

Kobus Maree *Editor*

Psychology of Career Adaptability, Employability and Resilience

 Springer

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In order to ensure a high level of quality and originality this book has been independently peer-reviewed by leading international scholars with expertise in the field. The reviews covered the entire text that appears in the published book and provided feedback on the quality and impact of the individual contributions as well as the book as a whole. This book has been published following the positive response from the peer-reviewers.

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Foreword

When I was asked to write a Foreword for this book I agreed immediately, and looked forward to reading the various chapters that would follow. The major themes for the book were intriguing and certainly reflected what I considered to be some of the major issues that needed to be explored in contemporary career development. I also was confident that the editor, Dr. Kobus Maree, would do a fine job of bringing together a wide range of top notch scholars for this task. Now that I have read the preliminary draft for the book I can unequivocally state that this is a work that deserves close attention for both theorists and practitioners. This is a book that deals with challenging issues and provides constructs that help to strengthen the foundation of the Life Design paradigm of career guidance.

One of the strengths of this book is the careful scholarship that went into the development of each chapter. The authors take care to define their terms and to provide historical context for the concepts they are exploring. There are strong historical roots for adaptability, resilience, and employability, and these are clearly articulated. The authors also go on to develop further the ways in which each of these concepts have special application within our current context.

There is a dire need in the twenty-first century for a change of paradigm given the accelerating social, economic and political changes that have altered working life. There is little doubt that in coping with these challenges we need to be more adaptable, resilient and be working on an ongoing basis toward greater employability. It is no longer enough to choose a career focus and acquire a qualification (if this ever was the case). People today need to be prepared for a less defined and more chaotic working landscape. Part of this preparation includes the development of flexible, personal and useful career narratives. Rather than simply managing a career, people today need to be more self-aware and sensitive to changing economic conditions. They also need greater creativity and imagination to craft a response to emerging challenges. Prediction and control are limited, and people must be more proactive in formulating their actions.

The concepts of adaptability, resilience and employability are at the heart of this new career guidance paradigm and as such, this book is very timely. What makes this book particularly noteworthy is the fact that contributing authors come from

around the globe. There are authors from the US, Europe, Africa, Australia, Canada, Iceland, and Taiwan. This breadth of coverage ensures that the concepts covered come from many different vantage points. Ideas of decent work, community involvement, and social justice are imbedded as critical components and help to broaden and contextualize the analysis of these essential career development themes. There also is a holistic focus that helps to provide an underlying girder for this work. Careful application of a developmental and special population lens is applied, and this helps to further expand and deepen the level of inquiry.

There is little doubt that this high-quality book will be of interest to anyone seeking better understanding of current career development theory and practice. The key concepts of adaptability, resilience and employability for a new career development paradigm are foundational and as such need to be explored in all their complexity. *Counsellors are well advised to add this book to their library.*

Norman Amundson
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About the Editor

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Prof. Maree has authored or co-authored 90 peer-reviewed articles and 61 books/book chapters on career counseling and related topics since 2008. In the same period, he supervised 30 doctoral theses and Master's dissertations and read keynote papers at 20⁺ international and at 20⁺ national conferences. Over the past five years, he has spent a lot of time abroad. For instance, he accepted invitations to spend time as a visiting professor at various universities where he presented workshops on, e.g., contemporary developments in career counseling, article writing, and research methodology. Prof. Maree was awarded a fellowship of the IAAP at the ICAP Conference in Paris in July, 2014, and a fellowship of the Psychological Society of South Africa in 2017.

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Part I
Introduction

Chapter 1

The Psychology of Career Adaptability, Career Resilience, and Employability: A Broad Overview

Kobus Maree

Abstract This chapter first discusses the influence of a changing world on people's career adaptability, employability, and career resilience. Next, it elaborates on the responses of professionals working in career counselling to what is happening in society and, more particularly, the workplace. It shows that their individual and collective responses are practical as well as theoretical. Their goal is to take counselling praxis forward and thereby help clients 'survive' in turbulent times. The twin aims of a) enhancing clients' career adaptability and b) helping them, as a consequence, become employable (rather than merely linearly trying to find a job and remaining in one organization for their entire career-lives) are addressed individually and collectively. Ultimately, career counselling professionals (should) strive to help clients acquire career resilience since the world of work no longer provides them with work-holding environments for the duration of their career-lives.

Keywords Psychology of career adaptability · Career adaptability
Career resilience · Employability · Response to changes in the world of work

Introduction

Major work-defining technological advances have occurred in the course of disseminating information across the globe more quickly and efficiently (Schwab, 2016). In the midst of all the changes that are taking place, a high premium is placed on the ability to deal effectively with work-related transitions (Di Fabio & Maree, 2016; Maree, 2017a). This has required career theorists and practitioners to find appropriate terminology to explain what is happening and to regain control over a situation that is seen by many as spiraling out of control (Di Fabio, Maree, &

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Savickas, 2017). This book brings distinguished career counseling theorists and practitioners together to share their views on how the career counseling profession should respond to the changes in the world of work and the technological advances that have resulted from the increasing need to communicate faster and disseminate information more efficiently. As the title suggests, the authors emphasize the twin aims of (a) enhancing clients' career adaptability and (b) helping them, as a consequence, become employable (rather than merely linearly trying to find a job and remaining in one organization for their entire career-lives) (Maree, 2017b). To achieve these aims, clients will have to acquire career resilience—especially since the world of work no longer provides workers with work-holding environments for the duration of their career-lives (Savickas, 2015a, 2015b, 2015c).

The Influence of a Changing World on Career Adaptability, Employability, and Career Resilience

It is neither original nor insightful to state that the world is changing—and changing fast. Nor is it surprising to see that the workplace is following suit. Major work-defining technological advances have occurred in the course of disseminating information across the globe more quickly and efficiently. In the midst of all the changes that are taking place, a high premium is placed on the ability to deal effectively with work-related transitions. This has required career theorists and practitioners to find appropriate terminology to explain what is happening and to regain control over a situation that is seen by many as spiraling out of control (Maree, 2017a).

Those of us working in career counselling have to respond to what is happening in society and, more particularly, the workplace. This response needs to be practical as well as theoretical so that we can take counselling praxis forward and thereby help our clients 'survive' in these turbulent times. Much has been written recently about the negative impact of, for instance, the lack of career counseling and the negative impact of this on tertiary training; about the importance of helping people choose and construct appropriate careers (Hartung, 2013; Savickas, 2011, 2015a, 2015b, 2015c), construct themselves (Guichard, 2013), and draw on their careers to design and live successful lives (Savickas et al., 2009); about the impact of poverty (Osborne & Weiner, 2015; Thompson, 2015) on people's ability to adapt (Blustein, Kenny, & Kozan, 2014); and also about related notions of employability, career resilience, and career adaptability (Maree, 2013; Di Fabio & Maree, 2017; Schmitt & Pilcher, 2004). Up till now, these topics have been dealt with largely individually and separately, but our envisaged publication will combine them in a manner that will enable career counselling theorists and practitioners to use the publication as a guide to help clients forge work identities that will, in turn, enable them to perceive the many opportunities embedded in major challenges and, eventually, not only survive but flourish in career-life contexts.

This book brings distinguished career counselling theorists and practitioners together to share their views on how the career counselling profession should

respond to the changes in the world of work and the technological advances that have resulted from the increasing need to communicate faster and disseminate information more efficiently. As the proposed title suggests, the authors emphasise the twin aims of (a) enhancing clients' career adaptability and (b) helping them, as a consequence, become employable (rather than merely linearly trying to find a job and remaining in one organisation for their entire career-lives). To achieve these aims, clients will have to acquire career resilience—especially since the world of work no longer provides workers with work-holding environments for the duration of their career-lives (Maree, 2017c).

Above all, the book therefore strives to draw on sound, updated theory to demonstrate how perceived threats in the 21st century can conceivably be turned into opportunities. To make this possible, it is essential to take courage from the way in which people have, throughout the centuries, managed to turn change and ensuing work-related challenges (read: large scale unemployment caused by lay-offs) into opportunities. History shows that whenever major technological change has occurred and widespread job losses have ensued, people have managed to use the new technology to create new employment opportunities. Similarly, today, the dramatic advances in information-communication technology have resulted in the creation of many thousands of new jobs and, more importantly, new ways of surviving and designing successful lives (Maree, 2017d). The approach in this book is aligned with the notion of career as story and the need to help people choose and construct careers, construct themselves, design successful lives, and make social contributions. It also attempts to chart the way forward by examining current developments in the workplace. More specifically, it blends career counselling theory and practice by combining the three constructs of career adaptability, employability, and career resilience. In addition, it presents a novel perspective on how to deal with insecurity caused by repeated transitions in the workplace and it puts forward theory-based strategies to anticipate and minimise the effect of repeated transitions in the workplace.

Organization of the Book

The book is structured into eight parts. *Part I* comprises the introductory chapters. In his foreword, Norm Amundson stresses the need for a paradigm change, especially given the accelerating social, economic, and political changes that have drastically altered working life. Workers need to be more adaptable and resilient. They need to work continually towards making themselves more employable in preparation for a less defined and unpredictable working landscape. Greater creativity and imagination will be needed to enable them to respond more adequately and proactively to the new challenges.

Part II, entitled “*Conceptualising career adaptability, career resilience, and employability*”, covers the book's theoretical and conceptual underpinnings. The current chapter (Chap. 1 of Part I) comprises the Introduction for the book. In

Chap. 2, Paul Hartung and Michael Cadaret argue that people have to adapt in order to survive and succeed in all life domains of life. In the workplace, this requires career adaptability, that is, the ability to use and hone the psychosocial resources needed to make changes in self and situation to achieve career satisfaction and success. The authors contend that career adaptability is a key construct for comprehending vocational behavior and for focusing interventions to bolster life-career design. It is a central meta-competency for effective career construction, life design, and career adaptability in the 21st century. The authors trace the origins and evolution of career adaptability as a psychological construct and discuss its significance for career counseling theory, research, and practice (intervention). They conclude that career adaptability is key to developing career resilience and changing the self in fluctuating career contexts, leading to the successful accomplishment of career development tasks and career transitions as well as the resolution of career- and work-based traumas.

In Chap. 3—The foundations of career resilience—Reinekke Lengelle, Beatrice Van der Heijden, and Frans Meijers see (career) resilience as the result of the relational empowerment of people. They argue that the ability to foster both an internal and external dialogue in the process of developing a flexible, personal, and useful career narrative (i.e. career identity) lies at the heart of career resilience (Stebleton, 2010). They examine a model for identity learning that supports their view and also investigate the potential for identity learning in educational settings and work organizations.

In Chap. 4—Life and career design dialogues and resilience—Jacques Pouyaud, Valérie Cohen-Scali, Marie-Line Robinet, and Laurie Sintès examine the concept career resilience in career counseling from a life design perspective. They explain that the concept was first used in physics and that, in psychology, it first appeared in work on “ego resilience”. From a health recovery perspective, it signifies a set of biological, psychological, psycho-emotional, social, and cultural processes that promote self-development after major psychological trauma. In career counseling, career resilience emerged from propositions relating to career motivation. From a life design perspective, career adaptability is seen as part of a “meta-competence” that promotes the development of a more protean frame of mind thus facilitating career transition. A case study is presented that shows how career counselors can help promote resilience.

In Chap. 5—The Importance of career adaptability, career resilience, and employability in designing a successful life—Jérôme Rossier, Maria Cristina Ginevra, Grégoire Bollmann, and Laura Nota contend that, while advocating a holistic approach, the life design paradigm holds also that individual and environmental constraints as well as resources shape people’s career-life journeys in addition to their broader evolution. Career adaptability and career resilience in particular are fundamental personal resources that help people design their career-lives and enable them to put their environmental resources to better use thereby enhancing their employability. Ultimately, these resources promote virtuous circles, adaptive functioning, and successful lives. People’s career journeys and

employability depend on a combination of personal and environmental factors that occur within specific organizational, social, economic, and political structures.

Part III of the book is entitled “Assessing career adaptability and career resilience”. In Chap. 6 of Part III—Assessing Career Adaptability—Patrick Rottinghaus, Nikki Falk, and Alec Eshelman maintain that recent scholarship on career adaptability is helping us better understand the dynamic ways in which people are navigating the occupational landscape of the 21st century. In reflecting on the historical origins and measurement of this important vocational construct, the authors highlight the evolution of the conceptualization and assessment of career adaptability and review current quantitative and qualitative approaches to its measurement. The importance of incorporating quantitative measures, qualitative measures, and cultural reflection in career adaptability assessment is demonstrated by means of a case study.

In Chap. 7—A review of empirical studies on employability and measures of employability—Annamaria Di Fabio reflects on employability as a pivotal construct in 21st century career and life construction. She discusses the different instruments that are available to measure adaptability scientifically and reviews empirical studies on employability.

In Chap. 8—Determining career resilience—Shékina Rochat, Jonas Masdonati, and Jean-Pierre Dauwalder state that while the concept of (career) resilience is receiving increasing attention in the field of career development, little consensus exists on its definition, which is limiting the scope of research on the topic. Examining the concept from a living system framework, the authors propose an operational definition of career resilience as effective vocational functioning under disabling circumstances. They also suggest a practical approach to studying the concept.

Part IV of the book is entitled “Advancing career adaptability, employability, and career resilience in career counseling across the life span”. In Chap. 9 of Part IV—Facilitating adaptability and resilience: Career counseling in resource-poor communities in South Africa—Linda Theron maintains that structural inequality in South Africa is setting up many young people for unemployment and continued deprivation. Adults’ advice that young people from resource-poor communities should invest in education and aspire to lucrative professional careers underestimates how structural constraints complicate career-directed agency and career construction. The author believes that career counselors should concentrate on community-focused career education co-produced by career counselors who themselves have used alternative or non-professional occupations as pathways to (career) resilience.

In Chap. 10—Using the U-Cube for career counseling with adolescents to develop career conversations—Carolyn Alchin and Peter McIlveen examine the use of the U-Cube for constructivist career assessment and counseling. A case study is presented that demonstrates the usefulness of the instrument in facilitating career conversations.

In Chap. 11—Counseling young adults to become career adaptable and career resilient—Jennifer Del Corso argues that young adults’ exposure to a super

saturation of information, career possibilities, and lifestyles through social media increases their expectations as well as their anxieties. Career counselors need newer, narrative-based career counseling strategies that emphasize career adaptability and resiliency to help young adults develop the necessary attitudes, beliefs, and competencies for successful career transitioning, particularly in the current unstable and insecure socio-economic and political climate.

In Chap. 12—Adult career counseling: Narratives of adaptability and resilience—Mark Watson and Mary McMahon explore the merits of a storytelling approach to the career counseling and assessment of adults facing career transitions. They use case study material to illustrate the use of the Integrative Structured Interview (ISI) process. This approach encourages adult career clients to become active agents in reflecting on the multiple stories and settings of their transitional career development. In particular, the ISI enables adult clients to explore career behaviors such as career adaptability and career resilience. It also encourages career practitioners to develop a narrative approach towards career counseling and assessment.

Part V is entitled “Utilising career adaptability, employability, and career resilience to manage transitions”. The career development field has failed to attend to developmental tasks that should be successfully completed in childhood, In Chap. 13 of Part V—Career adaptability, employability, and resilience for children in the early school years—Wendy Patton confirms that career development in childhood has attracted little attention up till now. However, a number of recent theoretical developments have changed this situation. The author explains how these developments have occurred and foregrounds three central constructs in the early school years, namely career adaptability, career resilience, and employability. She also discusses proposals for interventions with this age group.

In Chap. 14—Using the dialogical concept of the “architecture of life space” in facilitating career adaptability, resilience, and coping with transitions—Violetta Drabik-Podgórna proposes the use of a holistic approach to manage the multidimensionality of life. Delineating the dialogic concept of counseling as participatory architecture of life space, the author argues that this counseling model fosters competences such as adaptability, career resilience, and coping with transitions.

In Chap. 15—Career adaptability, employability, and career resilience in managing transitions—Maria Eduarda Duarte, José Tomás da Silva, and Maria Paula Paixão reflect on school-to-work transitions, which they regard as processes that occur over time and involve personal meaning and social issues. Looking at career as an action, rather than a structure, the authors conceptualize career resilience as part of an overarching framework designed to help clients understand self-directed career management as a component of the multidimensional concept of career motivation.

Part VI is entitled “Promoting the career adaptability, employability, and career resilience in special populations”. In Chap. 16 of Part VI—Promoting affirmative career development and work environments for LGBT individuals—Jacks Cheng, Elyssa Klann, Nelson Zounlome, and Barry Chung argue that recent human rights movements have brought about significant changes in the political and social landscape for LGBT people globally. Against this background, the authors discuss

issues of career adaptability, career resilience, and employability for LGBT individuals and propose suggestions for research, practice, and training.

Gender equity in the global workplace remains a distant ideal. In Chap. 17—Women’s career construction: Promoting employability through career adaptability and resilience—Jacqueline Peila-Shuster highlights the huge disparity between men’s and women’s participation rate in the global workforce. Arguing that the gendered workplace is strongly influenced by gender role socialization and stereotyping, the author discusses, through the lens of a life design paradigm, the application and integration of career construction theory and social cognitive career theory and calls for lifelong career development to combat gender stereotypes and promote women’s employability, (career) resilience, and career adaptability.

In Chap. 18—Career adaptability, employability, and career resilience of Asian people—Shelley Tien and Yu-Chen Wang reflect on the meaning of career adaptability in Asian society and foreground the relationship between career adaptability and life satisfaction. The authors introduce a hierarchical model of career employability based on interviewing 41 adults in Taiwan.

Part VII is entitled “Drawing on career adaptability, employability, and career resilience to promote social justice”. In Chap. 19 of Part VII—Paradigm and promise: Life design, psychology of working, and decent work—William Briddick and Hande Sensoy-Briddick argue that the radical changes in the global world of work in the 21st century have again raised the topic of decent work and the possibility of a new direction in the theory and practice of career development and counseling. They discuss two aspects of life design in particular that signal advances in career development and career counseling.

In Chap. 20—Career self-determination theory—Charles Chen explains self-determination theory, an emerging meta-theory that conceptualizes and promotes vocational and career wellbeing by uncovering and utilizing people’s inner strength and potential. The author examines three key career determinants and constructs, namely career autonomy, career competence, and career relatedness to demonstrate the importance of self-determination in career development.

In Chap. 21—Utilizing career adaptability and career resilience to promote employability and decent work and alleviate poverty—Kobus Maree first discusses a few theoretical aspects of career adaptability and career resilience to promote employability and decent work and alleviate poverty. The second part of the chapter deals with seven research projects that illustrate how adaptability and career resilience can be enhanced and harnessed to promote employability and decent work in a developing country context.

In Chap. 22—Career changes on the horizon: The importance of group norms in interpreting the results of career adaptability measures—Guðbjörg Vilhjálmisdóttir discusses the use of the Icelandic version of the *Career Adapt-Ability Scale (CAAS-I)* to develop group norms for Iceland. She wanted also to determine whether the participants in his study who anticipated change in their careers would score higher on career adaptability. Savickas contends that career adaptability processes are galvanized when change occurs or when people envisage imminent career changes.

In Chap. 23—Understanding career resilience and career adaptability in challenging and vulnerable contexts—Marcelo Ribeiro discusses these key constructs as they manifest in challenging and vulnerable contexts such as Global South countries. Research findings on career construction in Latin America are analyzed and interpreted through the lens of intercultural dialogue. The author provides evidence that the Global North epistemology of social constructionism can be blended with the contextualized theories from the Global South and can contribute to the social justice agenda in career guidance and counseling.

In Chap. 24—Career adaptability and career resilience: The roadmap to work inclusion for individuals experiencing disabilities—Lea Ferrari, Teresa Maria Sgaramella, Sara Santilli, and Ilaria di Maggio argue that work plays a major role in career development and in enhancing life satisfaction for people with or without disabilities and contributes to an enhanced sense of self. Using the life design approach as their conceptual framework, the authors focus on career adaptability and career resilience as essential resources for coping in unpredictable and unstable work contexts and for promoting the social and work participation of people with or without disabilities.

In Chap. 25—Fostering career adaptability and resilience and promoting employability using life design counseling—Kevin Glavin, Rachel Haag, and Lisa Forbes argue that the far-reaching changes in work brought about by the transformation of the 21st century world of work have led to a new paradigm in career counseling because traditional career counseling and development models no longer speak to many of the multifaceted career issues currently facing people. The authors offer theoretical and practical advice to help career counseling practitioners, educators, and researchers meet the multi-layered career needs of clients in today's world of work.

Part VIII comprises the Epilogue. In Chap. 26, the Epilogue entitled “An essay about adaptability, employability, and resilience in an age of uncertainty”, David Blustein argues that the three constructs of career adaptability, career resilience, and employability make a compelling case for a new paradigm in career counseling. He adds that these constructs are linked in the book in a way that connects them to broader movements aimed at creating a world where, for example, access to decent work is a human right. The author concludes that “by holding employers and public leaders responsible for ensuring that people have access to decent work, we will be building the structural supports that will nurture our natural strivings for adaptability, employability, and resilience”.

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Part II
**Conceptualising Career Adaptability,
Employability, and Career Resilience**

Chapter 2

Career Adaptability: Changing Self and Situation for Satisfaction and Success

Paul J. Hartung and Michael C. Cadaret

The meta-competencies [of identity and adaptability] give individuals a sense of when it is time to change and the capacity to change.

M. L. Savickas (2011, p. 11).

Abstract Human beings must adapt to survive and thrive across all domains of life. Doing so in the work domain requires career adaptability—the particular capacity to hone and use psychosocial resources necessary to make changes in self and situation for career satisfaction and success. Rooted in life-span, life-space theory, the career adaptability construct has evolved both conceptually and practically since it was first introduced nearly 40 years ago. Career adaptability now represents a principal construct for comprehending vocational behavior and a focus of interventions to foster life-career design. As a meta-competency for effective career construction and life design, career adaptability today offers a cross-nationally valid and vital conceptual and practical frame for assisting individuals to manage their careers within changing world and local economies and job markets. The present chapter traces the origins and evolution of career adaptability as a psychological construct and discusses its significance for career studies and intervention. Career adaptability fits the contemporary landscape of careers as a focus for theory and practice to assist individuals to build resilience; change self and circumstances in relation to fluctuating career contexts; and successfully navigate career development tasks, career transitions, and work-based traumas.

Keywords Career adaptability · Career maturity · Career construction
Life-span/life-space theory · Life design

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Introduction

Human life-careers require adaptability, the capacity to make changes in self and situation for satisfaction and success (Brown & Lent, 2016; Morrison & Hall, 2002; Santilli, Marcionetti, Rochat, Rossier, & Nota, 2016; Savickas, 1997, 2013; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Super & Knasel, 1981; Vondracek, Ford, & Porfeli, 2014). Individuals must continuously adapt throughout the life course to respond effectively to changing personal needs and environmental demands and opportunities in order to remain productive, purposeful, and gainfully employed. Recognizing this fact, careers scholars and practitioners around the world today advance career adaptability, particularly within the life-designing paradigm (Savickas et al., 2009) and through narrative practice methods (Maree, 2015), as a cardinal construct useful for understanding vocational behavior and for designing interventions to assist individuals to make changes in self and situation so that they can navigate work and workplaces, increase their employability, and promote self-regulatory cognitions, emotions, behaviors, and attitudes essential for career satisfaction and success (e.g., de Guzman & Choi, 2013; Glavin, 2015; Hamtiaux, Houssemand, & Vrignaud, 2013; Hirschi, Hermann, & Keller, 2015; Rossier, 2015; Savickas et al., 2009).

Career adaptability first emerged as a construct within life-span, life-space theory (Super, 1990; Super & Knasel, 1981). This proved a response to the insufficiency of the career maturity construct, apropos adolescent vocational development, to explain adult career-stage development. Subsequent empirical and conceptual work over the past 20 years has effectively advanced career adaptability in place of career maturity. This work has done so because adaptability has evolved both conceptually and practically as a meta-competency for effective career construction and life design (Morrison & Hall, 2002; Rossier, 2015; Savickas, 1997, 2012b, 2013; Savickas et al., 2009). As a meta-competency alongside identity, denoting intrapsychic clarity about self-in-role (Hartung & Taber, 2015; McAdams, 2001; Savickas, 2011), career adaptability involves the psychosocial capacity and skills to make changes in self and situations needed for managing tasks, transitions, and traumas associated with career exploration, career choice, and work adjustment.

Organizations and workplaces in constant flux offer little security. Meanwhile, the timing of roles and the normative role sequence from child to spouse to parent to grandparent and from student to worker to retiree has given way to a wide variety of life and career pathways. The increasing variability in role sequence and timing suggests that a stable vocational identity may hinder favorable functioning (Vondracek & Porfeli, 2011). Scholars and practitioners alike have therefore advanced adaptability as critical for dealing with ongoing career change and transformation. In an uncertain and unstable world, individuals must now turn inward through self-reflection and skill development to promote their own career adaptability and thereby effectively self-regulate, build resilience, and increase their employability.

As evidenced sharply within the chapters of the present volume, career adaptability now offers a cross-nationally valid and vital conceptual and practical frame

for assisting individuals to manage their careers within changing world and local economies and job markets. This is due in large part to a wealth of literature that has accumulated to map the conceptual network and measurement of the construct (Rossier, 2015; Savickas, 2013; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). This literature has grown especially within the past ten years spawned by the work of concerted international collaborations (see for example Rossier, 2015; Savickas et al., 2009; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Setting the stage for the volume, the present chapter traces the origins and development of career adaptability as a psychological construct and discusses its significance for career theory and intervention.

Career Adaptability Through Three Paradigms

The focus of career counseling and development has shifted along with the changing landscape of the world of work (Pope, 2015) and changes in the very notion of career itself; (Collin & Young, 2000; Inkson, Dries, & Arnold, 2015). Theories and conceptualizations of career choice and development that arose during the 20th century responded to the needs of traditional career trajectories. These theories and their corresponding practice methods fit within two principal 20th-century traditions of person-environment fit and life-span development. Subsequently, a third career theory and practice tradition of life-designing emerged in early 21st-century to better respond to the realities of the digital and global age wherein individuals often feel uncertain and uneasy in the face of a work world that frequently offers little in the way of stability and security (Nota & Rossier, 2015; Savickas, 2012a, b; Savickas, et al., 2009).

Career adaptability first emerged within the developmental career tradition as a construct to construe and advance adult career development in a way that would augment career maturity as a construct that applied to career development processes during adolescence (Savickas, 1997; Super & Knasel, 1981). More recently, career adaptability has effectively replaced career maturity as a construct for conceptualizing coping resources for making changes in self and situation to effectively manage a life-career. Indeed, with the advent of the life-designing paradigm, career adaptability has evolved as a cardinal construct and central goal for life-career satisfaction and success (Savickas et al., 2009). Seeds of the adaptability construct can also be found in the person-environment fit tradition.

P-E fit: Adapting to fit self to work environments. The differential psychology of person-environment (P-E) fit and occupational choice (e.g., Holland, 1997; Parsons, 1909) followed a model of career that assumed a linear-hierarchical progression. Most workers were assumed to track a set path from school to work and move, metaphorically speaking, up a career ladder to positions of increasing achievement and responsibility within an organization (Inkson, Dries, & Arnold, 2015). In turn, career counseling practice followed suit by providing vocational guidance services to match people to occupations (Savickas, 2015). Vocational guidance practices are subsumed under theories that focus on individual differences

within the P-E fit paradigm. Along with the Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), the Theory of Vocational Personalities and Work Environments (Holland, 1997) stands as an exemplar of the P-E fit paradigm. Holland posited six personality types called Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, Conventional (RIASEC) that comprised individuals' corresponding vocational interests, capacities, work values, and personality traits. These six types also fit work and educational environments such that knowing the dominant and sub-dominant traits of individuals' vocational personalities, counselors could help clients to match themselves to occupations that best suit their personalities. Within the RIASEC model, Holland (1997) linked a heightened sense of personality-type clarity in the form of vocational identity directly to a greater capacity to adapt self to and make changes in corresponding work environments. Recent research implicates career adaptability as a dynamic mechanism affecting links between dispositional personality traits and career adapting behavior (Nilforooshan & Salimi, 2016). Positive psychological traits involved with hope, optimism, and resilience also show relationships with career adaptability (Buyukgoze-Kavas, 2016).

Life-span development: Adapting to meet developmental tasks. Although theories like Holland's in the P-E fit psychology tradition aptly answered the question of *what* occupation matches an individual's unique personality, they did not answer the question of *how* individuals progress in their occupational roles. Responding to this problem, Super (1957) proposed a developmental theory of vocational behavior and launched the psychology of careers. In so doing, the focus for career theory and intervention accommodated to also attending to how individuals cope with the development of their careers and the tasks that correspond to their advancement in occupational roles.

A core construct within Super's (1955) model was termed *career maturity* and denoted readiness of an individual during adolescence to adjust to the demands of social roles including the role of worker. Progress in vocational development during adolescence was conceived to involve increasing an individual's level of career maturity, or choice readiness by dealing with career exploration-stage tasks in both attitudinal and cognitive domains (Savickas, 1997; Super, 1974; Super, Savickas, & Super, 1996; Thompson, Lindeman, Super, Jordaan, & Myers, 1984). Successful coping in the attitudinal domain means that adolescents develop firm beliefs about the importance of planning their vocational futures and exploring the world of work, and that they initiate behaviors to realize those beliefs (Crites, 1971; Thompson, Lindeman, Super, Jordaan, & Myers, 1984). In the cognitive domain, successful exploration-stage task coping means that adolescents acquire and use knowledge about the content and process of career decision making and about the world of work to make informed and effective educational and vocational decisions (Crites, 1971; Thompson et al., 1984; Westbrook, Elrod, & Wynne, 1996). As will be discussed below, career adaptability eventually emerged as a construct within life-span, life-space theory because career maturity did not adequately capture adult career development processes (Knasel & Super, 1981).

Super's theory enhancement incorporated individual differences and explained, through social role theory, how individuals develop throughout their life-careers

and correspondingly make career decisions. The evolution of the theory is evident in Super's first naming the theory "Career Development Theory," then "Developmental Self-Concept Theory," and ultimately "Life-Span, Life-Space Theory" (Hartung, 2013; Savickas, 1997). Functionalism provided the organizing principle undergirding Super's theory-building work. From the traditions of Dewey (1886) and Woodworth (1938), functionalism concerns the questions, "What do people do?" and "Why do they do it?" Functionalism was the precursor of psychological thought and in mid-20th century was largely supplanted by behaviorism as the dominant psychological paradigm.

Super's construction of a developmental career theory was influenced by his preference for functionalism and it is apparent in the structure of his theories (Savickas, 1997). The emergence of life roles in Super's theory moved career theory away from a unidimensional understanding of individuals toward a multi-faceted view that included adapting self and situation to roles in home, school, work, and community. This shift not only fit with a post-industrial era, but also began a move away from functionalism toward a post-modern approach to understanding the vocational self in multiple contexts. Super's (1954) work to develop the Thematic-Extrapolation Method (TEM) and the pioneering, if not at the time widely accepted work of David Tiedeman (1961) moved beyond positivist, trait-factor conceptions of career to advance constructivist and social constructionist perspectives. In developing the TEM, Super produced the first narrative career intervention focused on life themes to promote career choice and development. The TEM combined career pattern and life history data in a chronological sequence that permitted identifying and interpreting recurring themes in an individual life-career story (Jepsen, 1994).

Like Super, Tiedeman (1961) found the models and methods of differential career psychology ineffective in capturing the rich complexity and subjective nature of human life-careers. He therefore devised a career process model that incorporated concepts such as reflective career consciousness and career constructionism to explain career as an ongoing, unfolding, evolving process of growth and change requiring individual adaptability. Tiedeman proposed that individuals act with purpose to anticipate, implement, differentiate, and reintegrate their experiences to define their own personal realities and bring continuity to their life-careers. In so doing they inscribe their careers with meaning. Because he believed career embodied life, Tiedeman proposed that both satisfaction and success derive from engaging in work commensurate with one's own personal meaning system, much like shaping a narrative and adapting in ways that allow one to become more complete and whole (Maree, 2007).

Through their work, both Super and Tiedeman set the stage for an eventual rise of narrative and psychological constructivist and social constructionist approaches to career theory and intervention that occurred in full by the early 1990s. Career adaptability represents a central construct for comprehending and shaping careers within these approaches.

Super's integration of self, and the added component of life-roles in his final statement of life-span, life-space theory (Super, 1990) made a significant

contribution to understanding the self in vocational behavior and in ways distinct from sociological and other psychological theories. Super's work provided the foundation for setting the course of the career adaptability construct that he proposed fosters development as individuals cycle and recycle through five career stages over the life-span. These developmental periods demarcate the stages of a career beginning in childhood with the stage of growth, continuing during adolescence with exploration, then career establishment during emerging adulthood, middle-adult career maintenance, and late-adult career disengagement (Hartung, 2013). Each career stage presents discernible developmental tasks in the form of substages that entail a primary adaptive goal related to self-concept development. The prime task during growth is to adapt through initial self-concept formation. Adolescence presents need to adapt by initially implementing one's self-concept in trial occupational roles, such as part-time employment. Test of an online career intervention with middle-school students showed significant increases in career adaptability among this age group (Nota, Santilli, & Soresi, 2016). Emerging adulthood presents the prime adaptive task of stabilizing the self-concept. Middle adulthood concerns adapting to build upon the self-concept. Disengagement presents the principal task of realizing the self-concept in non-occupational roles. Developmental tasks thus convey socially and culturally expected responsibilities that individuals must meet with regard to developing a career. Adaptability promotes completing tasks associated with each stage to build resilience and a foundation for future career satisfaction and success.

In a review of life-span, life-space theory, Swanson (1992) stated that the decision-making processes such as career maturity that underlie life-span development in young adults needed integration with life-space processes, such as career adaptability, emphasizing establishment and maintenance, that had been researched among middle-aged and older adults. Other theorists followed and agreed with the proposed need for the integration of decision-making and coping process models to better understand career development (Brown, 1990; Krumboltz, 1994).

Life-designing: Adapting to shape a life-career. Responding to these critiques and advancing Super's work, Savickas and an international group of colleagues (2009) proposed life designing as a new paradigm that could better capture the complexity of careers in 21st-century life. In so doing, they advanced adaptability as a central construct for shaping self through work and relationships building on the work of Savickas (1997) many years earlier. Savickas (1997) asserted that the construct of career adaptability within life-span, life-space theory addressed the components of learning, decision-making, and coping processes. As a construct, and central goal of life-design counseling, adaptability touches on the four dimensions of life-span, life-space theory incorporated in career construction theory (Savickas, 2013). One dimension concerns individual differences in the form of adaptive skills and styles. A second dimension involves development in the form of adaptation across the life course. A third dimension encompasses the self in the form of a phenomenological focus on subjective goals and movement toward an integrated self-view. A fourth dimension involves context in the form of historical and cultural factors such as barriers and affordances that shape career development.

From his analysis, Savickas (1997) defined career adaptability as “readiness to cope with the predictable tasks of preparing for and participating in the work role and with the unpredictable adjustments prompted by changes in work and working conditions” (p. 254). He later elaborated on this definition within the life-design paradigm as follows:

Career adaptability denotes an individual’s psychosocial resources for coping with current and anticipated vocational development tasks, occupational transitions, and work traumas that, to some degree large or small, alter their social integration (Savickas, 1997). Individuals draw upon these self-regulation resources to solve the unfamiliar, complex, and ill-defined problems presented by the tasks, transitions, and traumas. These resources are considered psychosocial because they reside at the intersection of person-in-environment. Adaptability shapes self-extension into the social environment as individuals connect with society and regulate their own vocational behavior (Savickas, 2013, pp. 157–158).

Savickas postulated that this understanding of adaptability supplants the core construct of career maturity in Super’s theory. The use of adaptability in both the life-design paradigm and in career construction theory proves congruent with the shift toward emphases on self-in-relation to environment and acknowledges contextual and multicultural perspectives on work and career (Flum, 2015; Leong & Flores, 2015). Thus, both in life-span, life-space theory and its successors the life designing paradigm (Savickas et al., 2009) and career construction theory (Savickas, 2002, 2013), career adaptability merges the areas of life-span and life-space as it represents an ongoing orientation toward coping with career developmental tasks, transitions, and traumas.

Super’s theory, rooted in functionalism, also was expanded via the work of Savickas (2002, 2013) and Savickas and his colleagues (2009) to meet the changing economic conditions and job climate of the 21st century. Savickas formed career construction theory by using social constructionism as a meta-theory to allow for the flexibility needed in shaping a self in relation to the world and to offer a contextualist alternative to the mechanism of P-E fit approaches and the organicism of life-span, life-space theory. Within career construction theory, career adaptability serves to delineate how individuals respond to and cope with personal and environmental changes that include vocational development tasks, occupational transitions, and work traumas (Savickas, 2012a).

Savickas (2013) distinguished career adaptability from related constructs of adaptation and adaptivity. Adaptation refers to outcomes that result from adaptivity and adaptability. Such outcomes include life-role integration, stable role commitments, and active role management. Adaptivity refers to flexibility and willingness to make changes in self and situation by responding effectively to career-related tasks, transitions, and traumas. Consistent with career construction theory, adaptivity has been shown to predict adapting and adaptation behaviors (Perera & McIlveen, 2017) and in turn, adaptability predicts adapting responses as well as adaptation results (Rudolph, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017). In sum, adaptivity means readiness to cope, adaptability involves having the resources to cope, and adaptation denotes results that emerge from adaptivity and adaptability.

In career construction theory, career adaptability is defined by four global dimensions: concern, control, curiosity, and confidence (Savickas, 2012a, 2013). These are enacted through attitudes and behaviors that allow individuals to master, negotiate, or resolve career changes. Through adaptive readiness and adaptable coping behaviors, individuals express *concern*, characterized by planfulness about their future career; *control*, marked by a feeling of agency and self-determination in career construction; *curiosity* about various occupations as well as a degree of self-knowledge; and *confidence*, signifying self-efficacy to deal with barriers to the career decision-making processes.

Savickas (2012a) postulated that individuals who are better prepared to cope with career tasks, transitions, and traumas will have better career-related outcomes, or adaptations. In research, career adaptability is associated with a number of outcomes, including improved goal self-regulatory behaviors (Goodman, 1994) as well as smoother school-to-work transitions, heightened job search strategies, and greater job satisfaction (Koen, Klehe, & Van Vianen, 2012). Chong and Leong (2015) researched an integrative model of career adaptability. Their findings suggested that career adaptability precedes strategic career management and is determined by conscientiousness, cognitive flexibility, and occupational exploration. Furthermore, Ginevra, Pallini, Vecchio, Nota, and Soresi (2016) provide evidence that career adaptability is preceded by positive attitude toward the future and future orientation in predicting career decidedness.

From Career Maturity to Career Adaptability

Within life-span, life-space theory, career adaptability emerged from the construct of career maturity. Super (1955) posited that life-stage success requires career maturity, a term Super coined to explain and measure progress in moving through the developmental stages and tasks particularly associated with the Exploration stage of vocational development. Career maturity denotes attitudinal and cognitive readiness to make educational and vocational choices. Attitudinal readiness means active engagement in planning and exploring an occupational future. Cognitive readiness means possessing knowledge about occupations and how to make good career decisions. The Career Maturity Inventory (CMI; Crites & Savickas, 1995) measures global and specific dimensions of career maturity. Super and his colleagues (Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Jordaan, & Myers, 1979) subsequently constructed the Career Development Inventory (CDI; cf. Savickas & Hartung, 1996) to also measure level of career choice readiness more broadly in terms of engagement in career planning and exploration, as well as knowledge about career decision making and the world of work. Both the CMI and CDI are available free at www.vocopher.com.

Career maturity proved an apt term to denote increased choice readiness typically accompanying age and grade-level increases during the adolescent years. Despite attempts to apply the construct beyond the exploration stage, “the focus remained on a structural model of career maturity in adolescence”

(Savickas, 1997, p. 250). Recognizing this constraint and the limitations inherent in using a biologically-based term to describe a psychosocially-based process, the theory eventually replaced career maturity with career adaptability (Super & Knasel, 1981; Savickas, 1997; Super et al., 1996). As noted above, career adaptability entails having the readiness and resources to cope with developmental tasks, career transitions, and work traumas across the entire life span (Savickas, 1997, 2013). Recent research has advanced and supported career adaptability along three primary dimensions of planning, exploring, and deciding (Creed, Fallon, & Hood, 2009; Hirschi, 2009; Johnston, 2016; Koen et al., 2012). The most recently revised version of the CMI produced an adaptability form that measures the dimensions of career adaptability for diagnostic work with school populations up to and including twelfth grade (Savickas & Porfeli, 2011).

