about different business methods and ideas.’

‘Because work experience is in an area where I would like a future career.’

‘W/E was in a different area to paid work.’

‘More serious, offered different kind of work.’

Students clearly enjoyed work experience. The question was ‘How much did you enjoy the work experience?’ The options provided were ‘a lot’, ‘a bit’ or ‘not at all’. Fifty-eight per cent said they enjoyed work experience ‘a lot’, 36% ‘a bit’ and only 6% ‘not at all’. It was notable, by comparison, that only 45% of paid student-workers enjoyed their jobs ‘a lot’. A selection of positive and negative comments about work experience follows.

| TABLE 1: AMOUNT OF TIME SPENT WORKING WITH ADULTS AND OTHER TEENAGERS, BY TYPE OF WORKPLACE |
|-----------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|
| ACTIVITY                              | Spent most time working with adult workers | Spent most time working with teenage workers | Worked equally with adult and teenagers       |
| Work experience                       | 84.8%                                      | 4.1%                                         | 11.1%                                        |
| Paid work                             | 39.5%                                      | 27.1%                                        | 33.4%                                        |
| Work placement                        | 74.3%                                      | 6.8%                                         | 18.9%                                        |
**Positive:**

‘I enjoyed work at … (car factory) because they treated me like an adult.’

‘They had a good training program; the staff were friendly and helpful.’

‘Everything they did, we were allowed to do.’

**Negative:**

‘I didn’t enjoy it because they used me to do the bad jobs and didn’t appreciate my hard work.’

‘I would have enjoyed (it) more if I could have used some of the machines but due to insurance, I couldn’t.’

‘It was the worst week of my life.’

Comments that related specifically to career decision making included:

‘Work experience provides another perspective of education so that when you finish school you know what you are in for.’

‘Work experience gave me a sense of direction and of what I want to do and where I want to go after school.’

‘I think that work experience is good for anyone who has trouble knowing what job they want to do.’

In other cases work experience raised more questions than it answered, or in some cases students learned that workplaces were hostile environments compared with school and thus appreciated school more.

‘It changed my mind; I don’t know if that’s what I really want to do.’

‘It gave me experience in childcare but made me realise I won’t enjoy working in that area.’

‘I know I don’t want to work in a hotel.’

‘I always thought working would be great instead of going to school but it taught me that work wasn’t.’

‘It made me want to stay at school rather than leave and get a job.’

‘My marks have gone up; I realise the importance of a job. I feel very confident.’

Work experience clearly provided a route into part-time work for some students. One student said

‘Work experience gave me an insight into how to work at this job and I now work there part time.’

One of the employers stated that she routinely used work experience as a recruitment tool for part-time workers. Another said that she always asked prospective full-time employees who were school-leavers whether they had enjoyed work experience, inferring from their answers to this question their general attitude towards work. There was some evidence from the case studies that some students were undertaking work experience with the same employer with whom they worked part-time and even undertaking structured work placements at the same employer. Although an easy option, this meant that opportunities to gain a broader range of experience were lost.

**Learning**

As well as learning about the workplace and the industry area, students also reported learning and developing their skills in the workplace. Students were given a list of seven generic skills (adapted from the Mayer (AEC/MOVEET, 1993) Key Competencies) and asked how much each was developed in their work experience.

The generic skills which were most strongly developed, in the students’ estimation, were verbal communication, how to behave at work and how to use one’s initiative. On the other hand, written communication was not developed much.

A variety of specific skills were also learned. The following list gives a small indication of the great variety of tasks performed by the students:

‘Fry pan cooking, garnishing and decorating food.’

‘Taking blood pressure, temperature, changing beds, filling a food drip.’

‘Preparing animals for surgery.’

‘What goes on behind the scenes in a hairdressing shop.’
As has previously been remarked by Petherbridge (1997), students varied a great deal in the depth of understanding of their work experience. Nearly 200 respondents to the survey made qualitative comments about ‘anything else’ that they learned. Some of these included:

‘I learned to do things on my own and not to rely on others.’

‘It was good to see how people could work efficiently as a team to get things done.’

‘I learned how to be more patient.’

‘A great experience and a helpful insight into the world of the workplace.’

‘Learned about the socio-economics of the area in which the kindergarten is situated.’

Processes of learning were examined in the study. Students most often reported learning through being shown by a manager or supervisor and by watching other workers. Watching another worker perform a task while the worker explained it was felt to be a useful learning strategy by students. A major advantage of workplace learning as opposed to school learning was that it was generally one-to-one. One student noted that a worker could give his or her full attention and make sure she understood something, whereas at school a teacher had to deal with other students simultaneously. Quite often students learned by teaching themselves. Other learning strategies included: trying jobs in different sections, reading company manuals, using a checklist, formal training sessions, teaching oneself. Employers noted that students asked questions, observed other workers, and modelled themselves on existing workers.

The participants identified a number of factors inhibiting learning. Some students were given very low-level duties and tasks (for example, sweeping and cleaning), what one student called ‘scabby’ jobs. One teacher thought that some employers used what he called an ‘apprentice model’ – students started off ‘sorting nuts out’; he found that students often did not return after the first day in such workplaces. There were also limits in the types of tasks that could be done by students. For example, they might not be allowed to operate a cash register. Sometimes students were not given specific learning objectives, which meant that they could remain disengaged, just observing and unsure of what to do. One employer called this ‘floating’, stating that she felt much more comfortable with structured work placement students as the students came equipped with lists of skills to practise. However, even observation could be of value, depending on what was being observed, with one student reporting on observations in a maternity ward, for example.

In some cases, supervisors did not have the ability to explain the practices, requirements or expectation of the workplace. Senior managers might be committed to work experience but immediate supervisors might not be. The workplace might be too busy for anyone to pay much attention to the student. One employer said, ‘Depending on the day, we could be storming around like a bear with its foot chopped off, and no one will touch us even our own staff will leave us alone. If they happen to hit on one of these days … it can be quite frightening.’

A major problem could be that students might not be committed to their work experience, lacking motivation, so that not much learning took place. Vick (1996) suggests that work experience throws a great deal of responsibility on the individual student. The research showed that students who were motivated were more likely to receive attention from supervisors and co-workers. One employer said, ‘Some students are like sponges. They soak up all the energy from our workers.’

The employers’ viewpoint

With the rise of VET in Schools, much has been written about the benefits of developing links between schools, industry and the community (Ainley & Fleming, 1995; 1997; Cumming & Carbines, 1997; Figgis, 1998). However, this study found that close linkages between schools and workplaces were more likely to be the preserve of VET in Schools initiatives and were not well developed in work experience. This is unfortunate considering that most employers’ experiences of working with school students are based on work experience rather than structured work placements. As students commonly organised work experience themselves and the school has limited contact with the employer through the experience, the links may be tenuous at times.
Many of the employers in the focus groups and interviews had well-developed programs for work experience and vocational placements, and took large numbers of students each year. These employers obviously spent a great deal of time in liaising with schools and local placement coordinators and in organising programs for students. In general the employers displayed great willingness to help young people and their schools but derived more satisfaction from vocational placements than from work experience.

Employers had some comments and criticisms relating to the way in which work experience and vocational placements were organised by the schools. One, for example, said, ‘I think a majority of work experience placements where students are uninterested are teachers fobbing them off to a willing organisation whether there is an interest there or not.’

They wanted school students to be better prepared, and generally felt that the presence of a third party (for instance a Compact coordinator in NSW) assisted students in their preparation and enabled better matching of students to placements. In the special case of the remote town of Plains, (a pseudonym) the employers appeared to feel that there was too much emphasis on sending students out of the town for work experience. The local employers felt neglected. This belief appeared to be linked to a more general dislike of young people moving out of the community.

Integration into the curriculum

On the whole, the links between work experience and the rest of the school curriculum were fairly loose. In the survey, work experience students were asked about contact maintained by the school with them while they were in the workplace. Table 2 indicates the contact with the school during work experience.

Only 55% of students were visited by their teachers. This may be a cause for concern. Moreover, only 40% of students reported having to fill in a workbook. In terms of feedback, 83.5% of students surveyed had received a written report from the employer on their performance during work experience, while only 14.9% had a written report provided by teachers. Table 3 shows the findings about the extent of ‘processing’ of work experience back at school.

These figures compared favourably with processing of paid work, where 69% of students with jobs said that they never talked about their jobs at school and 27% never even discussed them with friends.

There was an evident lack of formal debriefing after work experience. In South Australia, for example, work experience commonly took place in the final week of term and it was felt by employers that the experience would not be fresh in students’ minds when the next term started. One NSW school said that although there was no formal debriefing, students were encouraged to use work experience in a range of subjects. For example, photography students produced a display of students undertaking work experience.

Sixty per cent of respondents to the questionnaire

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**Table 2: Contact between school and work experience student**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work experience</th>
<th>No. of responses</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A school teacher visited me once only</td>
<td>517</td>
<td>51.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A school teacher visited me more than once</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A school teacher phoned me</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had a workbook from school which I had to fill in</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>40.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1159</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The categories are not mutually exclusive. The percentages relate to the total number of students who answered the question.