Career Adaptability Dimensions

Career construction (Savickas, 2002, 2013) offers a contemporary advancement of the developmental perspective on vocational behavior and a comprehensive career assessment and counseling approach. The theory identifies four basic dimensions of career adaptability. This conceptual refinement indicates developmental lines wherein individuals must establish a foundation of (a) concern about the future, (b) control over their lives, (c) curiosity about occupational careers, and (d) confidence to construct a future and deal with career barriers (Savickas, 2002, 2013). The components of looking ahead to envision the future, owning one's life-career decisions to construct the future, looking around to explore work and career opportunities, and building confidence to solve problems form the critical theoretical dimensions of career adaptability and are, as well, represented in the research (e.g., Ginevra et al., 2016; Johnston, 2016; Rudolph et al., 2017). These four developmental lines of career adaptability (i.e., concern, control, curiosity, and confidence) extend through the traditional developmental career stages, or what Savickas (2013) termed the adaptive functions of orientation (growth in Super's model), exploration, stabilization (establishment), management, and disengagement and the tasks associated with these stages or functions. Developing career adapt-abilities across these stages or functions entails forming distinct attitudes, beliefs, and competencies related to career planning, choice, and adjustment, referred to as the ABCs of career construction. These ABCs influence the strategies individuals use to solve problems and the behaviors they enact to align their vocational self-concepts with work roles over the life course (Savickas, 2013).

Career concern deals with issues of orienting to the future and feeling optimistic about it. It involves developing a sense of hopefulness and a planful attitude about the future. Lack of career concern leads to a problem of indifference toward and pessimism about the future. Experiences, opportunities, and activities afford individuals a growing sense of hopefulness and a planful attitude about the future. Insufficient attention to or hope for the future often precipitates negative emotions

and troublesome behaviors. Career counselors use time perspective interventions to increase career concern by heightening awareness, fostering optimism, and increasing future planning orientation and behaviors.

Career control involves increasing self-regulation through career decision making and taking responsibility for the future. It involves a sense of self-direction and personal ownership of the future along with a decisive attitude and an ability to make decisions about educational and vocational pursuits. Assertive behavior and willful acts nurture individual autonomy and self-reliance. Underdeveloped ability to control one's future creates a problem of indecision, wavering, and uncertainty about work and career choices. Career counselors use decision-making interventions to increase career control by clarifying self-concept, decreasing anxiety, and empowering clients to deal with opposition from parents and significant others.

Career curiosity reflects an inquisitive attitude that leads to productive career exploration, which permits an adolescent to realistically explore educational and vocational options and approach the future realistically (Savickas, 2013). Risk-taking and inquiring behaviors foster a sense of inquisitiveness about and interest in the world of work. Lack of career curiosity limits exploration and prompts unrealism and unrealistic aspirations and expectations about the future. Career counselors use reality testing and information-based interventions to prompt and reinforce exploration and ultimately increase knowledge about the world of work and foster exploratory behavior.

Career confidence deals with acquiring problem-solving ability and self-efficacy beliefs. It involves an efficacious attitude and an ability to solve problems and effectively navigate obstacles to constructing the future. Persistence and industrious behavior nurture a sense of self-assurance and equality in relation to others. Lack of career confidence leads to inhibition, self-consciousness, and timidity in approaching the future. Career counselors use role-play, social modeling, and cognitive-behavioral interventions to increase self-efficacy beliefs and foster self-esteem. Concern deals with having a future, control deals with owning the future, curiosity relates to exploring possible selves, and confidence refers to the ability to construct a preferred future and overcome obstacles. Career construction counseling has as a primary goal to increase a client's level of career adaptability so that they can more effectively produce their own development.

In summary, curiosity fuels the exploration of possible selves and occupations, career concern prompts the establishment of possible futures, confidence empowers individuals to construct a preferred future and overcome obstacles, and career control affords ownership of a chosen future. Career construction counseling has as a primary aim to increase an individual's level of career adaptability so that they can more effectively produce their own development in the face of changing opportunities and constraints (Savickas, 2002). The career adaptability model offers a solid conceptual framework for conducting career interventions and investigating their effectiveness. Additionally, the four adaptability dimensions have provided a guide for scale construction and development that has equipped counselors and researchers with a ready aid for appraising career adapt-abilities (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

Conclusion

Career adaptability represents a useful theoretical and empirical construct for understanding vocational behavior. Rooted in the work of Super's life-span, life-space theory and now serving as a hallmark of the life-design paradigm and career construction theory and practice, career adaptability helps to explain how individuals cope in response to career development tasks, occupational transitions, and work traumas. In doing so, career adaptability and its four dimensions offer researchers a conceptual frame for studying life-career design. It also offers practitioners a frame for assessing how best to assist individuals facing career transitions and changes and implementing appropriate interventions accordingly. Career adaptability fits the contemporary landscape of careers in assisting individuals with navigating self-in-relation to changing environments and career needs.

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Chapter 3

The Foundations of Career Resilience

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Abstract In this chapter resilience is seen as a result of the relational empowerment of individuals. This implies not only the strengthening of individuals' ability to create growth-fostering relationships, but also the creation of a learning environment that enables this strengthening. We postulate that at the heart of career resilience is the ability to foster both an internal (i.e., meaningful felt conversation with oneself) and external dialogue (i.e., meaningful conversations with others about lived experience) in the process of developing a flexible, personal, and useful career narrative (i.e., career identity). First, we discuss a model for identity learning that forms the basis of our claim. Next, we explore how much room there is for identity learning in both educational settings and in work organizations. We conclude that there is little space for an actual dialogue in both environments. Given the current demands placed upon the workforce and the complexity, insecurity, and individualization of society, attention to fostering career resilience through dialogue should be one of the pillars of management in schools and in work organizations.

Keywords Resilience in the workplace and education • Career identity
Internal and external dialogue • Career learning

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Introduction

In the first half of the 20th century, the individual life course was largely determined by ‘standard biographies’ (Du Bois-Reymond, 1998; Meijers & Wesselingh, 1999) whereby identity—the story individuals tell themselves and share with others about the meaning of their lives (Meijers & Lengelle, 2012)—was constructed on the basis of socially prescribed ‘master narratives’ (Davies & Harré, 1990) or ‘grand narratives’ (Lyotard, 1984). This pattern changed in the second half of the 20th century with the advent of secularization, the lifting of socio-political barriers, growing prosperity and mobility and the resulting increase in possible choices. The ‘prescriptive power’ of these narratives became increasingly contested, especially by young people, resulting in a growing individualization of society (Bauman, 2001; Giddens, 1991). For most people, this movement towards individualization was not problematic as long as the ever-growing prosperity made it possible to have a second or third chance to make new choices. However, society soon became a risk society (Beck, 1992).

Besides individualization, the risk society is characterized by (based upon Schnabel, 2000):

- *internationalization*, which refers to increased globalization with the accompanying economic liberalization and changing immigration patterns;
- *informalization*, as a form of de-institutionalizing organizations and ways of organizing things, as these had developed in the 19th century and the first half of the 20th century. Organizations in the 21st century will become less hierarchical, and will therefore increasingly acquire the character of collaborative networks, where people work with one another in formal or informal teams, both close and through digital networks at a distance;
- *informatization*: technological developments will increasingly acquire an open informatized nature. The meaning of information will change, where the specific selection of relevant information will become more important than the volume and availability;
- *intensification*, refers to the changing dynamics and the increasing role and meaning of lived experience in life and work as emotional labour (i.e., work where emotions must be applied in a conscious way) becomes increasingly important (Doorewaard & Benschop, 2003; Sennet, 1998).

These developments characterizing the risk society forced employers to make their organizations more flexible. Flexibility was realised by decreasing the amount of full-time workers as a result of outsourcing some of their functions, and, instead, appointing part-time, contract, and project workers. The latter can be assigned to tasks more flexibly and many employers believe that there is less need to invest in their benefits or career development (Lent, 2013). More than ever before, under these circumstances, realizing a sustainable career is primarily the responsibility of individuals themselves. Recently, Van der Heijden and De Vos (2015) defined sustainable careers as “the sequence of an individual’s different career experiences,

reflected through a variety of patterns of continuity over time, crossing several social spaces, and characterized by individual agency, herewith providing meaning to the individual” (p. 7). However, being responsible for a sustainable career weighs heavily on individuals as they are confronted with the fact that a profession to identify with and job security are no longer provided by employers (Leach, 2017; Mann & Huddleston, 2017). Our work and lives are subject to luck and chance and we need to cultivate new career competencies. Moreover, in order to survive we also need to know when to ask for help (Lengelle, 2016).

In this threatening climate, people’s search for career fulfilment (e.g., adequate self- and career construction) can easily be marked by feelings of “cruel optimism” (Berlant, 2011): maintaining an attachment to a challenging, imaginary career ambition and its attendant promises of job satisfaction, rewards and career development, in advance of it likely remaining unfulfilled or lost. Cruel optimism does not enhance a person’s chances on the labour market, instead individuals have to develop career adaptability (Savickas, 2011; Savickas et al., 2009), part of which is career resilience (Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015). Within the social sciences resilience is understood as “an interactive concept that refers to a relative resistance to environmental risk experiences, or the overcoming of stress or adversity” (Rutter, 2006, p. 1). Research over the last few decades has demonstrated resilience to be a multidimensional phenomenon that varies according to contexts, internal variables, and external changes (Chiaburu, Baker, & Pitariu, 2006; Connor & Davidson, 2003).

According to Richardson (2002), Everall, Altrows and Paulson (2006), MetzI and Morrell (2008) and Robertson et al. (2015), models of resilience have predominantly focused on one of three operational definitions. First, as a stable personality trait, which protects individuals from the negative effects of risk and adversity. A trait is an individual disposition that is relatively stable over the course of a lifespan, is difficult to change and drives human behaviour (Pervin, 1993). Throughout a large part of the twentieth century, the trait (-factor) approach was dominant among psychologists. During the past few decades, however, scholars have started to question the predictive validity of the trait approach because of inconsistent findings regarding the correlation between traits, well-being and behaviour across different situations at work (Nezlek, 2007). Second, resilience has been conceptualized as a positive outcome “which is defined by the presence of positive mental health (such as positive self-concept and self-esteem, academic achievement, success at age-appropriate developmental tasks, etc.) and the absence of psychopathology, despite exposure to risk” (Metzl & Morrell, 2008, p. 305). Third and last, resilience is interpreted as a dynamic learning process dependent upon interactions between individual and contextual variables that evolve over time. In this sense, resilience refers to the capability to ‘bounce back’ from negative emotional experiences associated with adversity, uncertainty and threat (Tugate & Fredrickson, 2004).

All three of these definitions of resilience, however, stay within a framework that makes the individual primarily responsible for acquiring and being resilient. Conversely, Hartling’s (2005) concept of resilience as referenced by

Relational-Cultural Theory (RCT) moves beyond an individualistic notion. According to RCT, resilience has to be viewed in the context of relationships and culture. To illustrate, Hartling cites studies of white, middle-class businessmen and notes that the resilient individuals studied were “the beneficiaries of a silent system of extensive support comprised of secretaries, wives, mothers, and undervalued service providers ... who likely made it possible for these privileged professionals to be hardy” (Hartling, 2005, p. 340). In other words, from the perspective of RCT, resilience is fostered by focussing on the relational empowerment of individuals. This implies not only the strengthening of individuals’ ability to create growth-fostering relationships, but also the creation of a learning environment that enables this strengthening. Resilience, in other words, is a shared responsibility of the individual and his or her social environment.

In this chapter, we adopt the RCT-approach of resilience as we believe it rightly critiques the one-sided individualistic character of constructionist career theories (Leach, 2017; Reid, 2005). In order to address this gap in the scholarly literature, we therefore focus on the question regarding relational empowerment and connections that can be fostered in order to cultivate resilience. We postulate that at the heart of career resilience is the ability to foster both an internal (i.e., meaningful felt conversation with oneself) and external dialogue (i.e., meaningful conversations with others about lived experience) in the process of developing a flexible, personal, and useful career narrative (i.e., career identity). In the following section, we discuss a model for identity learning that forms the basis of our claim. Next, we explore how much room there is for identity learning in both educational settings and in working organizations.

Identity Learning

According to Brewer (2003), an identity narrative must create meaning in a social and in an existential sense. As Picasso once said: “The meaning of life is to find your gift. The purpose of life is to give it away” (www.goodreads.com/quotes/607827-the-meaning-of-life-is-to-find-your-gift-the). At the core of modern career theories is the idea that this process of meaning-making can only be realized when individuals get to know themselves, more specifically identify life themes, which provide unity in a person’s life story (Meijers & Lengelle, 2015; Savickas, 2011). Life themes are subconscious patterns in lives and life stories that usually have their roots in earlier painful life experiences (Csikszentmihalyi & Beattie, 1979). “All trauma is preverbal”, Van der Kolk (2014, p. 43) succinctly states, therefore life themes are usually half or sometimes entirely subconscious and the task at hand is to take what has been suffered and give meaning to it through language. The idea is to voice tacit knowledge and begin to articulate a meaningful story of self that also has relevance for one’s career. Or as Savickas (2011) says “People convert symptom into strength through actively mastering what they passively suffered” (p. 33).

As pain from the past remains painful, and recalling it will always hurt (Baker & Stauth, 2003), stressful experiences affect the development of brain, mind, and body awareness, all of which are closely connected (Siegel & Solomon, 2003). These experiences are stored in the emotional brain, mainly in the form of intuitions and barriers to rational thinking. However, as Robertson (2012, p. 283) puts it: “there can be no change without naming the problem” and this has to be done by and in the rational brain (McGilchrist, 2010). The process of constructing a career story, therefore, has to be conceptualized linking reason and feelings about an experience; it is not about controlling emotions (Van Woerkom, 2010). Indeed, a successful identity-learning process starts with a bodily awareness of emotions (Gendlin, 1996) and develops into a more cognitive understanding, which ultimately must meet with a sense of affective congruence. Such a process does not happen in isolation or automatically; current triggers that touch and help unearth life themes must be processed by the individual in conversation with meaningful others.

The development of a career identity (i.e., career story) can only take shape in response to the processing of a ‘trigger’ (e.g., losing one’s job, wrestling with questions of career choice, repeated patterns of conflict), which forms a demarcation point in the life course (Meijers & Lengelle, 2012). Bühler (1935) refers to such a crisis as a “boundary experience”: an experience whereby an individual encounters the boundaries of his or her existing self-concept and cannot cope with the situation and its exigencies (Meijers & Wardekker, 2002).

Here, it is important to note that stressful experiences as described above often deactivate the ability to be rational for brief or longer periods (Van der Kolk, 2014). Even if rationality is reengaged (by for instance putting feelings aside), the thoughts that emerge are frequently rationalizations and become unhelpful default narratives. Humans are apt to reach for ways of avoiding what triggers them emotionally rather than to touch on what is unprocessed. They do this by displaying the symptoms described by Baker and Stauth (2003) in the acronym ‘VERB’—victimization, entitlement, rescue, and blame. This form of rationalization is, as Rand (1984) puts it, a “process of not perceiving reality, but of attempting to make reality fit one’s emotions” (p. 12). No matter how much insight and understanding an individual develops, “the rational brain is basically impotent to talk the emotional brain out of its own reality” (Van der Kolk, 2014, p. 47) and it tries to explain away pain with unhelpful and even damaging consequences.

With the above in mind, it is clear that ways of conceptualizing and processing boundary experiences is necessary. Law (1996) developed a model that can be used to conceptualise how tacit knowledge is voiced. His model distinguishes four stages: sensing, sifting, focusing, and understanding. *Sensing* is the stage in which information is gathered (from various sources, in particular those that are emotionally compelling), but no explanation or perspective is yet developed. During this (first stage) the main focus is on becoming aware of feelings (and the attached memories) so that the individual might ‘give them a voice’. *Sifting* is a sorting process, which moves a person “towards the issue of causality” (Law, 1996, p. 55). One compares one’s circumstances with those of others and starts to develop analogies and from those analogies, constructs and concepts start to emerge.

Note that these two stages of sensing and sifting do overlap and that regressions are normal as well as leaps that lift the veil on what the ‘new’ story may eventually look like. In the *focusing stage* actual viewpoints are formulated and articulated. These viewpoints are still fragmented, but they are an attempt to string together feelings and ideas that arose during the sensing and sifting stages. The focusing stage ideally segues into the *understanding stage* and the insights and fragments start to become a new or ‘second story’ (Meijers & Lengelle, 2012).

Lengelle and Meijers (2015) and Meijers et al. (2017) argue that the engine that facilitates the movement of an individual through the four stages is dialogical in nature and depends upon an internal and external dialogue. From the perspective of Dialogical Self Theory (Hermans & Hermans-Konopka, 2010), the internal dialogue can be described as a conversation between various sub-selves or I-positions that has beneficial effects when the initial conversation is broadened and deepened (e.g., more I-positions than normal begin to participate in the conversation; positions marginalized are given voice) and results in the development of meta- and promoter positions. When two or more positions act in service to each other, meta-positions may develop. Next, on the basis of meta-positions promoter positions can emerge, which represent an individual’s ability to become action-able (Ligorio, 2011). The internal dialogue can be summed up as the felt and meaningful interaction of I-positions within a person in which both the broadening and deepening of voices take place, but also where a sense of wholeness is created and experienced through a narrative articulation of those voices.

Without an external dialogue, however, an internal dialogue runs the risk of becoming self-absorbed or a dead end of foreclosure or rumination (Lengelle, Luken, & Meijers, 2016). The reality that is constructed in an internal dialogue needs to be verified and tested regularly against an external reality. In this process the individual should be helped literally to (a) not become stuck in VERB and (b) to find the ‘right’ (appropriate) words for expressing the boundary experience in a way that is increasingly rational but acknowledges emotions; thereby gradually providing individuals insight into their life themes and into the way their life themes influence their being and acting in the world.

In practice, for instance in educational settings and in working organizations where career guidance and counseling is provided, it is key that those guiding others engage in career dialogues with students or clients, not speaking about or ‘towards’ individuals but rather *with* them. This seems like common sense but research shows that it rarely happens (Hall & Moss, 1999; Winters, Meijers, Kuijpers, & Baert, 2009, 2012). Secondly, the dialogue should be about experiences relevant to the student or client; the latter becomes apparent when the student or client expresses emotion words. Frequently the presence of emotion words is a sign that a boundary experience is being touched on. Emotions must, as Doorewaard (2000) suggests, be acknowledged, valued and treated with respect. They are often extremely powerful motives for the behaviour of individuals. When an emotion is ignored or even denied, it can be turned against others, which may result in paralysis affecting the individual and the environment. Emotions should be

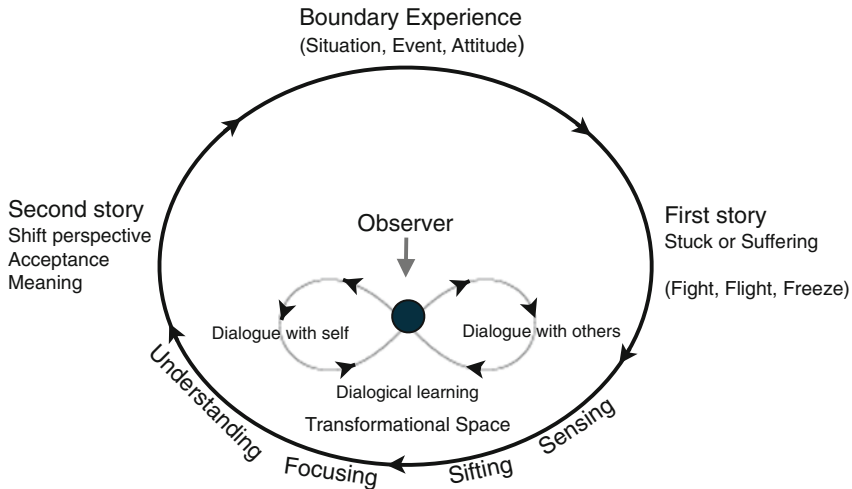


Fig. 3.1 A model of identity learning

seen as potentially shedding light on underlying messages they carry (see also Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995).

Figure 3.1 shows how the construction of a narrative career identity takes shape through a career dialogue. It is a process that starts with a boundary experience that is emotionally relevant but at the same time has no meaning yet and evokes a defensive ‘first story’. To attach meaning to the experience, the individual has to enter both an internal and external dialogue. These dialogues make it possible for tacit knowledge to be voiced and through the four stages described above, a ‘second story’ takes shape.

Dialogue in Educational Settings

A longitudinal study, conducted by Winters, Meijers, Lengelle, and Baert, (2012) in a school for secondary vocational education, showed that it is difficult to achieve an actual career dialogue in the current educational system. As well, Quinn (1991) showed that in organizations that remain stable over a long period of time, a culture develops that is attractive to personality types who value output, control, and management and are therefore less open to change and innovation. Especially in full-time education, the culture with respect to the interaction between students and teachers barely changed between 1920 and 1980. Teaching was focused on the efficient transfer of established knowledge in the form of an established curriculum. Teachers were the central figures who were regarded to be enthusiastically transferring knowledge to students from their precise and well-defined area of expertise. Although school culture has changed since 1980, most of the teachers in Dutch

secondary vocational education had their teacher training before or just after 1980. It isn't surprising, therefore, that even today, schools rarely offer room for the development or expression of student narratives (Winters et al., 2009), let alone for emotions that require a dialogical learning process. Moreover, because educational culture is still largely monological, most teachers are uncertain about their abilities to help students in developing a career identity in the form of a story (Den Boer & Hoeve, 2017). It is important to acknowledge that teachers feel uncertain in this area because the effectiveness of a dialogical career approach largely depends on the trust the counsellor has on the chosen approach and on the willingness to give up the role of expert and knowledge keeper (Cooper, 2008). Career identities are co-constructions that depend upon open and caring relationships. Moreover, acknowledging vulnerability is key in unearthing and beginning to articulate pain and purpose, and in this process the safety of the learning environment is imperative (Lengelle & Ashby, 2016).

In a series of studies, Winters et al. (2009, 2012) used Dialogical Self Theory (Hermans & Hermans-Konopka, 2010) as a framework for understanding and analyzing how conversations about work placements foster career construction. Their research showed that it is not the student who is at the heart of the conversation, but the curriculum, and furthermore that mentors engaged in work placement talk mostly *to* (65%) and *about* (21%) students, and hardly ever *with* (9%) them. The students talk with their teachers and workplace mentors, but this does not mean that they can take part in the conversation and direct it to reflect on their personal learning goals. Little opportunity is given to students to express what they think of their experiences in the work place, let alone about what they have learned or wanted to learn from these experiences. Training conversations are almost completely aimed at the evaluation of the student and on transferring expert opinions from teacher and mentor to students. In short, one might say that schools remain a monological and patronizing environment where identity learning rarely happens.

Winters et al. (2012, 2013) also explored the quality of career conversations in three culturally different contexts within vocational education: conversations between teachers and 15-year old students in pre-vocational education ('pre-vocational group'), conversations between teachers, workplace mentors and 18–19 year old students in secondary vocational education ('secondary vocational group') and conversations between workplace mentors and 18–19 year old students in secondary vocational education ('workplace group'). Results showed that the average conversation has some potential with regards to constructing a career identity. Positioning (i.e., formulating an I-, meta- or promoter position) does happen and is done mainly by students themselves. In pre-vocational education, more I-positions are formulated than in secondary vocational education and more than in the workplace, probably due to the existing culture of carefulness (i.e., much attention is paid to the well-being of each individual student). During their placement in an organization, more meta- and promoter positions are formulated than in both other contexts, probably due to the business-like culture in which every individual is held responsible for the success of the group. In secondary vocational education, the

conversations were longest, but they offered even less room for positioning than the less standardized and shorter inquiries about how students' placements went in pre-vocational education. This is likely due to the fact that 65% of all students in secondary vocational education enter the labor market immediately after completing their studies. As the quality of secondary vocational education is under close surveillance by the Department of Education, employers and politicians force schools to use standardized evaluative procedures, and little room is left for the narratives of either students and teachers (for a description of the same tendency in the USA, see Berliner & Nichols, 2007). A dialogue was not dominant in any of the contexts studied. In other words, when students 'position themselves, teacher and mentor strategies are rarely directed at stimulating the broadening of those positions, let alone focused on the formulation of meta- and promoter-positions.

Winters et al. (2013) were especially interested in the response of teachers to student positioning. They found four different strategies: ignoring the I-position (ignoring), re-positioning by talking on behalf of the student (repositioning), broadening the I-position without conclusion (broadening), and dialogue in the direction of the formulation of a promoter position (promoting). The three studied contexts show strong similarities when it comes to using the strategies of "ignoring" and "promoting". In an average conversation a formulated position is ignored twice (to 2.5 times for the workplace and secondary vocational group), while an I-position stimulates a dialogue less than once (0.5 times for the prevocational and secondary vocational group), resulting in the formulation of a promoter position. The strategy "repositioning" happens twice per average conversation (once per conversation in the prevocational group and three times per conversation in the workplace and secondary vocational group). When it comes to "promoting" as a strategy, an average conversation shows this dynamics twice (the workplace group stands out with an average of 3.5 times per conversation as compared to the prevocational and secondary vocational groups). The conclusion is obvious: positioning is done by the students themselves and teachers/mentors respond most often with non-dialogical strategies (i.e., ignoring and repositioning).

The fact that teachers respond with non-dialogical strategies is due, at least partly, to feelings of disempowerment. Teachers reported that the conversations they had with their students are usually about school progress and rarely about self and future (Kuijpers & Meijers, 2012, 2017; Kuijpers, Meijers, & Gundy, 2011). It was notable that 40% of the teachers felt that their work in providing careers guidance was not well-supported by either the school or other professionals working in the field; 63% of teachers reported that they received almost no support from their managers and colleagues, and 54% of teachers reported that they received almost no support from employers or other professionals. The current socio-political climate of education in Western societies favours an approach to teaching and learning in which test preparation and scripted curricula are the preferred methods (Hughes, Meijers, & Kuijpers, 2015). This approach has led to a narrow view of what counts as teaching and learning (Franciosi, 2004; Hargreaves, 2003; Lipman, 2004; Ravitch, 2011). The *Standards Era* policies do not focus on making time for narrative and dialogical encounters with students, leaving teachers

even less experienced with this “largely verbal process” that entails “a collaborative relationship” (McIlveen & Patton, 2007, p. 10). Many teachers, however, are beginning to realize the importance of dialogue and explicitly ask to be trained in initiating a career dialogue with their students (Kuijpers & Meijers, 2017).

Kuijpers and Meijers (2017) conducted a study about the effects of teacher training on career dialogues promoting career competency development in students. For the quantitative part of the study, a quasi-experimental research design was used to measure effects among 2291 students. Video-recordings of conversations were used for qualitative research. An important conclusion of this study is that a two-day off-the-job training program for teachers was insufficient to achieve significant changes in guidance conversations, measured at a student level. However, off-the-job training combined with individual coaching and team coaching on-the-job, proved to be effective in improving guidance conversations from a student perspective. An actual improvement requires being guided in applying the off-the-job training in the teacher’s own context. Not only the quantitative results revealed changes in guidance conversations after the training program as reported by students: changes were also noted in the recordings of conversations. In other words, teachers asked more career-oriented questions and students gave more career-oriented answers. These results make it clear that having career conversations fostering career identity formation via an internal and external dialogue can be learned by teachers accustomed to a monological culture of teaching.

Dialogue in Working Organizations

Positive relationships in the workplace are highly important in the light of the current need for establishing career sustainability (Van der Heijden & De Vos, 2015). As casual encounters might be positive in the light of work satisfaction, and for providing social support, in-depth dialogue is needed to foster relational empowerment and connection in order to cultivate resilience. After all, given the characteristics of the previously explained risk society, people need to construct their careers throughout their lives. More specifically, “individuals’ career development is no longer viewed as linear and hierarchical, but multifaceted, unstable, cyclical, and transitional over the life course” (Bimrose & Hearne, 2012, p. 338).

In response to this reality and the societal changes mentioned above and captured in the concept of the ‘risk society’, De Vos and Van der Heijden (2015) introduced the four-dimensional operationalization of sustainable careers (continuity over time, social space, agency, and meaning). Such a new career concept that is intended to respond to the changing employment relationships (e.g., the emergence of increasingly boundaryless careers or the importance of individual agency and personal meaning) requires both an in-depth internal and an external dialogue. Therefore, an important question to answer is whether current working organizations provide enough room for such a dialogue. As the interaction between an

individual employee and direct supervisor is most important in the light of career growth (given formal evaluation cycles), in this contribution we focus on the latter as our main stakeholder in fostering career resilience (see also Van der Heijden, 2011). Indeed, Textor and Hoeksema (2001) indicated that managerial commitment appeared to be the most important factor of career success of their subordinates.

Based on ample empirical research (see for instance Van der Heijden, De Lange, Demerouti, & Van der Heijde, 2009) however, it is clear that middle management (i.e., direct supervisors) is strongly inclined to take on a short-term oriented or an instrumental leadership style. In a situation of high employee career potential, it is in the supervisor's interest that the employee's expertise (knowledge and skills) is utilized within the department that he or she is heading, thus, restraining the employee from moving to another job or to another field, herewith impeding possible career growth. After all, the 'here-and-now' functioning of subordinates determines the career success of the supervisor him or herself (Van der Heijden, 2000; Van der Heijden et al., 2009). We believe that this is the result of current evaluation practices across working organizations, in which middle management is mainly, and on many occasions even solely evaluated according to their output. This lop-sided focus on output neglects the potential of middle management to actively engage in the development of human capital management, aimed at fostering career resilience (see also Baruch & Vardi, 2015; Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). Sound human capital management requires that top management consider HRM systems to be of strategic importance, and supports continuous and systematic training of line management (Earnshaw, Rubery & Cooke, 2002; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2002). The fostering of resilience among staff should therefore be a priority and would mean that middle managers (i.e., direct supervisors) make time for the previously described internal and external dialogue. Indeed, supervisor career support appears to be associated with greater employee career self-management and adaptability (Ito & Brotheridge, 2005). Moreover, an employee who is supported in the fostering of resilience is not only a more connected employee but also one able to perform better under pressure or as part of a team. These matters are of strategic importance though the theory and practice of investing in this way is often only paid lip service.

In order then to seriously support employee's career resilience through internal and external dialogue, all stakeholders involved must share certain common understandings that go beyond what has been formally specified in employment contracts (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Rose, 2000; Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, & Tetrick, 2012). Employees in this day and age are driven by the motive of 'expressivism', implying that line managers should make room for individual aspirations to shape the psychological contract (Weggeman, 2015). That is to say, all individual workers should be enabled to alternate periods of high investments and loyalty with periods of reflection, and sometimes change (see also Baruch & Vardi, 2015; Conway & Briner, 2009). This is why annual performance appraisals should be enhanced and enriched by discussions on development interests and reflections on future career aspirations (Boxall & Purcell, 2011) in order to become authentic conversations. This is in essence the invitation to a more courageous conversation

than is customary in organizational settings—the language of which can be described as the language of ‘wholeheartedness’ (Whyte, 2002) and must go beyond notions of efficiency, accountability, and goal-oriented performance.

This conversation (i.e., external dialogue) lies at the heart of cultivating high-quality relationships between employees and their direct supervisors (Reitz, 2015). Understanding each other’s needs requires a dialogue in which all participants take a vulnerable position (Meijers et al., 2014) and the conversation is characterised by high-quality exchanges, also called Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) (see also Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Closer relationships are also necessary in view of the different perceptions (between the individual workers of themselves and of their supervisors) regarding ratings of occupational expertise and employability (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006), which are important predictors of career success (Van der Heijden et al., 2009). More specifically, the outcomes of previous empirical research indeed confirm that the nature of the rater, be it self or supervisor, produces very different information about the employee. An explanation for this is the lack of communication between the two parties. At higher functioning levels especially, employees’ work is highly independent and often even solitary. In order to gain greater insight into the potential of their workforce, supervisors should make every attempt to bridge the gap that exists between them and their subordinates, especially, as the supervisor’s opinion is to a great extent influential upon the career of the individual employee (De Vos Forrier, Van der Heijden, & De Cuyper, 2017).

To ensure the optimal use of knowledge of perception differences and openly share information, employee and supervisor should have an elaborate base of information to talk about the differences in perception (Jones, 2001). Ratings on their own do not convey sufficient information for people to improve. In order for staff to develop and learn, they need to know what they should change, where (specifically) they have fallen short, and what they need to do. Indeed, we stress the need to discuss seriously differences in perceptions, and to ask supervisors to clearly indicate by means of examples of performances and behaviours which factors underlie their decision as to determine a particular scale anchor in evaluation settings. The latter might for instance prevent age-related stereotyping, in which case supervisors think more negatively about their older workers’ career resilience (see for instance Kooij, De Lange, Janssen, & Dikkers, 2008). As such, the explicit exchange of information underlying the choice in evaluation settings should be part of the external dialogue aimed at fostering career resilience.

It takes courage to fill in performance appraisals. The focus should not only be on reflecting on past performance but also on talking about competencies, employability strengths and weaknesses, and about factors influencing the employee’s career resilience (Casey, 2012). Given the informative value of more in-depth knowledge on one’s current skills and knowledge gaps for trajectories related to future career development, and for protecting one’s resilience and sustainability, it is well worth devoting attention to increased validity of performance evaluations. Moreover, next to sound performance evaluations, supervisors and employees should seriously invest in a dialogue in order to obtain

in-depth information about individual employees' needs, strengths, and weaknesses (that is, their future career potential and possible areas for growth or development).

Notwithstanding differences in opportunities and affinities throughout one's working life, we believe that many career problems can be solved, and career resilience may be fostered provided that line managers change their attitude towards age, career models, and career success and increase the breadth and depth of conversations held. That is to say, they should take a non-normative perspective as they alone do not have the capacity to decide what success implies and how and when, i.e., at which age, it should be experienced. In addition, we consider it important to acknowledge the urgency to carefully consider the boundaries to workforce capacity in relation to the present-day work pressures, in order to consider the reasonableness of employers' expectations contrasted with employees' expectations over the life stage (see also Demerouti, Peeters, & Van der Heijden, 2012). This can be fostered by conversations that actually pertain to felt experience regarding workloads and employer demands (Van der Horst, Klehe, & Van der Heijden, 2017). That said, it should be noted that the 'safety' of such conversations need to take into consideration the precarious nature of much of employment: what is shared should be utilized to enhance work place competence and confidence or to redirect workers to other opportunities, not merely as another way to screen, judge, disqualify, or threaten already insecure workers. Given the current demands placed upon the workforce and the complexity, insecurity, and individualization of society—realities that we do not expect will decrease over time—attention to fostering career resilience through dialogue enlarges the individual's flexibility to find suitable and valued work and to build up a sustainable career, and should be one of the pillars of management in current working organizations.

Conclusion

It follows from the above that educational and work environments which foster career resilience should:

- ***be practice-based***: the learning process of teachers and middle managers must be based on questions and problems that arise from actual practices and lived experiences and in response to concrete problems. The theory required on how to explain and, subsequently, respond to these problems should be offered “just in time” and “only in the amount needed” to address these problems and be intended as a starting-off point for a dialogue (not a lesson or transfer of knowledge).
- ***promote dialogical interactions***: dealing with concrete problems will only lead to changes if teachers and middle managers are encouraged and feel safe enough to question their professional identities, foster truly innovative practices, and have a conversation between all parties (including students and employees) about the personal and societal meaning of one's work. The kind of dialogue

that is needed, is described by Shotter (1993, p. 20) as “a socially constructed myriad of spontaneous, responsive, practical, unselfconscious, but contested interactions”, a conversation that is “quite the opposite of the apparent representation of dialogue as converging upon a single ultimate ‘Truth’”. As is clear from Shotter’s quote, dialogue is something completely different than a discussion. A dialogue means to show, acknowledge and accept vulnerability and uncertainty and to assume an exploration process is underway as the ‘right’ words are found (see Meijers & Lengelle, 2012)—which includes not being corrected, educated or judged for using the ‘not yet right’ words in the process of articulation.

- **foster cooperation** and consensus on the basis of a clear and strategic management vision: initiating and keeping such a dialogue going demands transformational leadership (Geijsel & Meijers, 2005; Geijsel, Meijers, & Wardekker, 2007). This type of leadership simultaneously provides direction based on the strategic vision and creates space for teachers and middle managers to set out their own strategies to achieve desired goals. It only creates the necessary space when upper management keeps a dialogue going about the concrete work experiences of teachers and middle managers.

In conclusion: resilience, as described in this article, is not a ‘trait’ or an ‘outcome’ of primarily a learning process. Instead, it is the result of a dynamic socially imbedded conversation aimed at the development of a career identity, whereby the internal dialogue (i.e., one’s felt experience articulated to one’s self) is enriched by an external dialogue (i.e., meaningful conversations with others about lived experience) and vice versa. The learning process required of teachers and middle managers is that they question their professional identities and ‘re-story’ those identities in the face of societal challenges and transitions that they themselves together with their students and employees face. The reality of the risk society and the changing face of work means resilience does not simply constitute a psychological need but also a strategic imperative for the future of work and learning. This process is not an easy one. In fact, “One of the great difficulties as you rise up through an organization is that your prior competencies are exploded and broken apart by the territory you’ve been promoted into: the field of human identity” (Whyte, n.d.).

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Chapter 4

Life and Career Design Dialogues and Resilience

Jacques Pouyaud, Valérie Cohen-Scali, Marie-Line Robinet and Laurie Sintès

Abstract Resilience is a concept first used in physics to describe the capacity of materials to resist to pressure. In the field of psychology, the first definition came with the works of Redl (*Adolescence: psychosocial perspectives*. Basic Books, New York, pp 79–99, 1969) on “Ego-resilience”. From a health recovery perspective, it denotes a set of biological, psychological, psycho-emotional, social and cultural processes, allowing a new self-development after a major psychological trauma (Cyrulnik in *Un merveilleux malheur*. Odile Jacob, Paris, 2012). In career counseling, the concept of career resilience has emerged from the propositions of London as part of her model of career motivation (London in *Acad Manag Rev* 8 (4):620–630, 1983) and refers to “the ability to adapt to change, even when the circumstances are discouraging or disruptive”, (London in *J Career Dev* 24(1):25–38, 1997, p. 34). From a Life designing perspective (Savickas et al. in *J. Vocat. Behav* 75(3):239–250, 2009), career resilience is sometimes compared to the career adaptability concept as part of a “meta competence” for being more protean in order to face career transitions. Resilience in the field of career counseling seems then to hesitate between a search for ‘protective factors’, and a “recovery process” perspective. The purpose of this chapter is to study this concept in the field of career counseling, from a life designing perspective, and as a recovery process. The chapter describes a case study in the French counseling context of skills assessment (bilan de compétence). The process of resilience is presented via a thematic and dialogical analysis of the interviews, to show how the counselor can be a «tutor for resilience».

Keywords Resilience · Career resilience · Life design · Dialogues
Innovative moments

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Introduction

Resilience is primarily a transdisciplinary concept. First used in physics, it describes the capacity of materials to resist pressure. Today the concept has been broadly generalized: Scientific literature may refer to ecological, organizational, fiscal, environmental, stress, or brain resilience. In the field of psychology, the first definition appeared in the works of Redl (1969) on “Ego-resilience”. It was then cited by Anthony (1974) regarding “invulnerable children” (see also Werner & Smith, 1982). Generally, the concept can be defined as “the motivational force within everyone that drives them to pursue wisdom, self-actualization, and altruism and to be in harmony with a spiritual source of strength” (Richardson, 2002, p. 309). From a health recovery perspective, it denotes a set of biological, psychological, psycho-emotional, social, and cultural processes, allowing for new self-development after a major psychological trauma (Cyrułnik, 2012).

In the field of career counseling, the concept of career resilience has emerged from propositions made by London in his model of career motivation (London, 1983; London & Noe, 1997). He defines career motivation “as the set of individual characteristics and associated career decisions and behaviors that reflect the person’s career identity, insight into factors affecting his or her career, and resilience in the face of unfavorable career conditions” (1983, p. 620). Career resilience can be viewed as a sub process of a much larger process that promotes professional engagement. It refers to “the ability to adapt to change, even when the circumstances are discouraging or disruptive”, (London, 1997, p. 34). A subsequent review of London’s work states that he “addressed the need to be proactive in dealing with periodic work crises or transitions (such as layoffs and retirement) by relying on career resilience. Specifically, London noted that self-efficacy (or self-confidence) and a willingness to take risks were important components of resilience” (Williams et al., 1998, p. 386).

From a life-designing perspective (Savickas et al., 2009), career resilience is sometimes compared to the concept of career adaptability (see for example Hirschi, 2012), as part of a “meta competence” for being more protean, ready to change, and to cope with career transitions. However, as noted by Bimrose and Hearne (2012, p. 339) “career resilience appears to relate more to the ability to survive change once it happens, whereas career adaptability has a stronger proactive dimension”. Even if this quote makes sense regarding the previous overall definitions, the concept of resilience in the field of career counseling seems most of the time related to a list of “protective factors” (such as proactivity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, subjective well-being, self-determination, locus of control, etc.), rather than of processes of recovery. One explanation could be that professional life related challenges are seldom considered as serious psychological traumas that are capable of deeply disorganizing the self. Thus, the notions of adjustment and adaptation may seem more appropriate for career development. Nevertheless, if today’s post-modern careers require more and more “adapt-abilities” from people, they also require more and more recovery resources (personal and social) in order to

reintegrate fractured identities (Richardson, 2002) after career transitions that expand to the point of becoming life traumas. Thus today, working life is marked by multiple shifts or transitions such as job change, retrenchment, unemployment (Hayes & Nutman, 1981), or retirement.

Some organizational changes, whether managerial or in the organization of work, can also be considered as transitions. For Parkes (1971), these psychosocial transitions are linked to major changes occurring in the *life space* of individuals. When such changes come to affect the expectations and representations of the future held by individuals, which is to say their *assumptive world*, the situation is experienced as a psychosocial transition that has to be managed. The consequences of these kinds of changes reverberate through all aspects of people's lives and can have long-term effects. A change in people's life space generally is accompanied by changes in their representations of the future, which, in turn, lead to further changes in the life space (Guichard & Huteau, 2006, 2007). In this sense, the transitions affect people in their entirety.

In the light of what has been written above, the purpose of this chapter is to apply a life-designing perspective to study the function of the concept of resilience as a recovery process during psychosocial transitions. The principal aim is to explore how "life and career design dialogues" (Guichard, 2009; Guichard, Bangali, Cohen-Scali, Pouyaud, & Robinet, 2017; Pouyaud, Bangali, Cohen-Scali, Robinet, & Guichard, 2016) can support such recovery processes. Following the analysis made by Cusin (2012), the chapter describes skills assessment in the French counseling context, and how the counselor can be regarded as a facilitator of "support for (career) resilience". Finally, it illustrates how guidance counseling interviews can become a place for rebuilding the self after traumatic experiences in professional and personal life.

Resilience and Career Resilience

The notion of resilience reflects an array of psychological and psychosocial processes deployed by an individual when facing challenging situations. The aim is enable people to deal with adversity and continue developing themselves despite the trauma experienced (Anaut, 2005; Cyrulnik, 1999). These processes are the result of complex interactions between the individual and the environment. In France, studies of this notion have been conducted with diverse populations facing difficulties, such as marginalized children and adolescents (Amoros, Fuentes-Pelaez, Molina Cruz, & Paster, 2010; Macé, 2015; Nader-Grosbois, 2010), patients with HIV (for example Bourdet-Loubère & Mazoyer, 2012), and concentration camp survivors (Veyssière, 2010).

In the field of career counseling and career development, the notion of resilience has elicited a degree of interest since the 1980s and relates to career motivation. London (1983) highlights the importance of both personal and situational factors in motivating an individual to engage in a professional activity. At the individual

level, career motivation is a personal construct with three dimensions (Noe, Noe, & Bachuber, 1990). The first, *career identity*, is the directional element in career motivation. It corresponds to the propensity to grasp opportunities for promotion or recognition and to sacrifice activities outside of work so as to attain defined goals. *Career insight* refers to the extent to which the individual has realistic career expectations, knowledge of his or her strengths and weaknesses, and defined career goals. The third dimension, *career resilience*, is defined as the ability to overcome career setbacks. This ability enables the individual to bounce back after failures or professional disappointments. More specifically, it is the element of career motivation that includes the capability of the individual to adapt to changing circumstances and to face difficult work situations. It involves taking action, structuring and classifying problems, and maintaining a high level of performance while dealing with diverse constraints (such as time pressure, lack of resources, etc.). For London (1983, 1997), career resilience and endurance are associated predispositions that affect the ability of a person to overcome career barriers. For Carson and Bedeian (1994), career resilience, together with career identity and career planning, is one of the major dimensions of career commitment. These authors describe career resilience as the will of a person to stay motivated despite challenges and fluctuations in the job market. It is also an attitude of ongoing risk-taking that permits continued engagement in an informal learning process when difficult events occur. Career resilience is an important process for career self-management (Chiaburu, Baker, & Pitaru, 2006; Hirschi, 2012), for career preparedness, which is the readiness to cope with setbacks, to find opportunities in the midst of diverse events (Lent, 2013), and for career adaptability (Barto, Lambert, & Brott, 2015; Seibert, Kraimer, & Heslin, 2016). Resilience plays a central role in career development and enables individuals to bounce back; not in the sense of recovering a prior state, but rather of finding a different form of themselves that is more appropriate for the new situation by engaging in a learning process (Tomassini, 2015). The most resilient people ultimately have greater psycho-social resources to make career related decisions, demonstrate greater life satisfaction, and experience burnout less often (Braunstein-Bercovitz, Frish-Burstein, & Benjamin, 2012). In the field of career counseling and more generally of career development, use of the concept of resilience is akin to the notion of positive psychology and the asset-based approach. It demonstrates an intent to identify the strengths an individual can rely on to help overcome stressful situations, rather than to identify risk factors associated with problematic situations (Barto et al., 2015).

Contexts in which people are most likely to marshal resilience are those where individuals are confronted by adverse, violent events, involving a physical or psychological attack (Anaut, 2005). Trauma refers to the psychological effect(s) that result from and are experienced after such events. A trauma may be linked to a major unique event, which overwhelms the subject's ability to adapt (for example, the loss of a loved one, an accident, an illness, etc). It may also be due to an accumulation of adverse events or of repeated, serious failings (for example, parental neglect or sexual abuse). In the work context, it may take the form of harassment, or continuous work overload (Johnson, 2008). The longitudinal study

performed by Emmy Werner over 30 years took into account four major categories of risk factors to which children were exposed (Richardson, 2002): prenatal stress, poverty, daily instability, and parents with serious health problems. For Richardson (2002), the process of resilience can be initiated in various situations that contribute to damaging “biopsychospiritual homeostasis” and that induce disruptions. This homeostasis manifests the adaptation of the individual to his or her environment. Certain experiences that elicit strong negative emotions or mental states (such as fear, embarrassment, distrust, etc.) may constitute risks for the well-being and balance of the individual. Consequently, a great variety of situations appear likely to require people to marshal resilience as a psychological resources. In the field of career development, studies on resilience have started to be implemented with a variety of populations, such as low-skilled workers (Tomassini, 2016), adolescent mothers (Barto et al., 2015; Braunstein-Bercovitz et al., 2012), and managers and individuals undergoing career transition (Bimrose & Heane, 2012; Cusin, 2012; Grzeda, 1999). These studies seem to suggest, as stated by Anaut (2005), that it is the subjective rather than objective aspects that account for the traumatic nature of any given situation. As in psychosocial transitions, the meaning associated with the event explains a greater variance of the associated trauma than its objectively discernible content.

Beyond these individual and situational dimensions, the concept of resilience in the field of career counseling opens additional pathways for interpretation, inasmuch as we approach the concept as a dynamic process. In the context of the fluid and elusive world of work, it is appropriate to question what form of dynamic and sustainable resilience can be developed. The question is: How should the counselor support processes that are not simply matters of finding a good match or of adjustment, but indeed of construction, deconstruction, co-construction (collaboration between a client and a counselor) and, especially, reconstruction when individuals experience new work related challenges that they find traumatic? The case of Ms. V. (pseudonym), presented below, illustrates the resilience that occurs during career counseling. The case is then assessed from a socio-constructivist perspective, which is linked to the reflexive process of self-construction at play in life and career design dialogues.

Case Study: An Example of Career Resilience

The case of Ms. V. serves here to illustrate the process of resilience as it appears in the context of career counseling interviews. Ms. V. is 38 years old and has been employed as an assistant social worker for 16 years. At the start of counseling, she had just returned to work after a major leave of absence due to illness caused by burnout. She had actually accumulated personal and professional difficulties over multiple years. The most disconcerting events commenced with the death of her partner some ten years beforehand, which led her to resume her work part-time. More recently, she had been diagnosed with a chronic debilitating disease.

In parallel with the diagnosis, she lost interest in her work, leading to a leave of absence for depression. When Ms. V. met with the counselor, she was gradually resuming her work at reduced hours. Nevertheless, as Ms. V. was convinced that she was no longer capable of being an assistant social worker, her employer proposed that she take a skills assessment with the objective of finding a new and more appropriate career.

In France, a skills assessment is a measure specified by law that is available for all employees and job seekers. This measure is financed either by the employer or by employment and training services. The main objective is for the person, with the help of a counselor, to be able to evaluate his or her career track and skills acquired through experience, and to elaborate plans for development, career change, training, and job search. The counseling program runs for a total of 24 h, divided into seven or eight sessions with the same counselor, who may use a range of different methodologies (tests, educational methods, Rogerian interviews (Rogers, 1951), work experience analysis methods, etc.). The program nevertheless always conforms to the following framework: (a) a preliminary phase (identifying the main questions of the clients, clarifying their needs, and acquainting them with procedures); (b) an investigative phase (analyzing clients' motives, competencies, and professional and personal abilities, and determine different possibilities for career development); and (c) a concluding phase (a synthesis of the main results of the intervention). In the case of Ms. V., seven 3-h interviews were conducted, primarily using experience-centered dialogue as the means of investigation (Gould, Froese, Barrett, Ward, & Seth, 2014; Vermersch, 1994), which served as the basis for resource co-construction between the counselor and the client. During Vermersch's "explanatory" interview for example, the aim is to clarify what is and has been done, focusing on putting the action into words after the event. Such methods help to explore the self-knowledge 'hidden' in experience by engaging counselor and client in the exploration of daily life and working experiences with the objective of a meaning-making construction (Pouyaud & Bourne, 2016).

From the perspective of resilience, Ms. V.'s situation was related to traumatic events that involved both personal and professional dimensions (loss of spouse, illness, and work related challenges). It was indeed a traumatic situation in the first sense of resilience as defined by Cyrulnik (1999) for whom this concept is linked to facing death, either one's own or that of a loved one, suffering aggression, whether from life in general or from other people, or being placed in danger. In this context, the counselor concerned held seven sessions with Ms. V. aimed at helping her to make a fresh start at both the personal and professional level. Ms. V. clearly spoke of this process of resilience when asked afterwards to review the counselor's assessment:

Personally, I was in a state of deadlock then ... it's true that I didn't know where I was going ... I didn't want to do this type of work anymore ... I said that I couldn't stand the people anymore ... I was in such a state then ... and on top of everything I was obliged to talk about things that I couldn't face anymore ... so it was painful ... but at the same time I knew that I had to do it ... to what end, I didn't know ... but I trusted the process and little by little I knew that in fact ... it was rewarding ... but it's painful at first to plunge back into

something that you've rejected ... in relation to the state of spirits I had [the situation] in fact permitted me to relive them ... those things, and starting from the negative, little by little the positive took its place.

Visualizing the Process of Resilience During Counseling Dialogues with Ms. V.

According to Bégin and Chabaud (2010), the process of resilience can be formalized into three phases reminiscent of those in play in the resolution of psychosocial transitions (Schlossberg, Waters, & Goodman, 1995). The initial phase of absorbing the shock linked to the trauma is followed by a phase of renewal, which in turn is succeeded by a phase of development. To pass through these phases, it is necessary to first resist the shock by deploying coping resources, then to have the possibility of imagining new solutions, and lastly to assign meaning to the experience so as to integrate it as a developmental resource in the repertory of identity. Many different interventions that aim to support the development of resilience processes have been implemented (for example, see Delage, 2014; Jourdan-Ionescu, 2001). The field of career development also employs techniques that use the concept of psychosocial transition in a similar manner (Parkes, 1971; Schlossberg et al., 1995).

In the case of Ms. V. the phase of shock had already passed. Her subsequent step of engaging in skills assessment can be considered as a sign of resource mobilization following the absorption of shock, and of the will to continue despite the difficulties encountered. Thus we can visualize the process supporting resilience during the assessment by examining the relation with the counselor as a support for *renewal* and *appropriation*. In this case, all of the interviews between the counselor and Ms. V. were recorded. To aid in visualizing the process of resilience, an analysis of the recordings was conducted using the Innovative Moments Coding System (Cardoso, Silva, Gonçalves, & Duarte, 2014a, b; Gonçalves, Ribeiro, Mendes, Matos, & Santos, 2011). The IMCS is a speech-coding process designed to identify changes during therapeutic interviews. It is based on the self-narrative concept and its capability, from a socio-constructivist viewpoint, to help face transitions. The dialogues with the counselor during the interviews are analyzed to identify formulations that represent innovative moments from the self-narrative viewpoint (abbreviated to "IM"). The IMs express a change in the way of thinking about the self or about the environment in relation to the issue that is the focus of therapy. They are the product of dialogues and are thus linked to leading questions on the part of the counselor. The authors distinguish two types of innovative moments. The first are IMs that express a stance of distance from the problem (coded as IMDP); these consist of critical thinking, intentions, questioning, doubts, desires, strategies, and/or behaviors oriented around the problem being treated. The second type of IMs is focused on changes (coded as IMCC); these IMs refer to new

goals, experiences, activities, or projects, whether planned or underway, that are a consequence of treatment of the problem.

In the case of Ms. V., five problems were identified and worked on (permitting oneself to remove barriers; the real motivation for the assessment; being truly suited or not for the role of assistant social worker; ambivalence in relations with people; difficulty working in a team). For these five problems, 53 IMs (IMDP and IMCC) distributed across the 7 interviews were analyzed. For example, regarding the problem of “permitting oneself to remove barriers”, during the assessment sessions, Ms. V. told the counselor of her difficulties in saying and doing what she really wanted to. She had also rejected work opportunities without fully knowing why. Regarding the problem of being blocked from expressing what truly interested her, in interview 1 she already formulated a stance of distance from the problem (IMDP):

I’ve stayed somewhat blocked around that. Because it’s the only thing that stops me from stepping too far outside the institutional framework ... all by myself. For the moment, that’s what I feel capable of doing. In other words, to try to grow, even if only in my little box.

Then during interview 2, this formulation focused on expression of a change about to occur (IMCC):

When we spoke this morning I realized that finally the doors ... they are not as closed as I thought. Having that opening to say: Maybe there is actually something that truly ... that I’m interested in ... that at last I can permit myself to possibly go see.

The distribution of IMs throughout the interviews enabled the identification of the process of resilience involved. Figure 1 shows the distribution of IMDPs and IMCCs across all the counseling sessions. To help visualize the process of resilience, we consider the phases of renewal and of appropriation through the lens of these two forms of innovative moments. The capacity for renewal—that permits the invention of new futures and consists of taking action and imagining new solutions

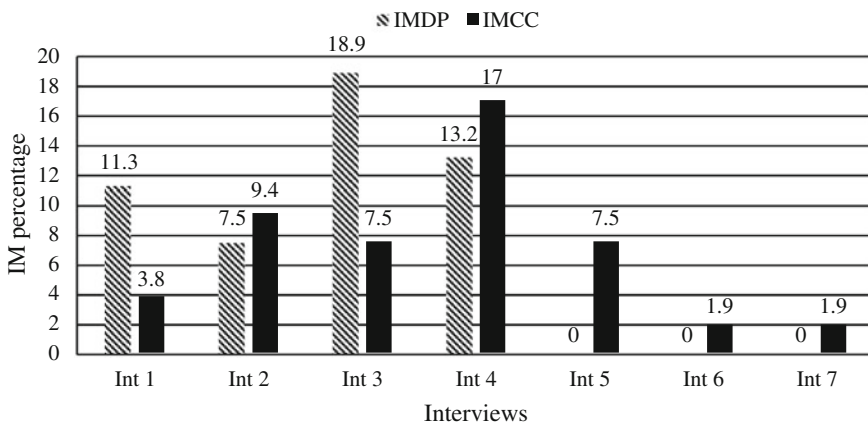


Fig. 1 Evolution of IMDP and IMCC percentages per interview

—translates mainly to IMDPs (by creating distance from the problem). The capacity for appropriation—that permits reinvestment in the event in a positive way due to a reflexive activity—is mostly expressed in IMCCs, where the individual is focused on the change and self-transformation.

Figure 1 shows the overall dominance of IMDPs in the first 4 interviews, then overlap and progressive replacement by IMCCs. This curve thus demonstrates a process that, based on narrative work of renewal in relation to preexisting problems, produced changes in resilience through appropriation of the problems in a new way. It is this process of creative self-renewal that is at play in the life-designing dialogues currently employed in career counseling.

Resilience and Life-Designing Dialogues

The objective of career counseling within the life-designing framework is not only to help people to choose a livelihood but also to help them reflect on what is important to them. A signature strength of this approach is its capacity “to broaden the perspective from simple advice for vocational decision making to an expertise in co-construction and accompaniment of more holistic life designing” (Savickas et al., 2009, p. 243). This model focuses on the processes used by people to construct or reconstruct their different subjective realities. Given that there are multiple ways to interpret or recount diverse life experiences, it is thus possible to envision different perspectives and plans to construct a person’s life. The counselor should encourage the client towards flexible adaptation to his or her own ecosystem, thus opening new perspectives for self-organization and for action. It is this counseling dynamic that can be observed in the progressive elaboration of IMDPs and IMCCs in a process characteristic of resilience, where renewal leads to appropriation.

From this perspective, the life-design counselor focuses the process on changes in thinking about the self and on language to construct a social reality that is likely to comprise resources for resilience or development. Words provide us with resources to live, think, and find meaning. It is language that permits the subjectivity to reflect on our actions and to think of and envision who we want to become. “In a sense, self-conscious reflection through language is the process that makes a self in the form of favored attributes and significant events. In sum, self denotes an emergent awareness that is culturally shaped, socially constituted, and linguistically narrated” (Savickas, 2013, p. 148). The entire history of individual and collective development is that of symbolic and semiotic construction of experience and creation of possible worlds. This activity of creation depends in part on the human capability to recount stories and construct meaning for the individual’s life, his or her personal legend based on actual or fantasized experience (Larroze-Marracq, Huet-Gueye, & Oubrayrie-Roussel, 2013). Behind each autobiographical act lies a self for whom some things are more important and take precedence over others. These are ideas of self-realization, of social justice, of mutual respect, or caring for

others ... Ideas that fashion the stories when people project themselves into the future or construct their past or their present (Savickas et al., 2009).

The career journeys of people are constructed when they make choices that express their concepts of self. Likewise, the concept of self is constructed during specific experiences that people have in the diverse environments they frequent. Narrative approaches to career counseling are based on these experiences, as they are significant resources for subsequent life planning and construction. The individual concept of self can be modified by new experiences or even, sometimes, simply by observing the conduct of others. The self is in permanent construction, deconstruction, co-construction and reconstruction (Savickas et al., 2009).

The center of gravity in self-construction resides in the subject's capacity for self-reflection (Dumora, 2010). In constructivist epistemology, reflection is an instrument that facilitates understanding of the dynamics of the self. According to Guichard (2009, 2016), in the context of counseling dialogues, two interrelated forms of reflexivity provide the key to developing the client's outlook: One form pushes towards gaining perspective on past and present experiences, while the other aims to stabilize the self within a desired model. The first form of reflexivity is a dialogue with oneself or with another that pushes towards a narrative and perspective on the self. It implies the distancing of oneself from the past, from the present, and from expectations (Bangali, 2011). This form of reflexivity introduces the individual to a process of continuous interpretation. The second form has two aspects: the identification of the self with a person, an ideal, who is considered as a model, or the rejection of models opposed to what one wishes to become, with the aim of stabilizing the self (Guichard, 2004). Behind these two forms of reflexivity, which function between stability and malleability as dynamic supports for self-construction, there is a notion of continuous regulation, which cycles through phases of construction, consolidation, and reorganization. More specifically in situations of psychosocial transition, these phases also reflect the counseling process proposed by Savickas (2015) employing phases of construction, deconstruction, reconstruction, co-construction, and action. The counselor who adopts these perspectives can then be viewed as a "support for resilience" in the sense that the approach aims primarily at supporting the client's renewal and appropriation of his or her problems.

Counselor Support for Resilience Through Dialogue

How the counselor can facilitate resilience? Ultimately, two elements appear essential for the psychological reconstruction of people who have suffered from multiple traumas: the link, which is to say interpersonal relations, and the meaning, which is to say a process of personal, intrapsychic reflection (Lecomte, 2009). Many researchers recognize that resilience develops through a process that calls on psychological representations and the symbolization of affects and that permits verbal expression of internal stimuli. An elaboration phase, which takes place

through assignment of meaning to the traumatic experience and through the narrative process, can give rise to accounts of life or can be expressed in artistic creativity (Anaut, 2005) and renewal.

Figure 2 shows the type of interaction used by the counselor just before and after the appearance of IMDP or IMCC. Five main types are measured; ask a question (most often open question, reformulation, acquiescence (verbal and non-verbal), illustration or example, and encouragement. Before IMs, the most used interaction is to ask a question (54.8%). After an IM, the counselor often reformulates (13.2% for IMDP, 17% for IMCC), but the answer is also often an acquiescence in the case of IMCC (22.6%). It seems that the counselor mainly tries to open new directions (with open questions), to explore them with reformulations and to consolidate them with acquiescence, especially when the client says something focused on the change and self-transformation (IMCC). This simple analysis suggests that an efficient dialogical structure to sustain resilience could be: Question-Reformulation + Acquiescence/Encouragement. But during life and career design dialogues, the counselor can mostly be seen as a co-author of change.

Therefore, it is through the contextualized and variable account that the counselor can support this creative process of autobiographical renewal. These different approaches to narratives for self-reconstruction are currently being employed in constructivist career-counseling interviews. Identity, as an expression of self, is linked to a context, produced by discourse, and constructed in the continually rewritten account during the active processes of negotiation, organization, synthesis, and reflection involving others (Collin & Guichard, 2011). The

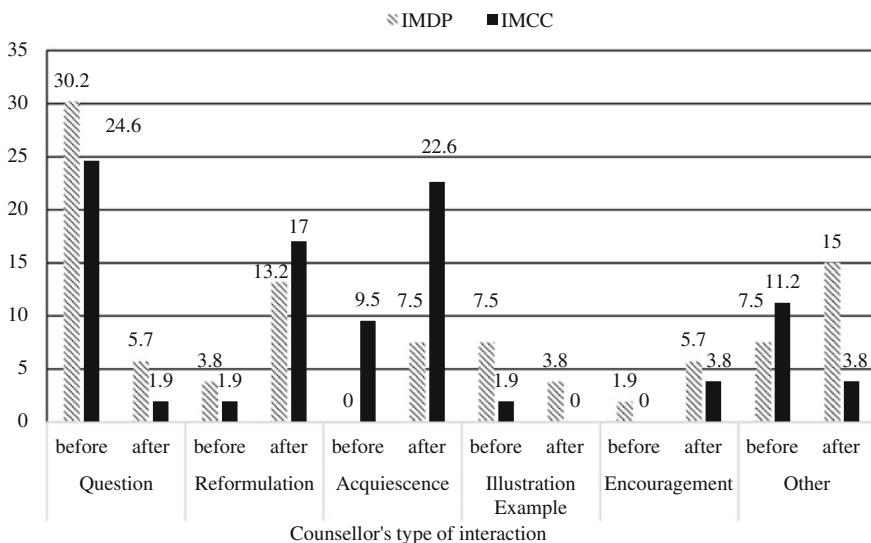


Fig. 2 Comparison of the percentages of counselor’s types of interaction before and after IMs (IMDP and IMCC)

autobiographical account that individuals create from their histories enables them to develop meaning for their lives by helping them to foster self-reflection. All constructivist psychological counseling employs a vision of human development in which narrative and symbolic activity serves as a vehicle for change. In their semiotic and symbolic dimensions, speech, accounts, fables, myths, art, and science nourish the potential for creation of the person (Larroze-Marracq et al., 2013). These counseling interventions are based on a dialogue between a counselor and a client with the aim to help the client to tell a story describing his or her career and life path in a manner that is both coherent and expresses continuity. Merely recounting these stories already makes the implicit explicit and also renders it more objective and clearer. Consequently, this process objectifies the accounts of life experiences and career-life stories, makes them more coherent and more real, and as a result permits the client to take enough distance from the account to be able to study it. It can then be considered from new angles (Savickas et al., 2009). Such conjunctures, or new points of view, then guide the construction of self-awareness.

In the self-construction process, interactions, individual activities, and dialogue each play a major role (Collin & Guichard, 2011). In the same way as identity, the individual's knowledge is the product of social and cognitive processes that play out in a dialogical context of interactions and negotiations between individuals and groups. The meaning an individual assigns to reality is co-constructed in a social, historical, and cultural context through the mediation of the speech and dialogues by which we relate to others. This is because the self presents a constant stream of thoughts generated in relation to the other. Identity thus results from the encounter between self-knowledge generated by oneself and through interaction with others (Larroze-Marracq et al., 2013). In the life-designing dialogue model, the other is always present: in the form of the counselor to whom the account is addressed, but also mainly in the form of all the others who figure in the account, as those whom one imagines, admires, or would like to become. The environment is always a strong influence: in the form of past and present environments, the interaction of the person with his or her environments, as well as the way in which the person observes and interprets them (Savickas et al., 2009). However, the career counselor must also play a preventative role by seeking alliances and collaborations that protect the client (Savickas et al., 2009). During interviews, the client is led to search his or her environment for support to help achieve his or her goals, or that may be a resource in the future. According to Giddens (1991, p. 34) "The individual feels bereft and alone in a world in which she or he lacks the psychological supports and the sense of security provided by more traditional settings". Furthermore,

We need more than language for self-construction. We need experiences on which to reflect, particularly interpersonal experiences, because a self is built from the outside in, not from the inside out. Using language as a tool, we coordinate our actions and social relations (Savickas, 2013, p. 148).

Therefore, as a support for resilience in the life-designing context, the counselor plays a key role: to facilitate the integration of clients' accounts of themselves in

their attempts to form a supporting or resilient identity, both in relation to others of significance and across multiple life contexts.

Conclusion

The career counseling interview based on the life-designing model focuses on change and the search for meaning to assign to past events, so as to construct a future with the support of others. From this point of view, counselors who employ this strategy in their practice may be considered as supports for resilience, in that, through the context of dialogue they initiate, they seek to support the reflexive processes involved in self-construction. These processes engage two types of reflexive relationships: with the self, and with one's experience of others. The first aims to put the self into question, while the second leads to consolidation and commitment for the future. This dual reflexivity manifested in the dialogues (both internal and external) offers the possibility of gaining distance and of renewal. When the person's developmental problem results from experience of trauma, this counseling approach can take the form of a process of resilience, as it permits, through phases of renewal and dialogical appropriation, the reconstruction of the possibility to be oneself.

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Chapter 5

The Importance of Career Adaptability, Career Resilience, and Employability in Designing a Successful Life

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Abstract Advocating a holistic approach, the life design paradigm suggests that individual and environmental constraints as well as resources shape people's career journeys and their broader evolution. In particular, career adaptability and career resilience are central personal resources that help people in designing their career. In specific situations, people are able to activate these resources, and career interventions can strengthen them. Career adaptability and career resilience also help people to better use their environment's resources, which eventually contribute to their employability. Over time, these constant interactions between people and their environment can lead to the development of negative spirals or virtuous circles, ultimately fostering adaptive functioning, and a successful life. People's career path and employability thus depend on a combination of personal, and environmental factors, occurring within specific organizational, social, economic, and political structures.

Keywords Career adaptability · Employability · Resilience · Well-being

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Introduction

Our contemporary “liquid” society is characterized by rapid and unpredictable changes (Bauman, 2007). The evolution of the last century’s society into a liquid society has structurally encouraged individuals to self-manage their life and career paths. Indeed, our liquid society does not provide unambiguous role models, but a diversity of evolving models. People can be considered as social nomads, endorsing different roles or models simultaneously or successively. Emphasizing the importance of career self-management abilities tends to promote and valorize individual achievement and individualism at the expense of a collective management of access to employment. Moreover, the labor market offers less stable opportunities and a decent work to only a part of the population (Standing, 2010). So these less supportive social structures tend to require from people that they self-manage their career in a labor market offering fewer opportunities and requiring them to adapt to new circumstances more frequently. In this context, personal resources such as work volition and career adaptability are crucial to access a decent work and can be considered as protective factors (Duffy, Bluestein, Diemer, & Autin, 2016). Decent work is supposed to contribute to basic needs that, in turn, promote satisfaction, well-being, and a successful life.

The life design approach does not only focus on the life at work but claims that all aspects of people’s lives have to be considered simultaneously. These aspects are always interrelated and many spillover effects can be observed (e.g., Bernardi, Bollmann, Potarca, & Rossier, 2017). People thus have to design, self-manage, and self-direct their life in a holistic manner. Life design interventions include social actions such as fighting against poverty and social exclusion, and promoting social equality and successful human development. Seen from this perspective, the aim of life design interventions is twofold, namely promoting access to (a) decent jobs and (b) decent lives (Crettaz, 2015). Career interventions contribute to this social challenge by promoting people’s career adaptability, career resilience, and ultimately their employability. By doing so, career interventions also increase the ability of individuals to adapt to external changes and constraints (Rossier, 2015). Therefore, actions are possible at the individual level, even though more globally collective actions are needed to promote successful life.

The aim of this chapter is to present how and in which circumstances career adaptability and career resilience may contribute to employability and the designing of a successful life. Our goals are thus to present (1) the life design paradigm and what is understood as a successful life characterized by adaptive functioning in this theoretical context, (2) these three interrelated concepts and propose one way

through which they may combine to lead to a successful life, and (3) interventions consistent with our perspective. Being able to design our lives becomes an increasingly more critical competence to develop, not only to self-manage our careers, but also more broadly to increase and manage our life quality.

Promoting a Successful Life Using the Life Design Paradigm

The life design paradigm provides a new theoretical framework that can be used to understand the challenges of our contemporary world and to provide more appropriate career and life interventions (Savickas et al., 2009). Resulting from collective international efforts, it is not embedded in a specific culture but focuses more broadly on promoting adaptive functioning. Living a successful life can be conceived as the outcome of the conjoint action of several dynamic adaptive processes that help people cope with their inner and contextual constraints and opportunities.

The Life Design Paradigm

The life design paradigm resulted from the integration of the career construction theory and the self-construction theory. It takes into account the relevance of contextual factors and of intra- and inter-individual processes (Savickas et al., 2009). It also conceptualizes work as only “a slice of the pie” of people’s broader life paths. Such a holistic approach facilitates a better understanding of the gradual construction of personal life and career (Nota, Soresi, Ferrari, & Ginevra, 2014). It is premised on the belief that individuals continually reconstruct their narratives. In narrating their life and career stories, people shape their identities (Rossier, Maggiori, & Zimmermann, 2015). The personal meaning of these stories allows people to adapt to social changes that are crucial in their working lives (Nota & Rossier, 2015).

Life design claims that career development cannot only focus on career decisions regarding finding a suitable job according to personal competences, values, and interests. Rather, it conceptualizes career development as a dynamic interaction between personal characteristics and contextual factors. Specifically, according to this paradigm, the individual is an active agent and actor of his/her own personal and career development, of his/her present and future, by designing his/her life stories or narratives and formulating coherent life aims and plans (Pouyaud, 2015). He/she is not shaped by the context, but is in interdependence with it. This means that the individual develops in a specific social and cultural context, which involves multiple systems, i.e. organizations, societal policies, and practices that can affect the human functioning (Ferrari, Sgaramella, & Soresi, 2015). As a result, focusing

exclusively on environmental conditions or individual attitudes, interests, and abilities as a basis for successful career development is not enough; instead career counselling should focus on how these multiple nonlinear interactions can have a positive impact on career and life outcomes (Hirschi & Dauwalder, 2015).

Based on this view, life design counseling should stimulate the reflection on the self and the context in order to create new perspectives for the future (Duarte and Cardoso, 2015). It uses people's narrative skills and reflexivity to help them de-, re-, and co-construct their personal stories, finding the most significant features and events in their experiences, and describing their needs by formulating goals and strategies to reach them. In addition, it focuses on promoting positive career trajectories by taking into consideration resources, competencies, behaviors, and attitudes that could allow people to self-direct their professional and life paths successfully. In a globalized society and its constantly changing work environment, career competencies such as the ability to identify opportunities, self-determination, the ability to decide thoroughly and rapidly, self-efficacy beliefs, and the ability to integrate all personal changes into our life stories in a meaningful manner are crucial (Guichard, 2015). In addition, a set of psychological resources (e.g. career adaptability, resilience, hope, optimism, and time perspective) could possibly help people to self-manage their career development, negotiate career transitions, and to plan their future (Nota, Ginevra, & Santilli, 2015). Thus, life design holds that career and life paths constantly interact in highly dynamic manner and cannot be considered independently.

A Successful Life: Well-Being and Adaptive Functioning

One objective of the life design paradigm is to answer questions such as "How may individuals best design their own lives in the human society in which they live?" (Savickas et al., 2009, p. 241). Within this framework, a successful life corresponds to one that allows individuals to reach their personal goals and satisfy basic needs, demonstrating adaptive functioning, and experiencing subjective well-being. It is characterized by a sustained equilibrium and adjustment, over extended periods of time, between people's own internal resources and constraints on the one hand and those of their environment on the other hand.

Adaptive functioning helps people to manage their interactions with their environment proactively, and react. As long as adaptive functioning is effective, a congruence exists between people and different levels of their environment (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). If being successful in life is usually associated with people's achievements, the subjective feeling of a successful life is more closely associated with well-being that is usually defined as a combination of positive affect, an absence of negative affect, and life satisfaction in a broad sense (Tatarkiewicz, 1947). Life satisfaction includes satisfaction with various life domains to which people attach more or less importance, such as job or career satisfaction, marital satisfaction, leisure satisfaction. Affective well-being and

life satisfaction influence each other, in a dynamic and complex manner over time (Bollmann, Johnston, Maggiori, & Rossier, submitted). Moreover, well-being can also be seen as a subjective perception of the quality of life, that might be more dependent on concrete living conditions, and be more influenced by specific motives, needs, and satisfactions. In this context, career satisfaction contributes to people's life satisfaction, well-being, and successful lives.

In the case of adaptive functioning, minor or short-lived changes in environmental or individual resources or constraints trigger either an active and/or a reactive adjustment. People's career adaptability and career resilience can then contribute to proactive enactment of environmental resources as well as reactive management of constraints, and serve to maintain employability, and prevent career plateaus (e.g., Jiang, 2016). Such manageable changes, however, do not affect people's perceptions of fit with their environment, nor their well-being. In contrast, major or long-lasting changes in the environment also trigger adjustment efforts, at least in the beginning, but they might prove less effective in the longer run. In the short term, adjustment efforts to major environmental evolutions prevent a decline in well-being and emergence of inappropriate or misfit. In the longer run, however, if adaptive behaviors prove ineffective, or adapt-abilities wane, people begin to experience decreased subjective well-being and higher misfit with their environment, triggering negative spirals. In such cases, individuals need to exhibit resilience to help them remain employable, and recreate perceptions of fit with their environment. Importantly, when examining misfits, researchers should take into account their directions, as well as the nature or content of the resources, and constraints at play (Edwards, 2008). Misfits, in the form of low levels of internal resources (e.g., low self-efficacy), could have very different effects on people's adaptive behaviors, their likelihood to reach their personal goals and their broader well-being than misfits in the form of low environmental resources (e.g., low instrumental support).

In the next section, we delve into the details of adaptive functioning, introducing the concepts of career adaptability, career resilience, and employability. In a nutshell, we propose that both career adaptability and career resilience contribute to people's employability. We outline the respective ways in which they do so as well as their complex interrelationships.

The Importance of Career Adaptability, Career Resilience, and Employability

Our contemporary society is characterized by an acceleration of technological, social, and cultural changes. The increase of uncertainty of this *liquid modernity* (Bauman, 2000) induces that adaptive resources become more important for people to self-direct their careers and lives. These resources can be internal and external and depend on people's ability to mobilize them. This agentic state may promote,

if conditions are favorable, virtuous cycles, well-being, and life satisfaction that can be considered as a proxy of a successful life. Regarding these resources, we focus on career adaptability, career resilience, and employability considered strengths to reach a successful life.

Career Adaptability

The career adaptability construct illustrates that in a rapidly changing world, adaptive resources or adapt-abilities are crucial and can certainly be considered as a process variable. According to Creed and Hood (2015) “process variables are complex, multifaceted constructs, which capture underlying cognitions, behaviors, and affect related to career development” (p. 351). Several different process variables have been suggested such as career maturity, career decision-making abilities, or career adaptability, to name a few. Rossier (2015) recommended that a distinction be drawn between outcomes and such process variables, considering behavior and career choices as concrete career outcomes that are adaptive if aligned to the environmental constraints.

Emergence of the Career Adaptability Construct. The construct of career adaptability was first mentioned and defined by Super and Knasel (1981). In their seminal article they suggested that this adaptive resource could be especially relevant in describing people’s career paths, instead of focusing exclusively on a developmental approach and the notion of career maturity. It is interesting to note that Herr (1993) conceived career adaptability as a combination of career resilience, reflexivity abilities, and career identity. These three aspects are connected and combine processual resources (meta-cognitive skills) and representational skills (the self-concept). Thus, vocational identity could trigger the activation of career adaptability in order to plan and express adapted career behaviors.

If Super and Knasel (1981) suggested that career adaptability could better describe and explain adults career paths than the concept of career maturity, Savickas (1997), on the contrary, claimed that this dynamic resource might sustain the integration of the two separate aspects of Super’s (1980) life-span and life-space approach. Career adaptability is supposed to organize life themes, taking into account these two aspects or dimensions, one being made of temporally organized episode (life-span), whereas the other is made of different stories being organized according to their meaning (life-space). Career adaptability conciliates these two sets of representations within a coherent and structured self-concept. Career adaptability is associated with dispositional *adaptivity* and is an important predictor of several career-related outcomes, that should reflect *adapting* behaviors, such as work engagement, work stress, career decision-making self-efficacy (e.g., Jiang, 2017; Nilforooshan & Salimi, 2016; for a review see Johnston, 2016).

Career Adaptability and Well-being. Several studies have shown that career adaptability contributes to overall well-being, and more specifically to life-satisfaction (for meta-analytical evidence, see Rudolph, Lavigne, & Zacher,

2017). Celen-Demirtas, Konstam, and Tomek (2015), in their study with unemployed emerging adults, showed that career adaptability was strongly positively correlated with positive affect and life satisfaction and negatively with negative affect. In addition, “career adaptability could trigger a virtuous cycle in time in which the adaptive properties of career adaptability may have long lasting effects on job attitudes through their impact on affective responses” (Fiori, Bollmann, & Rossier, 2015, p. 120). Career adaptability is also associated with more specific components of life-satisfaction, such as academic satisfaction (Duffy, Douglass, & Autin, 2015), work satisfaction (Coetzee & Soltz, 2015), or career satisfaction (Chan, Mai, Kuok, & Kong, 2016). Additionally, we know that career adaptability can be considered as a protective factor and partially mediates the relationship between job insecurity, job strain, and well-being outcomes (Maggiore, Johnston, Krings, Massoudi, & Rossier, 2013).

Career Resilience

Career Resilience as a Construct to Handle Future Challenges. Resilience is “a broad conceptual umbrella, covering many concepts related to positive patterns of adaptation in the context of adversity” (Masten & Obradović, 2006, p. 14). Although it has been studied for over three decades, Luthar, Cicchetti, and Becker (2000) highlighted that little consensus has been achieved about its definition and operationalization. However, its key meaning could be assumed from Bickel’s (2009) definition, as “the capacity to remain hardy and maintain your integrity, even in the face of massive change, without loss of energy” (p. 4). Resilience can be considered as a response to psychological strain associated with undesirable conditions. Rather than being conceptualized as a stable trait, it is defined as a developable ability, through repeated exposure to and successful adaptation to adversities (Seery, Holman, & Silver, 2010). As a result of several threats and the high levels of risks linked to social and occupational (Dagdeviren, Donoghue, & Promberger, 2016) uncertainties and the increasing workplace organizational pressures, resilience, and more specifically, career resilience, is featured progressively more in the career development field (Di Maggio, Ginevra, Nota, & Soresi, 2016).

A growing number of studies with adolescents and adults have analyzed the role of career resilience on career-related outcomes and vocational psychological constructs. For example, Di Maggio et al. (2016) observed that career resilience correlated positively with different psychological dimensions relevant for career construction and development, such as future orientation, hope, optimism, and career adaptability. Similarly, Barto, Lambert, and Brott (2015) found that resilience correlated positively with career adaptability, and both these constructs were helpful in overcoming career obstacles. Sufficient evidence is available that confirm the significant influence of career resilience on the career construction and career decision-making of people (including young adults).

Career Resilience and Well-being. Resilience can be regarded as a crucial source of subjective well-being (Bajaj, Robins, & Pande, 2016). Resilient individuals tend to preserve their physical and psychological health by dealing with negative events in a satisfactory manner on challenging times but also by enhancing their well-being. Strong evidence exists that resilience positively predicts life satisfaction and positive affect and negatively predicts negative affect, as indices of subjective well-being (Bajaj et al., 2016). Moreover, it has been found that resilience is associated with a positive view of the self, the world, and the future, and by virtue of this, to life satisfaction.