**Table 3: Discussion of learning from work experience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work experience learning</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discussed in class time</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>49.8%</td>
<td>42.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussed with friends</td>
<td>13.9%</td>
<td>68.8%</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
thought that at least ‘a bit’ of what they learned on work experience was transferred back to school. However only 10% thought that ‘a lot’ was transferred. Comments about what sort of learning was transferred back to school related most often to generic skills (35% of comments) while 15% of comments related to specific skills. A greater transfer was reported of learning from school to work experience. 68% thought that at least ‘a bit’ of school learning helped them on work experience. Communication in writing was the most frequently mentioned type of learning that was transferred. Some students mentioned specific preparation at school for work experience. One even felt a little overprepared, ‘After all the hype of teachers stressing how “formal” and “serious” work experience was, I found it relaxed, casual and heaps of fun – the teachers went a bit overboard with their warnings.’

Access and equity
The issue of access and equity in relation to work experience and vocational placements is important in the literature. Smith and Keating (1997) suggest that some students have better access to workplace activities than others because of their own or family contacts or perhaps because they are more acceptable to employers. The project findings showed that two-thirds of students found their own work experience employers and in 15% of cases parent(s) made the first contact. In only 13% of cases was the school responsible for initiating the contact. For ATSI students, however, there was less involvement by parents and more by the school. NESB students were more likely to find their own work experience, with less involvement than average both of parents and of their school. Employers noted that ATSI students rarely asked for work experience, some offering the opinion that ATSI students felt more comfortable working within ATSI organisations. Employers seemed to be well aware of cultural barriers relating to participation in some workplaces. Special programs, for example for Muslim girls, were in place in Sydney.

Students with self-reported lower socio-economic status and with lower academic ability were less likely to enjoy work experience. One reason for the former finding could be that those from families without working members might not easily be able to select appropriate sites for work experience. The whole idea of work experience or placements may not be supported in the home, so the students are isolated in the experience. Lack of appropriate clothing and fares may also impede participation, and students may lack money to travel to less economically depressed areas where work is available.

While work experience was harder to find and organise in rural areas, rural students generally had more work experience opportunities. Teachers appeared to make a special effort to ensure that their students were not disadvantaged. Students at Plains Central, a far western NSW school, for example, were encouraged to travel outside their home area for work experience. Hence they learned a number of extra skills, such as negotiating public transport systems and learning about city life. Improved self-esteem among students was an outcome commonly reported by both teachers and students in the interviews.

Students with learning disabilities appeared to be well catered for, with several employers in the case studies describing their special support programs. The survey results showed that those with physical disabilities appeared to have better than average access to work experience.

The findings from the case studies confirmed many of the survey findings. The case studies included a series of focus groups with school students, teachers and career educators and employers typically forming three groups around a school site. For further details on the methodology, please refer to the full report. The case studies indicated that, for all students, work experience might be a less confronting way of experiencing a workplace than paid work. Employers seemed more willing to make allowances for work experience students. One student said, ‘Where I done one work experience and I went back there private (i.e. in paid work), it was different. On work experience if I did something wrong, he’d tell me what I did, (but) when I was out private he’d swear and cuss.’ This greater degree of tolerance indicates that equity groups would fare better under work experience than in paid employment.

Conclusions
The study’s findings about work experience support other recent Australian research which shows that work experience is an important part of career development programs in schools (McMahon &
In turn such links with work are vital in facilitating the school to work transition (Patton, 2001). As the Australian Minister for Education, Science and Training has recently said, ‘Some of the most difficult choices faced by young people and their families are those relating to decisions about choosing a career path and the education and training needed’ (Brendon Nelson, 4 March 2002 http://www.dest.gov.au/ministers/nelson/mar02/n25_040302.htm – accessed 7 March 2002).

This statement formed the preamble to an announcement for further funding for special programs to assist students to make the transition from school to work. However, it could be argued that, rather than create new initiatives, it might be more effective to capitalise on the opportunities already afforded by work experience. The availability of work experience to all students, as compared with, for example, VET programs, which only a proportion of students undertake, increases its value. As Boyd, Hemmings and Braggett (2001: 6) point out, the best forms of career education are those which are mainstream, and are available to all students.

During the research, teachers in the case studies expressed concern that there may be pressure to abandon work experience. They were opposed to this perceived policy direction, which was seen to arise from the growth of VET in schools and part-time work. The case studies and students’ comments indicated that while the ‘baby’ of work experience should be kept alive, some of the ‘bathwater’ surrounding it needed to be changed. In too many instances, work experience seemed to be haphazard, planned at the last minute, and poorly integrated into the curriculum. While generally students enjoyed the experience, as has also been found by Krausz (1995), some did not. Moreover, the research showed clearly that the learning outcomes from work experience were lower than those from paid work and vocational placements. A number of indicators of learning and training gave lower results for work experience. (See Smith & Green (2001) for a full discussion.)

Some of the features of vocational placements, such as specific skills development, could usefully be transferred to work experience. The research findings suggest that the following features could enhance work experience:

- clearly specified learning outcomes
- additional personal goals specified by students
- prior investigation of the industry and workplace
- investigative or problem-solving tasks
- comparisons made between work experience and students’ part-time jobs (where applicable)
- more links to other areas of the curriculum

Enthusiasm of school staff, especially principals, VET and careers staff, combined with commitment of staff in the workplace, are key factors in ensuring that work experience becomes an integral and valuable part of the school syllabus rather than a brief break from normal classes. While in many cases this favourable combination of factors appears already to be present, more structure, including clarification of the goals and intended outcomes of work experience, could provide a better introduction to the world of work for a greater range of students.

REFERENCES


Department of Education & Training (DET), N. (2001b). An employer’s guide to workplace learning. Sydney: NSW DET.


A large volume of research has been stimulated by theories that acknowledge the influence of family characteristics on career development. Family background and family processes are two dimensions on which the family influences career development. This paper discusses the influence of family processes on adolescent and young adult career development. Two career development theories that acknowledge the influence of family process factors on career development are described, followed by a review of studies that have investigated relationships between a broad range of family process variables and various aspects of adolescent–young adult career development. Finally, a range of career counselling and career education interventions to assist career counsellors and career education professionals to integrate theory, research and practice are described and critiqued.
Being concerned with the latter dimension, this paper aims to review two theoretical perspectives and recent research literature on the influence of family processes on adolescent and young adult career development and to integrate theory and research into recommendations for career counselling and career education practice.

**Some theoretical perspectives**

Roe’s personality development and career choice theory (Roe, 1957; Roe & Lunneborg, 1990) and Super’s life-span, life-space theory of career development (Super, 1980; 1990) are two theoretical perspectives in which the influence of the family is acknowledged. Both theories propose that several psychological and social factors related to the family process are integral to career development.

**Roe’s Personality Development and Career Choice Theory**

Anne Roe (1956) acknowledged the influence of individual characteristics and broad-ranging social and cultural contextual factors on career development (Patton & McMahon, 1999). In the most recent statement of her theory, Roe identified the range of variables assumed to influence vocational behaviour, including gender, the economy, family background, chance, friends and peer group, marital status, education and experience, special skills, physical appearance and capacity, general cognitive abilities, temperament, and interests and values (Roe & Lunneborg, 1990). However, her theoretical propositions in relation to family background, specifically early parent–child interactions and their influence on later occupational choice received early research attention.

Roe proposed an indirect relationship between early parent–child relations and later occupational choice (Brown, Lum, & Voyle, 1997). She hypothesised two major orientations – towards or not towards people – that emerge as a result of the pattern of needs satisfaction and frustration under the influence of early parent–child relations. The orientation towards or not towards people, in turn, is assumed to influence later occupational selection (Roe & Lunneborg, 1990).

Many research studies designed to test Roe’s hypotheses attempted to find a direct link between early parent–child interactions and later occupational choice. These studies involved samples of individuals in typical towards or not towards people occupations who reported their early childhood experiences. Except in some samples of occupations representing extremes of person orientation such as Engineer or Social Worker, little research evidence was found to support the notion that early parent–child relations directly influence choice of occupation either towards or not towards persons. Roe herself concluded that there is no direct relationship between early parent–child relations and later occupational choice, but added that this did not invalidate her propositions regarding the influence of early parent–child relations on the development of needs and, in turn interest orientations without reference to occupational choice (Roe & Lunneborg, 1990): a view supported by Brown, Lum and Voyle (1997) who called for a reappraisal of Roe’s theory.

**Super’s Life-span, Life-space Theory of Career Development**

Super’s comprehensive ‘segmental’ theory (Super, 1980; 1996) incorporates a model of personal and situational determinants that dynamically interact with each other and impact upon an individual’s vocational development. Whereas personal determinants refer to genetic and psychological make-up as modified by experience, situational determinants refer to the geographic, historic, social and economic conditions in which the individual’s career development occurs, including factors such as the social structure, economic conditions, historical change, socio-economic organisations, employment, school, community and family. Elaborating on the influence of family on career development, Super, Crites, Hummel, Overstreet and Warnath (1957) identified some family process factors that influence vocational development, including the home atmosphere in terms of degree of warmth or hostility and parental attitudes towards the child.