Several studies have also shown the impact of resilience on people's well-being in the workplace. For example, Simons and Buitendach (2013) observed that resilience, together with hope, optimism, and self-efficacy predicted work engagement, i.e. a positive, satisfying, work-related state characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption, and, consequently, the organizational commitment in a sample of call center employees. Lyons, Schweitzer, and Ng, (2015), involving a sample of about 2,000 managers and professionals, found that career resilience is positively predicted by emotional stability, internal work locus of control, the protean career attribute of self-directedness, and negatively predicted by boundaryless career attitudes. They also found that career resilience mediates the relationship between these constructs and career satisfaction and subsequently concluded that resilience acts as a positive buffer in relation to being satisfied with one's work. This underscores the key role of resilience in setting career goals and coping with career barriers as well as dealing with difficulties experienced in regard to obtaining career achievement.

Employability

Employability, a Multi-facet Construct. The concept of employability dates back as far as the beginning of the twentieth century. Employability has been characterized as "a fuzzy notion, often ill-defined and sometimes not defined at all" (Gazier, 1998, p. 298), perhaps because of the various perspectives and disciplines examining it (for a review, see Guilbert, Bernaud, Gouvernet, & Rossier, 2016). Here, we borrow Guilbert's et al. (2016) definition of employability as the "possibility of accessing a suitable job or to remain employed in a social, economic, cultural, and technological context" (p. 79). This definition facilitates the conceptualization of employability as something vested in people's perceptions, and as assessing it with a multi-source method, that is, not only through focal individuals themselves, but also through others, such as HR professionals, career counselors, or agents in placement agencies. In line with the early conceptualization of Fugate, Kinicki, and Ashforth (2004), we view employability as characteristic of adaptive functioning, and as determined by career identity, personal adaptability, as well as, for instance, human and social capital. Our view, however, departs from later operationalization (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008): We do not see employability as a

disposition-like higher-order level construct (i.e., an aggregate construct), but rather as an ability that might be partly stable (e.g., based on human capital) and partly variable over time (e.g., changed over time by career adaptability or career resilience). This view is in line with the view adopted by the developers of existing measures (Rothwell, 2015), and with recent research on perceived employability (e.g., Wittekind, Raeder, & Grote, 2010).

Research has shown that contextual factors, such as the economic situation, unemployment rate, or the rate of job vacancies, governmental actions such as employment programs, or higher education initiatives to align programs to the needs of the labor market might be related to people's employability (Berntson, Sverke, and Marklund, 2006). At organizational level, incentives to increase specific and transferable competences, and promote life-long learning within organizations, as well as the meanings that employees associate and share about such initiatives (i.e., climates) can be regarded as organizational factors and can be introduced to increase employees' employability (Nauta, van Vianen, van der Heijden, van Dam, and Willemsen, 2009). At the individual level, core determinants of higher perceived employability include qualifications, such as education or training; individual differences, such as proactive personality; and demand factors in regard to one's occupation. Inversely, support for career and skills development, as well as knowledge of the job market, have also been proposed as antecedents of employability, yet evidence is mixed.

Employability, Life Designing, and a Successful Life. Several studies established that people with higher employability also report a wealth of positive outcomes, such as positive affect related to change, higher career success, a better perceived health, and higher work-related and subjective well-being (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). They also report having conducted more intense job searches and a higher likelihood of re-employment for those unemployed (McArdle, Waters, Briscoe, & Hall, 2007). Additionally, employability might help asylum seekers to better integrate and be accepted by their host societies (Bansak, Hainmueller, & Hangartner, 2016). However, the dynamics (i.e., mechanisms and boundary conditions) of these relationships are still not well understood (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Berntson, De Witte, & Alarco, 2008). We propose that employability might affect people's subjective well-being in the long term through its influence on people's career trajectories in general, and more particularly on their job cycle features. A job cycle refers to "the cycle that starts with entering a job and ends with job exit" (Wang, Olson, & Schulz, 2013, p. 64). People's careers are characterized by specific features of their job cycles, such as their average number and length, the various job tasks they entailed, the financial resources they allowed to save, or whether job changes were voluntary or not (Wang et al., 2013). In turn, the features of these job cycles might affect people's career success. For example, managers changing jobs very frequently may face more difficulties in accessing permanent positions (King, Burke, & Pemberton, 2005).

Self-regulatory resources, such as adaptability and career resilience, have been associated with employability (Coetzee, Ferreira, & Potgieter, 2015). Employability, and its activation by such self-regulatory resources, might contribute

to people's career trajectories by optimizing the job cycle, and in turn career success. Self-regulatory resources are indeed expected to be activated in times of adversity (e.g., situations of high unemployment rate; or low job satisfaction), and found to increase employability (Trevor, 2001). In situations where this adversity is characterized by minor or short-lived changes in the environment, individuals will display learning behaviors, and invest more efforts to maintain adaptive functioning. As a consequence, their employability will secure their position (De Cuyper et al., 2008), the job cycle in which they find themselves will be characterized by more desirable features (e.g., more various tasks and tenure), thus enhancing their broader career success. In contrast, as adversity evolves into more severe or long-lasting changes, increased employability, due to the more desirable features of their job cycle that ensued from past invested efforts, might lead people to seek employment elsewhere, and resign from a job with which they do not see any congruence anymore. Illustrating the notion of adaptive functioning, this strategy might also serve their career success, and broader subjective well-being. Overall, there is abundant support for the significance of career adaptability, career resilience, and/or employability as fundamental resources to cope with stressful and adverse life situations, to overcome career barriers affecting the work life, and to attain a successful life (e.g., Drenzo, Greenhaus, & Weer, 2015).

Interventions to Promote a Successful Life

The personal resources described in this chapter (i.e. career adaptability, resilience, employability) are especially important when people face adverse working conditions because of their ability to help people manage their career path during the entire life course, and therefore enhance their personal and professional well-being. For this reason, specific interventions should be developed and implemented to enhance these personal resources. The life design paradigm emphasizes life-long, holistic, contextual, and preventive interventions (Savickas et al., 2009). Career interventions should therefore be available throughout life and help individuals to identify and develop their skills and strengths in order to help them achieve the goals that are meaningful to them. They should also encourage individuals to consider all their life-roles, beyond the work context. The importance of the context in which the individual lives should also be considered, and from this perspective, life design interventions should be inclusive and consider contextual factors. Lastly, interventions also have a preventive role, promoting attitudes, knowledge and behaviors which are useful to improve personal and professional well-being on the long run (Nota et al., 2015).

Consistent with this paradigm, and adopting a preventive perspective, career interventions can be differentiated into environment-centered ("ecological") and person-centered ("individual") interventions. The main goal of the environment-centered interventions is to positively influence the environment in which individuals live (e.g. family, community, school, etc.). In this regard, parents, teachers,

co-workers, employers, and the like can be actively involved in such a life design intervention to help them in supporting their children's, students', workers' healthy development and personal well-being (Nota et al., 2015; Vera & Polamin, 2012). Conversely, person-centered interventions work with individuals directly, through actions aimed at stimulating their life designing skills. Thus, life design interventions encourage counselees to narrate their career-life stories and stimulate the development of their personal resources to help them deal better with adverse life and working conditions, and to manage their career paths during their entire life course (Nota et al., 2014; Savickas, 2013). It should be noted, though, that not all people need this kind of an intervention, which should be directed primarily to those individuals who are the most vulnerable in the career construction process, such as young people, immigrants, individuals with disabilities, etc. (Nota et al., 2014). Besides individual career counselling (Duarte & Cardoso, 2015), life design interventions also include group interventions or computer-assisted interventions, taking advantage of new information communication technologies that might increase the availability of interventions and help people who traditionally do not have easy access to career services (Sampson & Osborn, 2015).

Adopting a life-long, holistic, contextual, and preventive approach, several group or computer-assisted interventions have been developed to activate and develop individuals' resources and strengths in order to promote a successful life. For example, Ginevra, Di Maggio, Nota, and Soresi (2017) proposed a career intervention strategy based on the life design paradigm to a group of 30 at-risk young adults. The intervention aimed to support participants to project with their future positively, identify their strengths, set personal and career goals, and plan how to attain them. It includes online activities, group discussions, and guided self-reflections on their own strengths, for a total of 10 h with the whole group (divided into two groups of 15 participants) and individual activities. Quantitative and qualitative evaluation at the end of the intervention showed an overall increase in career adaptability resources and in a number of important actions and emotional components for career planning. Moreover, overall satisfaction with and perceived utility of the career intervention was established. Masdonati, Massoudi, and Rossier (2009) alternatively proposed a face-to-face intervention strategy structured in terms of three stages and a total of four to five one hour sessions. The first stage concerned the clarification of individuals' needs and planning of their goals; the second was dedicated to assessment and information-seeking activities; and the third focused on decision-making and implementation of the chosen option. The authors noted, at the end of the intervention, decreased career decision difficulties and increased life satisfaction in participants. In addition, they found that the quality of the working alliance between the counselor and the client had a significant impact on the effectiveness of the career intervention.

An Example of How Well-Being Can Be Promoted

Enhancing life satisfaction, as a subjective component of well-being, can be regarded as the main goal of life-design related interventions, and as an indicator of its effectiveness (Masdonati et al., 2009). Based on this premise and taking into account the preventive nature of interventions based on life design, we now present a training intervention strategy for middle school students that showed a positive impact on career adaptability, on future wishes future, and on life satisfaction. This intervention (entitled “1, 2, 3... Future!”) (Nota, Santilli, & Soresi, 2016) facilitates low cost career activities for large groups of preadolescents. It comprises three two-hour online sessions (six hours in total), and was developed to help middle school students reflect on some relevant resources of their career construction. The intervention is structured in three meetings (steps). Each of them starts with a 15-min video in which the first two authors explain the constructs on which participants will be requested to reflect on at a later stage. More specifically, the first video (first step) concerns the relevance of looking toward the future and taking responsibility thereof; the second video (second step) concentrates on features of the ‘knowledge society’ and highlights the importance of investing in education and training. Multiple goals and multiple strategies to be attained are formulated. Emphasis in the videos is placed on the need to invest in several work and leisure activities to ascertain more than one source of life satisfaction (Savickas et al., 2009).

After the presentation of the video, during the first and second meetings, online questionnaires are administered to students. These measures pertain to investment in education, hope, optimism, resilience, future orientation, career interests and values. At the end of the second step, students receive a personalized report representing the personal resources they recognized in themselves. In the third meeting, after the video, participants are asked to write down personal and professional goals, consistent with their strengths and wishes, and to identify career activities that could help them to reach these goals. This online program induced more investment in their future, concern about the future, control over their life, curiosity about how to make career decisions, and confidence to make and implement such decisions, and, possibly related to these achievements, elevated levels of well-being.

An Example to Promote Adaptive Functioning

An important premise underlying life-design interventions, such as, for example, counseling activities, is that they can activate or sustain the development of regulation processes, such as emotional regulation skills or career adapt-abilities (Rossier, 2015). This activation, or increase in adaptability, is then expected to enable individuals to develop appropriate adaptive responses, increasing their employability and the likelihood of career-related behaviors and choices suited to them.

Illustrating this, Koen et al. (2012) successfully developed a one-day training intervention that increased the career adaptability of university graduates, and facilitated their school-to-work transition. Their theory-driven training is based on Savickas' (2013) recommendation that activities fostering the development and use of career adaptability resources should be implemented, and capitalizes on existing suggestions to increase the effectiveness of career professionals' interventions (Brown et al., 2003). Participants consecutively complete a series of exercises that relate to four aspects, targeted at various resources, including the exploration of their self and the occupational environment to stimulate their curiosity; the planning of information-seeking strategies, short- and long-term goals to increase concern; decision making in regard to possible options, actions, and goals to activate control; and (throughout training), problem solving by means of a role play and discussion on possible obstacles to strengthen confidence in one's decisions. The training was shown to be effective for three out of the four career adaptability resources, namely career concern, control, and curiosity. More particularly, it increased career curiosity in the short-term (i.e., three days after training), and career concern, and control in the longer-term (i.e., six months later). Moreover, even though the training did not increase graduates' chance to find employment compared to the control group, they generally reported a higher employment quality in terms of a higher job satisfaction, person-organization fit, and perceived career success, as well as lower turnover intentions. Longer interventions planned over a year can also improve employability, and a range of career related psychological resources (Hernández-Fernaud, Ruiz-de la Rosa, Negrin, Ramos-Sapena, & Hernandez, 2017).

Despite the promise showed by these interventions, it is important to note that they might be particularly effective with people who are motivated to achieve self-change. Furthermore, since adaptability might not be equally accessible to individuals with lower levels of education (O'Connell, McNeely, & Hall, 2008), follow-up sessions are needed. Additionally, sufficient time should be invested to facilitate identification, and (re)mobilization, and implementation of resources with more vulnerable populations. For people less ready to engage in such a process, it would be important to first work on developing a good working alliance (Whiston, Rossier, & Hernandez Barón, 2016) and/or increasing their motivation, by using, for example, motivational interviewing techniques (Rochat & Rossier, 2016).

Conclusion

The holistic theoretical framework and interventions promoted by the life design paradigm include consideration of both the constraints and resources of people and of their environment. Taken together, they shape people's career paths and their broader evolution across the life span. However, these different factors all interact constantly in a dynamic manner. The evolution of people can thus constantly change because career adaptability and career resilience are central personal

resources that help people design and structure their lives and self-manage their careers. These resources are essential to connect and structure in a meaningful manner or in a life story, the different roles a person endorses (life-space) across time (life-span) to sustain the integrity and continuity of the self. They allow thus to connect and structure the different layers of the self as an actor, agent, or author (McAdams, 2013). In adverse situations, such as periods of unemployment, people are able to activate their resources. Life design career interventions are designed to strengthen peoples' resources and to help them activate and utilize their resources and those facilitated by their environment. Positive outcomes are known to have a positive impact on people's self-efficacy beliefs, their self-esteem, and their self-concept (sense of self). These positive self-perceptions can promote further positive outcomes and thus nurture a positive dynamic, a virtuous cycle. The opposite can, however, also occur. Negative events can promote the use of inappropriate coping mechanisms, such as self-handicapping behaviors, and thus induce the emergence of a negative spiral. Life-design interventions should allow the emergence and sustain the development of virtuous cycles or breaking of negative spirals. These interventions can also help counselees influence their environment or even help them change this environment, or to use their resources. Our contemporary work should be ready to face many important demographic, economic, and ethical challenges and we will need to change our social structures in order to manage them. Career adaptability and career resilience are resources that sustain employability and promote successful life, but these resources are also important at a collective level to promote decent life at a larger scale.

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Part III
Assessing Career Adaptability
and Career Resilience

Chapter 6

Assessing Career Adaptability

Patrick J. Rottinghaus, Nikki A. Falk and Alec Eshelman

Abstract Scholarship on career adaptability is rapidly expanding in order to understand the dynamic ways individuals navigate the occupational landscape of the 21st century. This requires reflection on the historical origins and measurement of this important vocational construct. The present chapter highlights the evolution of conceptualizing and assessing career adaptability. Prevailing quantitative and qualitative measurement approaches are reviewed along with implications for cultural validity. Rottinghaus and Eshelman's (American Psychological Association, Washington, DC, pp. 25–39, 2015) six-step sequential integrative career counselling model serves as a guiding framework for assessing career adaptability. The importance of incorporating quantitative measures, qualitative measures, and cultural reflection in career adaptability assessment is explored through the case study of Shelly. Finally, implications and recommendations for research and practice are discussed.

Keywords Career adaptability · Career assessment · Integrative career counselling · Cultural validity

The inherent challenges driven by the shifting occupational landscape draw attention to the need for flexibility, resilience, and adaptability in managing one's career. Ongoing scholarship in vocational psychology and career development is seeking to understand the processes within this dynamic environment for youth and adults as they aim to achieve satisfying and effective careers (Creed & Hood, 2015).

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Contemporary approaches to career intervention are embracing ideas related to career adaptability (Hartung, Savickas, & Walsh, 2015; Maree & Di Fabio, 2015; Rottinghaus & Miller, 2013; Savickas, 2011; Seibert, Kraimer, & Heslin, 2016; Walsh, Savickas, & Hartung, 2013) to identify crucial components that enhance clients' degree of career readiness. As reflected in this volume, emerging literature on career adaptability is rapidly expanding, which requires a thoughtful reflection on the nature and measurement of this multi-faceted concept.

This chapter highlights a variety of approaches for conceptualizing and assessing career adaptability. We begin with a brief overview of the history of the concept of career adaptability as it emerged from Super's (1955) work on vocational maturity (later termed career maturity). Next, we review several quantitative measures of career adaptability that are commonly used (e.g., Rottinghaus, Day, & Borgen, 2005; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), paying particular attention to operational definitions, psychometric qualities, and practical considerations. Augmenting traditional positivist with complementary postmodern perspectives, we provide an overview of qualitative strategies for identifying career adaptability in clients. This is followed by a section emphasizing how diversity, culture, and social context can offer important insights on career adaptability. After presenting Rottinghaus and Eshelman's (2015) sequential integrative career counselling model, a brief case study demonstrates how diverse perspectives related to career adaptability offered in this chapter can inform the conceptualization of clients' career concerns. Lastly, we conclude with a section highlighting critical information and practical tips for effective career adaptability assessment.

Historical Perspectives on Career Adaptability

Invoking the historical emphasis on person-environment fit (Rottinghaus & Van Esbroeck, 2011) in vocational psychology, adaptability holds a special significance. Suitably, the Latin substrate of "adapt" is *adaptare*, meaning *to fit, to adapt, to adjust, to modify*. Contemporary views on fit involve a dynamic psychosocial process that requires a strategic intentionality and embracement of change. Unlike earlier, more static views of occupational life, career development in the 21st century demands greater self-knowledge, flexibility and personal management within vaguely defined structures (Bright & Pryor, 2005; Hirschi, Herrman, & Keller, 2015; Rottinghaus & Van Esbroeck, 2011). Frameworks from career adaptability models offer counselors some degree of organization and guiding mechanisms for achieving desirable outcomes.

Super (1955) introduced vocational maturity as a term describing the degree of progress "on the continuum of vocational development from exploration to decline ... the degree to which abilities and traits have taken shape, providing consistent individual bases for action" (pp. 153–155). From the developmental perspective, people were thought to advance in an orderly manner following a predictable

sequence over time, culminating in a mature end state. This early thinking set the stage for conceptualizing career adaptability.

Led by the work of Super (1983) and Crites (1973, 1981) the career maturity construct emphasizes readiness for career exploration, information gathering, decision-making, and reality orientation. Although considered central to describing career development within Super's (1957) developmental theory, career maturity was limited by emphasizing maturational processes related to career development, which did not acknowledge the complex factors involved in managing and recycling careers required of workers in the more volatile era of modern society. Therefore, Super and his colleagues (Super & Kidd, 1979; Super & Knasel, 1979) evolved career maturity into the label of *career adaptability* with extended insights on adult career management processes that adults engage to flexibly navigate their careers. Super and Knasel (1981) defined career adaptability as "readiness to cope with changing work and working conditions" (p. 195). This perspective advanced scholarship attending to readiness, exploration, and coping for adults within contemporary society.

Current Perspectives on Career Adaptability

Early attention to the career adaptability construct was limited by a lack of operational definitions and theoretical models (Creed, Fallon, & Hood, 2009; Rottinghaus, 2009). Guided by initial work by Super (1983) and Savickas (1997), models of career adaptability have been developed to offer some order to organizing this inherently multifaceted construct. Savickas (2005) recently defined career adaptability as "a psychosocial construct that denotes an individual's readiness and resources for coping with current and imminent vocational development tasks, occupational transitions, and personal traumas" (p. 51). At the highest order of abstraction, Savickas (2005, 2013) has established four broad dimensions of career adaptability: concern, control, curiosity, and confidence. These four C's are resources or strengths, each with a set of specific attitudes, beliefs, and competencies that allow individuals to cope with demanding occupational tasks, transitions, and traumas (Savickas, 2013). Creed, Fallon, and Hood (2009) also proposed a model that showed a higher-order factor of career adaptability that comprises career planning, self-exploration, career exploration, decision-making, and self-regulation. The ongoing research by Savickas and his international team of life design researchers is establishing support for an emerging paradigm to conceptualize and measure career adaptability.

Through a series of related terms, Savickas (M. Savickas, personal communication, July 4, 2016) underscored that the importance of *langue*, a systematic convention of addressing abstract terms within a given community, when noting the nuanced meanings of affiliated terms (i.e., adaptivity, adaptability, adapting, adaptation) within the career adaptability framework. Savickas (2013) proposed that **adaptivity** involves trait-like *readiness* and willingness to address complex and

vaguely-defined problems inherent in managing vocationally-relevant tasks, transitions, and traumas. Adaptivity has been operationally defined as proactivity, flexibility, or core self-evaluations (Hirschi, Herrmann, & Keller, 2015) that involve fundamental capacity for readiness to engage **adaptability resources**, or strengths represented by the 4 C's of concern, control, curiosity and confidence. In turn, these adaptability resources shape **adapting responses** engage beliefs and behaviors to address challenges stemming from shifting demands involved in navigating career planning tasks, transitions, and traumas. Ultimately, this process of **adaptation** yields outcomes with favorable *results*. This sequence is summarized as follows: "Higher levels of adaptation (outcome) are expected for those who are willing (adaptive) and able (adaptability) to perform behaviors that address changing conditions (adapting)" (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012, p. 663).

This conceptual system provided a framework for research by Hirschi et al. (2015) that offers important empirical support for a model involving the interplay between adaptiveness, adaptability, adapting, and adaptation. In a large sample of German university students, Hirschi et al. (2015) showed that the 4 C's were related, yet distinct. In a separate analysis across six months, Hirschi et al. (2015) showed that *adaptability* strengths (i.e., 4 C's) partially mediated the effects of *adaptivity* traits (i.e., core self-evaluations, proactivity) on the *adapting* beliefs and behavioral outcomes, including effective career planning, career exploration, occupational self-efficacy, and lowered career decision-making difficulties.

Quantitative Measures of Career Adaptability

Established through separate research teams, several psychometrically sound quantitative measures of career adaptability have emerged. Building on Savickas's (1997, 2001, 2005) sustained attention to career adaptability, the *Career Adapt-Abilities Scale* (CAAS; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) assesses the 4 C's of career adaptability: concern, control, curiosity, and confidence. Combining numerous insights from career maturity, career adaptability, and positive psychology constructs of optimism and resilience, Rottinghaus developed the *Career Futures Inventory* (CFI; Rottinghaus, Day, & Borgen, 2005), which yielded overall measures of career adaptability, career optimism, and perceived knowledge of the job market. Finally, Savickas and Porfeli's (2011) *Career Maturity Inventory-Adaptability Form* updated earlier versions of the *Career Maturity Inventory* (CMI; Crites, 1961, 1973; Crites & Savickas, 1996) by emphasizing readiness attitudes and competencies within the context of three of the 4 C's (i.e., concern, curiosity, and confidence). The following sections provide an overview of these quantitative measures and their spinoffs.

Career Adapt-Abilities Scale

Savickas and Porfeli (2012) reported on the international collaborative effort to operationally define career adapt-abilities across 18 countries. This diverse team of scholars developed measures of the four career adaptability resources of concern, control, curiosity, and confidence. Modified versions incorporate language and culture-specific concerns across 13 countries.

The *Career Adapt-Abilities Scale* (CAAS; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) is a 24-item measure the four dimensions of career adaptability: (a) *Concern* about one's future work life; (b) *Control* over one's career future; (c) *Curiosity* to explore possibilities for future selves and scenarios and (d) *Confidence* to seek one's career goals (Savickas, 2005, 2013). Participants rate each of the 24 strengths (6 per dimension) using a response scale that ranges from (1) "Not Strong," to (5) "Strongest." Overall, the CAAS demonstrates a robust factor structure across cultural contexts (Rossier, Zecca, Stauffer, Maggiori, & Dauwalder, 2012; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

Career Maturity Inventory—Adaptability Form

Savickas and Porfeli (2011) revised the *Career Maturity Inventory* (CMI) in an effort to reestablish "its usefulness as a succinct, reliable, and valid measure of career choice readiness" (p. 356). This effort produced the Career Maturity Inventory Form C (CMI-Adaptability Form), which consists of 24 items and yields scores for three career adaptability components: concern, curiosity, and confidence. Because increases in "adapt-abilities" will also contribute to an individual's ability and readiness to enact reasonable occupational choices, an overall career choice readiness score is derived from scores on these three adaptability components. Finally, the CMI-Form C consultation scale assesses individuals' relational style and the extent to which they seek advice or support from others in making vocational decisions.

Career Futures Inventory

The original Career Futures Inventory (Rottinghaus et al., 2005) incorporates important information from career adaptability dimensions and positive psychology that attends to how individuals view the trajectory of their career. In order to complement traditional measures of individual differences used in career counselling (e.g., vocational interests, abilities, personality, values), the CFI incorporates attention to how clients engage in the career development process. Participants indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with each statement using a five-point scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The initial

item pool addressed numerous dimensions of career adaptability, control, career transition self-efficacy, dispositional optimism (Scheier & Carver, 1985), and resilience related to work and careers. The resulting three-factor model included the following three scales of the final CFI (Rottinghaus et al., 2005):

1. Career Adaptability (CA, 11 items): The way an individual views his or her capacity to cope with and capitalize on change in the future, level of comfort with new work responsibilities, and ability to recover when unforeseen events alter career plans.
2. Career Optimism (CO, 11 items): A disposition to expect the best possible outcome or to emphasize the most positive aspects of one's future career development, and comfort in performing career planning tasks.
3. Perceived Knowledge of Job Market (PK, 3 items): Assesses perceptions of how well an individual understands job market and employment trends (p. 11).

Rottinghaus et al. (2005) reported Cronbach's alpha internal consistency estimates of 0.85, 0.87, and 0.73 for Career Adaptability, Career Optimism, and Perceived Knowledge of the Job Market, respectively, in a sample of university students in the Midwestern United States. These scales have demonstrated systematic relationships with critical features of effective career planning, including career exploration, vocational identity, career decision-making self-efficacy, educational aspirations, and career decision status.

Owing to the cross-cultural relevance and applicability of career adaptability, the CFI has been translated into diverse languages and countries, including Australia, Canada, Greece, India, Jordan, France, Turkey, and the United Kingdom (e.g., Kalafat, 2012). Additional versions include a short form, the CFI-9 (McIlveen, Burton, & Beccaria, 2012), and an adolescent form for high school students (Eshelman & Rottinghaus, 2015), which extend possibilities for using this measure across numerous settings and modalities. Research on the CFI is ongoing and several key studies examined the validity of the measures. Following are highlights of studies reporting on the factor structure, international validity, and modified forms including a brief CFI and adolescent version.

McIlveen et al. (2012) tested the international and structural validity of the CFI in a sample of Australian undergraduate students. Due to the increasing need for brief or single-session career counselling, the authors also conducted analyses to examine the validity of a 9-item short-form version of the CFI. Analyses supported the three-factor solution that included Career Adaptability, Career Optimism, and Perceived Knowledge of the employment market. Confirmatory factor analyses supported the structural validity of the nine-item measure, and the sub-scales correlated highly with other career satisfaction and self-efficacy measures.

Gunkel, Schlaegel, Langella, & Peluchette (2010) examined the international validity of the CFI constructs using business students from China, Germany, and the United States. The authors also investigated the influence of the Big Five personality traits on career adaptability constructs in each cultural context. Results showed that career optimism predicted career decisiveness in all three countries. Career knowledge predicted career decisiveness only in the Chinese and German samples, and career adaptability significantly predicted career decisiveness only in the U.S. sample. The authors suggest that U.S. students may be more exposed to

unpredictable job market trends compared with the international sample, which may make them more adaptable to change.

Duffy (2010) examined the direct relationship between overall sense of control and career adaptability using the CFI career adaptability subscale with undergraduate students in the United States. Sense of control correlated strongly with career adaptability ($r = 0.54$) and partially mediated the relations between career adaptability predictors (e.g., students' supportive relationships, self-esteem, and career optimism) and career adaptability.

Using a subscale of the CFI, Garcia, Restubog, Bordia, Bordia, & Roxas (2015) examined the role of parental support, teacher support, and career decision-making self-efficacy as sources of career optimism. Undergraduate computer science majors from a large university in the Philippines were tested at two measurement points over one year. Results indicated that parental and teacher support at Time 1 was positively related to career optimism at Time 2. These direct relationships were fully mediated by career decision-making self-efficacy at Time 1. The career optimism subscale obtained excellent psychometric properties. The test-retest reliability coefficient was 0.85, Cronbach's alpha was 0.82, and convergent validity was demonstrated with moderate positive correlations with positive affect ($r = 0.32$) and general optimism ($r = 0.46$).

Career Futures Inventory-Revised

Rottinghaus (2011) created a revised version of the CFI that sought to enhance content and expand coverage related to practical settings. Although there are overlapping items the resulting 28-item *Career Futures Inventory-Revised* (CFI-R; Rottinghaus, Buelow, Matyja, & Schneider, 2012) achieved a distinct set of five scales that incorporate critical client intake information and offer nuanced understanding of adaptive resources related to career development. This process yielded five internally consistent subscales:

- (1) *Career agency*: Perceived capacity for self-reflection and forethought to intentionally initiate, control and manage career transitions;
- (2) *Negative career outlook*: Negative thoughts about career decisions and belief that one will not achieve favorable career outcomes;
- (3) *Occupational awareness*: Perceptions of how well an individual understands job market and employment trends;
- (4) *Support*: Perceived emotional and instrumental support from family and friends in pursuing career goals; and
- (5) *Work-life balance*: Ability to understand and manage responsibilities to others across multiple life roles (Rottinghaus, Buelow, Matyja, & Schneider, 2012, p. 120).

The Cronbach's alpha internal consistency of the scales ranged from 0.78 for Work-Life Balance to 0.90 for Career Agency (Rottinghaus et al., 2012). The 10-item Career Agency subscale is especially important since it accounted for the greatest amount of variance and captured a nexus of related content involving control, self-efficacy, and self-knowledge. Bandura (2001) stated: "To be an agent is to intentionally make things happen by one's actions" (p. 2). Like adaptability

and related terms, agency is a powerful and complex construct with implications for career development that includes *intentionality*, *forethought*, *self-reactiveness*, and *self-reflectiveness* (Bandura, 2001). Rottinghaus et al. (2017) summarized operational definitions of these components as they relate to Career Agency:

- (1) Intentionality: Proactive commitment to originate an action for a given purpose. This key feature focuses on establishing action plans and taking control of strategies for realizing them;
- (2) Forethought: Motivated by *future-directed* plans, our actions are *guided by our priorities* and anticipated outcomes, which enable coherence and seeking meaningful lives;
- (3) Self-Reactiveness: We *self-regulate* by constructing and modifying the execution of our courses of action, via self-monitoring and corrective reactions informed by personal standards; and
- (4) Self-Reflectiveness, or functional *self-awareness*. We reflect on efficacy and meaning of our pursuits and make adjustments accordingly (p. 65).

The initial validation studies are demonstrating the utility of the CFI-R subscales, showing systematic points of convergence in the expected directions with career-related characteristics, including career decision self-efficacy, vocational identity, and career decision difficulties. Rottinghaus et al. (in press) provided additional evidence for the factor structure of the CFI-R among 332 clients at a university career center in the United States. Their confirmatory factor analysis showed strong support for the five-factor structure of the CFI-R. Moreover, the CFI-R demonstrated utility for detecting change in career adaptability from individual career counselling interventions.

Postmodern Interventions and Strategies

Thus far we have outlined both the history of career adaptability as well as quantitative approaches to assessing this construct. As discussed previously, Savickas (1997) elaborated upon career adaptability and proposed a developmental approach to integrating the four segments of life-span, life-space theory (Super, Savickas, & Super, 1996). This augmented approach advanced traditional career assessment by introducing postmodern paradigms and narrative methods. Most notably, Savickas' (2005, 2011) Career Construction Theory and Life Designing Theory (Savickas et al., 2009; Savickas, 2012) emphasize the subjective (co)construction and deconstruction of career stories and identity.

Career Construction Theory and Practice

Career Construction Theory (CCT; Savickas, 2005, 2013) addresses how clients construct their career through the use of the narrative, or the storied self. Interpretive and interpersonal processes explain how the individuals construct themselves, find vocational direction, and make meaning in their career. Career adaptability, life themes, and self-construction are central components of CCT.

These three domains of CCT are combined through the narrative, which is constructed and deconstructed in career counselling. In other words, an individual's vocational behavior is based upon their specific life themes along with their adaptive strengths.

Self-construction. Savickas (2005) proposes that as soon as infancy, an individual assumes the role of "actor" in their family context. This allows the individual to absorb social and cultural scripts. A character is thus created within the family of origin that is elaborated on in other social settings. A career counselor may assess the self as actor through the *Career Story Interview* (Savickas, 2011). Clients will be asked to recall role models, favorite magazines or television shows, favorite movies or books, favorite sayings or mottos, and earliest recollections. Each question has specific intention behind gathering useful information that can ultimately lead to story deconstruction and reconstruction. For example, exploring role models allows the clients to see themselves more clearly through examining what they admire about others (Savickas, 2011). After clarifying client goals the counselor can "reconstruct a life portrait" that allows room to elaborate on how the client might move forward and grow (Savickas, 2013, p. 176).

Career adaptability. After becoming an actor within the family context, an individual uses agency to extend themselves further into the community. Goals are created throughout this process, which ultimately leads to a career. Thus, the "actor" becomes the self-regulating "agent." In CCT, this agency is examined primarily in the context of adapting to transitions. Career adaptability, or the individual's psychosocial resources for coping with present and expected vocational change, shapes the agent's self-extension into the social environment. Savickas (2005) defined the four dimensions of career adaptability as concern, control, curiosity, and confidence. A career counselor may notice specific career problems if there is a deficit in one or more of these domains.

Life themes. As individuals develop and grow in society as "actors" and "agents," they become ready to organize their goals and aspirations into a coherent story. They are thus able to become the "author" of a narrative that solves problems to career transitions. This narrative outlines goals, guides adaptive behavior, and fosters meaning, which takes shape in a repeating thematic pattern.

Life Design

Savickas et al. (2009) expanded upon CCT with the development of the Life Designing Paradigm of career intervention. The resulting counselling model is rooted epistemologically in social constructionism, implementing both self-construction and career construction in the intervention process (Savickas, 2011). The Life Design framework proposes a life-long, holistic, contextual, and preventative approach to career intervention. Due to limited space, we elaborate solely on the goals of this paradigm as they pertain both to the theory and practice of assessing career adaptability.

Goals. The first goal, *adaptability*, addresses the model's aim to assist individuals in creating an adaptive and flexible career story featuring the four C's of career adaptability. The second goal, *narratability*, describes the life-designing process of helping clients formulate their identities in their own words. Through this narration process clients will be able to define their priorities, supports, and resources that lead to achieving their expectations. *Activity* is the third goal of life-designing interventions. Engaging in activity allows clients to interact with other people, build representations of themselves, and re-interpret life themes. Finally, the goal of *intentionality* addresses the process of articulating intentions regarding possible selves as opposed to focusing on decision-making and choices. Ultimately, this meaning aids clients in adapting to social change within their work lives.

Attending to Diversity, Culture, and Social Context

Effective career counselling and assessment facilitate clients' self-reflection within the context of their environment. This process is inherently complex and requires attention not only to client abilities and career knowledge, but also to cultural identities and social contexts. In the following sections, cultural identity will be operationalized using Hays' (2001) ADDRESSING model. This model is an ideal clinical framework due to its emphasis on contextual influences and intersectionality. Age, developmental and acquired disability, religion, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, indigenous heritage, national origin, and gender make up the identity components of this model.

Scholars continue to assert the importance of integrating cultural and contextual factors into vocational theory and practice. Fouad and Kantamneni (2008) argued that the contextual factors that influence individuals are interrelated and reciprocal, and Rottinghaus and Miller (2013) emphasized that these factors both encompass and interface with an individual's personality and vocational narrative. Understanding how these influences shape clients' goals, as well as their ability to implement these goals, is crucial. Due to the central role cultural context plays in effective career assessment, it is important to outline the cultural validity of career adaptability measures. Finally, we will consider the unique ways cultural and contextual factors interact with career adaptability constructs.

Cultural Validity of Career Adaptability Measures

Several studies have investigated career adaptability measures with diverse and international populations. In fact, the Life Design paradigm for career construction and the *Career Adapt-Abilities Scale* were developed using an international team of vocational psychologists from 18 countries (Savickas et al., 2009; Savickas &

Porfeli, 2012). The team jointly discussed how to measure the career adaptability construct both quantitatively and qualitatively. Culture-specific and culture-general concepts of adaptability were explored when developing and validating the CAAS. Instead of translating this measure from English to their native language on their own, the researchers engaged in a collaborative discussion on cultural meanings of individual words and phrases in the items. Scale items showed similar relations among the latent constructs across countries, suggesting that the CAAS measures similar constructs cross-culturally. Internal consistency estimates for the four subscales as well as for the total score ranged from good to excellent across countries.

Career adaptability measures have been explored in diverse populations including Chinese university undergraduates (Cheung & Jin, 2016; Guan et al., 2013, 2017), Swiss adolescents (Hirschi, 2009), Spanish university students (Merino-Tejedor, Hontangas, & Boada-Grau, 2016), Black individuals (Maree, 2016), and people with disabilities (Santilli, Nota, Ginevra, & Soresi, 2014). Guan et al. (2013) examined the role of career adaptability in Chinese graduates' job search success using the CAAS. After controlling for demographic variables, the results indicated that career adaptability significantly predicted employment status at graduation. The results also showed that career concern and career control served as the strongest predictors for job search self-efficacy in this population. Cheung and Jin (2016) also used the CAAS to measure the impact of a career exploration course on career adaptability and other career constructs for Hong Kong university students. This study was the first to use the CAAS in Hong Kong, and results demonstrated good initial reliability of the scale and subscales ($\alpha = 0.84\text{--}0.96$) as well as initial construct validity evidence.

Using a longitudinal design, Hirschi (2009) investigated the predictors of career adaptability development and its effect on developing a sense of power and life satisfaction among Swiss middle school students. The *Career Maturity Inventory* (Crites, 1973), a German version of the *Career Development Inventory* (Seifert & Eder, 1985), and a measure of confidence were utilized in measuring career adaptability. In support of the hypothesized connection between career adaptability and positive youth development, higher scores of career adaptability predicted both increased sense of power and life satisfaction.

Merino-Tejedor et al. (2016) examined the psychometric properties of the translated CAAS in a Spanish-speaking sample of university students. Reliability analysis indicated good internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.92$) as well as good construct and factor validity in the sample. The authors conclude that the CAAS is a culturally appropriate tool for measuring career adaptability in Spanish-speaking populations. In a qualitative study, Maree (2016) used thematic analysis and interpretation to explore the usefulness of the Career Construction Inventory (CCI) with a mid-career Black man. The author highlights the client's career themes such as hopefulness, enhanced sense of self, self-reflection, and reflexivity to demonstrate the use of the CCI in promoting client healing and career success through (re)writing life stories and moving toward action.

Based on the Life Design approach, Santilli et al. (2014) explored the relationship between career adaptability, hope, and life satisfaction in adult workers

with intellectual disability. Using the CAAS, the authors found that career adaptability was both directly related to life satisfaction and indirectly related through hope. These results carry important career counselling implications such as the individual and global economic benefits of increasing curiosity, concern, and self-efficacy for this population. It is clear researchers are dedicated to investigating the cultural validity of career adaptability measures and constructs. Future research should continue to explore these measures across socio-economic status, race/ethnicity, sexuality, and other groups.

Interaction Between Culture and Career Adaptability

As a psychosocial construct, career adaptability is highly impacted by culture. The intersections between different contexts, economies, and identities offer different barriers and bridges for developing career adaptability. Thus, cultural context has a substantial effect on an individual's manifestation of career adaptability facets. Holding certain privileged or marginalized identities has the power to mold how concern, control, curiosity, and confidence are experienced and expressed. Career counselors should consider the following ways cultural differences may interact with career adaptability when assessing, conceptualizing, and treatment planning with clients.

Concern. Concern for the future, or the ability to positively connect the past and present while orienting toward the future, is the first concept that may interact with cultural identities. This aspect can take the form of hope when working with individuals with disabilities. Because the labor market is designed for and tailored to able-bodied adults, people with disabilities may receive overt and covert messages that they are unable to maintain work. A client with a disability may begin career counselling with low *concern* due to these messages. Other marginalized individuals may experience similar messages that prescribe them into certain work roles and restrict them from others. Strategies for processing these experiences and increasing hope may be an important first step that could ultimately increase other constructs (e.g., self-efficacy, resilience) crucial to navigating challenges in the world of work.

Control. The belief that the future is manageable can also be understood as agency. A client who comes from a poor or working class background may feel a decreased sense of autonomy over their future. Lack of financial flexibility may make both future-oriented thinking as well as a sense of *control* difficult when exploring potential career options. The clinician should honor the client's experiences and collaborate on culturally appropriate means of reclaiming and developing agency. Having a culturally individualistic or collectivist orientation may also influence a client's sense of *control*. Clients with a collectivist perspective may value family of origin opinions and desires about their career future equally or perhaps more than their own. Clinicians should incorporate and explore family wishes and values; otherwise they might miss important aspects of the client's understanding of agency.

Curiosity. A client's tendency to explore the environment and gather information about oneself and the world of work constitutes *curiosity*. Disenfranchised individuals may have less access to career information, thus their scores may reflect low *curiosity*. Additionally, marginalized clients may not have the luxury of choosing their career, stifling their *curiosity*. Opportunities for supportive self-reflection may be more plentiful for privileged individuals. However, individuals experiencing systemic oppression may not be afforded this luxury as often. Providing a safe space for this supportive exploration and reflection may be an empowering experience for both the clinician and client.

Confidence. Self-efficacy for handling challenges and barriers to pursuing goals, or *confidence*, has been shown to interact with cultural identities such as gender and race/ethnicity (Betz & Hackett, 1981; Gloria & Hird, 1999). Clients with a minority identity may present with many more barriers and challenges to pursuing their goals compared with more privileged clients. Supporting clients through facilitating critical consciousness of the very real barriers of marginalization may be an important place to start with culturally diverse individuals. Once these experiences are validated, spending time increasing self-efficacy through mastery experiences, verbal support, modeling behavior, and monitoring physiological responses may help foster a sense of confidence and empowerment.

Six-Step Model for Integrative Career Counseling

Despite the complementary nature of modern and postmodern approaches, an unnecessary divorce between these methods has hindered integrative practice efforts (Sampson, 2009). Although these quantitative and qualitative approaches have differing epistemological underpinnings, we propose a holistic integration of both the scores and stories each method elicits. This integrative approach to career assessment can lead to a richer understanding of the client's presenting concern (e.g., Di Fabio & Maree, 2013; Maree, 2013; McMahan & Watson, 2015). Rottinghaus and Eshelman (2015) articulated an integrative model of career counselling that incorporates the unique contributions of both quantitative and qualitative assessments. Cultural and contextual factors are central to this model.

The Six-Step Model for Integrative Career Counseling broadly considers key domains (e.g., traits, motives, life events) and offers a framework for infusing critical information into clients' ongoing narrative identity to enhance intentionality, agency, meaning, and well-being. This model emphasizes sequential and interactive processes: (1) preview of intake information; (2) orientation to integrative counselling and establishing a working alliance within the context of life events, situations, and role demands; (3) administration of appropriate quantitative assessments; (4) facilitation of qualitative interventions and analysis, jointly exploring career possibilities within a cultural context; (5) integration of scores and stories related to presenting concerns; and (6) action steps.

In this approach, quantitative assessments are used during the intake process to provide counselors with initial clinical data. During early sessions, the counsellor orients the client to counselling and gains additional information through qualitative assessment. As counselling unfolds, the clinician may recommend additional, targeted quantitative assessments in line with clients' needs (e.g., CAAS, CMI Adaptability Form). Qualitative interventions (such as narrative exploration) are also used to assist further exploration, including the examination of culture and other contextual factors. As this qualitative work unfolds, the clinician assists the client in examining how quantitative assessment results inform or contrast with the client's unfolding career narrative. This integrative work informs the final phase of counselling, in which the client and counselor collaboratively identify relevant action steps in support of the client's career goals.

This model highlights the utility of integrating the unique contributions of qualitative and quantitative data. As a key construct in contemporary career counselling, career adaptability merits considerable attention throughout the counselling process. The following case example highlights how both qualitative and quantitative assessment of career adaptability components can directly inform counselling.

The Case of Shelly

Shelly is a 34 year-old married White woman with two children. Shelly has not engaged in market work for over 10 years, instead performing full-time care work for her family. After graduating from high school, Shelly took a job at a local department store, eventually becoming a manager. When she and her husband, Mark, had their first child, she decided to transition to full-time care work, particularly because Mark had just obtained a good-paying manufacturing job. Recently, however, there have been numerous layoffs in his division, and both Shelly and Mark have grown concerned about their financial stability. This lack of employment security has contributed to ongoing stress that ultimately prompted Shelly to consider returning to work. However, Shelly is uncertain whether she can obtain paid work that will earn enough income to offset childcare costs—her youngest child would require daycare if she returned to work. Moreover, Shelly lacks confidence that she will be able to re-enter the workforce successfully. In conversation with a friend, Shelly learns that a local university offers free career counselling to the community, so she decided to schedule a session.

Counselling Process

Prior to her initial session, Shelly completed intake paperwork that included the CFI-R, the CAAS, as well as informed consent. Her CFI-R results indicated low

career agency, low occupational awareness, and high negative career outlook. These results also indicated that Shelly possessed a moderate level of work-life balance and a high level of support. Her CAAS results indicated low perceived competence related to concern, control, and confidence, but moderate curiosity. During the initial phase of counselling, Shelly and her counselor discussed her assessment results, and the counselor employed Savickas' (2011) Career Story Interview, to examine Shelly's career narrative and self-aspirations. Shelly admitted that she felt relatively disempowered, and she and the counsellor discussed how her low agency likely stemmed from a lack of recent performance accomplishments in the workplace. Moreover, Shelly disclosed that growing up, her parents and extended family emphasized "traditional values."

Through repeated exposure to these gender-related messages, Shelly internalized a cultural script that meant her role as a woman would be to occupy a full-time caregiving role. Consequently, Shelly "never thought much about a career," which limited her career exploration and negatively impacted her occupational awareness and career concern. Shelly and the counselor discussed how this lack of awareness, coupled with a low sense of agency and confidence, contributed directly to Shelly's negative career outlook. Despite these difficulties, Shelly stated that her husband was extremely supportive of her and was invested in helping her find work that would meet the needs of her family while also being satisfying. She noted that this support was instrumental in prompting her to attend career counselling. These early sessions highlight how qualitative and quantitative assessments provide unique contributions to the counselling process. Moreover, through qualitative assessment the counselor was able to identify the impact of contextual and cultural factors (e.g., Shelly's family system, prescribed gender roles) upon facets of Shelly's career adaptability.

As Shelly's awareness of these factors began to grow, a nascent sense of optimism appeared. She remarked that she had never realized how significantly the expectations of her parents had impacted her, and she began to wonder whether paid work could be a satisfying component of her life. Shelly was concerned that she would have difficulty balancing her work demands with her family roles, and she expressed a strong desire to find work that might be flexible and allow for part-time hours if necessary. Moreover, she was unsure whether she and her husband could afford the expenses of a four-year degree. Further, she wanted to "work with people" and contribute to the lives of others in some way, but she wasn't sure how to translate these interests into a career choice. These concerns contributed to an ongoing level of negative career outlook, so she and the counsellor worked to expand her occupational awareness to identify fitting careers. After conducting a thorough search, Shelly found a one-year training program to become a licensed practical nurse. She was excited that the training program was relatively brief and that she would be able to start earning money for the family soon. Shelly was also thrilled to discover numerous part-time openings in a local hospital; these would enable her to balance her desire to continue care work in her home while also making an income for the family. She remarked that she felt "confident and excited" about re-entering the workforce, whereas she had previously dreaded it.

As the above case example demonstrates, assessing career adaptability from multiple perspectives provides critical clinical information and highlights avenues for useful intervention. In Shelly's case, the CFI-R provided initial data suggesting that career agency, occupational awareness, and negative career outlook might be useful targets for intervention. The CAAS results suggested similar targets for intervention (i.e., concern, control, and confidence). Moreover, CFI-R results indicated that Shelly enjoyed a level of support that might be a valuable resource during her career transition. The counselor then integrated qualitative assessment with these results to gain a fuller understanding of these constructs and the contextual factors that contributed to them. This enabled Shelly to increase her insight and begin to make active choices about her work. As her agency, concern, and control increased, she became more motivated to explore other options, which increased her occupational awareness and helped her identify possibilities. As these factors began to change, Shelly's negative career outlook lessened, and a newfound sense of confidence and optimism provided further motivation to work toward her goals.

Conclusion

Career adaptability is pivotal to intentional planning and this multi-dimensional construct is receiving increased attention in the career development literature. This chapter explored diverse perspectives on assessing career adaptability. We provided a brief history of career adaptability and contemporary perspectives related to affiliated measures and assessment systems.

Emphasizing coping processes for tasks involved in selecting, developing, and strategically managing careers, the assessment of career adaptability components supplements insights from traditional measures of abilities, values, personality and vocational interests. Attention to career adaptability adds the perspective of process over time and focuses on how to facilitate clients' engagement in the exploration of self and the world of work.

Several psychometrically sound career adaptability measures were featured in this chapter, including the CAAS, CFI, CFI-R and CMI-Adaptability Form. These measures each attend to different components of career adaptability with nuanced perspectives. The CAAS assesses adaptability resources for coping examining the four strengths of concern, control, curiosity and confidence. The CFI assesses tendencies, albeit malleable, measuring career adaptability, career optimism, and perceived knowledge of the job market. The CFI-R incorporates expanded content from Bandura's (2001) personal agency and relational qualities composing five components: career agency, occupational awareness, support, negative career outlook, and work-life balance. Finally, the CMI-Adaptability Form updated the CMI to assess career choice readiness with measures of concern, curiosity, and confidence. These quantitative approaches, combined with insights from postmodern interventions, can achieve a more holistic approach to examining career adaptability.

Implications and Recommendations

As noted throughout this chapter, both quantitative and qualitative assessments of adaptability offer unique and complementary benefits. In working with clients, counsellors should employ both to gain a more complete view of adaptability components and a fuller understanding of clients' unique strengths and challenges. For instance, quantitative assessments might reveal areas in which adaptability is lacking, and a qualitative assessment might reveal contextual factors that contributed to these deficits. As such, quantitative and qualitative assessments provide mutually informative data that counsellors can use not only to identify targets for intervention, but also to assess progress over the course of therapy. Using repeated assessments over time can help counsellors to assess outcomes and can provide clients the opportunity to discuss the growth and change they are experiencing, as well as to identify areas for future growth.

Clinicians should attend to the unique cultural context of each client during assessment and counselling. Career adaptability can be shaped by a variety of client identities including socioeconomic status, race/ethnicity, gender, ability status and age. As discussed above, these cultural identities intersect and interface with career adaptability constructs and may influence the client's scores and conception of their ongoing narrative identity. As demonstrated through the case of Shelly, exploring the impact of family values, societal gender roles, and areas of disempowerment added to a richer conceptualization of the client and more meaningful outcomes. Clinicians are encouraged to continually assess for the ways cultural identities interplay with adaptability and use interventions that are culturally informed.

Career adaptability and related constructs (e.g., career agency, preparedness, proactive planning, career self-management) are gaining increased attention (e.g., Lent, 2013) within theoretical frameworks besides Career Construction Theory (Savickas, 2013). In particular, these powerful components and precursors to adaptation have been incorporated into the Psychology of Working Theory (Duffy, Blustein, Diemer, & Autin, 2016) and Social Cognitive Career Theory (Lent & Brown, 2013). Recent concentrated attention to developing sound quantitative measures and qualitative interventions emphasizing career adaptability, combined with integrative counselling models, offers tools and techniques for assisting clients navigating tumultuous change. Informed by groundbreaking conceptual work (e.g., Hirschi et al., 2015; Savickas, 2013) and assessment systems, a full consideration of the precursors, constituent components, and adapting outcomes of adaptability can yield key insights to effective career development in the 21st century.

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Chapter 7

A Review of Empirical Studies on Employability and Measures of Employability

Annamaria Di Fabio

Abstract This chapter focuses on employability as a construct for career construction and life construction in the 21st century. Employability is a valuable individual resource that can be enhanced to help people face a constantly changing labor market characterized by unpredictability and insecurity. The chapter commences with the definition of employability, tracing its evolution through the years, and then discusses the different instruments that are available to measure the construct scientifically. The chapter continues with a review of empirical studies on employability. This review focuses on the antecedents as well as the outcomes of employability (in terms of subjective outcomes and objective outcomes). The aim is to broaden the reflection on employability as an individual strength that can be increased through specific training to help people meet the challenges of the 21st century with greater confidence.

Keywords Employability · Instruments · Antecedents · Outcomes

Definition and Evolution of the Construct of Employability

Employability is a key individual resource that can be enhanced to help people face with greater confidence a constantly changing labour market characterized by unpredictability and insecurity (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2015; Guichard, 2013a; Savickas, 2011a). Employability should not be confused with employment (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). Employability involves taking into account what employment possibilities people perceive they have and what factors influence this perception in terms of self-belief and views on the labor market (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007).

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The literature provides various definitions of employability (Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2013) involving factors such as maintenance of work (Hillage & Pollard, 1998); personal resources (Fugate et al., 2004); employability orientation (Van Dam, 2004); occupational expertise, anticipation of work, optimization of opportunities, balance between personal and professional needs (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006); sustainability of work, qualifications, future-oriented perspectives (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007); meta-competences (behavioural adaptability, self-knowledge, career orientation awareness, sense of purpose, self-esteem) (Coetzee, 2008); and internal and external factors (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011).

Hillage and Pollard (1998) consider employability as the ability to find a first job, keep it, and find a new job if required, based on the interaction between personal characteristics (e.g. career management skills, job search skills, strategic approach) and context (e.g. characteristics of the labor market). Career management skills include self-awareness of interests and abilities; opportunity awareness (knowledge of the opportunities offered by the labor market and the personal characteristics needed to enter the labor market); and decision-making skills (developing strategies to achieve what one wants to become). Job search skills are those skills required to access formal and informal networks. Strategic approach refers to adaptability to labor market developments and realism about the job opportunities offered by the labor market including understanding of the need for professional mobility. Context relates to knowledge about the demands of the labor market locally and nationally as well as knowledge of recruitment and selection processes. This first definition of employability is based on the concept of maintenance of work while the following definition focuses on the importance of individual resources in finding and maintaining a job.

Fugate et al.'s (2004) definition of employability sees employability as a psychosocial construct with three dimensions: professional identity, personal adaptability, and human capital. These dimensions act synergistically to facilitate identification in the labor market and the creation of career opportunities. Professional identity concerns work experience and aspirations, including the "who I am" or "who I want to be" of an individual as a worker. Personal adaptability concerns the ability and the willingness to change personal characteristics (e.g. knowledge, attitudes, skills) in order to adapt and respond better to environmental demands. Human capital is seen as a set of factors that can affect career and development opportunities such as age, education, training, professional experience, and cognitive ability. On the basis of this definition of employability, Fugate and Kinicki developed a questionnaire, the *Dispositional Measure of Employability* (DME, Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). Later, in addition to individual resources, the attitudes of employees were considered important factors in employability orientation. This was articulated by Van Dam (2004) as follows, "the attitudes of employees toward interventions aimed at increasing the organization's flexibility through developing and maintaining workers' employability for the organization. Employability interventions often imply a change in the employee's current work situation" (Van Dam, 2004). In other words, in order to be or become employable, employees may have to change their work content, jobs, or departments and take

part in training and development programs. Van Dam (2004) also developed a questionnaire, the *Employability Orientation Scale* (EOS).

Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) formulated a definition of employability based on individual perceptions of specific aspects of employment such as occupational expertise, anticipation, optimization, personal flexibility, corporate sense, and balance between personal and professional needs. Occupational expertise concerns any work experience of the person; anticipation and optimization concern understanding what factors may promote one's employability; personal flexibility concerns adaptability to all kinds of changes in the internal and external labor market; corporate sense concerns a sense of belonging to the organization; and balance concerns meeting the needs of the individual and those of the organization (e.g. balancing family and work or balancing working time and rest time). On the basis of their definition of employability, Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) developed the *Competence-Based Measurement of Employability*.

The next definition of employability introduced the concept of sustainability, the importance of adequate qualifications, and a future-oriented perspective. In 2007, Rothwell and Arnold referred to employability as the perceived ability to achieve appropriate, sustainable employment in relation to one's level of qualification. As part of a future-oriented perspective, employability can be considered as the skills of individuals to proactively meet the challenges of the labor market. Rothwell and Arnold (2007) looked at employability in terms of university students. They distinguished four components of employability, each consisting of two aspects: beliefs about self (commitment to studies and academic performance and confidence in one's skills and abilities); beliefs about one's university (perceptions of the status of one's university and its reputation in one's field of study); beliefs about one's field of study (status and credibility of one's field of study and demands in the labor market for people with qualifications in one's field of study); beliefs about the status of the labor market (one's perception of the state of the labor market and one's awareness of opportunities in the labor market). On the basis of this definition of employability, Rothwell, Herbert and Rothwell, (2007) developed the *Self-Perceived Employability Scale for Students*.

In his definition of employability, Coetzee (2008) introduced the concept of meta-competences (behavioral adaptability, self-knowledge, career orientation awareness, sense of purpose, self-esteem) in terms of which people are proactive agents in managing their own career paths. Behavioral adaptability in meta-competences refers to behaviors that enable one to be flexible and adaptable in different contexts; self-knowledge refers to awareness of self and one's own interests, values, and competences; career orientation awareness refers to awareness of being oriented to the development of one's own career; sense of purpose refers to awareness of having a personal goal to achieve; and self-esteem refers to having a positive value of self. On the basis of this definition, Coetzee (2008) developed the *Employability Attributes Scale* (EAS, Bezuidenhout & Coetzee, 2010).

The definition of employability was later extended by the inclusion of external factors. De Cuyper and De Witte's (2011) definition of employability is based on

the individual's perception of available job opportunities, which is influenced by internal factors (e.g. individual training to increase employability) and external factors (economic conditions, labor market structure) and includes the ability to obtain and maintain a desired job.

More recently, in their definition of employability, van der Klink et al. (2016) highlighted the importance of personal values, work meaning, and the well-being of individuals and introduced the concept of sustainable employability. Sustainable employability "means that, throughout their working lives, workers can achieve tangible opportunities in the form of a set of capabilities. They also enjoy the necessary conditions that allow them to make a valuable contribution through their work, now and in the future, while safeguarding their health and welfare. This requires, on the one hand, a work context that facilitates this for them and on the other hand, the attitude and motivation to exploit these opportunities" (p. 74).

The evolution of the definition of employability has thus moved from maintenance of work through personal resources, attitudes, and meta-competences to external factors and the focus on personal values, work meaning, and the well-being of individuals.

Employability is therefore a key individual resource in the 21st century and gives rise to important reflections on careers, work, and the meaning of life (Bernaud, 2015; Di Fabio, 2014c; Guichard, 2004, 2005, 2008, 2009, 2013a, 2013b; Savickas, 2011a, 2013, 2016). More particularly, in the current unstable and uncertain world of work, people need to improve their qualifications and individual resources in order to increase their employability. They need also to reflect deeply on their own personal value systems so that they can meet the challenges of the post-modern era and achieve satisfaction and well-being.

Measures of Employability

In line with the evolution of the definition of employability, different authors developed different instruments to measure employability. A review of these instruments (summarized in Table 7.1) is presented with the measures discussed in chronological order.

The *Employability Orientation Scale* (EOS, Van Dam, 2004) consists of seven items with responses on a Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. The scale was developed in accordance with the construct of employment orientation: "employees' attitudes toward developing their employability for the organization" (Van Dam, 2004, p. 29). Examples of the items: "If the organization needs me to perform different tasks, I am prepared to change my work activities"; "I find it important to develop myself in a broad sense, so I will be able to perform different task activities or jobs within the organization"; "In the case of organizational changes, I would prefer to stay in my department with my colleagues". The scale is one-dimensional with good internal consistency.

Table 7.1 Overview of instruments used to evaluate employability

Measure	Authors and date	Construct
<i>Employability Orientation Scale</i> (EOS)—7 items	Van Dam (2004)	Definition: The attitudes of employees towards developing their employability for the organization The scale is one-dimensional
<i>Competence-Based Measurement of Employability</i> (CBME)—47 items	Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006)	Definition: Employability is based on individual perceptions of five dimensions: occupational expertise, anticipation and optimization, personal flexibility, corporate sense, balance
<i>Self-Perceived Employability Scale for Students</i> (SPES)—16 items	Rothwell, Herbert, and Rothwell (2007); Italian version: Di Fabio and Bucci (2015), Di Fabio and Palazzeschi (2013)	Definition: Employability is the perceived ability to achieve appropriate, sustainable employment in relation to one’s level of qualification Four factors are involved: beliefs about self; beliefs about one’s university; beliefs about one’s field of study; beliefs about the state of the labor market
<i>Dispositional Measure of Employability</i> (DME)—25 items	DME, Fugate and Kinicki (2008); Italian version by Di Fabio and Bucci (2017)	Definition: Employability is a psychosocial construct Five dimensions are involved: work and career resilience, openness to changes at work, work and career proactivity, career motivation, and work identity
<i>Employability Attributes Scale</i> (EAS)—49 items	Bezuidenhout and Coetzee (2010)	Definition: Employability refers to meta-competences Seven dimensions are involved: career self-management, cultural competence, self-efficacy, career resilience, sociability, entrepreneurial orientation, proactivity

The *Competence-Based Measurement of Employability* (CBME, Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006) consists of 47 items on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*. The instrument was developed in accordance with Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden’s (2006) definition, which listed five dimensions of perceived employability: occupational expertise (example of item: “I consider myself competent to engage in in-depth, specialist discussions in my job domain”); anticipation and optimization (example of item: “I take responsibility for maintaining my labor market value”); personal flexibility (example of item: “I adapt to developments within my organization”); corporate sense

(example of item: “In my organization, I take part in forming a common vision of values and goals”); balance (example of item: “My work and private life are evenly balanced”). The psychometric properties of the instrument were verified through independent studies conducted on employees and their immediate supervisors. The five-dimensional structure was confirmed through confirmatory factor analysis, and the instrument demonstrated good reliability as well. Predictive validity was supported by the positive relationship between the CBME and increase in hierarchical level and/or any significant increase in job responsibilities; financial success in terms of current gross income (per month); and the number of periods of unemployment of longer than one month throughout an individual’s career.

The *Self-Perceived Employability Scale for Students* (SPES, Rothwell, Herbert, & Rothwell, 2007; Italian version Di Fabio & Bucci, 2015; Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2013) consists of 16 items with response options on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. The scale was developed in accordance with Rothwell and Arnold’s (2007) definition, which states that employability is the perceived ability to achieve appropriate, sustainable employment in keeping with one’s level of qualification and which distinguishes four aspects of employability in relation to university students: beliefs about self, beliefs about one’s university, beliefs about one’s field of study, and beliefs about the state of the labor market. Examples of items: “I regard my academic work as top priority”, “Employers are eager to employ graduates from my university”, “My degree is seen as leading to a specific career that is generally perceived as highly desirable”, “There is generally a strong demand for graduates at the present time”. The psychometric properties of the instrument were verified by independent studies conducted on university students. The scale was one-dimensional and demonstrated good reliability. The SPES showed itself to be a valid and reliable instrument (also in an Italian context) in respect of university students (Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2013) as well as high school students (Di Fabio & Bucci, 2015).

The *Dispositional Measure of Employability* (DME, Fugate & Kinicki, 2008; Italian version by Di Fabio & Bucci, 2017) consists of 25 items with responses on a Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. The measure was developed in accordance with Fugate et al.’s (2004) definition, which states that employability is a multidimensional, psychosocial construct with five dimensions: Work and career resilience (example of item: “I am optimistic about my future career opportunities”); Openness to changes at work (example of item: “I feel changes at work generally have positive implications”); Work and career proactivity (example of item: “I stay abreast of developments relating to my type of job”); Career motivation (example of item: “I have participated in training or schooling that will help me reach my career goals”); Work identity (example of item: “I define myself by the work that I do”). Three independent studies were conducted on employees to establish the validity of the DME. The five-dimensional structure of the DME was confirmed using exploratory factor analysis (Study 1) and confirmatory factor analysis (Study 2). A third study confirmed the stability of the DME and indicated its construct validity by showing longitudinally that employability correlated significantly with employees’ positive

emotions and affective commitment during organizational changes. All the studies indicated also the reliability of the DME.

The *Employability Attributes Scale* (EAS, Bezuidenhout & Coetzee, 2010) consists of 49 items on a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *never true for me* to 6 = *always true for me*. The scale was developed in accordance with Coetzee's (2008) definition of employability, which introduced the concept of meta-competences. The scale is designed to detect seven dimensions: career self-management, cultural competence, self-efficacy, career resilience, sociability, entrepreneurial orientation, and proactivity. Exploratory factor analysis (Coetzee, 2010) and inter-item correlational analyses indicated that the EAS items meet the psychometric criteria for construct validity. In terms of reliability (internal consistency), Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each subscale were satisfactory in Coetzee's study (Coetzee, 2010).

The instruments discussed above thus adequately measure the different aspects of employability according to the different definitions. Perhaps what is lacking is a more comprehensive tool that can reveal the full complexity of the employability construct. Also, new scales need to be developed in line with more recent definitions of employability.

Empirical Studies on the Antecedents and Outcomes of Employability

The literature review focused on employability antecedents as well as employability outcomes (subjective as well as objective outcomes).

Many of the contributions to the literature deal with the definition of employability, yet few studies have empirically tested the antecedents of employability (Wittekind, Raeder, & Grote, 2010). The antecedents of employability considered in the literature include human capital and labor market opportunities, education, support for career and skill development, current level of job-related skills, willingness to change jobs, willingness to develop new competencies, opportunity awareness, self-presentation skills, personality traits, and emotional intelligence (EI).

In their groundbreaking study on the antecedents of employability, Berntson, Sverke, and Marklund (2006) compared human capital and labor market opportunities as predictors of perceived employability. A study by Wittekind et al. (2010) analyzed the antecedents of perceived employability longitudinally. Here the antecedents were education, support for career and skill development, current level of job-related skills, willingness to change jobs, willingness to develop new competencies, opportunity awareness, and self-presentation skills.

Some studies analyzed the relationship between personality traits and perceived employability. Wille, De Fruyt, and Feys (2013), in a study involving Flemish college students, found positive associations between perceived employability and

Agreeableness, Openness, and Emotional Stability in respect of personality traits. These associations were evaluated on the basis of four items adopted from the *Career Worries Scale* of the *Career Attitudes and Strategies Inventory* (CASI; Holland & Gottfredson, 1994).

A study carried out on Italian university students (Di Fabio & Bucci, 2013) found a positive relationship between perceived employability (measured with the *Self-Perceived Employability Scale for Students*; Rothwell et al., 2007) and Extraversion and Conscientiousness, thereby underlining the role of personal characteristics in perceived employability and also indicating the need for future in-depth analysis to better understand the relationship between perceived employability and personality and personality traits.

In their article on the relationship between employability and career success, Hogan et al. (2013) highlight the importance of social skills and emotional intelligence. The EI construct is particularly interesting because EI can be increased through specific training (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2012b, 2016; Di Fabio & Saklofske, 2014b) and operates differently from personality traits, which are considered stable in the literature (McCrae & Costa, 1987).

In another study, Dacre Pool and Qualter (2013) analyzed the relationship between the emotional self-efficacy and employability of working graduates.

The relationship between EI and perceived employability has received particular attention in studies in the Italian context. An interesting feature of these studies is that the relationship between EI and perceived employability tended to be investigated taking into account the effect of fluid intelligence and/or personality traits. A study by Di Fabio and Bucci (2013) set out to determine whether, in Italian university students, self-perceived emotional intelligence according to the Bar-On (1997) model related to perceived employability, taking into account the effect of personality traits.

Another study (Di Fabio, 2014b) among Italian university students used the trait emotional intelligence model of Petrides and Furnham (2000) and ability-based emotional intelligence according to the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model.

A recent study (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2015), again among Italian high school students, examined the relationship between two variables, namely self-reported emotional intelligence according to the Bar-On (1997) model and support from friends and teachers, in terms of three adaptive career outcomes (resilience, employability, and career decision-making self-efficacy).

The results of the studies discussed in this chapter are promising in that they suggest that career readiness can be promoted through EI—a variable that can be enhanced through specific training (Dacre Pool, & Qualter, 2013; Kotsou, Nelis, Grégoire, & Mikolajczak, 2011; Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak, & Hansenne, 2009). On the basis of a preventive approach and a primary prevention framework (Di Fabio et al., 2016; Di Fabio, Kenny, & Minor, 2014), it is possible to increase EI and thereby promote employability, reinforce people, create new strengths (Di Fabio, 2014a; Di Fabio & Kenny, 2015), and support work placement and job transitions in the 21st century (Guichard, 2013a; Savickas, 2011a).

As in the case of the antecedents of employability, few empirical studies have been done on the outcomes of employability, and those that have been conducted have focused on subjective outcomes (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel Berntson, De Witte, & Alarco, 2008; De Cuyper, Notelaers, & De Witte, 2009; Lu, Sun, & Du, 2016). Very few studies up till now have covered the objective outcomes of employability (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; McQuaid, 2006).

In the past, subjective employability outcomes were studied mainly in organizational contexts, and the examined outcomes were life and job satisfaction (De Cuyper et al., 2008, 2009), affective commitment (De Cuyper et al., 2009), emotional exhaustion, and turnover intention (Lu et al., 2016).

De Cuyper et al.'s (2008) study on job satisfaction revealed a positive relationship between employability (measured according to the four items of De Witte, 2000) and employees' well-being in terms of life satisfaction, thereby underlining the importance of feeling employable for an individual's well-being in his/her own life. Follow-up research (De Cuyper et al., 2009) conducted among temporary agency workers and permanent workers showed that employability correlated positively with job satisfaction and negatively with affective organizational commitment.

Lu et al. (2016) investigated the effects of employability on employees' emotional exhaustion and turnover intention in a Chinese setting, focusing on the moderating role of perceived career opportunity (PCO).

A study by Silla, De Cuyper, Gracia, Peirò, and De Witte (2009) investigated the relationship between job insecurity and well-being (psychological distress and life satisfaction) and the potential role of perceived employability in this relationship.

Few studies are recorded in the literature on the objective outcomes of employability. Among these are job search success and subsequent health as positive outcomes.

A study by McQuaid (2006) examined the relationship between unemployed persons' employability and job search success, while a study by Berntson and Marklund (2007) investigated the relationship between perceived employability and subsequent health.

It is important to continue studying the antecedents and outcomes of employability. Regarding antecedents, it could be useful to study variables that can be increased through specific training to promote employability. Regarding outcomes, it could be useful to analyze subjective outcomes such as the different types of well-being (hedonic and eudaimonic well-being) and also new objective outcomes.

Conclusions

The evolution of the definition of employability begins with the maintenance of work (Hillage & Pollard, 1998) through personal resources (Fugate et al., 2004), employability orientation (Van Dam, 2004), occupational expertise, anticipation, optimization, and balance between personal and professional needs (Van der Heijde &

Van der Heijden, 2006). The definition then moves to qualifications and future-oriented perspectives (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007), then to meta-competences (Coetzee, 2008), and, finally, to the more recent consideration of internal and external factors (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011), the introduction of the concept of sustainable employability. This last definition includes the importance of personal values, work meaning, and the well-being of individuals. These more recent definitions of employability take into consideration external factors relating to the labor market as well as internal factors relating to values and life meaning in the 21st century.

Regarding the measures of employability, new scales need to be developed on the basis of the more recent definitions of employability, for example De Cuyper & De Witte's (2011) definition that covers simultaneously the role of internal and external factors, and also the definition of sustainable employability (van der Klink et al. 2016) that includes the importance of personal values, work meaning, and the well-being of individuals in relation to career, work, and life meaning (Bernaud, 2015; Di Fabio, 2014c; Guichard, 2013a; Savickas, 2011a).

The analysis of the studies presented in this chapter helps widen reflection on employability as an individual strength (Di Fabio, 2015; Di Fabio & Bucci, 2015, 2016; Di Fabio & Cumbo, 2017; Di Fabio & Kenny, 2015; Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2012, 2015a, 2015b, 2016; Di Fabio & Saklofske, 2014b) that can be enhanced through specific training (Van der Heijden, Boon, van der Klink, & Meijs, 2009; Nelis et al., 2011; Sanders & de Grip, 2004) to enable people to better face the challenges of the 21st century (Bangali & Guichard, 2012; Di Fabio, 2014b; Di Fabio & Maree, 2012, 2013a, 2013b, 2013c, 2016; Guichard, 2013a, 2015, 2016a, 2016b; Maree, 2007, 2013; Maree & Di Fabio, 2015; Rothwell & Rothwell, 2017; Savickas, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c).

The review of the studies highlighted the need to continue with research particularly on the antecedents of employability (Dacre Pool, 2017; Singh et al., 2017), especially emotional intelligence, which can be increased through specific training (Di Fabio, 2015; Di Fabio & Kenny, 2012a, 2012b; Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2009, 2012, 2015a, 2015b; Di Fabio, Palazzeschi, Asulin-Peretz, & Gati, 2013; Di Fabio & Saklofske, 2014a, 2014b).

A key antecedent of employability that warrants further research is intrapreneurial self-capital (ISC) (Di Fabio, 2014a, p. 100). ISC reflects individual intrapreneurial resources that enable people to deal with frequent changes and transitions by creating innovative solutions when confronted with constraints imposed by the environment (Di Fabio, 2014a). ISC is a higher order construct comprising seven specific constructs that are fundamental to dealing with the challenges of the 21st century world of work. (1) Core self-evaluation refers to self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and the absence of pessimism (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003). (2) Hardiness refers to commitment, control, and challenge (Maddi, 1990). (3) Creative self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief that he/she can face and solve problems creatively (Tierney & Farmer, 2002). (4) Resilience refers to the perceived ability to cope with and continue to withstand adversity (Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000) and to implement adaptive strategies to deal with

discomfort and adversity (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). (5) Goal mastery refers to continuously developing one's skills (Midgley et al., 2000). (6) Decisiveness refers to the perceived ability to make decisions timeously in any life context (Frost & Shows, 1993). (7) Vigilance refers to the careful and adaptive searching for relevant information in decisional processes (Mann, Burnett, Radford, & Ford, 1997). ISC is thus a promising employability antecedent that warrants in-depth longitudinal study.

Employability outcomes also warrant more in-depth study, especially subjective outcomes where both hedonic (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) and eudaimonic well-being could be considered from a positive psychology point of view (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Waterman et al., 2010).

In relation to hedonic well-being, employability has been studied in particular in relation to life satisfaction (De Cuyper et al., 2008), and it would therefore be interesting also to examine its contribution to positive affects (Watson et al., 1988), which are another aspect of hedonic well-being. The role of employability could also be investigated in relation to eudaimonic well-being variables such as meaning in life (Morgan & Farsides, 2009), authenticity (Wood, Linley, Maltby, Baliousis, & Joseph, 2008), the subjective experience of eudaimonia (Waterman et al., 2010), existential fulfillment (Längle, Orgler, & Kundi, 2003), and flourishing (Diener et al., 2010).

Regarding the objective outcomes of employability, employability activities need to be identified that can help one manage one's professional path (Van Dam, 2004); enhance one's professional knowledge and competences (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006); and create and maintain multiple interpersonal relationships (Lent, Lopez, Lopez, & Sheu, 2008).

It is hoped that this chapter will broaden the discussion on employability, especially regarding its importance in relation to career construction (Savickas, 2005, 2015) and life construction (Guichard, 2013a) in the 21st century. Employability is clearly a key individual resource that can be enhanced to help people adapt better to the current constantly changing and unpredictable labor market and thereby achieve well-being, self-realization, and career success.

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Chapter 8

Determining Career Resilience

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Abstract The concept of resilience is receiving increasing interest in the field of career development. However, there is no consensus on the definition of career resilience, which considerably limits the scope of research on this topic. In this chapter, we start by considering the concept of resilience in the light of the living system framework (LSF; Ford in *Humans as self-constructing living systems: A developmental perspective on behavior and personality*. Erlbaum, Hillsdale, NJ, 1987). This first step allows us to propose an operational definition of career resilience as *effective vocational functioning under disabling circumstances*. A convenient way to study career resilience is suggested accordingly. Ethical challenges related with attempts to promote career resilience through counseling interventions are emphasized, as well as suggestions to foster career resilience perceived self-efficacy.

Keywords Career resilience · Living system framework · Effective functioning Career resilience self-efficacy

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Resilience is the phenomenon by which people experience adaptive functioning despite adverse circumstances (Luthar, 2006). Originating from the study of children that remained psychologically healthy in at-risk situations that led the majority of them to succumb (Garmezy, 1974, 1985), this concept is now widely used in various academic disciplines, such as developmental and personality psychology,

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biology, and psychiatry (Windle, 2011). In the field of vocational psychology and career development, in the current tight labor market, it has become of primary importance to understand why and how some people overcome stressful and adverse career-related circumstances—such as disabling work transitions—while others do not. For this reason, the concept of resilience is increasingly researched and valued in the field of career development (e.g., Bimrose & Hearne, 2012; Coetzee, Mogale, & Potgieter, 2015; Di Maggio, Ginevra, Nota, & Soresi, 2016; Fleig-Palmer, Luthans, & Mandernach, 2009; Fourie & Van Vuuren, 1998; Luthans, 2002; Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015; Moorhouse & Caltabiano, 2007; Santilli et al., 2015; Seibert, Kraimer, & Heslin, 2016; Shin & Kelly, 2015; Van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000; Winwood, Colon, & McEwen, 2013).

However, there is no consensus on what career resilience involves. Whereas some researchers refer to the broad concept of psychological resilience (Di Maggio et al., 2016; Fleig-Palmer et al., 2009; Kim & Lee, 2017; Moorhouse & Caltabiano, 2007; Santilli et al., 2015; Shin & Kelly, 2015; Winwood et al., 2013) or resiliency (Barto, Lambert, & Brott, 2015), others focus on a specific but vague conceptualization of career resilience (Arora & Rangnekar, 2016a, 2016b; Bimrose & Hearne, 2012; Coetzee et al., 2015; Fourie & Van Vuuren, 1998; London, 1983, 1993; Lyons et al., 2015; Van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000). The diversity of the instruments used to detect career resilience reflects these conceptual issues and impedes its potential contribution to the field of career development and counseling and vocational psychology. Based on these observations, this chapter aims to (a) clarify the general concept of resilience, (b) determine an operational definition of career resilience, (c) highlight its implications for future research, and (d) elucidate its potential implications for career counseling practice.

Clarifying the Meaning of Resilience: Looking at the Living System Framework

Resilience can be described as the “dynamic process encompassing positive adaptation within the context of significant adversity” (Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000, p. 543). As such, the phenomenon of resilience has two prerequisites: (a) the existence of significant adverse circumstances, also called risk situations, and (b) the presence of positive and adaptive outcomes (Garmezy, 1985; Luthar, 2006; Masten & Tellegen, 2012). The risk situation can be defined as the statistical probability to encounter adaptive problems under a given set of disabling circumstances (Sexton, 2011). Successful adaptation can consist either in the presence of multidimensional positive outcomes or the absence of negative (maladaptive) outcomes. Positive outcomes refer to the resolution of a given major developmental task or challenge that is significantly better than what was expected given the risk situation (Luthar, 2006). These outcomes do not refer to outstanding achievements, but rather to the person’s fulfillment of social expectations in a given cultural and historical context (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

The association between at-risk situations and positive outcomes ensues from the dynamic interaction between individual and environmental characteristics (Rutter, 1987). Resilience researchers try to identify individual and environmental factors that characterize risk situations (risk factors) but also those that counter the negative effects of risk factors and modify them in a positive direction (protective factors) (Luthar, 2006). They also focus on the protective mechanisms in order to understand how they develop and how they operate to redirect people's lives into more adaptive trajectories (Rutter, 1987).

Three broad categories of risk and protective factors and processes typically emerge from the literature on resilience (e.g., Garmezy, 1985; Luthar, 2006): individual attributes (such as cognitive and social abilities, personality, and biological factors), family functioning dynamics (such as family structure and parents' attachment and support), and community variables (such as the influences of school, peers, social networks and neighborhood). These factors and processes often influence each other in a bidirectional manner (Luthar, 2006) and can be cumulative (e.g., Masten & Tellegen, 2012). As such, it is postulated that resilience is not vested exclusively in individual characteristics—in contrast to the concept of *ego-resiliency* (Block & Block, 1980)—but rather in the complex relationship between individual and contextual variables that characterize the situation (Rutter, 1987). Moreover, resilience cannot be directly observed: it can only be *inferred* from the post hoc observation of positive outcomes resulting from risk situations (Luthar, 2006; Luthar & Cushing, 1999; Rutter, 1987). Britt, Shen, Sinclair, Grossman, and Klieger (2016) thus suggest a distinction between “capacities for resilience and demonstration of resilience” (p. 394). Furthermore, despite the fact that resilience in childhood seems to spread over adolescence (e.g., Masten et al., 2004; Masten & Tellegen, 2012), resilience is not a ‘fixed’ characteristic, but varies according to the developmental tasks encountered by the individual (Luthar, 2006; Masten & Tellegen, 2012; Rutter, 1987).