The life-space segment of Super’s theory proposes that as a function of changes in time and emotion invested, the various core and peripheral roles that individuals simultaneously play vary in importance at different times in the life-span and at different life stages. These roles interact with and impact upon each other, and in turn have an influence on career
development. With reference to family processes, a child’s role with its associated expectations and performance demands, impacts upon an individual’s career development progress (Super, Savickas, & Super, 1996).

**Research Findings**

The research literature linking a range of family process factors to the successful negotiation of adolescent and young adult vocational development tasks is substantial. The broad range of family process variables that have been linked to career development progress highlights the complexity of the interaction of family processes and adolescent and young adult career development. Parental attachment, parent–child relationships, psychological separation and individuation, parenting style, parental support of exploratory behaviour, family cohesion and family functioning are some of the family process variables that have been found to be important. The following section will review ten studies that have investigated the relationship between family factors and career development.

Roisman, Bahadur and Oster’s (2000) longitudinal study involving an analysis of archival interview data found that infant-caregiver attachment security at one year of age was a significant, although weak predictor of attitudinal career maturity at 18 years of age. Underscoring the weak relationship, significance was only obtained for the composite Career Development Attitude scale, using an adaptation of the Career Development Inventory. Accordingly, the results of this study should be interpreted with due caution.

Blustein et al. (1991) investigated the influence of attachment and psychological separation on developmental aspects of career decision making. Conflictual independence in conjunction with moderate attachment to parents was associated with greater commitment to career choice and a lower tendency to foreclose. As noted by Blustein et al., one limitation of this study was that the participants were college students from intact two-parent families, their perceptions of attachment to, and separation from, parents in combination were found to be positively associated with college student development, including aspects of career development, for females but not males. While the purpose of recruiting participants from intact two-parent families was to control for the potentially confounding effects of family structure, the validity of the findings from this study for various alternative family structural arrangements is uncertain.

Palladino-Schultheiss and Blustein (1994) examined relationships between adolescent perceptions of attachment to, and separation from, parents and college student development and adjustment. In a sample of volunteer undergraduate students from intact two-parent families, their perceptions of attachment to, and separation from, parents in combination were found to be positively associated with college student development, for females but not males. While the purpose of recruiting participants from intact two-parent families was to control for the potentially confounding effects of family structure, the validity of the findings from this study for various alternative family structural arrangements is uncertain.

Lopez (1989) found parent–child conflict in late adolescence–young adulthood to be detrimental to vocational identity development among a sample of undergraduate college students from intact two-parent families. Again, the involvement of adolescents–young adults from intact two-parent families raises the question of the generalisability of the results for adolescents–young adults living in different family situations.

Kracke (1997) examined the relationship between four types of parental behaviours and intensity of career exploration (defined in terms of self and environmental exploration) among middle track 9th grade school students in Germany. The results showed that authoritative parenting (clear, high standards combined with parental warmth, emotional...
support and promotion of autonomy), an individuated parent–adolescent relationship (family interaction patterns that promote separateness, self-assertion and emotional connectedness), parental openness to the child’s needs and concerns, and parental support for career exploration were all significantly related to higher levels of career exploration, independently of the structural variables of gender and parental education. The extent to which Kracke’s results can be generalised to all adolescents, or even all 9th grade adolescents is speculative. The participants in Kracke’s study were drawn from the 9th grade middle stream who participated in a mandatory career education program. As suggested by Kracke, it is possible that structural effects may be greater in more socially diverse samples. Further, student participation in a career education program itself may influence the parents’ ability to facilitate their children’s exploratory behaviour. Indeed, Kracke suggested that the interaction of family and school variables on career exploration is an area requiring research attention.

Guerra and Braungart-Rieker (1999) investigated relationships between career decision status and young adult perceptions of parental acceptance and autonomy granting. Their results indicated that university students who perceived their mothers as more encouraging of independence in childhood were less likely to experience career indecision than young adults who perceived their mothers as overprotective. While university students from a range of cultural backgrounds were represented in this study, 84% were European American. Accordingly, the extent to which the results of this study are equally valid to young adults from the full range of minority cultural backgrounds is not clear.

Family cohesion was significantly related to higher levels of career maturity among both hearing-impaired and normally hearing adolescents in grades 10 to 12 (King, 1990). One limitation of this study is the predominance of Caucasian middle to upper-middle class participants in both the hearing-impaired and normally hearing groups. Accordingly, the extent to which family cohesion is related to higher levels of career maturity in more socially diverse groups is unclear.

Family functioning, as perceived by family members has been found to be a stronger predictor of career planning involvement and vocational identity than socio-economic status, gender and educational achievement among a sample of 11th grade students and their parents (Penick & Jepsen, 1992). Dysfunctional family patterns of enmeshment (expected to think and act like the family) and disengagement (low level of support and interaction) were linked to difficulties in successful negotiation of adolescent career development tasks. Penick and Jepsen recommend further research to compensate for their use of a non-random, self-selected and relatively homogeneous sample.

An experimental study by Palmer and Cochran (1988) involving 40 families with children in grades 10 or 11 required the experimental group of parents and their adolescent children to work in partnership through a structured, self-administered career development workbook. The book was designed to tap the vocational development tasks of crystallizing, specifying and implementing a career choice and to simultaneously strengthen parent–child relationships, particularly in the domain of career development. Significant gains in the level of career maturity (and also parental bonding) were attained by the adolescents who participated in the activities in partnership with their parents, compared to the control group who did not complete the career development workbook. The participants in this study were volunteers, recruited through counsellors in five Vancouver schools. While the involvement of volunteer participants is consistent with the intended use of the career development workbook, it limits the generalisability of the results.

Despite the limitations of the research literature, two approaches to incorporating theoretical perspectives and research findings related to family processes and career development have been identified: firstly, attending to family relationship factors (Blustein et al., 1991; King, 1990; Penick & Jepsen, 1992); and secondly, promoting active involvement of parents in their adolescent and young adult children's career development (Amundson & Penner, 1998; Blustein et al., 1991; Middleton & Loughead, 1993; Otto, 2000; Palmer & Cochran, 1988).

All research studies reviewed above propose that it is imperative that career counselling and career education professionals incorporate a concern for the influence of family on career development into their
practice. In addition, many parents purposely engage in goal-directed behaviours intended to influence the career development progress of their children (Young & Friesen, 1992) and many adolescents desire the opportunity for more discussion of career development concerns with their parents (Otto, 2000). Therefore, career counselling and career education programs that involve parents as partners in facilitating adolescent–young adult career development will be viewed favourably by the clients and their parents.

Before implementing research findings relating to a range of family process variables to adolescent–young adult career development progress, careful consideration should be given to the limitations of the research literature. Firstly, with regard to the frequent involvement of self-selected or volunteer adolescents, parents, or families, it may well be that willing participants in such studies are already aware of the importance of career planning. On this basis, some interventions designed to implement theoretical propositions and research findings on relationships between family processes and career development may only be appropriate for the adolescents and their families who actively seek out career counselling and development assistance. The desired effect may not be as strong for, say, career counselling interventions imposed on all students and their parents in a school year group. Some parents, for example of migrant backgrounds who came from countries where career counselling is not commonly available, may not realise that their involvement is relevant and useful. Schools need to encourage these parents to be involved in all activities and to convince them that showing an interest in their children's schooling and career planning may be beneficial to their children's future.

Secondly, in view of the Western cultural bias in the research literature, the extent to which the research findings apply equally across cultures is unknown. While some studies included participants from minority cultural backgrounds, it is not clear whether minority cultural groups were proportionally represented. Therefore, the validity of the findings for the diversity of ethnic groups in Australia and elsewhere is not clear. Thirdly, the validity of the results of those studies that involved participants from intact, two-parent families for the large number of adolescent–young adult clients from alternative family structural arrangements in Australia and elsewhere is unclear. Finally, as most of the studies are correlational in nature, it cannot be assumed that the family process variables that were investigated cause developmental advantages in the career development domain.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CAREER PRACTITIONERS
Although research studies on the influence of the family on career development need to be interpreted with caution because of the lack of generalisability as discussed above, it is clear that the literature raises two significant suggestions to career practitioners. Firstly, they should attend to family relationship factors, and secondly, they should promote active involvement of parents in their adolescent and young adult children's career development.

Attending to Family Relationships and Interaction Factors
While the practical difficulty associated with direct attempts to influence family life have been recognised (e.g., King, 1990; Middleton & Loughead, 1993), the career practitioner's knowledge of the importance of family processes, relationship and interaction patterns for career development is important for a more complete understanding of the career development of individual adolescent and young adult clients.

Some researchers have suggested practical strategies for career counsellors to address parent–child relationship factors. Career counsellors are encouraged to explore aspects of the parent–child relationship in the career counselling process. Helping clients to resolve their feelings about their family is important, for example, in situations where the family is perceived by the client as overprotective, or where the degree of overprotection is resented (King, 1990). Providing a secure base for self and environmental exploration where this is found to be lacking in the home (Guerra & Braungart-Rieker, 1999) is also strongly recommended.

Blustein et al. (1991) suggested that career practitioners run workshops for adolescents–young adults and their parents that are designed to promote open communication and foster the development of autonomous relationships. In an Australian context, workshops of this nature should be implemented with
extreme caution. Australian career practitioners come from diverse discipline areas, for example, education, psychology, humanities, human resources, social work and others. Some career practitioners may not feel comfortable about developing and presenting workshops along the lines suggested by Blustein et al. Further, some Australian career practitioners may lack the necessary expertise to develop and present workshops on family communication and relationship factors even when applied to career development.

Middleton and Loughhead (1993) suggested that career practitioners run parent workshops or information sessions on recent research findings in relation to the importance of family relationship and interaction factors for enhanced adolescent—young adult career development. Developing a parent information section on careers websites or newsletters that includes summaries of research findings in relation to the influence of family processes on career development and the implications for family life and for active involvement of parents in the career development of their children is another way that career practitioners can attend to family relationship and interaction factors.

Promoting Active Involvement of Parents
Research has indicated that the involvement of parents in their children’s career development is highly desirable. A framework for selecting appropriate career counselling interventions for involving the parents of adolescent—young adult clients, a specific career counselling intervention and a home-based careers education intervention are outlined in this section.

Nature of Parental Involvement
Middleton and Loughhead’s (1993) framework for career counsellors to integrate parental support and influence into adolescent career development processes requires career counsellors to classify the nature of parental involvement. Middleton and Loughhead identify three types of parental involvement: positive involvement (Type 1), non-involvement (Type 2), and negative involvement (Type 3).

Type 1 parental involvement is where parents are actively involved in their child’s career development. Individuation is promoted and the child is encouraged to pursue his or her own goals. Recommended interventions include enhancing parents’ understanding of career development processes and nurturing their involvement in their child’s career development. Type 2 parental involvement is where parents neither offer assistance nor impose barriers to their child pursuing his or her own career goals. Group or individual parent meetings are suggested to stimulate parents’ interest in their child’s career development. These meetings aim to review the research on family processes and career development, provide practical strategies on how to facilitate their child’s career development progress, and inform parents of available career development resource persons and materials. Type 3 parental involvement is where parents focus on the child fulfilling parental needs and aspirations. Middleton and Loughhead stressed that the career counsellor should only explore the disparity between the aspirations of the adolescent—young adult and the parents if the client resents the demands of his or her parents. Intervention options, to be chosen at the discretion of the client, include either confronting the parents by the adolescent alone; by the counsellor and the adolescent together; or by the counsellor alone; or by total avoidance of confrontation.

The career counsellor may adopt a coaching role to help the adolescent prepare for approaching his or her parents when the client chooses to approach his or her parents alone. A family session is suggested when joint confrontation is the client’s preferred intervention. The career counsellor helps the adolescent—young adult to differentiate himself or herself from the family and provides support for the client to express his or her own views. Confrontation by the counsellor alone is suggested with extreme caution, and according to Middleton and Loughhead (1993), may be the preferred option in the case of an extremely intimidated or passive adolescent—young adult. Avoidance of confrontation is the preferred option when, despite resentment of parental demands, the adolescent—young adult chooses to pursue parental aspirations. In this situation, Middleton and Loughhead recommend that the career counsellor help the client to become aware of the ramifications of his or her decision and inform the adolescent—young adult of career decision-making processes. From a life-space perspective (Super, 1980), the career counsellor may help the adolescent—young adult to
explore ways of gaining personal satisfaction in a range of life roles outside the work role.

In a multicultural society such as in Australia, Middleton and Loughead’s (1993) consistent emphasis on confronting parents only when the adolescent–young adult is disturbed by parental demands and when the adolescent–young adult chooses confrontation as an intervention cannot be overstated. It is well documented that people from collectivist cultures (e.g. many Asian nations) are more likely than people from individualist societies such as Australia to define themselves with reference to their in-group and they are more likely to sacrifice personal goals to group goals (Triandis, McCusker, & Hui, 1990). Accordingly, for many adolescent–young adult clients who seek career counselling, fulfilling parental aspirations may be the norm and may be personally satisfying.

**Parent Involved Career Exploration**

Amundson and Penner (1998) describe a Parent Involved Career Exploration (PICE) intervention developed for use with adolescents aged 14–18 years. The aim of the PICE intervention is to stimulate a desire to engage in follow-up exploratory activities. The PICE intervention is a structured career counselling session attended by two unrelated adolescents and their parents. The parents assume the role of observer, but their input is invited periodically during the session. With the aim of assisting the clarification of patterns of interests, values, aptitudes and traits, the adolescents reflect on a leisure activity, describing a time when it was positive and a time when it was not. Discussion of preferred school courses, activities and level of performance and their relationship to the identified patterns follows. The post-school plans are discussed along with a range of topics related to the changing nature of work and entrance to education and training courses. At the conclusion of the career counselling session, the adolescents specify areas for action, personalised follow-up strategies are planned and examples of exploratory activities are provided.

**Home-Based Career Education Program**

Career practitioners could develop a home-based career education program consisting of an Australian career development workbook, similar to the one used in Palmer and Cochran’s (1988) study. The workbook may be made available in hard copy, disk or online format for adolescents to work through in partnership with their parents on a voluntary basis. An invitation for career counselling assistance and support could then be extended to all adolescents and parents engaged in the home-based career education program.

**CONCLUSION**

Consistent with theoretical ideas that aspects of family life influence career development, a range of family process variables have been found to be associated with developmental advantages in the career development domain for some adolescents and young adults. Although Roe’s propositions about the indirect influence of early parent–child relations on occupational interests (Roe & Lunneborg, 1990) have not been adequately investigated, research findings have supported her idea that early parent–child relations have a part to play in later vocational development. Similarly, Super et al. (1957) held that the home atmosphere and parental attitudes towards the child are influential on later vocational development, and this view has received empirical support.

Parent–infant attachment has been found to be related, albeit weakly, to career maturity at age 18. Not only has attachment in infancy been related to career development progress but parent–child attachment in young adulthood, together with successful negotiation of the developmental tasks of separation and individuation, has been found to be associated with developmental advantages in the career development domain. In addition, a range of parental behaviours, including an authoritative parenting style; parental support for, and active engagement in, their children’s career development exploratory activities; and openness to children’s needs and concerns, have been positively associated with favourable career development progress.

The theoretical perspectives and supportive research findings described in this paper suggest that career counselling and career education professionals should consider addressing the relationship between family processes and career development progress. This paper has described some suggested interventions. However, until further research
involving samples of adolescents and young adults from a range of family structural types and from diverse cultural and socio-economic backgrounds supports the validity of our current knowledge, career counselling and career education professionals would be advised to consider carefully the background characteristics of the intended client group when developing programs and interventions. In addition, career counselling and career education professionals need to ensure that the specific interventions they choose to implement are within their range of professional expertise.

Further research involving adolescents, young adults, parents and families from diverse social and cultural backgrounds is very much needed if career counselling and career education professionals are to facilitate the flow of career development advantages. Adolescent and young adult clients who are members of single-parent, blended, serial or foster families, as well as adolescents and young adults who spend significant amounts of time away from their family such as international students, students living away from home, and adolescents living in institutional care should also been included.

References
Articles


AN INVESTIGATION OF SINGAPOREANS’ USE OF FORMAL AND INFORMAL JOB SOURCES

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This study attempts to explore the job-seeking behaviour of young Singaporeans, in particular their use of formal or informal job resources, and the role that self-esteem and cultural values play in influencing their job-seeking behaviour. Participants were 899 students from three tertiary level institutions in Singapore. The results showed that self-esteem was not related to the use of informal job sources but there were significant associations between self-esteem and use of formal job sources. Perceived Asian values were found to be a powerful predictor of participants’ reliance on informal job sources. The implications of the results are discussed in light of the ongoing economic crisis.

In Singapore, before the 1970s, career guidance was hardly practised in schools, and there was virtually no research into career behaviour (Tan & Goh, 2002). Over the years, there has been a growing emphasis on career development in schools, and by 1993, career counselling had reached all secondary schools in the country. Despite the growth of guidance programs in Singapore, much more research is still needed in the area of vocational psychology (see Tan, 1998, for a review) to understand the rising challenges of the changing nature of the Singapore economy. Singaporeans continue to suffer from the aftershocks of the Asian economic crisis at the end of the 20th century. Companies continue to freeze staff number or even reduce their permanent staff numbers, and some resort to recruiting workers on contracts to give them the flexibility to hire according to their needs (Chia, 2002). With little work experience and stiff competition from much more experienced workers who have re-entered the job market, many graduates turn to temporary jobs while others more fortunate have compromised by taking up less preferred...
vocations with less perks and reduced salaries (Teo, 2002). The prolonged economic crisis is a rare opportunity for this study. Several prior studies in the field of career development have indicated that self-esteem is an important predictor of the job-seeking behaviour of individuals (e.g., Ellis & Taylor, 1983; Shamir, 1986). The economic crisis in this case will inevitably have an effect on the self-esteem of job seekers. It is therefore of great value to investigate how the economic crisis would have affected the job search patterns of individuals through the reduction of job opportunities and intensification of competition in the job market. This study attempts to explore the job-seeking behaviour of young Singaporeans, in particular their use of formal or informal job resources, and the role that self-esteem and cultural values play in influencing their job-seeking behaviour.