Resilience will thus also depend on the moment and the situation in which the person is, as well as on the characteristic of this person in a given life stage (Masdonati, 2002). Therefore, several authors (e.g., Schoon & Bartley, 2008; Windle, 2011) recommended adopting an ecological framework to explain the complex functioning of resilience. The Living System Framework (LSF; Ford, 1987) can constitute such an appropriate framework. In the LSF, the person-in-context unit represents the complex and dynamic functioning of the individual behavior and development over time and across contexts. At the behavioral level, the *effective functioning* of the person-in-context will lead to *achievements* that can be observed when a specific goal is reached in a particular context. At the developmental level, *competence* can be inferred from the repetition of achievements of comparable goals in similar environments over time. M. E. Ford (1992) identifies the following components as essential for such effective functioning at both behavioral and developmental levels: (a) responsive environment, (b) biological endowments, (c) skills, and (d) motivation (which comprises goals, personal and contextual beliefs, and emotions).

Masten and Tellegen (2012) describe resilience as “competence with a history of very high adversity” (p. 355). Consequently, and according to the LSF (Ford, 1987)

we associate resilience with competence resulting from the successful and repeated achievement of goals under adverse and/or disabling conditions. This leads us to define resilience as the *effective functioning under disabling circumstances*. All sources of risk, protective factors, and risk mediators identified in the literature (e.g., Garnezy, 1985; Luthar, 2006; Masten et al., 2004; Masten & Powell, 2003) can thus be included in the above-mentioned components of effective functioning: (a) the responsiveness of the environment (family and community-related factors), (b) the biological processes, (c) the current skills of the individual, and (d) the motivational components (characteristics of the individual). The motivational components can be thought as the processes through which resilience operates, i.e. (1) goals (the perception and engagement toward the adaptive outcomes), (2) personal and contextual agency beliefs and (3) emotions (the individual cognitive and emotional perception of the risk and resources). An example of how the factors and processes identified in the literature on resilience (Luthar, 2006; Masten & Powell, 2003) can be integrated in the LSF is shown in Table 1. Since the LSF was adapted to vocational behavior and development by Vondracek, Ford, and Porfeli (2015), the elements mentioned above can be easily and coherently used to facilitate an

Table 1 Convergence between the effective functioning components (Ford, 1987) and the risk and protective factors and processes identified in the work on resilience (Luthar, 2006; Masten & Powell, 2003)

Effective functioning's components	Factors and processes identified in the resilience research literature		
	Categories	Examples	
		Risk factors	Protective factors
<i>(1) Environment</i>			
	Family relationships	Disturbed family functioning	Attachment Warmth and structure
	Community (school, peers and social network, neighborhoods)	Violence exposure Low quality of social services	Peer acceptance Teacher support
<i>(2) Biological conditions</i>			
	Biological processes (neural network, brain functioning, neuroendocrinal processes, genetic influences)	Chemical imbalance in the brain	High activation of the left prefrontal cortex
<i>(3) Skills</i>			
	Individual characteristics (intelligence, temperament, self-regulation, coping strategies)	Inhibition Low IQ	Developmentally mature defense mechanisms Empathy

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Effective functioning's components	Factors and processes identified in the resilience research literature		
	Categories	Examples	
		Risk factors	Protective factors
<i>(4) Motivation</i>			
	Individual characteristics		
Goals		Low engagement	High engagement
Personal agency beliefs		Low self-efficacy	High self-efficacy Good self-esteem
Contextual agency beliefs		External locus of control	Internal locus of control
Emotions		Depression	Capacity to regulate emotions

understanding of resilience in the field of career development and vocational psychology.

Determining Career Resilience: Coping with Disabling Work Transitions

Researchers acknowledge that resilience is specific to a particular domain of functioning (Luthar, 2006), such as academic (Martin & Marsh, 2006), educational (Crosnoe & Elder, 2004), and community functioning (Norris, Stevens, Pfefferbaum, Wyche, & Pfefferbaum, 2008). The concept of career resilience first appeared in London's (1983) theory of motivation, where it was described as a combination of self-efficacy, risk orientation, and dependency. Efforts aimed at conceptualizing this construct were later resumed and advanced by Fourie and Van Vuuren (1998), Van Vuuren & Fourie (2000), who defined career resilience as a combination of self-reliance, indifference to conventional sources of career success, and receptivity to change. Although these definitions have been used in several empirical studies (e.g., Bimrose & Hearne, 2012; Coetzee et al., 2015; Lyons et al., 2015), they are not based on sound methodological frameworks. Most authors do not accurately justify the selection of the mentioned variables instead of other similarly plausible concepts, which limits the scope of their results (Windle, 2011). Moreover, research examining unspecified resilience in the context of career development (Barto et al., 2015; Di Maggio et al., 2016; Fleig-Palmer et al., 2009; Kim & Lee, 2017; Moorhouse & Caltabiano, 2007; Santilli et al., 2015; Shin & Kelly, 2015; Winwood et al., 2013) is also limited because the different authors

tend to study resilience as an *attribute* of the individual, instead of considering it as an interactive *process* between the person and the context (e.g., Rutter, 1987, 2012). Establishing a more operational and interactional definition of career resilience and anchoring it in an existing theory of career development seems therefore a crucial goal for future research.

Consistent with what we stated in the previous section, it appears that the specificity of career resilience lies in the vocational context of its occurrence. As such, career resilience can be defined as *the effective vocational functioning under disabling career-related circumstances*. The main task for further determining the essential ingredients of career resilience consists of highlighting and determining (1) career-related risk situations—i.e. disabling career-related circumstances—, (2) concomitant risk and protective factors or processes, as well as (3) the adaptive outcomes of these situations—i.e. vocational functioning. First, resilience authors (Masten et al., 2004; Masten & Tellegen, 2012) highlight normative and non-normative developmental transitions—such as the transition to adulthood—as likely to offer particular risks and opportunities for the emergence of resilience processes. In the field of career development, career-specific risk situations may be associated with the experience of career transitions in an unpredictable, complex and ever-changing world of work (Guichard, 2015; Savickas et al., 2009). Contemporary career transitions are particularly risky when they are uncontrolled or unplanned (Fouad & Bynner, 2008) and when they concern people who already experience marginalization, economic constraints (Duffy, Blustein, Diemer, & Autin, 2016) or non-normative life events (Barto et al., 2015). According to Schlossberg's transition theory (Anderson, Goodman, & Schlossberg, 2012), transitions can be classified into three categories: they can be anticipated, non-anticipated, or non-event transitions—i.e. transitions associated with the non-occurrence of an expected event. All of these transitions may thus constitute turning points in people's lives, where protective and vulnerability processes operate to change the course of one's trajectory (Rutter, 1987). Focusing the definition of career resilience on the transition process also contribute to distinguish this concept from the concept of resilience demonstrated in the workplace (e.g., Britt et al., 2016; Kolar, von Treuer, & Koh, 2017; Rothstein, McLarnon, & King, 2016). This type of resilience refers to the adversity faced in the context of occupation (i.e., workplace stressors), which is receiving an increasing interest in the field of industrial and organizational psychology (see Kossek & Perrigino, 2016, for a review), especially in healthcare occupations (e.g., Clendon & Walker, 2016; McDonald, Jackson, Vickers, & Wilkes, 2016; Yoon, Daley, & Curlin, 2017).

Second, the risk and protective factors or processes involved in career transitions can be derived from and grouped according to M. E. Ford's (1992) four components of effective functioning identified in Table 1. Consequently, the risk factors will comprise: (1) the presence of objective stressful circumstances or adversity in the career context or the lack of effective material, structural and social support to manage the career transition at-hand, (2) the lack of career-effective personal resources in terms of biological states and (3) personal skills, and (4) low motivation to achieve a successful career, which can be due to: (a) low perceived

importance, attainability and clarity of the pursued career outcomes, (b) low confidence in one's personal and contextual resources to deal with a risky career transition, and/or (c) negative emotional evaluation of the career transition. The severity or the accumulation of these risk factors may predict an unsuccessful career transition. Conversely, the protective factors or processes will comprise elements that could contribute explaining why the person achieved a successful career transition in spite the presence of risk factors. Protective factors are then relied to: (1) the presence of effective and available material, structural and social resources in the environment, (2) adequate biological resources and (3) skills, and (4) high motivation to cope with the transition challenges, i.e. (a) clear, important and attainable career goals, (b) confidence with one's personal capabilities and contextual opportunities to achieve these goals, and (c) adequate emotional arousal to energize the actions towards these goals. In addition to these elements, authors consider that luck also appears to be a factor explaining resilient trajectories (Willis, 1977). However, it should be noted that the so-called "luck" or "happenstance" might in fact result from the complex and hidden interconnection of the above-mentioned factors and processes (Krumboltz, 2009).

Finally, determining career resilience implies to define what constitutes a successful career transition outcome. This is a tough task given that the answer to this question depends on specific situational and individual characteristics (Masdonati & Massoudi, 2012). However, Vondracek et al. (2015) identify the following four general vocational objectives that are particularly salient to most people and that may serve as general guidelines to determine what broad outcomes can be defined as successful from the individual's perspective:

- (1) [Employment and work activity] would provide compensation (e.g., income, health care, vacation/sick time, and other benefits) enabling [people] to lead the kind of life they want;
- (2) The work activity (and the context in which it occurs) would ideally produce interest, personal satisfaction, and pleasure;
- (3) opportunities to engage in it would be available in their life context (now and in the future as well); and
- (4) it would consist of activities they believe they could do or be trained to do and their conduct will be personally gratifying. (p. 75)."

Interestingly, these four objectives appear to be very similar to those underpinning the concept of "decent work" (Blustein, Olle, Connors-Kellgren, & Diamonti, 2016). Thus, we suggest considering "achieving a decent work" as a benchmark to qualify a successful career transition outcome. Positive adaptation resulting from career resilience can thus result in a career situation that is chosen without restrictions and that guarantees decent conditions, ensuring a decent life for people and their families.

Consequently, workers who experience decent work despite negative expectations due to the presence of one or more of risk factors can be considered as "career resilient". That means that they activated a process of resilience that allowed them to overcome the encountered pitfalls during a challenging transition. Career resilience is then to be considered as a mediator factor between adverse career-related situations (such as economic constraints and marginalization) and positive career outcomes (such as a career transition leading to decent work). For example, career

resilience processes may explain the trajectory of young adults who succeed in integrating the labor market despite an unfavorable economic context (Kim & Lee, 2017; Perez-Lopez, Gonzalez-Lopez, & Rodriguez-Ariza, 2016) or not being in education, employment or training (NEET) (Bynner & Parsons, 2002; Duckworth & Schoon, 2012). The same can be inferred for long-term unemployed people that eventually manage to find decent work (Moorhouse & Caltabiano, 2007).

Although the concepts of career resilience and career adaptability both refer to an effective negotiation of career transitions and are positively correlated (Barto et al., 2015; Santilli et al., 2015), they are fundamentally different constructs (Goodman, 1994; Leong & Ott-Holland, 2015). Career adaptability is defined as “the readiness to cope with the predictable tasks of preparing for and participating in the work role and with the unpredictable adjustments prompted by change in work and working conditions” (Savickas, 1997, p. 254). As such, this concept emphasizes the importance of people’s capacity to adapt to career-related changes and transitions. However, according to Bimrose and Hearne (2012), career adaptability implies a proactive movement in the face of challenges, while resilience might refer to a more reactive movement. Moreover, the concept of career adaptability can be used to describe the career trajectories of the entire working population, while one of the conditions for speaking about resilience is the fact that it can only be experienced by individual people in disabling work-related situations.

Consequently, career resilience cannot be witnessed among the general population. It can only be observed among at-risk, individual people who have managed to succeed in their career transitions, despite all odds and despite the unfavorable circumstances that generally result in the failing of people with comparable characteristics. Yet, research on resilience in the context of career development (Coetzee et al., 2015; Di Maggio et al., 2016; Leary & DeRosier, 2012; Lyons et al., 2015; Moorhouse & Caltabiano, 2007; Santilli et al., 2015; Shin & Kelly, 2015) is mainly inappropriately based on general samples (instead of at-risk populations) and is carried out prior to a challenging career turning point (instead of during or after it). Accordingly, apart from the notable exception of the work of Bimrose and Hearne (2012) and of Kim and Lee (2017), recent research on resilience in the field of career is based on inappropriate data, as it mostly consists of measurement of personal characteristics in a general population, on one occasion, and in one specific context. In the light of these limitations, it seems important to propose some suggestions for future research on career resilience.

Implication for Research: From Top-Down to Bottom-up Studies

Defining resilience and career resilience as processes within the LSF requires a kind of humility by researchers who wish to study these concepts. The context-specific and “processual” nature of resilience does not posit it as a latent construct that can

be quantitatively captured at any given point in time. Recognizing the complex nature of resilience and anchoring this concept in the LSF (Ford, 1987) implies giving up the hope of understanding and determining this phenomenon empirically through the use of a “top-down approach” that entails beginning from the general to understand the particular. In fact, Britt et al. (2016) suggested that studying resilience implied to abandon the dominant simplistic models of causality in favor of a more complex modeling of the individuals’ trajectories. Molenaar (2004) actually noted that findings obtained through analysis of large groups of people were found to be barely applicable to an understanding and explaining of intra-individual characteristics. Moreover, career resilience—by its very definition—cannot be observed among the general population, but only among those who reached adaptive outcomes in the face of challenging career transitions despite the presence of important sources of adversity. This assertion implies first that resilience studies should focus on at-risk populations, and second that they should be conducted *during* or *after* the transition process to identify those who unexpectedly succeed and to try to describe their specificities. Masten and Tellegen (2012) suggest that the following questions must be addressed both conceptually and empirically to study resilience in any context: “How does one know that a person is doing well?” (p. 348), “What makes a difference?” and “How do we account for resilience versus maladaptive life patterns?” (p. 350).

To investigate resilient career trajectories, researchers will thus have to (1) accurately describe what characterizes career-related risk situations (i.e., career transitions) they want to focus on, (2) determine the concomitant risk and protective factors or processes to which the individual can be exposed—those should be salient in the field, malleable, proximal, enduring and generating other processes (Luthar, 2006)—, and (3) define possible adaptive outcomes in this situation (i.e. during a successful career transition). To this end, we propose to use the above addressed components of effective functioning—environment, biological conditions, skills, and motivation—to delineate career risk situations, risk and protective factors or process, and adaptive outcomes. These components may thus serve as guidelines to frame the individuals’ experience of resilience. Moreover, researchers interested in studying resilience are encouraged to adopt a ‘bottom-up approach,’ that is, “studying the individual first and then using information about individual pattern of functioning to examine commonalities (and differences) across individuals” (Vondracek et al., 2015, p. 107). The best way to do this is to collect multivariate data on multiple occasions, using approaches such as (multivariate) time series analysis, and mixed methods (Vondracek et al., 2015). In fact, as stated by Britt et al. (2016), “given that resilience is fundamentally associated with adaptation processes, time is and should be intricately tied to the study of resilience” (p. 394). This kind of research on career resilience is exemplified by Bimrose and Hearne’s (2012) study, which adopts multiple longitudinal case studies. Kim and Lee (2017) also provided an exemplary longitudinal study based on latent profile analysis of Korean students in the school-to-work transition. However, to record the processes of change and resilience in people’s careers more precisely, such data collection could be further improved through the multiplication of the measurement occasions.

For example, innovations in mobile technologies seem to allow the documentation of people's life in real time (Vondracek et al., 2015).

Implication for Career Counseling: Fostering Career Resilience Perceived Self-efficacy

According to Arbona and Coleman (2008), “the researchers reasoned that an understanding of the process of adaptation that allows people to overcome adversity or traumatic experience could help guide prevention and intervention efforts with others facing similar circumstances” (p. 483). In the current constricted labor market, promoting strategies to improve people's career resilience seems very appealing and necessary. In this vein, authors (Bimrose & Hearne, 2012; Fleig-Palmer et al., 2009; Fourie & Van Vuuren, 1998; Kim & Lee, 2017; Leary & DeRosier, 2012; Moorhouse & Caltabiano, 2007; Shin & Kelly, 2015; Winwood et al., 2013) broadly agree that career counseling could and should support and foster resilience to promote career development. However, the concrete ways put forward to achieve this aim are insufficient and somewhat unspecific—e.g. using active listening (Bimrose & Hearne, 2012), cognitive reappraisal of stressful situations (Kim & Lee, 2017; Leary & DeRosier, 2012), or enhancement of self-esteem and coping strategies (Moorhouse & Caltabiano, 2007). Recently, Seibert et al. (2016) suggested detailed interventions based on positive psychology to improve career resilience after “career shocks” through both psychological and behavioral strategies. However, all these suggestions focus on building the individual strengths, whereas, according to our definition of the concept, fostering resilience implies taking into consideration the interplay of the different individual, family and community levels of complexity (Windle, 2011).

Consequently, and even if fostering counselees' resilience is a promising conduit for effective career interventions, two fundamental ethical concerns need to be highlighted. First, working exclusively on the resilience of people who experience adversity may distract career counselors from targeting the actual source of counselees' problems directly: people would not need to be resilient if they did not have to cope with stressful or traumatic situations. This assertion is consistent with recent theoretical trends in the field of counseling psychology, such as the psychology of working theory (PWT; Duffy et al., 2016), that stresses the need for career counselors to focus on the reduction of marginalization, social inequalities and exclusion. In fact, Britt et al. (2016) highlighted that “focusing efforts on enhancing resilience [may] inadvertently lead (...) to reduce [the] focus on changing the environment to reduce exposure to adversity” (p. 398). Therefore, meaningful interventions should first and foremost aim at reducing or preventing the occurrence of risk situations and at fostering the people's protective factors (e.g., Schoon & Bartley, 2008). Accordingly, resilience-based career interventions should

systematically be associated with advocacy interventions (Frey, Schober, & Hollinger, 2014).

Second, and accordingly, focusing exclusively on resilience interventions may invoke the risk of conveying a kind of “resilience injunction,” which may also be ethically threatening. Resilience is not a behavior that can be expected from people experiencing at-risk situations. It consists of empirical, inspiring observations of people who were unexpectedly able to overcome particularly adverse life circumstances. Career interventions should then focus on factors that were identified as helpful in resilient career narratives (e.g., Masdonati, 2002). However, interventions cannot expect or pretend that these factors have the same resilience-enhancing effects on other people, who are inevitably different and who experience unique subjective experiences. Stated differently, unlike other career-related variables, such as employability (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004), career self-efficacy (Taylor & Betz, 1983) or adaptability (Savickas, 2002), resilience may inspire career counselors but should not be prescribed. Moreover, some authors stressed that overemphasizing intervention aimed at promoting resilience can lead to people overestimating their capacity to deal with adversity (Bonanno, Westphal, & Mancini, 2011) and to increase the responsibility put on people for their career development (Bimrose & Hearne, 2012). Providing concrete ways to foster resilience among career counselees appears thus to be more complex than what has been imagined.

Consequently, we propose that the core role of career counselors in fostering career resilience should be humbler and should be premised on consideration of the two ethical concerns mentioned above. In fact, when encountering counselees’ undergoing such risk situations, career counselors can start by helping the counselees mapping all the obstacles they are facing in order to identify possible intervention targets. To this end, the components for effective functioning presented above may serve as guidelines to ensure listing all the possible sources of risk factors. Protective factors may also be inventoried in order to identify the counselees’ resources that may counterbalance or challenge the risk factors. Such an exercise is likely to engage a meaningful and deep discussion on the counselees’ challenges and on the possible way to overcome them. The identified target for intervention may reside outside or within the individual. In both cases, reaching the target will require the counselees to believe that they have the agency to act on the risk situation.

Regardless of the “localization” of the intervention target within or outside the individual, a promising avenue for career interventions is to foster counselees’ *career resilience self-efficacy*. We define career resilience self-efficacy as the belief in one’s capability to act in a resilient manner under adverse working circumstances and to achieve adaptive career-related outcomes. To reinforce career resilience self-efficacy, we propose four kinds of interventions based on the four sources of self-efficacy suggested by Bandura (1982): (1) verbal persuasion, (2) vicarious learning, (3) physiological states and emotions, and (4) concrete experience.

First, career counselors may contribute to counselees’ resilience self-efficacy through verbal persuasion simply by identifying and labeling as “resilient” the past

situations where counsees have reached positive vocational outcomes notwithstanding tough circumstances. Second, they may help counsees activate their resilience self-efficacy from vicarious learning by exposing them to stories of resilient people, e.g. by watching movies and reading books on resilient pathways, and by being encouraged to draw parallels between these stories and their own lives. Third, career counselors may contribute to eliciting positive emotions with regards to the current challenge through using archetypal narratives in career counseling (see Pryor & Bright, 2008). This method can help counsees change their feelings about their career through developing alternative and more empowering plots for their career stories. Finally, we suggest that playing a game such as 'SuperBetter' (McGonigal (2015) can contribute to help counsees develop their resilience perceived self-efficacy through concrete experience. This game aims to help people overcome various life challenges or threatening circumstances by conversion of real life features into 'gameful' elements. Playing SuperBetter is likely to foster the process of career resilience self-efficacy, since it (a) alters cognitive and emotional perceptions of the risk situation and risk factors in a more positive way (as a 'game' or as 'bad guys'), (b) empowers the perception of oneself (as a 'super hero'), (c) increases the desirability of the adaptive outcomes (as 'quests'), and (d) facilitates the search of social support (as 'allies').

Of course, interventions fostering career resilience self-efficacy do not pretend to resolve the two ethical concerns previously raised. In our opinion, resilience self-efficacy interventions may actually coherently complete prevention and advocacy interventions aiming at avoiding risk situations. As such, according to the person-in-context perspective (Ford, 1987), career counseling should harmoniously integrate both types of interventions. Ideally, it may then focus at the same time on the implementation of person-related career resilience processes and on the reduction/prevention of context-related risky work transitions. Additionally, working on counsees' self-efficacy may also help counselors not feeling powerless when they encounter counsees undergoing disabling career circumstances.

Conclusion

The concept of resilience is receiving increasing attention in the field of career development and counseling. However, the factors involved in enabling some people achieve adaptive career outcomes despite disabling circumstances need clarification. This chapter anchors the concept of resilience into Ford's (1987) living system framework in order to facilitate its transfer into and establish its import for the domain of career development (Vondracek et al., 2015). Doing so enables us to highlight the complex nature of the process of career resilience and propose a taxonomy for classifying the risk and protective factors and processes potentially involved in the process of career resilience. The definition of career resilience as *effective vocational functioning under disabling circumstances* gives rise to identification of difficult career transitions as possible turning points, where

individual and contextual variables interact and are likely to jeopardize the achievement of career developmental outcomes in regard to decent work (Blustein et al., 2016). Emphasizing the intricateness and complexity of the resilience process through its anchoring in the LSF facilitates a critically look at the current state of research on career resilience. It opens up the establishment of guidelines for future research, such as the need for “bottom-up” approaches, repeated measures, mixed methods and case study research. Moreover, it raises ethical concerns regarding career counseling practices aimed at promoting career counselees’ resilience. In keeping with these concerns, we recommend reframing of the basic task of career counselors, namely as an assignment aimed at trying to highlight counselees’ *resilience perceived self-efficacy* and to promote a reduction of risky career transitions.

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Part IV
**Advancing Career Adaptability,
Employability, and Career Resilience in
Career Counselling Across the Life-Span**

Chapter 9

Facilitating Adaptability and Resilience: Career Counselling in Resource-Poor Communities in South Africa

Linda C. Theron

Abstract In South Africa, structural inequity predicts negative life outcomes, including unemployment and continued deprivation. In response, adults typically urge youth investment in education and professional career aspirations. Although this advice has merit, it underestimates how structural constraints complicate career-directed agency and career construction. It also neglects alternative resilience-enabling pathways, including entrepreneurial, technical-vocational, and other contemporary occupations. Accordingly, this chapter proposes that South African career counsellors adjust their career counselling praxis to include community-focused and—facilitated career education. Such education should (i) sensitize adults and youth to how structural inequity constrains tertiary education opportunities and how social ecologies can offset these constraints; (ii) broaden adult and youth understanding of contemporary occupational trends/options; and (iii) introduce rolemodels with diverse career trajectories/traits that supported them to beat the odds of structural disadvantage. In doing so, career counsellors and community-based actors enact a social ecological understanding of resilience that should support communities to broaden narrow approaches to the facilitation of young people's (career) adaptability.

Keywords Co-produced career education • Resilience • Resource poor communities • Social ecological • South Africa

Introduction

South Africa is a cruelly unequal society (Oxfam, 2013). South Africa has a Gini index of 0.63. In terms of income inequality, this index places South Africa first among the BRICS countries (i.e., Brazil, Russia, India, China) and fourth globally (HSRC, n.d.). What this means is that even though a minority of its people are

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ostentatiously privileged, apparently intractable poverty challenges the vast majority of South Africans.

Many South Africans who know disadvantage advocate the belief that education pathways and subsequent well-paying careers will offer a way out of this misery (Dass-Brailsford, 2005; Hlatshwayo & Vally, 2014; Phasha, 2010; Tebele, Nel, & Dlamini, 2015; Theron, 2015; Theron & Phasha, 2015; Theron & Theron, 2013; Van Breda, 2017). Put differently, educational and career aspirations have become part of a cultural script (i.e., a set of values that script, or direct, the actions and expectations of a group—Elwood & Murphy, 2015) that directs the career decisions of young people living in disadvantaged communities. This script potentiates individual and collective resilience to structural inequity (Theron, 2015). Still, the tertiary education decisions made by young people who are challenged by disadvantage are seldom informed by career counsellors and are typically thwarted by the legacies of disadvantage (South African Council of Higher Education, 2010). This reality obstructs the resilience-enabling value of educational aspirations.

Thus, the aim of this chapter is to theorise how career counsellors can adapt their praxis in ways that will support young people from resource-poor communities in South Africa to design lives that will enable positive life outcomes, such as economic participation and a sense of self-efficacy. As part of this, career counsellors need to address the above-mentioned cultural script. This is an important agenda, given that career counsellors, like other psychologists and helping professionals, are well placed to champion the resilience of young people, including by making an effort to challenge realities that perpetuate risk (Acevedo & Hernandez-Wolfe, 2014; Hart et al., 2016). Championing resilience (or the capacity of young people to adjust well despite circumstances that predict negative developmental outcomes—see Masten, 2014, 2017) includes championing career resilience (or the capacity to withstand and/or accommodate career barriers and/or career turbulence which threaten to derail career journeys—see Arora & Rangnekar, 2016). In pursuing the above aim, this chapter builds on my earlier position paper (Theron, 2016).

To set the stage, so to speak, for why and how career counsellors need to adapt their praxis, I draw on the case of Fikile (pseudonym). Fikile, a 21-year old, second year B.Sc. student, shared her life story with me. She did this as part of her participation in a multiple case study of the resilience processes of university students with backgrounds characterised by structural disadvantage (for detail about the methodology of the study see Theron & Theron, 2013). Similar to the others in this narrative study, Fikile's case illustrates how resource-poor communities urge professional trajectories that potentiate a disruption of intergenerational poverty and how structural inequities complicate the realisation of such career aspirations. Neither Fikile's story, nor any of the 15 others included in the multiple case study, made mention of a career counsellor or educational psychologist who supported tertiary education and career-related decisions (in this regard, also see Theron, 2013; Theron & Theron, 2014).

Resource-Poor Communities’ Narrow Facilitation of Resilience: “Aim for a Profession”

Fikile grew up in a rural, resource-poor village in a sub-Saharan country. Fikile’s parents had migrated to South Africa in search of a better life. When they could afford it her parents sent food and clothing for her and her three siblings and for her grandmother who was raising them. Because their initial entry into South Africa was by illegal means, her parents were concerned that Fikile’s education would be interrupted—they considered education to be the pathway out of poverty: “My father—he was like: ‘Study, study, study!’”. Accordingly, she stayed behind in order to complete her primary schooling. Once her parents had managed to secure a place to stay (based on her father’s meagre earnings from running a “tuck shop”, also called a spaza shop in South Africa) and a certificate of permanent residence, they brought her to South Africa to complete her secondary schooling and urged her to go to university. Her father repeatedly told her the harrowing story of his border-crossing into South Africa and subsequent scrounging for subsistence and employment. Fikile explained this as:

He told me the story to motivate me to study very hard... my parents, like their standard of living is not that high... so they motivate me to do well in life so that I can pull up their standard.

Improving her parents’ station in life, as well as her own, meant completing a degree and “aiming for a profession” that would lead to a lucrative, important position:

I see myself being the manager of [a certain professional company], yeah, with my parents staying at a very huge house and myself owning a nice car – going to visit home with my new car... When I’ve changed my parents’ life, if I can manage to change the life they are living right now... then I’ll say I’ve succeeded.

Fikile’s account is not unique. As noted earlier, South African studies (e.g., Albien & Naidoo, in press; Mhlongo & O’Neill, 2013; Phasha, 2010; Tebele et al., 2015; Theron, 2015; Theron, Liebenberg, & Malindi, 2014) include similar evidence of education and career aspirations. These studies show that education- and career-related success is scripted as an antidote to hardship by parents, teachers, and other elders, as well as young people themselves. Official statistics support this social message. For example, in South Africa, the rate of unemployment among young people aged 15–34 is 52% (Statistics South Africa, 2016). Although this alarming figure could be linked to a certain percentage of young people in this age group being involved in education and/or training, it cannot explain away the fact that economic inactivity among young adults aged 25–34 has risen in recent years. Young black South Africans (i.e., those most disadvantaged by South Africa’s Apartheid era and its on-going legacy), more particularly young women and/or young people living in rural areas, are most affected by unemployment. However, young people with a completed tertiary degree only make up 1% of young people who are unemployed. Essentially then, statistics prove that a tertiary degree (that

improves people's chances of finding employment) is apparently protective against unemployment, thereby strengthening the cultural script of education and career aspirations.

However, Fikele's account illustrates that enacting this script comes at a cost. Her success depends on her capacity to support her parents financially. Called 'black tax', this convention makes young professionals responsible for the financial care of their disadvantaged families, even though their disadvantage is sustained by a South African society that perpetuates structural inequities (Mhlungu, 2015; Ratilebjane, 2015). Structural inequity comprises the tangible and/or systemic barriers that predict negative life outcomes and over which individuals have very little control (Vanderplaat, 2015; Young, 2015). Although it is not necessarily unique to black families, the convention of financially supporting family is probably more applicable to black South Africans given how they were (and generally continue to be) disproportionately disadvantaged by the lingering effects of Apartheid (Mhlungu, 2015). Being responsible for their families' upkeep limits the career-related decisions that young people can make and is associated with increased psychological pressure. Explained differently, the career constructions of young people from disadvantaged communities reflect "social expectations" (Savickas, 2012, p. 232) that are sustained by structural inequity. Concurrently, this same structural inequity threatens young people's capacity to realise (imposed) career aspirations.

Structural Inequity: A Threat to Career Aspirations

Prior to 1994, Apartheid-related legislation obstructed equitable university access for black South Africans. When South Africa's first democratic government was elected in 1994, this pernicious legislation was changed. However, even though black South Africans show improved rates of university access post-1994, their rates of successfully completing a bachelor degree are low (Leibowitz & Bozalek, 2014). In fact, more than half of all enrolled students do not complete their degrees (Subotzky, 2015). This relates to obstacles over which young people themselves have limited, if any, control (e.g., non-English mother tongue, social class and associated financial stressors, the typically inferior quality of schooling available to South Africans in disadvantaged communities, and the variable quality of higher education institutions in South Africa) (Leibowitz, Bozalek, van Schalkwyk, & Winberg, 2015; Morrow, 2007; South African Council of Higher Education, 2010). Another obstacle is that disadvantaged families and communities offer few/no role-models who have overcome the challenges of higher education and so higher education can be a lonely and frightening experience (Mhlungu & O'Neill, 2013).

Fikele's story bears testimony to some of these elements. When she first came to university, she had no bursary and her father's meagre earnings were not enough to finance her education. She explained that neither she, nor her family and neighbours had known about funding options for disadvantaged students (e.g., government loans). Similar to what has been previously reported (e.g., Tebele et al., 2015),

career counselling at school was superficial and did not include information about funding post-school education. This complicated her first year experience and progress:

I registered. He [father] did have the money for me to register and then after that the money was finished. I didn't have money to pay for tuition fees, accommodation and what-what. I travelled [to parents' home; approximately 90 min from campus] – maybe for three months or so – it's tiring; it consumes a lot of time, especially time to study because you arrive [back] at night and you leave home early in the morning... School [university] kept on sending those letters like you're owing the school, we're gonna take you to wherever-whenever, and I was like *stressing* [emphasizes word].

The above-mentioned stress interfered with Fikile's capacity to focus on her studies. At university she became aware of various funding schemes and applied for financial support. At the beginning of her second academic year she learned that she had qualified for a government grant that is ring-fenced for students from significantly disadvantaged backgrounds. Although the financial pressure was less, academic progress remained compromised (e.g., by her not being a mother-tongue English speaker) and she was anxious about her capacity to progress. She worried about her future, should she not succeed, and because university education was foreign to her family and community of origin, their capacity to allay her fears was limited:

They all say that I should focus on school... it's more pressure. Especially like the relatives... My father he always warns people who are studying; you must always study when you are around him... My mother says I must keep going, yeah, because where I come from is too far now to give up... In the whole family, friends, relatives, I'm the first one to be at varsity. Like from where I come from, I almost know everyone – like my friends from primary school, high school – I know them all and at this age all of them are mothers now. They are staying at their own homes with their own children and I'm the only one who is still studying and then if I meet them [when she goes to visit her grandmother] they just ask, 'Are you still at school?' and then I say yes, and they're like 'Yoh!' Some of them they admire me, they say, 'You must keep going, yeah, you are doing the right thing' and then some of them say, 'Yeah, she thinks she's special this one'. If I were to drop [out of] school right now my father will say, 'You must go back home [country of her birth], because now there's no reason for you to stay here' and if I go back home I will be like one of my peers and then I'll start having children and at the same time I won't be able to afford them, like to dress them up and yeah, there is too much pressure... [But], if you've got education that will help because no-one can inherit that [take it from you] –it's yours and it's yours forever.

Beyond Professional Aspirations: Broadening How Resource-Poor Communities Facilitate Resilience

Fikile's story illustrates how the cultural script of investing in education and aiming for a profitable occupation brings both promise and pain. The pain flows from the inflexibility of the career-related script directing her actions and how structural

inequities complicate enactment of this script and challenge resilience. Without negating the promise of education, South African career counsellors urgently need to address the pain associated with education and career aspirations. Put differently, in the absence of structural and other barriers, education has strong potential to facilitate an upward life trajectory (Masten, 2014; Schoon, Parsons, & Sacker, 2004). This potential is not absent in the presence of structural and other barriers, but much harder to realise. Not making young people, their families and communities aware of how structural barriers compromise this promise, along with ecological supports to manage these barriers, means that young people will probably question their own capacity when education pathways do not lead to hoped-for future selves, and blame themselves. This is fertile breeding ground for psychological pain that, in turn, is likely to corrode self-esteem, a sense of cohesion, and future-directedness. In other words, when career counsellors and other professionals do not make young people and their families aware of how the promise of education is impeded by structural disadvantage, along with ways of managing these impediments, they tacitly heighten the odds against young people.

As introduced in Theron (2016), it is my supposition that South African career counsellors can pre-empt/lessen career-related pain by broadening the career scripts advocated by disadvantaged communities, and in doing so, ‘[turn] pain into hope’ (Maree, 2013). At the heart of this supposition lies respect for the foundational role of social constructionism (i.e., that social and relational processes shape the construction of knowledge) in career and life designs (Maree, 2013; Savickas et al., 2009; Young & Collin, 2004). The values, beliefs and expectations that a group endorses (both explicitly and implicitly) shape the being, doing, and resilience of individuals affiliated with the group (Hedges, 2010; Panter-Brick, 2015). Similarly, the information and aspirations that young people bring to career choices have been co-constructed by their families and communities (Savickas, 2012). In disadvantaged South African communities—particularly those inhabited by black people who have an intimate knowledge of South Africa’s historic and continued structural violence—the reality is that “job discrimination lingers in the collective psyche” (Nkomo et al., 2015). Urging the younger generation toward powerful and lucrative careers provides a measure of redress, and fits with political heroes (such as Mandela and Biko) advocating for investment in education (Biko, 1979; Mandela, 1995). However, if this collective memory can be extended to also include examples of alternative stories—that is, albeit difficult, stories of people from occupational backgrounds that diverge from the traditional directive of a career grounded in tertiary education—then the expectations that disadvantaged communities hold for their young people will become more variable. And, implicit in this more accommodating variability, are increased odds for resilience (Panter-Brick, 2015).

The Career Counsellor as an Intentional Resilience-Agent

Acting on the above supposition speaks to career counsellors recognizing that resilience is a process in which social ecologies play a significant role (Ungar, 2015). This role includes support that capacitates young people to sustain, and even advance, levels of normative functioning in the face of adversity, along with active advocacy for social, economic, and political changes that will mean decreased adversity for young people (Hart et al., 2016; Parchment, Small, Osuji, McKay, & Bhana, 2016; Seccombe, 2002). Put simply, facilitating resilience is about more than enabling young people themselves. Whilst the latter is important, it is even more important to attend to the social ecological determinants of risk and resilience. In terms of career counselling this means that in addition to engaging young people in narrative and reflective career construction (see Maree, 2013; Maree & Venter, 2017), career counsellors must engage with the resource-poor communities of which young people are part, and purposefully pre-empt factors (such as an inflexible career script) that jeopardise young people's career aspirations and working lives. Accordingly, career counsellors need to (i) draw attention to how structural inequity constrains tertiary education opportunities and what social ecological resources can offset these constraints; (ii) expand adult and youth understanding of contemporary occupational options; and (iii) introduce role-models who were threatened by structural adversities and who engaged in diverse career journeys to beat these odds. As detailed below, achieving these goals is likely to be a multi-phased approach.

Phase 1: Envisioning the resource-poor community as client. Career counsellors need to focus career interventions on the collective of young people, their families, and community-based stakeholders that interact regularly with young people (e.g., teachers, clinic staff, librarians, or clergy). This collective needs to be engaged in career interventions that are culturally and contextually meaningful. Put differently, stereotypical Western approaches (e.g., standardized career assessments; counsellor-youth interaction that focuses on traits and factors) should not be the default format (Ebersöhn, 2012). Following Watts and Mayhew (2004) for example, in rural resource-poor communities this might mean piggy-backing career interventions onto existing one-stop services (i.e., intersectoral collaborative events that make a range of services available to local people) or integrating them into the outreach programs of local or regional women's organisations. Essentially, the choice of culturally and contextually relevant format must be predicated on input from community members themselves.

Adopting the resource-poor community as client implies awareness of the structural inequities that undermine young people's capacity to take full advantage of tertiary education opportunities and proactive use of this knowledge. For example, too often, and in ways that are reminiscent of Fikile's story, students from structurally violated communities are unaware of funding opportunities, or of the prerequisites that underpin securing accommodation in university residences (e.g., a deposit payment; evidence of academic achievement) (Dean of Students, Vaal

Triangle Campus, North-West University, personal communication, May 26, 2016). As a result, they miss out on the resources which could support them to enact career-related preparations. Career counsellors can pre-empt this risk by disseminating information about social ecological resources that can support career trajectories to the resource-challenged community. For instance, this might mean using social and other media to publicise lists of funding opportunities and information about the enrolment process and prerequisites at the local/nearest university and its residences. It could also mean offering *pro bono* information sessions at schools, libraries, community clinics, women's organisations, and other community spaces that are frequented by locals with the intent of disseminating pertinent career-focused information (such as funding opportunities) that can offset structural inequity.

In addition, it would be helpful if career counsellors made the collective of young people, their families and other locals explicitly aware of how structural violence challenges career aspirations, the pain associated with this, and how this can be moderated by various social ecological resources. Amongst others, such resources include philanthropic initiatives that fund young people who are challenged by structural inequities or non-profit organisations that actively mentor young adults from communities that are resource-limited. To this end, and in order not to quash hopes of a better future, knowledge about bridging courses, peer tutors, enrichment courses and other academic supports will be useful (South African Council on Higher Education, 2010). So too would real-life accounts of how local individuals managed to surmount the odds that structural disadvantage poses for career aspirations (as detailed in Phase ii).

Because disseminating information is not enough in and of itself, the above needs to include opportunity for "reflection, action, and interaction ... concerning [young people's] career[s]" (Kuijpers, Meijers, & Gundy, 2011, p. 26) by young people, their families and communities. Amongst others this could mean providing opportunities for young people to network with representatives of the above-mentioned social ecological resources, or encouraging robust dialogue to prompt reflection on the painful challenges to, *and* supports for, career resilience. Opening up these opportunities to families and others in the community means that the complexity of career journeys will probably become more palpable to the collective. Such insight might moderate the expectations that young people, and their families, have for career journeys and in so doing, palliate the pain that results from idealised versions of career journeys. Simultaneously, career dialogue premised on the real-life experience of locals who role-model career resilience, should provide clues to resilience-enabling resources and strategies and so keep hope alive.

Equally important is acknowledging that members of resource-poor communities probably do not know how to support young people who must complete some form of tertiary education or training in preparation for their careers, particularly when these young people are first generation tertiary students. For example, Mhlongo and O'Neill (2013) reported that some students from resource-poor communities regretted that their families and community members never enquired about, or encouraged, their progress at university. When these stakeholders did offer

encouragement (in any form), university students experienced this as motivational (Dass-Brailsford, 2005; Mhlongo & O’Neill, 2013). Again, this is information, which career counsellors should use proactively. They need to capacitate family and community members to be supportive of their young people who are preparing for careers and help them to understand that seemingly ‘insignificant’ actions (e.g. simply enquiring about progress, empathising with challenging experiences and praising successes) will probably assuage pain and spur young people’s resilience, no matter how small these actions may seem.

Phase 2: Co-producing community-focused career education. Psychologists (including those who provide educational and career counselling to young people challenged by marginalization) are in short supply globally (Jimerson, Stewart, Skokut, Cardenas, & Malone, 2009; Johansson & Höjer, 2012) and locally (Lund & Fischer, 2015). “Task-sharing” (Padmanathan & de Silva, 2013, p. 82) is one solution to this shortage. It entails lay persons collaborating closely with psychologists to provide less demanding forms of mental health service. Applied to career counselling, this could mean that career counsellors collaborate with local persons to educate communities about diverse career options, the notion of decent work, and the world of work. Such task sharing has the additional benefit of de-emphasising the career counsellor who, in South Africa, is often associated with privilege and which in turn lessens how useful these counsellors can be to young people who are structurally disadvantaged (Ebersöhn, 2012; Maree, 2010; Maree et al., 2006).

In particular, encouraging locals to galvanise awareness of “decent work” (Di Fabio & Maree, 2016) in the course of such co-produced community-focused career education will support expectations of work-related opportunity that champions basic human rights, including the right to “freedom, equity, security, and human dignity” (p. 2). Such expectations have an important advocacy function, particularly if they strengthen young people to demand equitable opportunities (e.g., as witnessed in the calls for free education during the 2015 nationwide #Fees-must-fall campaign in South Africa). At the same time, frank dialogue about the prevalence of unfair working conditions, rampant unemployment, unhealthy occupational environments, unreasonable working hours and remuneration that often falls short of a living wage—amongst other challenges that characterise indecent work—will do much to acknowledge lived experiences of career-related pain. Being frank about the pain that is so often part of work-related experience in South Africa—particularly among people who have been marginalised—has the potential benefit of steeling young people against idealised notions of career journeys. Rutter (2007) noted that some exposure to stress (such as vicariously experiencing or being forewarned of hardship via community members’ real-life accounts of indecent work) is protective in that it fortifies young people to cope with a prospective stressor. Because the achievement of decent work for all South Africans is likely to be a slow process, such steeling is important in the interim.

As advised by Hart et al. (2016), for community education initiatives to be truly enabling, they need to be co-produced by young people living in the community. Young people need to advise which career options their communities need to be

aware of/understand better. If they themselves have a limited understanding of contemporary career options, then career counsellors can assist by suggesting additional options. Young people can also be instrumental in directing which adults ideally need to attend the co-produced career education session. Literature suggests that parent-figures and teachers exert a major influence on the career choices of young people in underprivileged life-worlds (e.g., Dass-Brailsford, 2005; Mhlongo and O'Neill, 2013; Schoon & Bynner 2003; Schoon et al., 2004; Theron & Theron, 2013, 2014), but consulting young people on the ideal target audience might add new role-players.

This co-produced career intervention should follow a narrative, or storied, approach as advocated for career construction with individuals (Del Corso & Reh fuss, 2011; Maree, 2013; Savickas, 2012). To this end, career counsellors should work hard to make more visible local persons who chose less-stereotypical, vocational or 'flexible' career journeys (such as construction, production and manufacturing, the hospitality industry, transportation, real estate and other less-traditional business options, the military), as well those with more well-known careers (e.g., education, medicine and other health-related professions, police service, engineering, law) should share their career-related stories. So too should entrepreneurs. In all of the aforementioned, career counsellors should work hard to make more audible, as it were, the career-related stories of community members that diverge from the cultural script of engagement in education and a subsequent profitable profession, but that nevertheless resulted in experiences of meaningful employment. Including the stories of 'peripheral and marginalized employees' (Savickas et al., 2009, p. 242)—that is employees who work temporarily for an employer, either in fixed, time-limited periods (peripheral workers) or short periods relating to constraints beyond employee control (marginalized workers)—will further expand traditional career constructions.

Given that career construction is an on-going process (Del Corso & Reh fuss, 2011), career counsellors need to coach collaborating locals to tell stories in ways that lay the pain and triumphs of this process bare. Amongst others, to do so, career-life stories would need to speak to what influenced career choices; challenges and highlights associated with the education, training, apprenticeship or other forms of employment-related preparation; difficulties and advantages related to the person's chosen line of work; and, personal and social resources that support success in this line of work. In particular, asking locals to reflect on the challenges of preparing for a chosen occupation, the difficulties associated with finding employment and being employed, and how these complications were navigated, will make communities aware of how structural disadvantage jeopardises career aspirations and working life as well as prompt resilience. Purposefully encouraging these locals to network with young people, and perhaps most importantly, to facilitate opportunity for "real-life experiences with work and a dialogue about these experiences" (Kuijpers et al., 2011, p. 28) would offer meaningful support toward career resilience.

In facilitating all of the above, career counsellors, young people, and community members would be co-producing community-focused career interventions that

enable communal exposure to the variety and demanding dynamism of the contemporary world of work. Being exposed to various personalised career stories could possibly advance community insight into the post-modern reality that “traditional career paths [have] become more and more questionable” (Savickas et al., 2009, p. 242) and potentially, nurture a more positive collective attitude to careers that are not necessarily based on the attainment of higher education. In addition to broadening community understandings of possible career journeys paths, hearing the real-life career stories of locals is likely to redress the dearth of local career-related role-models that are accessible to young people in resource-poor communities and galvanise resilience.

Phase 3: Championing adaptable career aspirations and paths. “How to live in a post-modern world shaped by a global economy and supported by information technology” (Savickas et al., 2009, p. 241) is a key career developmental task, given how volatile the world of work currently is. Fulfilling this task requires tolerant adaptability and commitment to life-long learning (Maree, 2013; Savickas et al., 2009). As noted by Del Corso and Rehfuß (2011, pp. 336–7), the capacity for flexibility does

not reside completely in individuals; rather [it is] formulated and developed through relationships with others. The attitudes or beliefs of family members, co-workers, supervisors, clients, organisations, government, and the media all impact and influence individuals’ attitudes and beliefs with respect to career-related decisions.

Consequently, in co-producing community-focused career interventions, South African career counsellors need to include career-life stories that will capacitate community members to scaffold their young people’s career adaptability. To this end, it would be helpful to include stories of locals who changed their career paths, either during career preparation phases (e.g., quitting university or changing qualifications) or later (e.g., being retrenched or outplaced and redesigning a career path). In telling these stories, collaborating locals should be encouraged to reflect on what in this process was meaningful to them as individuals and as interconnected beings, as well as on how connections to community supported career plasticity. Again, community exposure to these stories has rich potential to prepare communities that in post-modern South Africa the script of a profitable career needs some revision that accommodates notions of lifelong learning and multiple shifts in employment, along with a specific expectation that communities will be supportive during such changes.

Conclusion

Because it is empirically untested, it is unclear how effective the community-focused career intervention (detailed above) will be in modifying the career scripts that resource-poor communities typically urge young people to enact. The next step, therefore, is to put this intervention to the test (using the steps

suggested in Theron, 2016) and to provide a rigorous account of its efficacy and/or shortcomings. The art and science of career construction is generally in need of a careful analysis of praxis (Maree, 2016; Savickas et al., 2009) and so testing the merit of community-focused career interventions will align well with this mandate. Equally importantly, its implementation and evaluation will set career counsellors on the path of not only supporting young people to design successful lives that can buffer the odds that constrain their optimal development and enable them to make social contributions, but also change the odds (and pain) implicit in narrow community-communicated career expectations. In this way, career counsellors will be meaningfully engaged in championing the resilience of young people, like Fikile, who are made vulnerable by disabling contexts such as structural violence.

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Chapter 10

Using the U-Cube for Career Counselling with Adolescents to Develop Career Conversations

Carolyn Alchin and Peter McIlveen

Abstract The U-Cube is a play-based tool for constructivist career assessment and counselling. The U-Cube is fashioned on the famous Rubik's Cube. Each face of a square side has career-related words that can be manipulated as part of a counselling process. Clients can be asked to find words that are personally meaningful and talk about these words with the counsellor. This tool is particularly useful for clients who benefit from additional support to engage in dialogue in relation to their career. The case of "Reece" demonstrates the utility of the cube for facilitating career conversations.

Keywords Career education · Career counselling · Working alliance
Gamification · Career decision-making

Introduction

The chapter focuses on counselling for adolescents' career planning and decision-making. Success in the contemporary world of work requires the psychological qualities of adaptability, capacity to change and compromise, problem-solving, entrepreneurial thinking, and self-management. Career counselling for the contemporary and future world of work must support clients to develop these qualities. The constant and ever changing modern world of work, combined with casualisation, globalisation, and mechanisation demonstrate how paramount career adaptability, and the development of that adaptability is, and the part career counselling can play in this space. Adaptability could be conceived as consistent, and often concurrent planning, exploring, deciding, and taking actions (Rottinghaus Buelow, Matyja, & Schneider, 2011; Rottinghaus et al. 2017).

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Engaging adolescents in career counselling requires practitioners to understand counselling processes and content that adolescents find meaningful and relevant to their experiences. Gamification is an engagement strategy that may appeal to young clients. This term is bandied about in education, and has a range of different meanings, the differences will not be discussed in this chapter but certainly are worth reading about. For the uses of this chapter the definition is “The use of game design elements in non-game contexts” (Deterding, Dixon, Khaled, & Nacke, 2011). The use of persuasive design and persuasive technology in career exploration and education can support the career development process through providing a conduit of relevance or engagement through which the practitioner can gain access to the student’s motivation or interest.

In this chapter we describe examples of gamified career counselling instruments. One specific instrument, the U-Cube, which is based on the Rubik’s Cube, facilitates a positive working alliance between client and counsellor. In addition to its relational utility, the U-Cube uses career language in a gamified manner to enable the client to explore career ideas and stimulate conversation between client and counsellor. This chapter bridges career development theory and practice to highlight a way forward for practitioners to develop adaptability and resilience in adolescents through gamification in counselling.

As the world turns to the fourth industrial revolution with its exponential changes in technology, paradigm shifts in economies, businesses and societies, there is a need to support youth to understand how important their future is, and can be, to both themselves and to society overall, and to understand the skills necessary to be successful and content in this digital age. The postmodern movement and the social constructionist paradigm for vocational psychology career development (McIlveen & Schultheiss, 2012) opens a new vista on theory and practices for career counselling in this era (e.g., Busacca & Rehfuß, 2016; Maree, 2007; McMahan, 2017). In particular, constructivism and social constructionism provide impetus to qualitative approaches to career assessment (McMahan & Watson, 2015), along with an emerging literature that articulates principles for their design (e.g., McMahan, Patton, & Watson, 2003).

Along with the critical five ingredients of career interventions’ effectiveness (Brown et al. 2003), the working alliance is a key predictor of counselling outcomes (Masdonati, Massoudi, & Rossier, 2009; Whiston, Rossier, & Barón, 2015). Working alliance refers to the relationship between client and practitioner, and is a tripartite model made up of goals, tasks, and bonds. Goals relates to the agreement between client and practitioner on what needs to be done. Tasks relate to how the goals are to be completed. Finally, bonds denote the emotional connection or relationship between client and counsellor.

Engaging young clients in career services is a complex issue (Sampson, McClain, Musch, & Reardon, 2013), and young people who are in need of career counselling are not necessarily going to first engage in a dialogue with a school or campus career practitioner (Fouad et al., 2006); instead, those early influential conversations may be with a parent (Powers & Myers, 2016; Young et al., 2008). Therefore, it is incumbent upon practitioners of career counselling to ask, “How can

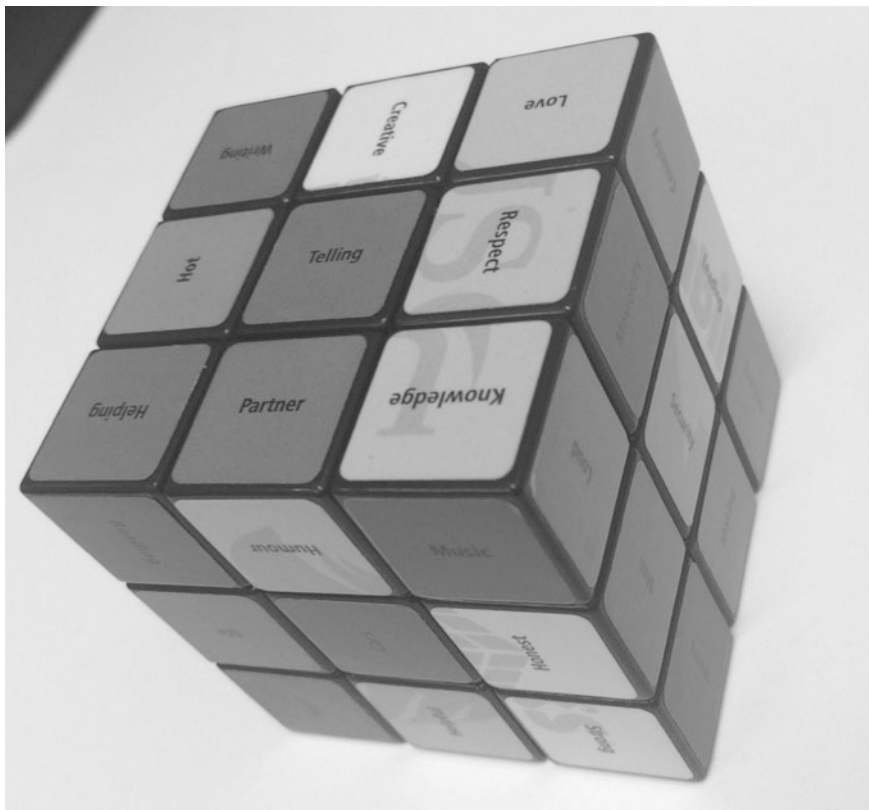


Fig. 10.1 The U-Cube (Alchin, 2014)

we support youth to learn about themselves so as to actively participate in conversations that about the design of their careers?" Moreover, it is important to ask, "Why would they bother to listen to career practitioners, let alone engage in a constructive conversation?" Thus, we present here the conceptual and practical utility of a counselling tool that is designed to enhance the working alliance between client and practitioner: the U-Cube (Alchin, 2014), shown in Fig. 10.1.

Case Vignette: "Reece"

To demonstrate the U-Cube, we describe its usefulness to the client, Reece (pseudonym), a 15 year old student referred for career counselling because his teacher saw a consistent lack of interest and motivation at school. His school is situated in a low-medium socio economic area and is a public school. It has 1500 students from a wide diversity of cultural backgrounds and is co-educational.

Approximately 15% of year 12 students are accepted into university when they finish school, 65% are accepted into vocational education, and 20% are either working, or attempting to look for work.

Reece's initial presentation is of a pallid, lanky, and spotty teen, who is somewhat unresponsive to the usual pleasantries of conversation, along with poor eye contact. Reece sometimes completes homework, but often attends school sleepy, and slightly dishevelled. According to his teachers, Reece achieves fair marks, with minor effort but much cajoling. He lives at home with his mother (33 years of age), who is not currently in paid work, having been made redundant from an administrative position. His mother bought him a new X-box with some of the redundancy payout. Reece spends each Friday, Saturday, and Sunday night at the residence of his father (35 years of age), who works 20 hours per week at the local abattoir, and is wanting more hours. Reece has a girlfriend of one month, Chloe (pseudonym), who, according to Reece, is "really pretty". Despite his reluctance to talk with adults and teachers, Reece has no difficulty talking with his friends—his phone has been confiscated five times in the past year because at his school phones are not allowed in class.

Much of this case material about Reece was relatively easy to obtain, despite his apparent lack of interest in attending career counselling with the first author. The U-Cube was instrumental in enabling Reece to share his personal story.

The U-Cube

The U-cube (Alchin, 2014) was conceptualised as a tool to encourage and develop dialogue with young people around the areas of career influence. The U-Cube, fashioned on the Rubik's Cube (shown in Fig. 1) was designed to support clients to consider their career influences in a safe environment, not from a list or a survey, but instead from a colourful toy, allowing them to fidget, manipulate, and move the faces to different connections, scenarios and collections of words. In an era in which ICT and online career resources have proven invaluable (Sampson & Osborn, 2015) and digital game ware proliferates, the U-Cube is a tangible alternative to games delivered online or on a smart phone or table device. We believe that the tactile experience is inherent to the U-Cube's attractiveness to clients.

If a practitioner is talking to a student who is not "engaged" in the conversation, it may be because the student sees the encounter as irrelevant. If Reece does not have role models who value work, why should he value it? If work cannot be connected to his career influences, why would Reece be interested in discussing his career future? If Reece is unaware of his strengths, skills or abilities, or has never reflected upon these, how can he choose appropriate? career opportunities? If something is not engaging, how can it be fun or enjoyable? Why would anyone do it again, unless they could see the value in it? Thus, when designing the U-Cube, Alchin was attempting to ease the personal nature of discussion through the

Table 10.1 Defined U-Cube elements (Alchin, 2014)

People	Environments	Strengths/values	Strengths/values	Skills	Interests
Women	Cold	Knowledge	Planning	Listening	Sport
Men	Hot	Respect	Leading	Talking	Movies/TV
Everyone	Loud	Independent	Strong	Helping	Music
Family	Inside	Helpful	Creative	Doing	Nature
Friend	City	Security	Hard Working	Telling	Cars
Kids	Outside	Freedom	Sporty	Explaining	Shopping
Me	Quiet	Love	Patient	Fixing	Reading
Culture	Busy	Humour	Honest	Making	Art
Partner	Country	Faith	Caring	Writing	Friends

provision of a problem solving toy which used the literacy of career and career influences to stimulate discussion.

The U-Cube was designed around a constructivist and social constructionist perspective, inclusive of people, environments, strengths, values, skills and interests (see Table 10.1 for the included words on each face of the U-cube). The U-cube's development attempted to facilitate a process leading to a more holistic perspective on career, trying to define how to use constructivism in practice within a Systems Theory Framework (Patton & McMahon, 2014). The U-cube was designed to allow individuals to use it to help them construct their career influences prior to working with a practitioner or support person and to introduce career influence literacy to initiate their thought processes around career.

A constructivist perspective, together with the practical nature of narrative storytelling and the focus on supporting clients to self-reflect from a wider view than that of trait and factor, or interest inventories, led to the development of the U-Cube as a tool for client and counsellor career exploration (Alchin, 2014). Within the frame of constructivist career counselling, the U-cube is used as a tool for supporting the development of a working alliance, and playfully exploring and changing negative career thoughts.

The Client Reece

The client (i.e. Reece) is requested to hold the cube and to find four words on the cube that are relevant to his life. Reece is asked to see if he can get the four words on the same face of the cube, but not to worry if he cannot. Reece is told that the counsellor (Carolyn) will return in 5 minutes for the appointment.

Countering Negative Career Thoughts Through Play

Career thoughts can be defined as “outcomes of one’s thinking about assumptions, attitudes, behaviours, beliefs, feelings, plans, and/or strategies related to career problem solving and decision making” (Sampson, Reardon, Peterson, & Lent, 2004, p. 91). Cognitive information processing theory suggests that career thoughts are mediated by the relationship between life stress and career and the resultant career decision state (Bullock-Yowell, Peterson, Reardon, Leierer, & Reed, 2011). Negative career thoughts can impact on an individual’s readiness to engage in career problem-solving (Sampson, Reardon, Peterson, & Lenz, 2004) and identifying career related opportunities. Brissette, Scheier, and Carver, (2002) hypothesised that individuals with negative career thoughts may be less motivated, although still be committed to a goal. When the above factors are considered, the U-cube’s effects (i.e. fun and enjoyment) may have the effect of challenging negative career thoughts.

When asked what his 4 words were, Reece stated Hot, Girls, Strong, and Cars. When Carolyn asked Reece what Strong applied to, and why it was relevant to his life, he stated that he wanted to be strong for his mum, and that he wanted to be strong at the gym. Carolyn asked Reece how long he had attended a gym. Reece stated that he had been going every day for 3 weeks. When asked how he became interested in the gym, he stated that his girlfriend went there. Carolyn discussed with Reece how people are influenced by those around them, and that his initiative to be stronger and healthier was supported by his girlfriend. Carolyn discussed how being around people who support you and help you focus on your success is a positive way forward. Reece stated that he also needed to make sure he stayed hot enough for his girlfriend Chloe, he worried that he was not hot enough. Carolyn, through this statement was able to demonstrate to Reece that he was problem-solving, and taking steps to solve any issues.

Carolyn was also able to discuss Reece’s skills and strengths with him at this point and how they added to his capacity from a career point of view. Carolyn was able to discuss with him his feeling of accountability and responsibility as a family member and to his mum. She was also able to question him around why he felt responsible and accountable, and how he planned to be strong. Reece discussed his worry that he wouldn’t work hard enough to get a job and be able to help his mum out financially. Carolyn was then able to ask Reece who decided how much motivation Reece had. Reece replied he knew it was up to him, but that it was hard. Carolyn was able to again discuss his problem solving strategies above and work with Reece on ways to support his own levels of motivation and minimising procrastination.

When asked why he chose “Hot” he stated that it went with girls. “Hot Girls”. He laughed after this, and Alchin again was able to learn about Reece and his humour. In addition, this further enabled Reece to build a working relationship with Carolyn and provided a more fertile environment for growth.

Utilizing the U-Cube has enabled Reece to discuss his negative feelings, and enabled Carolyn to better understand Reece's career influences. The narrative developed has enabled discussions to support Reece's growth and self-understanding and further discussions around the world of work, attitudes and expectations that Reece may place on himself, and those that the people around him may expect.

The U-cube can enable practitioners to dismiss some of the oft used small talk around weather, or nice shoes. Instead the tool becomes the small talk, "check out this cube- have a look at all the words, and try to find 4 that are relevant to you and your life, if you like, you can try to get them on the same face. "I will pop back to chat about it in 5 min or so". Immediately the client is considering words related to career and career influences. They are able to work independently and unwatched.

When Reece chose cars as one of his words, this provided Carolyn an entrée into understanding his interests. From this point she asked him about what cars he liked, and why. Reece commented that he liked old cars that he could make work again, and that he had a cousin who was an apprentice mechanic and that he liked working with him on cars. Carolyn reflected that maybe Reece liked fixing things, and solving problems, and that he seemed to like doing practical things. Reece stated that he guessed so; however, he had not considered the matter that way before. Carolyn was then able to discuss problem-solving as a skill or strength, cars as an interest, responsibility to his mum as a value, and to better understand Reece's family influences

In the case of the U-cube, the gamification can persuade the client to "play" and as such begin to use career influences language which may assist in a narrative style counselling session. The encouragement and option to get them all on the same face is voluntary, and necessary, as the client is not there to be forced. "Tell me about yourself" is a challenging, if not daunting, stimulus for some clients. This challenge is made easier through the use of the U-Cube, whereby clients are given 72 example words across the 6 faces of the cube, and then asked to choose 4. Thus, rather than generating self-descriptions without assistance, the process of "telling" is supported by the presence of career-oriented words that may be used by the client to talk about self.

Discussion

In this chapter we introduced the U-Cube as both a tool for career exploration in counselling and for developing the working alliance between client and counsellor. Quite literally, the U-Cube is in the hands of the client as a tool for exploration and interpretation with the career practitioner. It is evident that career development interventions can enhance individuals' careers (Brown & Lent, 2016), including employability (Koen, Klehe, & Van Vianen, 2013). The U-cube is used in what is stipulated by Lent, Brown, and Hackett (2002) to be the strongest career

intervention, namely a one-to one counselling environment. Face-to-face career counselling is confirmed as being a very effective intervention, more so than those interventions which were counsellor free (Whiston, Li, Mitts, & Wright, 2017) and one that has positively influences other areas of functioning for the client, such as satisfaction with life (Masdonati, Massoudi, & Rossier, 2009).

A critical ingredient for effective career interventions is individualised interpretations and feedback. This ingredient is inherent to the working alliance between client and counsellor. However, Whiston et al. (2015) surmise that there is very little research about how to facilitate a working alliance in career counselling. The U-Cube is a tangible medium that connects the client and counsellor in a conversation and it is this conversation that becomes the grist of career exploration.

Limitations and Future Research Recommendations

It is important to acknowledge that not all counselling clients are the same, and as such there needs to be further research into how different personalities, cultures, and perspectives of clients may affect the effectiveness of career interventions. Therefore, whilst we argue that the U-Cube is an alternative tool for practitioners to build rapport and conduct career exploration with their clients, its utility for different groups of clients is yet to be properly explored. Our clinical experience suggests that the U-Cube is not only enjoyed by young clients, but also by older clients who remember the Rubik's Cube craze in the 1980s. Indeed, older clients' reverie about the 80s is, in and of itself, a point of conversation about how life progressed since way back then.

Conclusion

Whilst there are evident improvements in the labour market in the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2016) member countries during the recovery from the global financial crisis, young people remain at risk of being excluded from participation in the labour market in this post-industrial era of automation marked by the reducing availability of traditional forms of work. Their marginalisation places even greater importance on education and training interventions that engage youth in discussions, collaborations, and explorations around careers and their futures.

If youth are to secure for themselves work that is appropriately remunerated, and in safe and democratic workplaces (that is, facets of *decent work*) (Blustein, Olle, Connors-Kellgren, & Diamonti, 2016), they will need a constant focus on learning skill development, and an ability to recognise and exploit opportunities to sustain and enhance their *employability* (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). Moreover,

they need self-reflective capacities required in contemporary workplaces. Developing those self-reflective capacities is the bailiwick of career development practitioners who can integrate learning into career counselling and career education activities.

Considering the vital role of the working alliance in career counselling (Masdonati et al. 2009), a tool that helps a young person to engage in dialogue has much to offer. We believe the U-Cube offers practitioners and clients an alternative approach to self-reflection, assessment, and exploration in career counselling, that contributes to the rapport and working alliance between client and counsellor in a fun way that is friendly to young people.

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Chapter 11

Counselling Young Adults to Become Career Adaptable and Career Resilient

Jennifer J. del Corso

Abstract Career counselors are tasked with preparing young adults as they transition into the world of work and construct careers in a global, technological era. Newer career counseling strategies that emphasize career adaptability and resiliency are critical in this unstable, insecure socioeconomic and political climate. Furthermore, counselors must help young adults manage their expectations and anxiety due to the super saturation of information, career possibilities, and lifestyles they are exposed to due to the social media. In accordance with Career construction theory (2005), this chapter outlines four specific career adaptability domains: concern, control, curiosity, and confidence and how counselors can use narrative techniques to help clients develop the necessary attitudes, beliefs, and competencies for successful transitioning.

Keywords (Career) Counselling · Adaptation · Young adults · Successful transitioning · (Career) resilience

Introduction

Resiliency requires adaptation. As young adults face a challenging job market, high unemployment rates, rising costs of living, and social or civil unrest, career counseling strategies must shift to embrace a life design paradigm that emphasizes career adaptability (Savickas et al., 2009). Fostering resiliency and career adaptability is critical to helping young adults construct careers that are meaningful in the face of these economic, social, and political challenges. Technology, in particular, has revolutionized social interactions and young adults in this generation can connect with people from around in the world drawing on mobile technology (using handheld digital appliances such as cell phones, tablets, laptops, and even “smart”

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watches). As a result, young adults are exposed to new ideas, beliefs, realities, possibilities, and lifestyles that extend far beyond their local community. New possibilities greatly expand career possibilities and this can be both positive and negative. Positively, young adults can now imagine a career trajectory with limitless possibilities. However, negatively, so many possibilities can also create anxiety or disappointment. They may feel anxious and overwhelmed as to what the “right” career path is; or they may feel disappointed that their life circumstances may prevent them from life designing their career in the manner they wish. Consequently, career counseling strategies must integrate both the inherent economic and social uncertainty this generation faces due to globalization and technology. This instability and uncertainty is precisely why the relevancy of past career development theories that emphasized a clear, systematic, linear path is being questioned by some theorists (Matthews, 2017). Instead, career counselors today are shifting their focus off of career development theories and focusing on the clients’ ability to thrive and adapt (Jiang, 2017). The emphasis now is there must be a helping young adults resiliently manage their emotions and expectations due to the 21st century super-saturation of information (Shin & Lee, 2016).

In order to adapt to these challenges, young adults must develop career adaptabilities, that is, abilities that promote successful adaptation (Savickas, 2005). These “abilities” are not simply helpful coping strategies, but they entail attitudes and beliefs that enable individuals to be persistent striving and industrious (Ployhart & Bliese, 2006; Savickas, 2005, 2008). Attitudes, beliefs, and competencies, are referred to as the ABC’s of career adaptability, in accordance with Career Construction Theory. This chapter discusses how career counselors can help young adults proactively recognize potential opportunities, adjust, problem solve, and cope with unanticipated career challenges in order to help them construct their lifelong career story and resiliently adapt.

Young Adult Career Adaptability and Resiliency Development

Young adulthood falls within the latter part of what Super (1980) describes as the exploration stage. In the exploration stage, individuals clarify what they want to do (crystallization), specify their career choice (specification), and then begin working (implementation) (Super, 1980). The goal of these tasks are to help young adults increase occupational knowledge, choose an occupation and begin to work. Super’s developmental life-space, life-space model has been researched and discussed extensively throughout the career literature (Lent & Brown, 2013). While self-questioning and insecurity are not addressed in the stage by Super, others suggest these two developmental aspects needs to be addressed as well (Arnett, 2000). These two factors become particularly important in light of the globalization discussed earlier, whereby there are limitless opportunities and ways to think about how to life design one’s career path (Savickas et al., 2009). Therefore, these two

specific challenges that impact career adaptability and resiliency are discussed below: instability in the world and uncertainty inherent within this stage of young adulthood.

Instability

In order for young adults to adapt today, they must be able to manage their anxiety related to instability within and prompted by the global economy. There are several factors that create anxiety for young adults: lack of stability within businesses and governments, super saturation from news cycle, and the aging working class. Permanent job security, starting at the bottom and slowly moving up the proverbial career ladder, is less common than it once was. This adds to anxiety within young adults as they seek to find stable jobs that offer benefits such as health insurance. In countries where citizens are highly dependent upon the government to provide for their needs (e.g. food, shelter, and healthcare), they may be reluctant to go to work for fear that these resources may be taken from them. They may even choose to continue having children to be compensated by the government; thus, stalling their own career development. Additionally, young adults are exposed to a 24-h news cycle on television highlighting civil unrest occurring not just locally, but globally as well. This creates anxiety as governments risk defaulting loans, state funded retirement programs are projected to break up, and civil war erupts between different groups of people, resulting in violence that impacts education and business development. The career development of young adults is significantly impacted in countries that are experiencing civil unrest or economic recessions. Lastly, when loved ones are laid off from work, or their hours are cut back, it creates fear. Young adults may struggle to find a job because older workers may be too afraid to leave or retire. Each of these external factors compounds the inherent developmental anxiety that comes when starting a new job.

As a response to this instability, many young adults strive for safety and job security. They often put in long hours at work for fear that not working overtime may result in the loss of their or a promotion. Many work around the clock answering email and phone calls off hours due to the boundaryless nature of technology. Additionally, some workers take on two or more part-time jobs or double shifts to earn money to survive. Instability leads workers to seek stability through their own choices and efforts, rather than relying on companies or government structures to help them feel secure. One might argue that resilient young adults are persevering, hardworking, and persistent in the face of insecurity—that young adults are taking their job security into their own hands. This, however, may lead many to become more self-focused.

Some have argued that we are living in a self-focused age, whereby individuals think about their needs before the needs of others (Arnett, 2004, 2011). Western values tend to promote self-reliance and independence. Rather than trusting one's future in the hands of another, such as an employer, employees are looking out for

the own needs by seeking to advocate for themselves. As a result, new career development models have emerged that stress life-designing, a way in which individuals construct their own future through purposeful proactive choices by doing something that matters to them (Savickas et al., 2009).

People report the greatest job satisfaction when they are doing something they perceive as meaningful (Connolly, 2002). Consequently, much of the career literature today supports helping people find their “passion”, follow their “dreams”, “do what they love” and “find their calling” (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007). When young adults feel that they have found a job that meets their needs, there is a sense of excitement and joy. There may also, however, be fear as they ask themselves, “Is that really possible?”. Hence, there may be frustration or hopelessness if young adults “see” what it is they want to do, but do not feel there is a realistic pathway to meeting those goals. While some may become discouraged and unsure whether their dreams will ever be actualized, others adopt unrealistic expectations for their career choices to provide them with a complete sense of joy, satisfaction, and fulfillment.

Cultural narratives are infused with language that has the potential to instill unrealistic expectations in young adults. The downside to “follow your dreams”, are the insatiable unanswered questions, “Am I there yet? Is this as good as it gets? Can I do better than this?” This can create ongoing career indecisiveness that impede young adults’ ability to adapt. They may be anxious to commit to a specific career out of fear that they will have made the wrong choice, or they may continuously question whether they are doing what they are “called” to do. Additionally, they may have such a high standard, similar to a romantic relationship with a partner, that any difficulty or job challenge may be interpreted to mean that they are not where they are meant to be. Social class ceilings have been shattered due to technology as young adults now have a more intimate view as to what others in higher socioeconomic classes experience. Facebook, SnapChat, Instagram and Twitter may give the false impression that others are happier than they are personal and professionally. Consequently, this leads individuals to constantly assess whether they are as satisfied in their careers as others. Even if their job is “good”, they may feel it’s not “great” and perhaps there’s more out there. This leads to the next challenge to helping young adults adapt and display resiliency: uncertainty.

Uncertainty

There are two major sources of uncertainty, namely personal and political, that present challenges for young adults to overcome as they adapt. The first entails personal uncertainty due to the exposure of countless job possibilities and increased anxiety about whether one has embarked on the “right” career journey. The second is related to the uncertainty as to whether individuals will be able to actualize their dreams given the socioeconomic and political environment in which they live. In other words, there are two questions: “Am I doing what I am meant to do?” and “Will I be able to do what I feel called to do?”

The belief that “you can do and be anything” is a cultural Western narrative that many young adults in modernized cultures have grown up believing from a young age. With the click of a keyboard, young adults can conduct an internet search to find websites dedicated to hundreds of occupational career choices. Websites, such as O*Net, currently lists 1110 occupational titles. Other private websites list upwards of 2000–10,000 career choices. This is a lot of information for young adults to sift through. As a result, numerous job possibilities increase anxiety and uncertainty as to what direction to go. “You can do and be anything” are narratives repeated over and over in literature and in popular culture, from Cinderella to Aladdin, whereby dreams are actualized no matter what a person’s social class entails.

The downside, however, is that young adults may be naïve regarding the structures within society that may be antagonistic or run counter to their ambitions. These structures are out of one’s control. Fluctuating interest rates, sudden downsizing, family members that need financial care and assistance, are just a few of the many examples that can impact career trajectories. Without recognizing real limitations within one’s socioeconomic and political environment, young adults may disregard real obstacles due to time, resources, money, sociopolitical structures, and the time period in which they live in.

Melinda, a single mom of two children, decided to go \$120,000 dollars into debt in order to pay for doctoral studies at a private university to become a counselor. Counselors in her region make approximately \$36,000 dollars a year and her loan payment takes up half of all the income she takes in. This is an example, whereby, Melinda “followed her dream”, but at the expense of recognizing the limits to her current situation. It is not that Melinda strove towards a career she desired, it was the notion that she only saw the path that created enormous financial stress and hardship as a way to actualize her passion.

Successful career adaptation requires two qualities: recognizing one’s limits while at the same time still striving towards one’s dream. In order to adapt, young adults must be able to remain resilient, steadfast, and committed towards designing a life that brings their passion and their interests in line with their need for food, safety, survival and belonging.

The next section addresses the attitudes, beliefs, and competencies needed for young adults to resiliently adapt as they transition into the workforce.

The ABC’s of Being Resilient

How individuals engage the world and move from this private to public sphere is understood as *career adaptability* (Savickas, 2008). Successful adaptation occurs when clients’ desires and abilities find a place within the needs of the community. The goal is for individuals to “construct” their careers in a way that brings their “inner needs and outer opportunities into harmony” (Savickas, 2008, p. 1). These inner needs consist of the most basic need for survival, followed next by belonging,

and then proceeded by a deep expression of one's innermost ideal self in the world. Adlerian career counselors would categorize these strivings into three categories: security, safety, and/or importance (Del Corso, Rehfluss, & Glavin, 2011). For this adaptation to occur, clients must become concerned about their future, perceive they have control over that future, are actively curious about different paths, and confidently feel they can actualize these strivings into a work role. These four dimensions of career adaptability reflect specific developmental tasks with respect to career readiness or maturity: concern, control, curiosity, and confidence (Savickas, 2005). Additionally, Del Corso et al. (2011) suggest two additional dimensions: commitment and cooperation, which have been mentioned in prior literature but not consistently included in recent publications.

With each developmental task (such as choosing a major or a career field) and career transition (voluntary or involuntary), an individual must become concerned, "Do I have a future?", demonstrate increasing personal control, "Who owns my future?" display curiosity "What do I want to do with my future?", and move forward with confidence, "Can I do it?" (Savickas, 2002, 2005, 2008; Savickas & Porfeli, 2010). Problems related to a person's private logic or self-talk, maladaptive strivings, and interpersonal problems will manifest themselves along one or several of these four respective dimensions. Below are the four categories that career adaptability problems may fall under described in greater detail.

Career Concern Problems

Young adults that exhibit career *concern* problems show little desire or initiative to engage in career exploration or career readiness behaviors such as seeking out additional knowledge, determining what needs to be changed, and then adopting those changes (Ployhart & Bliese, 2006). There may be several reasons why this is the case. The first reason is that the young adult might be struggling with mental illness such as depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, or schizophrenia and/or may be struggling with a drug or alcohol addiction. The onset for a majority of psychiatric illnesses occurs in young adulthood (Kessler et al., 2005). The challenge of mental illness is two-fold: first, it impacts the ability of young adults to engage in career readiness behaviors due to psychological and emotional limitations; second, if they take the initiative to find employment, they may meet employment discrimination if they self-disclose their illness. This may then subsequently lead them to avoid seeking employment. In many countries, individuals with mental illness are on some type of government support. Learned helplessness may set in and young adults may give up trying to work in any capacity possible. While there are certainly a handful of individuals that with such a degree of mental illness they will not be able to work in any capacity, many are able to engage in some type of goal-directed behavior. When young adults are chemically dependent upon a substance, decision making shifts from being future-oriented to addressing immediate present-day concerns. Mental illness may also be present. Unfortunately,

young adults who are addicted to substances or who may have other debilitating addictions, are not at all likely to engage in career behaviors as their focus becomes on doing what may be necessary to acquire their next fix.

Yet not all career concern problems are due to substance abuse or mental illness, young adults that are being taken care of by others, such as family, may also have little incentive to work because their most basic needs are being met. If the family does not have an expectation for their adult child to work, and instead, over-functions on their child's behalf, then the adult child may lack motivation to engage in goal-directed behavior. The longer individuals go unemployed, the greater the likelihood they will not maintain full employment in the future (Krueger, Cramer, & Cho, 2014).

Career Control Problems

Career control problems arise when young adults feel as though they do not have the ability to exercise control over their career path. Sometimes career control problems are manifestations of a perceived lack of control, while at other times, there is a genuine lack of control over one's ability to construct the career they wish to have.

Real career control problems entail ...Not all career control problems are perceived, as there may be societal, structural, or psychological limitations that prevent one to experience the degree of control they wish to possess over their career. In countries experiencing cultural violence and war, for instance, career choices may be limited. One's career focus may be solely on preserving one's safety and ability to survive, rather than looking to actualize one's ideal sense of self in the world. Other social factors (such as placement exams, economic conditions, job market, and cost of living) or cultural conditions (such as women or LGBT rights) may severely impact the degree of control one has over their future. Limited career choices, social factors, and cultural conditions post real, not perceived, limitations for young adults. One large study of 726 Italian and 533 Swiss adolescents demonstrated that a positive orientation towards the future was impacted by their environmental context (Santilli, Marcionetti, Rochat, Rossier, & Nota, 2017). Thus, hope and optimism are inextricably related to young adults' sense of opportunity and agency within their respective cultures. A single woman in the United States that wishes to be a doctor, for example, may not have the financial ability to afford the high price of medical school. Yet in another country, her education may be free or cost very little. This reflects a real career control issue.