Despite its importance as a pre-requisite to a fulfilling career, the job search process has rarely been regarded as a problem worthy of scientific investigation. Most studies have been concerned with the mechanics of job seeking (résumé writing, surviving interviews) rather than the dynamics of job-seeking behaviour (Beatty, 1988). Likewise, many studies in vocational behaviour have explored the concept of self but few, if any, actually have attempted to apply it to more pragmatic applications such as the job search process. Stevens (1986), who shed some light on the psychology of job-seeking behaviour, provides the impetus for this study. Ellis and Taylor (1983) showed that self-esteem predicted the sources individuals used to find jobs, interview evaluations received from organisational recruiters, satisfaction with job search, number of offers received, acceptance of a job before graduation, and the length of intended tenure. However, it should be noted that, at the time when their study was conducted, the American economy was healthy. The results from Shamir’s (1986) study on the job-searching behaviour of older, unemployed workers who were seeking reemployment supported the findings of Ellis and Taylor (1983).

In spite of differing motivations for their studies, all the research mentioned above highlighted the significance of self-esteem in the job search behaviour. Although the influence of self-esteem on the job search process cannot be denied, its significance and impact may vary across cultures and situations. Hence, the primary motivation of this study is to test the relevance of prior findings to the local context. The objective of this study is to examine the impact of self-esteem on the job search behaviour of final year tertiary students who are in the process of seeking employment. In particular, this study examines the use of formal and informal job resources.

Another factor that may influence individuals’ job-seeking patterns is the perceived Asian values in Singapore. Deeply entrenched values of self-reliance and self-dependence may interfere in the use of job sources. It seems likely that local undergraduates are still uncomfortable with using informal job sources such as relatives and networks to secure jobs for themselves. The possible reason for rejecting informal sources may be the result of values such as wanting to earn the job through one’s ability rather than depending on others. It may also be for reasons such as not wanting to feel indebted to others or simply being too shy or proud to ask for help. On the other hand, Asians tend to have a more collectivistic culture where there is emphasis on building a strong community and close ties to family members (Snarey, 1995). Hence, this perceived value of connectedness to the family and the community may actually encourage young adults to utilise informal job sources, and approach their family and friends to obtain job opportunities.

Ellis and Taylor (1983) hypothesised that individuals with low self-esteem will depend heavily on formal job sources (e.g., newspaper advertisement, employment agencies) instead of informal sources (friends and relatives) and those requiring more initiative (direct application). However, contrary to expectation, self-esteem only provided a partial explanation to the choice of job source. Compared to their low self-esteem counterparts, high self-esteem individuals were less dependent on formal job sources but there was no relationship between self-esteem and the use of informal sources.

Ellis and Taylor explained that the contrary findings might have resulted from the exhaustive nature of the sources included in their study. They have suggested that additional research using a finer classification of job sources to address the self-esteem–source usage relationship may be more appropriate. Hence, in this study, we made three hypotheses. First, it was hypothesised that individuals
with high self-esteem tend to rely more on informal job sources when compared to their low self-esteem counterparts. Second, high self-esteem individuals tend to rely less on formal job sources when compared to their low self-esteem counterparts. In addition, in considering the moderating effect of perceived Asian values, values such as the need of self-reliance, conservatism, and the feeling of discomfort over owing a personal favor or the perceived value of connectedness to family and friends may moderate the influence of self-esteem in regards to the reliance placed on informal job sources. Hence, the third hypothesis was that perceived Asian values will moderate the relationship between self-esteem and the use of informal job sources.

**Method**

This exploratory study investigated the impact of self-esteem on the job search behaviour of Singapore tertiary students. It attempted to explore the use of formal and informal job resources, and the role that self-esteem and cultural values play in influencing job-seeking behaviour. This cross-sectional study was carried out in the various tertiary institutes in Singapore. The unit of analysis was the individual final year tertiary student. The respondent was required to answer a questionnaire survey consisting of six sections. Correlational and multiple regression procedures were used to analyse the data.

**Pre-test**

Prior to the actual study, a pre-test was conducted with a group of 30 students from a tutorial group. The primary objectives of the pre-test were to ensure that the questionnaires are clearly phrased and correctly interpreted. The average time required to complete a survey form was also established to ensure that respondents were comfortable with the time allocated. One of the aims of the research design was to keep the questionnaire short and precise to ensure that respondents gave an accurate account of their views.

**Participants**

The respondents were drawn from a wide spectrum of disciplines ranging from Accountancy, Business, Engineering, Communication Studies, Computer Science, Arts, Science, Architecture to Building and Estate Management. A small sample of Master Degree students was also included. The total sample size of 899 (50% female), with a mean age of 21.98 (SD = 1.63), were from three tertiary institutions in Singapore, namely the Nanyang Technological University (420), National University of Singapore (329) and the Polytechnic (150).

**Questionnaire Design**

Each questionnaire consisted of 6 sections and a total of 38 questions. The questionnaire attempted to obtain information pertaining to the respondents’ (a) global and task-specific self-esteem; (b) job-seeking behaviour; and (c) reaction to external influences such as the economic crisis, Asian values and academic performance. (A copy of the questionnaire is available from the authors upon request.)

**Global Self-Esteem**

This section established the level of Global self-esteem that respondents attribute to themselves through their responses to the ten questions. This section was formulated based on the Revised Janis-Field Self-Esteem Scale. The participants were required to evaluate themselves on a number of dimensions pertinent to the self-concept. Each question was assigned a maximum score of 7, starting with 1 as the lowest. Of the ten questions, five were positively phrased and the remaining were negatively phrased. The positively and negatively phrased questions were deliberately alternated to force respondents to constantly refer back to the scale for confirmation of scores. This was done to prompt participants to think before they answered the questions. For positive questions, the scoring was based on an ascending score of 1 to 7. A person who scores a 7 was deemed to think more highly of himself than someone who scores a 6 or 5. For negative questions, the scoring is reversed. In order words, a person who scores a 7 on the negative scale would get a 1 on conversion while a person who scores a 1 would get a 7. The maximum score for this section was 70 and the minimum was 7. Coupled with the 5 points from section one, a maximum score of 75 was allocated for the computation of global self-esteem. This scale was found to have moderately high internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha = .74).
Task Specific Self-Esteem
The task in the context of our study was the activity of job seeking. The questions were adapted from Ellis and Taylor’s (1983) study; they were designed to measure the respondents’ confidence in their job search abilities. Similarly, participants responded to section 3 using a seven-point Likert scale and the positive and negative questions were deliberately alternated. This scale was found to have moderately high internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha = .80).

Job-Seeking Behaviour
To gain a better understanding to the participants’ use of avenues in seeking employment, participants responded the following questions: ‘What would you rely on when you are looking for jobs?’ The following options were given: ‘Newspaper advertisements, employment agencies, friends or relatives, call or write to interested organisations directly, career talks organised by schools, and others (specify).’ Respondents were also asked to rank order their preferences for the options stated above. Respondents were also asked to give a reason for feeling uncomfortable about asking friends and relatives for help.

Perceived Asian values
In the present study, the perceived Asian value that was emphasised was participants’ perceived connectedness to their family and friends. Respondents were asked to indicate on a scale of 1 to 10, how comfortable they felt in using their ‘friends or relatives’ as an avenue in seeking employment.

Results
Descriptive Analyses
The results of the survey indicated that participants relied more on formal rather than informal sources of information about jobs (Figure 1). In particular, newspaper advertisements were the most popular source for jobs. Career talks were second, followed by direct application, and employment agencies. Among the options examined, informal sources was the least popular method of gaining information about jobs. The most common reason given for being uncomfortable with informal job sources was that participants wanted to earn the job through their own ability (Table 1).

Regression and Correlational Analyses
Table 2 summarises the regression details for an exploratory analysis of the six variables, namely:
Global self-esteem, Task specific self-esteem, Perceived Asian values and their interaction terms: Global self-esteem × Task specific self-esteem, Values × Global self-esteem and Values × Task specific self-esteem. The dependent variable in the regression equation was the use of informal job sources.

The results did not support the assertion that the self-esteem has a positive relationship with the use of informal job sources. The F-statistics showed that self-esteem (Global self-esteem, Task specific self-esteem and their interaction terms) was not significantly related to the use of informal job sources. The three variables explained only 0.1% of the variance in the dependent variable.

On the other hand, the regression model revealed that the Perceived Asian value of participants has significant main effects. It alone explained about 25% of the variance in the informal job source variable. The variable also has a strong positive beta of 0.504, indicating a positive linear relationship with the

| TABLE 2: Multiple Regression Details: Informal job source as a function of Global self-esteem (Gse), Task specific self-esteem (Tse), the inherent Values of participants (Values) and their interaction terms. |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Variables       | Beta Coefficients | Cumulative R²   | Incremental R²  | F-value         |
| Gse             | -                | 0.000           | 0.000           | 0.120 (Ns)      |
| Tse             | -                | 0.001           | 0.001           | 0.459 (Ns)      |
| Interaction (Gse X Tse) | -            | 0.001           | 0.000           | 0.074 (Ns)      |
| Values          | 0.504            | 0.253           | 0.252           | 302.3 (s)       |
| Interaction (Values X Gse) | -            | 0.253           | 0.000           | 0.082 (Ns)      |
| Interaction (Values X Tse) | -            | 0.253           | 0.000           | 0.011 (Ns)      |
| N = 899        |
| Ns – non-significant | s – significant, p < .0001 |

| TABLE 3: Correlation Coefficients of Self-esteem and Formal Job Sources |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Variables       | Gse             | Tse             | New             | Emp             | Car             | Dir             | Mean        | SD        |
| Global self-esteem (Gse) | -                | 58.19           | 10.04           |
| Task self-esteem (Tse) | .54**          | -               | 57.65           | 12.36           |
| Newspaper ad (New) | -.17**         | -.09**          | -               | 3.92            | 1.30            |
| Employment agent (Emp) | -.09**         | -.07*           | .05             | 1.95            | 1.68            |
| Career talk (Car) | .18**          | .15**           | -.23**          | -.25**          | -               | 2.97            | 1.92       |
| Direct application (Dir) | .10**         | .09**           | -.31**          | -.21**          | -.15**          | 2.28            | 1.86       |
| Informal source (Ins) | .01            | -.01            | -.17**          | -.09**          | -.27**          | -.08*           | 1.86        | 1.67       |
| p < .05**       | p < .01
dependent variable. The interaction terms of the ‘values’ variable, however, are all not statistically significant. The results suggested that the Perceived Asian values of the participants may not be a moderating variable, which this study had initially believed. It is in fact a powerful predictor that influenced the subject’s reliance on informal job sources, regardless of their self-esteem.

In regards to the relationship between self-esteem and formal job sources, Table 3 indicated that Global and specific self-esteem were negatively related to the use of newspaper advertisements and employment agencies, but positively related to the use of career talks and direct applications. Hence, there was partial support for the hypothesis that higher self-esteem is related to less use of formal job sources.

**DISCUSSION**

Despite difficulties faced by graduates in the current economic crisis, this study indicates that the majority of these students were still relying on traditional formal sources of jobs like newspaper advertisements and career talks. Students still did not seem to be comfortable with informal job sources like approaching friends and relatives for job opportunities. The primary reason given for being uncomfortable with informal job sources was that participants wanted to earn the job through their own ability. Perhaps this may in part, be due to the peculiarity of the Singapore situation (and to a certain extent the Asian region) where the society is built on the meritocratic principles where informal procedures are viewed as practising nepotism or building dynasties. In the local context, the formal job sources are considered to be the fairer approach without giving unfair advantage to the wealthy and well connected.

Self-esteem was not found to be related to the participants’ degree of reliance on informal job sources, notwithstanding that significant relationship was found between self-esteem and formal job sources usage. Additionally, further analysis revealed that the perceived Asian value of the participants was a strong predictor of reliance on informal job sources. Hence, the results suggest that participants who feel comfortable and close to their family and friends are more likely to approach them as an informal avenue for seeking employment.

The results of the first hypothesis are consistent with that of Ellis and Taylor’s (1983) paper. Similarly, Ellis and Taylor found that the proposition of a positive relationship between self-esteem and time spent on informal sources had to be rejected because the relationship was not statistically significant. One possible explanation for the non-significance of self-esteem measures is that the reliance on informal job sources may be affected by more than one predictor, and self-esteem only plays a small role. The availability and popularity of formal job sources and the inherent values of respondents are examples of such predictors.

By consolidating all the findings about job sources, this study found that self-esteem is significantly associated with formal sources, but not a predictor in the choice of informal job sources by job seekers. The association between self-esteem and reliance on formal sources of information was mixed, in that higher self-esteem was related to less reliance on the use of newspaper advertisements and employment agencies but higher self-esteem was related to a greater reliance on the use of career talks and direct applications to companies.
REFERENCES


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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR CAREER EDUCATORS

BETTINA LANKARD BROWN, ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career and Vocational Education,

New approaches to career-technical education (CTE) such as school to work, career clusters, and integrated curriculum place different demands on career educators. What are those demands? How can career educators prepare themselves to meet them? This Digest describes the new role of career educators in providing career awareness, counselling, exploration, and guidance, as well as successful professional development practices for career educators and others.

CHALLENGES FOR CAREER EDUCATORS

Career education is intended to prepare students for a variety of career and life roles, empowering them to construct their own career destinies and encouraging them to recognise how various events and innovations can lead to multiple careers over their lifetimes (European Training Foundation, 2000). This is not an easy task for career educators who, in response to ongoing school improvement initiatives, must embrace new philosophies and implement practices designed to engage an increasingly diverse student population in meaningful, active learning and prepare them with the skills they need to make successful school-to-career and career-to-career transitions.

To direct student learning for workplace readiness, career educators must understand contemporary career development theories such as Social Cognitive Career Theory, cognitive information processing theory, contextual learning theory, and the values-based approach to career development (Beale, 2001). These theories address the many ways that individuals develop new knowledge and use information to make decisions and solve problems. ‘An understanding of these theories and the contributions that each makes toward defining developmental periods, stages, and needs’ must be accompanied by techniques for putting these theories into practice (Beale, 2001, p. 4). Because some of these practices will be new and continually evolving in focus and design, career educators need ongoing education and training in order to engage in teaching and learning practices that support these career development theories and to assume the new roles that have become requirements for career educators: coach, collaborator, business partner and technology advocate.

ROLES OF CAREER EDUCATORS

Coach

As students are encouraged to construct their own knowledge through engagement in and reflection on personal, school-related, and work experiences, coaching has become a significant teaching strategy for encouraging such knowledge development. To help students learn in the way they learn best – through hands-on, experience-based learning –
educators must be able to facilitate rather than dictate learning. They must know how to formulate guiding questions that will direct students to new discoveries about themselves, their learning processes, and the application of skills in the workplace. They must know how to engage students in productive small group work and motivate them to work independently as well as in small groups (Railsback, 2002).

To be effective coaches, educators need good interpersonal skills that enable them to interact positively with students, parents and the community. Management skills, problem-solving skills, organisational skills, and ethics are also important attributes for guiding students toward skill development and school-to-work transitions (Greenberg, 2001). Coaching to facilitate new ways of teaching and learning, such as project-based learning, requires educators to analyse tasks and skills needed to carry out a project and facilitate the process by setting up a plan of action and implementing and evaluating the project. In guiding students through projects, career educators must be able to explain how the project will contribute to student learning; facilitate decision making, thinking, and problem solving; and instill in students a sense of personal responsibility, self-esteem, and integrity (Railsback, 2002). Most of all, effective coaches must be fully committed to helping students find ways to ‘balance work roles and responsibilities with other life roles and responsibilities’ (Engels & Harris, 1999, p. 75).

Collaborator
Collaboration between teachers is key to the successful integration of academic and work-related education. A workplace-relevant curriculum requires the collective knowledge, experience and influences of teachers in both discipline areas. Working as a team, academic and career educators can collaborate on solutions to problems they face in the classroom and act as peer advisers, providing information and feedback. They can identify similarities in course content and redesign their courses around a common theme that emphasises the development of both academic and technical skills (Smith & Edmunds, 1999).

Rayman (1999) contends that teachers must not limit their collaboration to intraclassroom endeavors, but must ‘forge cooperative relationships with faculty, advising professionals, student affairs professionals, administrators, parents and student groups to take advantage of the multiplier effect that such collaborative relationships can have in furthering our goal of enhanced student career development’ (p. 179).

Parents can serve as valuable contributors to career development when they collaborate in the education process. At Swansea High School in South Carolina, parents are given information about the three career pathways their children might pursue – college preparatory, Tech Prep, and dual education – and the career clusters and courses of study related to them. Advising nights have been established to help parents review with students the next year’s educational plan. More than 85% of the parents attend these sessions, thereby bringing together teachers, students and parents for career-focused collaboration (Southern Regional Education Board, 1999). The percentage of parents working with their children and a teacher-adviser to plan a program of study has increased from 4% in 1990 to 80% in 1996.

Business Partner
Partnering between school and the broader community is essential if the interests of business and industry are to be integrated with classroom activities. Through such partnering, ‘responsibility, authority, and accountability are shared by all partners’ (Hoyt & Wickwire, 2001, p. 241).

Career educators can help local businesses by guiding students to develop the skills these businesses have identified as crucial to their operations. Businesses can assist educators by providing for them and their students opportunities to learn about current workplace practices, job opportunities, and necessary skills through internships, worksite experiences, job shadowing, and mentoring (Smith & Edmunds, 1999). Developing partnership arrangements may pose a challenge to educators who have little experience in selling to businesses the benefits of making social and financial commitments to education. They need to learn strategies for linking with business personnel, becoming personally acquainted with managers and personnel directors in local businesses so that they can learn about career opportunities and worksite experiences that will
further their learning and enlist their help in making those experiences available to the school community (ibid.).

Technology Advocate
Some level of technological skill is now required for most jobs. To be an advocate of technology and to be able to motivate students to learn the functions and workplace applications of technology, career educators themselves must be technologically proficient. They must seek opportunities to learn about, use, experiment with, and apply technology to learning so that they can 'integrate it into the classroom, align it with student learning goals, and use it for engaged learning projects' (Rodriguez & Knuth, 2000, p. 1). A recent research study showed that teachers who received technology training were 'more likely to use and rely on digital content for instruction and to spend more time trying out software and searching for websites to use in class' (ibid., p. 2).

In school, technology must be used to 'bolster instruction and help students develop higher-order thinking and problem-solving skills' (ibid., p. 3). Since it supports student-centered instruction, technology enhances the educator’s role of coach and allows students to work collaboratively, learning from each other and from their mutual discoveries. Technology also makes it possible for teachers to work together on classroom projects. However, knowing the value of technology for teaching and learning and being a technology advocate are not the same thing. Teachers must be able to use technology to assist students who have various learning styles and special needs before they can advocate its value and motivate students to embrace it.

Types of Professional Development
‘Professional development is a key tool that keeps teachers abreast of current issues in education, helps them implement innovations, and refines their practice’ (Cook & Fine, 1996, p. 1). Because the roles of career educators require interpersonal skills such as communication, cooperation, negotiation and teamwork, professional development must allow educators time to learn, reflect upon, discuss, and debate with their peers the various concepts and issues related to career development theories, teaching and learning strategies, school-to-work practices, school/business linkages, and technology use for career development.

Professional development cannot occur as a result of one-day workshops or single training sessions. It must be ongoing, designed with teacher input, foster critical reflection and meaningful collaboration, and allow for follow-up and support that is sustained over the long term (ibid.) Professional development can come in a variety of forms such as ‘mentoring, modelling, ongoing workshops, special courses, structured observations, and summer institutes’ (Rodriguez & Knuth, 2000, p. 4). It must provide opportunities for teachers to explore new roles, develop new instructional techniques, refine their practice, and broaden themselves both as educators and as individuals. Beau Fly Jones contends that ‘effective professional development is necessary for all teachers involved in educational reform’ (Cook & Fine, 1996, p. 3). It must enrich teaching and improve learning, support teacher development, be ongoing and long term, be job embedded and inquiry based, support current beliefs about teaching and learning, be clearly related to reform efforts, be modelled after learning experiences considered valuable for adults and support systemic change.

Conclusion
School-to-work, curriculum integration and new career development theories have implications for how career educators approach teaching and learning. Professional development activities may enable them to broaden and expand their expertise in performing their new roles and connecting education, work and career. Some strategies for the professional development of teachers in school-to-work systems include the following (National School-to-Work Office, 1997):

- professional development as a continuous improvement process
- worksite experience
- workshops and conferences
- preparation for new roles in school-to-work governance
- use of teacher networks
- collaboration with teacher unions
Such professional development strategies should go beyond learning new skills, encompassing formal and informal ways to help teachers develop new insights into practice and new approaches to career-technical education.

REFERENCES

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Editor,
I want to add my congratulations to the praise you will have already received for the outstanding 10th anniversary edition of the *Australian Journal of Career Development*.

However, I would also like to acknowledge the contribution of the Career Education Association of Victoria (CEAV) to the birth of the journal in 1992.

As President of the CEAV at the time, I was a member of the original group of careers associations’ representatives who had gathered some years previously to ensure the various associations worked more closely, and I am grateful to the CEAV (and the committee of the time) for their support.

The group organised the forum at which the Minister for Employment Education and Training, Hon. John Dawkins, spoke at the Monash Caulfield campus to a packed audience of careers practitioners. The Education Extension Officer of the CEAV spoke on that day as a representative of school careers...
educators, charming both the audience and the Minister.

The Joint Committee, as we were known, having organised the forum, successfully approached DEET (Department of Employment Education and Training) for funding for the journal, and in addition I was sponsored by the Business Council of Australia to attend the Bond University conference at which Rob Ware and I met with Norman Gysbers from Canada. This led to Norman becoming one of the overseas members of the Editorial Board once the journal was established and Meredith Shears appointed as the first Editor.

Out of these beginnings, the journal emerged, and has gone from strength to strength. However, but for the work of people such as Dr Anna Lichtenberg of Edith Cowan University in Western Australia (who chaired the early meetings of what we named as the Editorial Advisory Committee) and the support of our organisations – NAGCAS and CEAV – the journal would still be a pipe dream.

Best wishes for the future to all concerned in the production of the Australian Journal of Career Development.

Yours sincerely
Ruth Chapman
CROYDON, Vic.

INFORMATION AND RESOURCES

AUSTRALIAN APPRENTICE AND TRAINEE STATISTICS 2002 – DECEMBER QUARTER

The Grad files/Gradstats 2002
For many years, the Graduate Careers Council of Australia (GCCA) has produced information about employment prospects of graduates, their earnings, and their level of satisfaction with their university experience, aimed at assisting course and careers advisers in their work.

The Grad Files is a summary of key findings from the comprehensive Graduate Destination Survey report and it is aimed at helping prospective university students better understand their higher education options. Others will also find The Grad Files useful, including the families of prospective students, secondary school students, and the general public.

Gradstats, a more detailed summary of the 2002 Graduate Destination Survey, is also available now. Source: http://www.gradlink.edu.au/gradlink/studfrm3.htm

These summaries are based on data gathered in 2002 for graduates who completed their degrees at the end of 2001.

NATIONAL EVALUATION OF ADULT LEARNERS’ WEEK 2001 AND 2002
This report evaluates the impact that the Adult Learners’ Week campaign has had over the last two years in Australia. The report includes a discussion of the Australian communities’ attitudes to learning and how different segments of the community respond to the campaign. The research was based on a national telephone survey before and after each campaign as well as focus groups. Availability: Free print, free PDF and web summary, http://www.ncver.edu.au/news/letters/ournews/index.htm

MAKING PISA RESULTS MORE ACCESSIBLE
The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) study will enter its second cycle of testing in 2003. All educators can take advantage of the information collected in the Programme for
International Student Assessment study of reading, mathematical and scientific literacy through an innovative online data dissemination strategy, developed by ACER for the OECD following considerable international interest in the data. The data are available on the internet in formats tailored to the needs of different potential users.

Source: http://www.acer.edu.au/mediacentre/ENews/February03/PISA_results_feb03.htm

**EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AVAILABLE ONLINE**

Educational researchers can now gain access to a number of research services provided by ACER's Cunningham Library. Services included an easily searchable database of more than 12,000 research articles and documents.

Source: http://www.acer.edu.au/mediacentre/ENews/February03/Edresearch_online_feb03.htm

**BOOKS AND PUBLICATIONS**

**FROM FEAR TO COURAGE**
116 pp, softcover, RRP: A$22.00 (inc. GST)
ISBN: 01-920705-03-1

This superb book addresses the often unspoken issues of fear and lack of confidence in relation to formulating and implementing career action steps. Using an engaging and innovative structure, Susie Linder-Pelz tells the real-life stories of six of her clients and shares her manner of facilitating their transitions through her consultation session diary notes as their career coach.

Paul Stevens
Director of the Centre for Worklife Counselling

**THE CHARISMA EFFECT**
320 pp, softcover, RRP: A$32.95 (inc. GST)

Personal charisma is not the physical manifestation of some mysterious gift of the gods or a yet to be discovered gene – it is a perfectly learnable and doable attribute. Desmond Guilfoyle, author of *The Charisma Effect* explains that charisma is simply the effect of certain behavioural patterns and ways of thinking. He guides the reader through certain techniques and models that have been shown to be key ingredients in winning the hearts and minds of individuals and groups.

Selina Madeleine

**START ME UP**
195 pp, softcover, RRP: A$21.95 (inc. GST)
ISBN: 0-7318-1053-8

Toney Fitzgerald tells you how to get your business idea off the ground. He gives both practical information and the inspiration needed to get you started. *Start Me Up* provides assistance with developing a business plan and marketing strategies.

Karen Williams
INTERNATIONAL CAREERS CONFERENCE HELD IN NEW ZEALAND

Over four hundred and fifty delegates and presenters attended an International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance careers conference held in Wellington, New Zealand from 28 to 30 November 2002, titled *Pushing the Boundaries: The heightened role of career planning in knowledge societies*.

Three keynote presentations were delivered during the conference. These keynotes were chosen to give a balance and perspective both in terms of geography and viewpoint. The keynotes were:

- Professor Mason Durie, Professor of Maori Research and Development at Massey University presented from the perspective of careers and structures for Maori.
- Lynne Bezanson, Canadian Career Development Foundation, explored the magical world of storytelling and ways in which myth can illuminate and enrich the career journey.
- Professor Tony Watts, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) spoke on Career Guidance and Public Policy: Global Issues and Challenges.

Presentations ranged from Passion’s Fruit, to Career Expectations of Maori and Pacific Graduates, to Pushing Technological Boundaries, to Increasing the Range of Valued Career Paths. From both formal and informal feedback received and from what I personally experienced during the three days, I feel that many boundaries were indeed pushed, says Lester Oakes, Chief Executive, Career Services. The conference was hosted by Career Services, in association with the International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance and with the endorsement of the Career Practitioners Association of New Zealand and the Careers and Transition Education Association (Aotearoa) Inc.

REPORT REVEALS SOCIO-ECONOMIC DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AUSTRALIAN SCHOOLS

Socio-economic status had a significant effect on the reading comprehension and mathematics test scores achieved by Australian 14-year-olds between 1975 and 1998, according to new ACER research. The latest report in the Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth research program found that, while overall achievement levels of students remained relatively stable between 1975 and 1998, notable differences were found between students by socio-economic status, both at an individual level and between schools.

http://www.acer.edu.au/mediacentre/ENews/February03/media.htm

YOUNG AUSTRALIANS DELAY TRANSITIONS TO ADULTHOOD

A recent report released by ACER as part of the Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth (LSAY) research program found that relatively simple and condensed transitions from education to full-time employment, to moving out of home and into home ownership, from ‘singledom’ to marriage are no longer the norm for young Australians.

http://www.acer.edu.au/mediacentre/ENews/February03/LSAY28_feb03.htm
LABOUR FORCE - FEBRUARY 2003
The seasonally adjusted unemployment rate fell to 6.0% in February 2003 and is now at its equal lowest level since March 1990.

Total employment declined by 12,300. However, full-time employment increased by 10,000 and has now risen by 165,500 (or 2.5%) since October 2002. Part-time employment fell by 22,300 over the month. The labour force participation rate fell by 0.2% to 64.4% following a rise of 0.6% points last month.


SKILLED VACANCY TRENDS
From job advertisements in the major metropolitan newspaper of each State and the Northern Territory, the Department of Employment and Workplace Relations produces the Skilled Vacancy Index (SVI – previously the Skilled Vacancy Survey), for 18 skilled occupational groups. These are aggregated into the Professional, Associate Professional and Trades groups.

Advertised vacancies over the year to December 2002 increased by 25.0% for Trade occupations and 2.0% for Associate professional occupations. Advertised vacancies decreased by 9.4% for Professional occupations (see Figure 4 overleaf).

The strongest increases were for Construction tradespersons (up 48.0%) and Wood and textile tradespersons (up 35.6%). Greatest declines were recorded for Marketing and advertising professionals (down 58.8%), Printing tradespersons (down 30.3%) and Accountants and auditors (down 27.8%).


PERTH, WESTERN AUSTRALIA, TRAINING RESEARCH CONFERENCE, 8–11 JULY 2003
The National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER) will hold its 12th annual VET Research Workshop/Conference in Perth in 2003 in conjunction with Central TAFE and WA Department of Education and Training. Venue: eCentral Campus in Royal Street, Perth, Western Australia, http://www.ncver.edu.au

BERN, SCHWEIZ, 3–6 SEPTEMBER 2003
Quality development in vocational counselling and training
International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance, www.aiosp-berne.ch

NEWCASTLE, NSW, 28–29 NOVEMBER 2003
NSW Careers Advisers’ Association Conference 2003 will be held at the University of Newcastle Campus. The theme of the Conference will be ‘Rebuilding Careers’, info@caa.nsw.edu.au

BALLARAT, 7–9 DECEMBER 2003
Career Education Association of Victoria, www.netspace.net.au/~ceav/

A CORUNA, SPAIN, 15–17 SEPTEMBER, 2004
Guidance, career development and social inclusion. Spanish Association on Guidance and Psychopedagogy, Munoz@udc.es

FROM THE JOURNALS

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL FOR EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE, VOLUME 3, NUMBER 1, 2003
Career decisional states of Australian and South African high school students
Mark B. Watson, Peter A. Creed, Wendy Patton

Differences in career attitude and career knowledge for high school students with and without paid work experience
Peter A. Creed, Wendy Patton
Carrière et économie du savoir: l'Importance de la Participation Informelle à l'organisation
Danielle Riverin, Yanik Simard
Counselling for new careers
Rita Claes

INTERNATIONAL CAREERS JOURNAL, HTTP://WWW.CAREERS-CAFE.COM/CURRENT.PHP3
Assessment: A continuum of practice and a new location in career counselling
Mary McMahon and Wendy Patton
Lifelong Learning Legal Framework – With Reference to Accreditation of Prior Learning
Teruyuki Fujita
Vocational Interests of Australian High School Students
James A Athanasou
The Transfiguration of Careers: Some Evidence from New Zealand
Kerr Inkson

CAREER DEVELOPMENT QUARTERLY, NUMBER 2, 2002
Practice and research in career counselling and development – 2001
Susan C. Whiston, Briana K. Beecheisen
Issues of anger in the workplace: Do gender and gender role matter?
Irene Gianakos
Challenges for creating community career partnerships: Perspectives from practitioners
Richard T. Lapan, Helena P. Osana, Bradley Tucker, John F. Kosciulek

JOURNAL OF EMPLOYMENT COUNSELING, VOLUME 39, NUMBER 4, 2002
Counseling reentry women: An overview
Mark H. Cane
Adjustment issues affecting employment for immigrants from the former Soviet Union
Anastasia Dimun Yost, Margharita S. Lucas
Predicting self-esteem during unemployment: The effect of gender, financial deprivation, alternate roles and social support
Lea E. Waters & Kathleen A Moore

REHABILITATION COUNSELING BULLETIN, VOLUME 46, NUMBER 2, 2003
Job functions and knowledge requirements of certified rehabilitation counselors in the 21st century.
Michael J. Leahy, Fong Chan, Jodi L. Saunders.
Training needs of certified rehabilitation counselors for contemporary practice.
Fong Chan, Michael J. Leahy, Jodi L. Saunders, Vilia M. Tarvydas, James M. Ferrin, Gloria Lee.
A multidimensional approach to the structure of consumer satisfaction with vocational rehabilitation services.
John F. Kosciulek.
An empirical typology of career thoughts of individuals with disabilities.
Daniel C. Lustig, David R. Strauser.
Predictors of vocational rehabilitation return-to-work outcomes in workers’ compensation.
Service: its psychosocial aspects and psychospiritual context.
Carolyn L. Vash.

CHANGE IN EDITORIAL POLICY

The Australian Journal of Career Development has now adopted editorial policies requiring effect size reporting. Appropriate indices of effect size or strength of relationship should be incorporated in the results section of the manuscript (see pp. 5, 25–26 of the American Psychological Association Publication Manual, 5th edition). This information allows the reader to assess not only the statistical significance but also the magnitude of the observed effects or relationships and clarifies the importance of the reported findings.
Books Available for Review

The *Australian Journal of Career Development* has the following books available for independent review. Readers interested in reviewing a text should consider the following guidelines for reviewers and contact the Editor for a review copy.

Guidelines for reviewers

Reviews should include a brief overview of the content and a critical analysis, including the publication’s relevance to career practitioners. They should be around 750 words but you should feel free to extend this if required.

In return for your efforts as a reviewer, you are welcome to keep the copy of the book you are reviewing. Reviews are required within six weeks of receipt. Submit the review as an email attachment (MsWord).

Texts Available for Review

**The Career Portfolio Workbook**  

**Working Identity: Unconventional Strategies for Reinventing Your Career**  

**Netting a Job in Australia and New Zealand**  

**Career Development Programs**  

**The New Careers: Individual Action and Economic Change**  

**Working with Men in the Human Services**  

The texts are provided on a first-come, first-served basis and requests should be forwarded to the Editor, Email: Jim.Athanasou@uts.edu.au  Provide a mailing address to which texts may be sent.
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ARTICLES

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   Ayala Malach-Pines

★ Evaluation of a career assistance program for youth-aged cricketers
   Kate Bobridge, Sandy Gordon, Annette Walker & Rob Thompson

★ The baby and the bathwater: making a case for work experience
   Annette Green & Erica Smith

★ The family's influence on adolescent and young adult career development:
   theory, research and practice
   Cathy Hughes & Trang Thomas

★ An investigation of Singaporeans' use of formal and informal job sources
   Andrew Poh Sui Hoi, Irene Chew Keng-Howe & Albert Liau Kien Fie

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