Intellectual, mental, emotional, or physical disabilities also may also pose real difficulties. This occurs when there is a gap between what a young adults desires and what he or she is physically able to do. For example, one young lady told her career counselor she wanted to be an engineer but that she did not work with people well, and she had failed college level math four times. When the counselor referred

her for psychological testing, the results showed that her IQ was 72. This low score presented a real career control concern for this young lady.

In addition to real limitations, perceived limitations also impact career control. Perceived problems may include a low sense of self-efficacy or self-esteem, a perceived lack of ability or skill to carry out the job responsibilities, or negative career beliefs. When young adults perceive something as being too hard or difficult to achieve, they may feel helpless and out of control. Perceived limitations and pessimism is correlated with individuals who have a strong external locus of control (Chen, Wang, & Xu, 2016). This means that they perceive themselves as having very little agency over their lives and that much is happening to them that they cannot change. One example is a young adult in Norway that expressed an interest in becoming a paramedic, but she felt that she would not be able to pass the training and licensure exam because she had heard that it was difficult. This is an example of how one might express what they want to do, but feel they cannot accomplish it.

One last career control issue pertains to the individuation process from one's family of origin. Career decisions in young adulthood reflect the first major opportunity for children to decide their own career path. They can decide whether to choose a career their parents or guardians wish them to have or they can make the choice for themselves. One might argue that career decision-making is an individuation issue, and will reflect the degree to which individuals feel that they safely can make their own career decisions. Unfortunately, if young adults are born into controlling punitive environments, they may not feel safe emotionally or physically, to decide a career path they want to pursue if it differs from their parents or caregivers.

In the movie *Dead Poet Society*, the lead character, Neil Perry, wishes desperately to become an actor, but his father makes it clear that he will not pay for his son's school to become an actor. His father is insistent that his son should be a doctor, and if his son refuses to, then it would be dishonor and shame to the entire family. In the movie, his son ultimately commits suicide because he feels trapped and unable to make his own decisions. While this may be an extreme example, there are many young adults who choose a profession or make career decisions, solely on the basis of what they feel their parents would want or approve of. In this sense, they experience a blend of a real and/or perceive career limitations, because, emotionally, they may not be strong enough to self soothe, or handle the consequences imposed (i.e. financial, emotional, and/or physical) from the family if they choose not to do what their parent or caregiver wants.

Career Curiosity Problems

Career curiosity problems comprise of problems related to what a person may want to do. Young adults base career decisions upon what they know about themselves and the world of work. First, young adults may simply lack knowledge and experience about the workplace. They may rely on limited understandings of

different careers based on their childhood. Often the standard careers taught to children entail teacher, doctor, lawyer, accountant, or police official. Yet, there are many careers that young adults may not know exist or be exposed to, such as being a histopathologist, or a network security engineer. Young adults are exposed to different careers both through both passive and active means. Passive ways of learning involve observing jobs that are around them. For example, one might consider mining as a career path in West Virginia, but consider scuba dive instructor off the coast of Australia. This is simply based on one's geographic surroundings. The other way young adults learn passively is by observing what their peer group and social group do. Parents, friends, families, all offer optional career paths. In addition, individuals are exposed to the careers that their social group are familiar with. Young adults may never hear of specific careers because their friends and families do not know about them as well, and thus, do not offer them up as potential options.

In addition to the types of careers out there, young adults may have a limited understanding for many of the jobs that may be based on one experience or another individuals' point of view. For example, Mary worked in retail when she was 16 and hated her experience. Based on this one experience, she concluded that she would dislike all retail jobs and sought to avoid them when making career decisions. Another example is Adam who listened to his mother complain about teaching from the time he was young, well into adulthood. He had an understanding of what it meant to be a teacher from his mother's perspective, and as a result, developed a negative view of the career. These are passive ways in which individuals develop limited or negative views of certain career fields and thus, discount them as future job opportunities.

In addition to passive observational learning, individuals can engage in proactively to learn about careers; however, young adults must have resources to do so, such as technology or transportation. There are many websites dedicated to providing information on a variety job titles such as O*Net or consult the Dictionary of Occupational Titles. Furthermore, many universities and career centers have educational videos for young adults to explore in order to widen their understanding of various careers. Informational interviews, shadowing, and volunteer work are other proactive ways for young adults to take the initiative to learn more about the career fields that they are interested in pursuing. Gathering information is an ongoing continuous process to helping young adults continuously evaluate their career choices in light of their evolving identity.

Career Confidence Problems

Young adults are particularly vulnerable to career confidence problems developmentally. They are just beginning their careers and may lack professional experience. Starting out as novices, they may express doubt that they have chosen the "right" career, or they may feel they do not have what "it takes" after their initial

work experience. This can occur when young adults have not been adequately prepared, trained, or mentored. Furthermore, they are particularly vulnerable to the impressions and feedback from others as they develop their sense of self-efficacy within their respective profession. Feedback from work colleagues can have a powerful impact early on in a young adult's career development that sets the stage later for difficulties in resiliently adapting.

Johanna, for example, is a 22 year old recently graduated college with an engineering degree. Johanna took her first job at a small male-dominated engineering firm. Despite making straight A's in her classes, she was unsure as to whether she possessed the skill set needed to meet the expectations of her colleagues. Johanna hoped that her colleagues would be supportive and encouraging. This would increase her sense of self-efficacy within her field. Unfortunately, they were not. They frequently challenged her ability, expressed impatience as she learned new tasks, and began to assign her "easy" tasks such as paperwork. Johanna felt deeply discouraged. As an older worker, she might have not personalized the situation because she would have been able to recall experiences where she had been successful in similar work setting. But being new, she had no basis for comparison and was much more vulnerable to the feedback from her work colleagues. She instead sadly concluded that she could not contribute and compete with her peers, and decided to transition to a different profession.

Career counselors are challenged to assess what is at the causal root of the career confidence problem. Individuals may exhibit career confidence problems because they are not yet competent in their field, they gathered new information that contradicted their career expectations (e.g. being a teacher was not what they thought it would be), or they may have anxiety to be their authentic self. An example of this is a young Italian man named Alessandro. Alessandro worked for his father's company from the time he was 16 years old. He contacted a career counselor at age 24 because he wanted to become an architect but was afraid of leaving his father's business because he father told him that if he left, he would not be welcomed back. As a result, Alessandro was anxious about confidently pursuing his dream of becoming an architect for fear that he would not be successful, would get into the field and decide it wasn't what he wanted to do, or that he would not be able to find a job that paid as well as the family business. How career counselors intervene in career confidence problems, depends entirely upon whether the career confidence problem is due to new information, being a novice within their field, or an unhelpful cognitive belief that prevents them from confidently moving forward. Whatever the reason may be, increasing young adults' self-esteem is important, as higher rates of self-esteem have been shown to help young adults transition into the workplace and engage in lifelong learning (Ismail, Ferreira, & Coetzee, 2016).

Attitudes, Beliefs, and Competencies for Successful Transition: Resiliency

Individuals are only able to construct their careers to the extent that they can develop and exercise syndromes of coping attitudes, beliefs and competencies known as the ABCs of career construction (Savickas & Porfeli, 2010). These ABCs of career construction are needed for young adults to successfully negotiate through career problems that may arise with respect to each of the career dimensions described in the previous section: concern, control, curiosity, confidence, commitment, and cooperation. Resiliency is the thematic foundation from which all adaptive attitudes, beliefs, and competencies develop.

Successful career transitioning requires resiliency which, is defined as the ability to recover from and persevere in the spite of disappointments, challenges, or set-backs. In order for young adults to be resilient they must have attitudes that are positive, optimistic, flexible, persevering, proactive, self-motivated, and open to new opportunities (Tolentino et al., 2014). They must believe that they have the ability to bounce back from difficult situations. Their beliefs and expectations when evaluating their situation, must be balanced—neither too high, nor too low. An example of an expectation that is too high would be a young adult that expects to have a starting salary comparable to someone more experienced in the field. An example of an expectation too low might be a young adult that feels paralyzed to take risks because they see themselves as “new” or “inexperienced”. Successful young adults do not expect for things to go perfectly go their way. They understand there will be challenges, but they meet those challenges with an optimistic open attitude, rather than a pessimistic one.

Socially and interpersonally, resilient young adults must possess the ability to communicate their needs and work well with others. They seek out support when in need and move towards problem solving, rather than withdrawing or demonstrating learned helplessness. They adapt by seeking out new information that may help them meet their needs (Ployhart & Bliese, 2006). Emotionally, resilient individuals are able to self-soothe easily and comfort themselves. They possess an internal “cheerleader” that encourages them and tells them to not give up. They are willing to take risks and chances, even if it means not being successful. They try new things and are open to possibilities rather than closed.

In summary, it is important for career counselors to help these attitudes, beliefs, and competencies in young adults as they navigate through a myriad of career transitions and work roles throughout the course of their life.

Fostering Resilience

Career counselors can foster resilience and adaptability in young adults through positive counseling approaches and narrative career interventions. Positive (career) counseling (Maree, 2013) is an emergent field that proactively enhances and increases positive emotions, thoughts, and actions in order to increase clients' sense of well-being. It aims at developing aspects of clients' lives that are consistent with their long-term goals by focusing on their strengths rather than weaknesses. Career construction theory (CCT) (2005) aligns with the tenants of positive psychology and is guided by the notion that individuals have the power within themselves to construct their careers as author, agent, and actor within their personal life story.

The process of helping individuals become mindful of their own agency and self-construction lies at the heart of career construction counseling. Counselors draw out client stories, particularly those in which the client has demonstrated resiliency, and serve as reflective audience. Narrative career counselors help clients hear how they perceive their current career struggle in story-form. Through a process called *co-construction*, they reflect and reframe each client's experience. In turn, the client is invited into a deeper inquiry into how they make sense of themselves and the world. This dynamic interplay between client and counselor gives rise to a meaning making process that is altogether larger than each person's individual contribution to the story. Stories of defeat are re-authored into opportunities for victory and growth.

For example, a 22 year old male graduate student fails to get into medical school after years of preparing to be a doctor. The career counselors listens intently to this young man's current career crisis and seeks to draw out the story line, that is, his personal narrative. Through a reflexive dynamic interplay, the counselor operates as a curious investigator—both reflecting and asking questions of the client—in order to understand why the client feels he failed to get into medical school. Does the client narrate his crisis as the story of a man who can never succeed? Does he narrate it as the story of a structural system that unfairly prevents qualified individuals from admittance because of test scores? Or perhaps does he frame his failure to be admitted as a reflection of inadequate education and/or his test taking ability? Resilient individuals will frame their struggle in terms of temporary set-backs and will retell stories of past success to the counselor as a way of reminding themselves they will get through their current struggle. However, individuals that are in crisis or in a state of intense emotional pain, may author hopeless narratives, in which they do not see a way to overcome their current struggle. They may feel overwhelmed and defeated in the face of their current career dilemma.

By creating a safe space for clients to open up, the career counselors deems clients as the sole experts on their lives. They do not challenge clients to view hopeless or pessimistic narratives as being “wrong” or “faulty” thinking. Instead, in a non-judgmental manner, they seek to understand how the narrative has been written. Specifically they seek to understand the circumstances or series of events that have occurred to lead them to hold these beliefs. Then, in order to foster agency

and resiliency, counselors de-construct and help co-construct more hopeful narratives by utilizing two major narrative techniques: remembering and metaphorical storytelling.

Remembering

Remembering is a strategy used by narrative career counselors to purposefully invite clients to recall past experiences that may offer hope, encouragement, or strategies for dealing with clients' presenting problems. People face obstacles throughout the course of their life. They may tell themselves problematic narratives such as: "I can't get through this; I've never faced anything this hard; I don't believe I'm strong enough to handle this." Each obstacle requires clients' to employ specific attitudes, beliefs, and strategies to overcome or work through these challenges. Specifically, clients must become aware and mindful of themselves as author, agent, and actor within their own life story. When clients can conceptualize themselves as agents that endure various challenges across time, research shows that their sense of agency within their self-narrative is enhanced (Bird & Reese, 2006; Maree, 2016). Therefore the goal is to help clients intentionally draw out stories of strength and resiliency in order to remind clients how they have gotten through difficult challenges in the past so that they can confidentially work through the present-day challenges before them to transform problematic language, such as "I can't get through this," into a hopeful positive voice, "It is hard but I can get through this."

While some stories are intentionally solicited by the counselor, it is important that career counselors also attend to the stories that the client brings up in session that are not solicited. In accordance with narrative career counseling, clients tell counselors the stories that they actually need to hear. The story is not for the listener's benefit, but rather for the client, who is actively engaged in an unconscious process to remember specific stories they need to hear. Seemingly, "random" stories, may actually be connected to what clients are struggling with.

A narrative counselor once recalled a career counseling session in which his client, midway through the session, started to talk about a new bike he received at Christmas when he was seven years old. At first, the counselor was quite confused as to how a Christmas gift in childhood had any bearing on the client's presenting career problem which was whether to leave his job for another position out of state. He proceeded to listen intently to the client's story purposely wondering how the bike might have implications on his client's career concern. The client proceeding to share how he remembered being excited about the new bike, but despite its new sleek look and updated features, he quickly realized after one ride that he preferred his old bike. The counselor inquired as to whether he felt the new bike symbolized his new job offer. The client quickly lit up and exclaimed "Yes!" The client unconsciously chose the story of his Christmas bike as a way of sharing his concern that the new job offer may look enticing, but like the bike, he may not want it.

The previous example highlights a theoretical assumption that clients share stories they need to hear. These stories might be their best advice to themselves (Bruner, 2004), may reveal their concerns about a situation, or may offer up encourage on how to deal with the presenting problem. The goal is not for counselors to interpret these stories, but rather inquire as to how clients may see the story relating to their current concern. Through the process of co-construction, counselors inquire about the possible meaning of the stories clients share. They listen for themes in stories. Stories in counseling are not viewed as random, and narrative counselors do not seek to “get the client back on track”. Through this co-constructive process of remembering, clients are given clues as how to work through their challenge and resolve their problem.

Metaphorical Storying

Metaphorical storying is a second strategy counselor use when co-constructing alternative ways of seeing and responding to problematic experiences. Metaphorically speaking, clients are seen as the lead actors in their unfolding dramas. They are the protagonist in their unfolding life story (Cochran, 2011). The goal of narrative career counseling is to help clients become proactive agents in their life stories. This means helping them see themselves, not just as authors of their story, but as active protagonists who are capable of enacting change in their lives as well.

Below are some of the ways in which a counselor can help a client gain a greater sense of agency or create more helpful meanings about her or his suffering through the use of metaphors, by both previously described methods of borrowing stories from their various audiences or from past experiences:

1. Have clients identify fictional characters from TV shows that they admire. Have them articulate what they admire about them. These fictional characters reflect clients' ideal self- who they wish to be. This allows clients to author themselves in relation to these characters as a means of gaining strength. For example, a client who shares he admire superman for his desire to help those in need, may say to himself, “In this situation, I just need to strap on my cape and be superman”. A counselor may also draw from these fictional characters by inquiring, “How might superman respond to this situation?”
2. Have clients identify real-life individuals who have been role models and have them share what they admired and why. Similar to fictional characters, role models in real life offer suggestions as to how clients can overcome their current struggle. “How might Mrs. Smith respond in situation?” or “Your inner Mrs. Smith would say what?” are both questions that narrative counselor can employ when co-constructing client narratives.
3. Have clients identify their favorite stories or movies. This act can help draw out storylines that resemble their own struggles art often reflects life. These storylines offer hope and a way for clients to see their problems or struggles reflected

in the characters they see in movies and television. A relevant question might be, “How did the lead character overcome the obstacle as seen in the climax in the story?”

4. Have clients draw a timeline and list significant events. Have them add events that they may have overlooked. Afterwards, ask clients to give a metaphor that describes their life as they review their timeline. Counselors can help them co-construct metaphors that reflect resilience, strength, and growth if clients struggle to.
5. Have clients draw pictures of certain experiences. Continue to add to the drawing each session as more and more information is included about stories overlooked. Add other people, contexts, and situations to the drawing so that the depiction reflects a “fuller” view of the situation. Counselors can reflect that life is like this picture—there are often layers to a situation. When drawing a tree for example, it may be simply to draw a stick with branches and leaves; however, the more detail there is the more complex the tree becomes. So too are stories, as people make sense of their lives, as various voices and perspectives are added, the story becomes more complex and a variety of meanings are present.

Each of these counseling interventions can be used to instill hope and promote resiliency in young adults. By sharing their story out loud, research shows that clients experience a greater sense of reflexivity and agency (Maree, 2016; Taylor & Savickas, 2016). Young adults are encouraged to life design, that is, actively construct the life they wish to live by becoming active but also proactive agents within their unfolding personal life drama. While clients often do not have complete control over their life circumstances, they can work to creatively problem solve ways to bring their inner needs in harmony with their outer circumstances.

Conclusion

Career counselors need to promote resiliency in young adults more now than ever. With so many advances and changes across the work landscape, preparing young adults for one career their entire life is no longer realistic. Unanticipated career transitions and work traumas are likely to occur. When this happens, career counselors need strategies to assist young adults, at their respective developmental level, to adapt successfully. They can help young adults navigate various career problems with respect to concern, control, curiosity, confidence, commitment, and cooperation, by helping them narrate their career struggle. Then, through the process of remembering and metaphorical storying, career counselors help clients process painful stories as opportunities for growth and change. They can help promote healing by opening up, expanding, and attending to ignored aspects in a client’s experience so that stories of strength, resilience, perseverance and hope are internalized. In sum, narrative career counseling empowers clients to heal themselves by changing the way in which they have authored their lives.

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Chapter 12

Adult Career Counselling: Narratives of Adaptability and Resilience

Mark Watson and Mary McMahon

Abstract This chapter explores a storytelling approach to the career counselling and assessment of adults in career transition. Through case study material the use of the Integrative Structured Interview Process (ISI) is illustrated. This approach encourages adult career clients to become active agents in reflecting on the multiple stories and settings of their transitional career development. In particular, the ISI allows adult clients to explore career behaviours such as career adaptability and career resilience. It also encourages career practitioners to develop a narrative approach towards career counselling and assessment.

Keywords Adult career transition • Narrative • Career adaptability
Career resilience

Introduction

In recent decades there has been increasing recognition that the discipline of career psychology should become more contextually sensitive and that career development theory, research and practice need to reflect changing macrosystemic influences. We live in transitional times and the present chapter considers transition on several levels that reflect the recursive influence of macro- and micro-systemic factors that require adults to become more adaptable and resilient in their career development. The chapter begins by briefly describing the changing nature of the world of work in order to contextualise the re-emergence of career adaptability and career resilience as promising constructs in the career counselling and career assessment of adults in career transition. The theoretical emergence of these

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constructs leads to a consideration of how career psychology, specifically career counselling and career assessment, need to adapt their approach to accommodate such constructs in meaningful ways. In considering this transitional need for the field of career psychology, the chapter discusses narrative approaches to career counselling and career assessment and how these could elicit stories of career adaptability and resilience. More specifically, the storytelling approach (McMahon & Watson, 2012b; Watson & McMahon, 2014) and the use of the Integrative Structured Interview process (ISI; McMahon & Watson, 2012b; Watson, 2017a; Watson & McMahon, 2015) are described and an illustrative case study of an adult in career transition is presented. The chapter concludes with a consideration of career adaptability and resilience in the career counselling of adults experiencing career transitions.

The Transitioning Nature of the World of Work

The career literature is replete with descriptions of how much the world of work has changed in recent decades and particularly since the present millennium. In this regard, Arulmani, Bakshi, Leong and Watts (2014) reinforce a common understanding that the history of career psychology demonstrates that there has always been the need to respond to changes in the world of work.

There are resultant implications of such change for individual career development, for career development practitioners, and for the discipline of career psychology in general. Essentially, transition has become a constant within career development, with responsibility for career development moving along a continuum from external to internal locus of control. Such a shift makes pragmatic sense given that there is less external stability provided by the present world of work with the result that individuals are required to constantly adapt to macrosystemic changes.

There are implications for the career development practitioner as well, particularly as the rapidity of change in the world of work has challenged and outdated “the comfort zones of career development theories that have guided us for much of the second half of the last century” (Watson, 2016, p. 13). There is considerable pressure for career development practitioners to adapt their career counselling models and assessment (Amundson, Mills, & Smith, 2014). Given the increasingly transitional nature of individual career development and the complex interplay of an individual’s work role and other life roles (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017), Jain (2014) argues that the role of the career development professional has become more critical than ever. Similarly, Bimrose and Brown (2014) emphasise the role of career development practitioners in assisting individuals to increasingly manage effective work transitions over longer periods of time and in exploring continuing learning opportunities.

This book, focusing as it does on career adaptability, employability and resilience, comes at a time of transition for the career psychology discipline which needs to reconstruct itself in order to remain relevant in the macro-transitional

contexts within which it applies its theories, counselling models and assessment. Prominent in such a reconstruction is the emergence, indeed re-emergence, of a focus on the self-construction of careers (Maree, 2017), with a concomitant emphasis on nonlinear constructs such as career adaptability and resilience. The next section of the chapter focuses on one such theoretical reconstruction, that of Career Construction Theory (CCT) and its resuscitation of the construct of career adaptability.

Career Construction Theory, Career Adaptability and Career Resilience

McMahon (2014) points out that the rise of constructivism and social constructionism has been an interdisciplinary response to rapid changes in society and that theory and practice grounded in these approaches have a greater ability to address dynamic processes of change. Career Construction Theory (CCT; Savickas, 2002, 2005) is an example of such a theory that is specific to the discipline of career psychology. The theory is not new, grounded as it is in Super's (1990) lifespan career developmental model. Nor is one of its central constructs new, career adaptability, a term and its potential measurement originally proposed by Super and Knasel (1979, 1981).

The concept of career adaptability has been described in different ways within the literature over time. Bimrose and Hearne (2012) point out that there has been a focus on coping behaviours such as career adaptability and resilience for over three decades in the literature. Herr (1992) proposed the term personal flexibility, while Chatzichristou and Arulmani (2014) refer to the skill of agility. While constructs such as career adaptability and career resilience have been part of the career psychology lexicon for some time, perhaps their recent resurgence is in part a response to the depth of career adaptation called for in the present times and the frequency of such adaptation as individuals find themselves in a constant state of career transition.

It is not the purpose of this chapter to extensively describe CCT and its constructs. There has been much conceptual water under the bridge since Goodman (1994) wondered why the term of career adaptability had not caught on in the literature and whether the discipline was uncomfortable about the concept of adaptation being an ongoing process. The career literature is presently replete with descriptions of career adaptability, although less so about career resilience. Indeed, there seems to have been some conceptual overlap between the two constructs, with Goodman (1994) pointing to the interchangeable use of the two constructs. Nearly two decades later, Bimrose and Hearne (2012) return to this seeming overlap between career adaptability and career resilience; they differentiate the two terms more clearly defining career resilience as more to do with "the ability to survive

change once it happens, whereas career adaptability has a stronger proactive dimension” (p. 339).

Savickas (2002, 2011) has stated that CCT represents his efforts to update Super’s career development theory. Considered by some as a metatheory (Sharf, 2013), CCT has the central premise that career development is constructed by individuals, that it represents an internalised rather than an external process. As such, career construction occurs throughout the lifespan and follows the developmental tasks originally proposed by Super (1990). Thus adaptation occurs in different ways at different career developmental stages. Indeed Savickas (2008) has preferred to use the term “learning cycles” (p. 110) in place of stages as he believes that the self-management behaviours involved in career construction consist of “learning and becoming rather than deciding” (p. 110). There are three key components to CCT: vocational personality, career adaptability, and life themes.

CCT has generally been well received with Watson (2013) stating that it shows promise for use in developing world contexts, as it allows for contextual and cultural location of career development issues. However, Watson (2013, 2017b) also wonders whether career adaptability is more difficult to interpret in depressed career development environments that are largely populated with underemployed, underpaid, or unemployed workers. Similarly, McMahon and Watson (2012a) believe that CCT remains “conceptualised within a Western mindset” (p. 3). Further, Bakshi (2014) expresses concern that the developmental tasks in the final stage of lifespan career development, that is retirement, are not explicated by Savickas. Nevertheless, CCT is a growing and influential theory in career psychology (Nilforooshan & Salimi, 2016) and its impact on and implications for career practice, both in terms of career counselling and career assessment, is considered in the next section of the chapter.

Career Counselling and Career Assessment in Transition

The chapter has so far focused on theoretically grounding/contextualising career transition and career construction. A critical next step is to address the challenge of how to apply such theory within career practice. The challenge is not new. The career literature has long understood the reciprocal relationship between theory and practice (Arulmani, Bakshi, Leong, & Watts, 2014; Holland, 1985; Patton & McMahon, 2014; Savickas, 2007; Super, 1990). Further, there is general agreement that practice drives theory. Savickas (2008), for instance, argues that this is a consequence of career practice being a direct response to societal needs. In this regard, McMahon (2014) provides a specific example of the movement by career practitioners to constructivist and social constructionist theories as a response to the complexities of clients’ career development.

Yet reciprocity is dynamic and the theory development that arises out of practical necessity needs to provide practical ways to apply its theoretical constructs. This latter process has been slower and there has been a chorus of laments about the

lack of practical frameworks to guide career practitioners in the narrative approaches that constructivist career theory proposes (e.g., McMahon, 2015; Reid, 2006). Watson (2017a), for instance, in commenting on the call for career practitioners to combine quantitative and qualitative forms of career assessment, argues that this call has remained largely a theoretical debate, despite earlier attempts such as Super (1957). However, this situation is changing and there has been much work in the field since the millennium that attempts to address practical application of career assessment (e.g., Hartung & Borges, 2005; Maree, 2015, in press; McMahon & Watson, 2012b, 2015; Rottinghaus & Eshelman, 2015). Further, there have been several practical models proposed, most of which represent structured and semi-structured interviews that attempt to reconstruct career assessment as a more holistic process invested in greater meaning [e.g., the Integrative Structured Interview Process (McMahon & Watson, 2012b) and the Career Construction Interview (Savickas, 2005)].

There are also general principles for career practice that can be considered when counselling and assessing adults in career transition. A detailed discussion of these principles is beyond the parameters of this chapter although mention of them would help in the grounding of the Integrative Structured Interview (ISI) process described in the following section. For instance, McMahon (2015) views systemic thinking as foundational to narrative career counselling and, more specifically, to a storytelling approach. Indeed, McMahon relates systemic thinking to the concept of career construction and specifically identifies five systemic dimensions that can facilitate individual career construction: connectedness, reflection, meaning making, learning and agency. McMahon believes that systemic thinking will assist career practitioners in developing narrative career counselling skills. Watson and McMahon (2015) argue that the incorporation of quantitative career assessment within a qualitative process would help to reconstruct career assessment as “a multistory assessment process that is better able to accommodate the increasing complexities and subjectivity of individuals’ career development in the twenty-first century” (p. 8). Watson (2017a) argues further that changing the role of career assessment would benefit clients such as adults in career transition. Specifically, career assessment should move from a predictive to an information role (de Bruin & de Bruin, 2017); as such, career assessment then becomes part of the counselling process (or the intervention), part of the client’s career narrative (Savickas, 2008). Bimrose and Brown (2014), in considering new directions for the counselling of adults in career transition, suggest that helping adults to become more reflective contributes to lifelong learning strategies and the consideration of personal agency in what then becomes a coherent career narrative of their past, present and future. For example, McMahon, Watson, Chetty and Hoelson (2012a, b) and McMahon, Patton and Watson (2016) described how clients reflected on and made meaning from a holistic career assessment process and Maree (2016) has more recently provided a case study of career construction counselling with a mid-career adult that demonstrates new directions in the career counselling of adults in transition.

These principles remain just that, however, theoretical application (if these two words can be juxtaposed). There is still a need to move towards more concrete

application. The Integrative Structured Interview process (McMahon & Watson, 2012b) provides a practical application of the principles suggested for career counsellors to assist individuals to reflect and learn from their personal career narrative. The next section describes the Integrative Structured Interview process.

The Integrative Structured Interview Process: A Reflective Story Telling Process

The Integrative Structured Interview process (ISI; McMahon & Watson, 2012b; Watson, 2017a; Watson & McMahon, 2014, 2015) provides a practical example of how to follow a qualitative, systemic, constructivist career counselling approach with adults in career transition. The ISI process has been comprehensively described in the career literature (e.g., McMahon & Watson, 2012b; Watson, 2017a; Watson & McMahon, 2015) and only a brief overview will be provided here in order for the reader to better understand the case study of an adult in career transition that is described in the next section of the chapter.

The ISI process differentiates itself from other narrative approaches in several ways. It is founded on systemic thinking; more specifically it is theoretically grounded in the Systems Theory Framework (STF) of career development of Patton and McMahon (2014). Further, the ISI explicitly identifies reflection and learning as two of its core constructs. As can be seen from earlier sections of this chapter, the incorporation of learning and reflection into practice has been identified or called for by other authors (e.g., Bimrose & Brown, 2014; Rottinghaus & Miller, 2013) writing in the field of adult career transition. The ISI represents thus both a holistic and an integrative process for the career client. It is holistic in that it considers clients' quantitative career scores in relation to both their working and life contexts; it is also holistic in that it considers clients' career stories over time, i.e., how their past and present can shape and relate to their future. The ISI is integrative in that clients' future stories share themes in common with their past and present stories, thus providing a connectedness across time; it is also integrative in that clients are provided with the opportunity to reflect on the meaning of their quantitative career scores in order that they can construct a future integrative story.

The ISI provides career practitioners with a means of utilising the complementarity of quantitative and qualitative career assessment, something that the career literature calls for. To date, the ISI has been tailored to explore both Holland's (1985) Self-Directed Search (McMahon & Watson, 2012b) as well as Super's Revised Work Values Scale (Zytowski, 2006) (Watson & McMahon, 2014). The use of the ISI with quantitative scores is a direct application of CCT's premise that assessment scores should be used to create possibilities rather than used in their more traditional and predictive ways (Savickas, 2002, 2005). The case study in the next section of the chapter is particularly apt as it explores the client's understanding of her Holland interest codes. Holland's typology of interests is

foundational to Savickas's description of vocational personality and the use of the ISI in this way provides an adult in career transition with the opportunity to explore this key component of CCT.

The ISI is grounded in a specific narrative approach, storytelling (McMahon & Watson, 2010, 2011a, b). Storytelling is all about constructing an identity through the use of the systemic dimensions of connectedness, reflection, meaning making, learning and agency (McMahon, 2015); individuals construct their identities through narration (Di Fabio, 2016). Through storytelling an adult in career transition is able to construct a future story that builds on past and present career stories. Critical in the application of the ISI within a storytelling framework is that career clients become active agents in constructing multiple stories and contextualising these stories in the multiple settings of their lives.

In essence, the ISI is a structured interview that is framed within a series of what McMahon and Watson (2012b) have called story crafting questions. The latter have been comprehensively described in the literature (e.g., Watson & McMahon, 2014, 2015). There are 13 story crafting questions across six sections of the ISI. In summary, these questions assist clients to: contextualise their quantitative scores through a process of crafting stories around such scores; consider the relative value of their scores; consider the scores' meanings in relation to their life contexts and their work contexts; reflect on their scores in relation to their intrapersonal qualities; and reflect on their potential future career story in relation to their past and present career stories. The following section of the chapter demonstrates how the ISI process enables an adult in career transition to narrate and reflect on her SDS scores in relation to her career stories and in doing so, to reveal stories of her personal career adaptability and resilience.

Career Adaptability of an Adult in Career Transition: A Case Study

Sarah (a pseudonym), a South African female, is a 45-year old adult in career transition who made the decision to return to university to study in order to change her career. Sarah consented to participate in an exploratory descriptive research project investigating (a) adult experiences of returning to university to facilitate a career transition and (b) the efficacy of the Integrative Structured Interview process for the *Self-Directed Search* (Holland, 1985). Sarah is married and has an upper middle-class background. She has two adolescent children and worked previously as a bookkeeper. At the time of the research, she was studying fulltime for an honours degree in human service work. Sarah completed the *Self-Directed Search* on her own prior to participating in an interview based on the ISI. Her SDS three letter code was SCI (i.e., Social, Conventional and Investigative); this code was clearly differentiated. The interview was structured in four parts, specifically: (1) demographic questions, (2) questions about her program of study and career

aspirations, (3) questions about the *Self-Directed Search* scores (i.e., ISI), and (d) questions about preparing to transition from university.

Stories of career adaptability and resilience were revealed in the career stories told by Sarah in relation to her *SDS* score. Following the protocol for the qualitative coding of career adaptability based on the *Career Adapt-Abilities Scale-International Form 2.0* (CAAS) (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) and described by McMahon, Watson and Bimrose (2015), each interview was coded for five dimensions of career adaptability, specifically concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation. The fifth dimension of cooperation was originally included in the CAAS by Savickas and Porfeli (2012) and subsequently discontinued. In developing the first qualitative coding protocol for career adaptability, McMahon et al. retained cooperation because of its relevance to the relational nature of the career transitions of their sample of older women. In the present research, cooperation was retained and coded, because adults' transitions between careers are also contextually embedded in relationships. The qualitative descriptors developed by McMahon et al. (2015) guided the coding and are presented here:

Curiosity	Investigative, self-reflective, future focused, future orientated, exploratory, informed, observant
Control	Independent, autonomous, contemplative, pre-emptive, accountable, trustworthy, persistent, patient, self-principled
Confidence	Efficient, productive, self-perceptive, reliable, proud, self-confident
Concern	Planful, forward thinking, connects present and future, optimistic, hopeful, prepared, ready
Cooperation	Inter-relational, collegial, friendly, interpersonally skilled, accommodating, collaborative.

Stories related to each dimension will be presented in Sarah's story that follows. Extracts of Sarah's interview text will be presented followed by a bracket indicating the adaptability dimension it illustrates. First, stories about Sarah's career transition into study will be presented, followed by Sarah's reflection on her three letter *SDS* code, and finally her transition from study to work.

Sarah's Career Transition into Study

Sarah had worked as a bookkeeper in a family business. For many years she had engaged in informal education and training in alternative therapies and had read many psychology related books, Unhappy in her career she explained that "I realised I wanted to get something more structured in order to go forward into the future" (Curiosity). Despite this she did not want "to burden my family by wanting to study further with the financial costs and so forth" (Cooperation). She explained how her decision to study "was really actually my husband urging me that really this was something I needed to seriously consider" (Cooperation) and

how she was “very grateful that everyone supported me in that” (Cooperation). Reflecting on her time as a student, Sarah explained how her role as a student was contextually embedded in a range of relationships which she contributed to, valued and worked to maintain:

Wow, well it has been quite difficult to manage all the balls, I feel a bit of a juggler because I am not, you know, somebody who can just study and have a bit of a social life and maybe do an extra bit of volunteer work. I have to manage a household; I have to manage a family. ... I also have an elderly mother who we also look after and she doesn't live with me. So it is quite a lot of balls. And I still try actually [to] help my husband part time in the business. So it has been hard, I need to be flexible, I need to work at different times. Luckily I can do that (Control; Confidence; Cooperation).

Sarah's sense of juggling “all the balls” attests to her resilience and her ability to cope with a range of demands on her time and emotional resources. Throughout her course of study, Sarah had “enjoyed the group [other students], I have been quite fortunate I have managed to select a nice group of people so we all have different strengths and I feel that we have really helped each other through the year” (Cooperation).

As she approached the end of her study, she had “applied for my masters... I am hoping that I meet the requirements and get in because I believe that will give me really good skills in going further in the ... profession so that is what I am hoping to do” (Control; Concern). With a view to her future career she explained how:

You can't pass the board exam one day if you are getting low marks. You have to set yourself up to be academically strong, luckily I can do that. My brain doesn't work as fast as it did when I was younger; I don't find it so easy as I did back then to study. So that has been a challenge but I have risen to that and I still manage to succeed in that (Concern; Confidence).

Sarah felt optimistic about her future career as she was able to relate her past experience to potential future options:

Luckily for myself I have also done a lot of other modalities. So I could look at those and start working in the field. At least I have a ... honours [degree]. It always worried me that with my interests I had a [business/finance] qualification which people might look at and go... “That doesn't really sort of match”... but also on the other hand because I do have [a business/finance] background I could go into the corporate industry and they would also maybe take me a little bit more seriously. So I am a little bit more fortunate than perhaps someone who has only just studied [human service qualification]. (Concern).

Sarah Reflecting on Her SDS Three Letter Code

Sarah engaged in a reflective meaning making process as she tried to make sense of her career transition in terms of her past, present and future careers and her *SDS* three letter code of *SCI*. The dimensions of career adaptability were evident throughout her reflection. Sarah recognised the *S* as relevant in her previous informal education and training, specifically the “alternative health modalities that I was very interested in in the last 10 years, things like mindfulness ... reflexology ... All of that had a very big social component” (Curiosity).

In considering her code of S, Sarah distinguished between how she perceived S manifesting in her private life and also in her more public life:

I was surprised that I came through as a very social person. I know it is a very strong part of who I am because I always want to help, I have always been naturally someone who will help people... I am social in terms of wanting to help others, to teach others, to generally be of assistance, so I think that is where I have a very strong social element. I am not a very chatty person. I am not someone who will be a life and the soul of a party but I am social in the sense that I will want to get on well with everyone and help others to reach goals... (Cooperation)

As Sarah considered her S code she found it meaningful in terms of her past, present and future careers:

In terms of my studies it is important too because you have to deal with people in a group... you still have the social dynamic of mixing with the class and being a unified group. And in terms of work place for the future, you have to build interpersonal relationships with other colleagues.

In reflecting on the C in her three letter code, Sarah explained:

The conventional code is more to do with structure and following more routine tasks and why I would explain that personally about myself is that I have a background in [business/finance] ... I was a little bit frustrated that this still came up quite high but in a way it is a good thing because I do still have structure ... I was frustrated because I don't see that being, well for the [human service] profession that I am training for now and wanting to go into, I don't see that as to be a high component of being a [human service worker] for example... I was a bit frustrated because that isn't really where I see myself wanting to excel, but that is one that I have. (Curiosity)

In trying to understand C in the context of her previous experiences, Sara recounted how in the second year of her [business/finance] degree:

I knew it isn't what I wanted to do but I didn't know what I wanted to do. With student loans and that sort of thing I then followed through with my decision to [work in business/finance]. I suppose that is maybe where the conventional comes in, they are completers, there is a part of me that has come out that I will generally finish what I start (Curiosity; Confidence).

Moreover, Sarah also reflected on how the C:

was VERY relevant in my previous history because I [worked in business/finance and bookkeeping] and you do need a very strong conventional component. I used that in my working history ... and obviously in my training because I trained as that. In my future work I suspect it is not going to be as big a component however they did, when we did the career theory, they did say you need to be good with your records (Curiosity; Concern)

Sarah engaged readily with the I in her three letter code. She explained:

I am glad to see that did come through as a high element because wanting to be a [human service worker] that is quite a high component. In fact I think that in some of Holland's things [for human service occupations] the I is first. For me it is also interesting because obviously that is something I have had before, specially [working in business/finance and bookkeeping] which I didn't really enjoy. But at least I learnt how to be investigative; I learnt how to ask questions about things. (Concern).

Interestingly, Sarah was able to relate the I to her future career which she felt enthusiastic about as well as to her previous career ... which she had not enjoyed. For example, she explained that in her previous career “you need to be able to analyse things” (Curiosity) and that “in terms of my future study, I think that is going to be very important and I think I need to build on those skills ... and I will need to be very critical of my thinking” (Curiosity). She also described how she interpreted the S as being relevant in her previous career even though it is not generally regarded as a ‘social’ occupation:

I would have needed to be able to deal with people – bank managers, employees, dealing with difficult clients and a consultant for two years you need to be able to be socially at ease with people and meet them where they are at, so it is not dominant but I think it is there (Curiosity)

In reflecting on the I and her future career, she considered that “this will be a challenge for me ... because ... at times you may be constrained in terms of how you design interventions. Especially if you are in a more of a hospital environment” (Concern).

The code C was also meaningful to Sarah in terms of her previous career:

Well C—conventional would have needed to be very high because you are dealing with facts and figures and reporting requirements and deadlines and you have to follow quite a structured predetermined kind of scenario. So that was very relevant, it was quite a high component. It did reflect why I was quite frustrated with that because it’s not, well I was bored with it, it was not... well I forced myself to do it but yes it was a very big component of my previous profession (Curiosity).

Sarah was able to connect the S to her favourite tasks of her previous work and the C to her least favourite parts. She explained:

I play a very good supportive role in ... business, he [the husband] does rely on me ... So S was still important in that profession, in helping in that environment and in dealing with others. SO it is my most favourite, so I like to be in a supportive role, I like to still help where I can using the skills that I have, so that was good in terms of what I still - even though accounting was not my thing really and it frustrates me and it bores me—but I’m still helping in a supportive way which is dealing with people and that is good (Cooperation) ... In terms of my least favourite it is about tending to nitty-gritty details ... I just hate anything really to do with accounting (Curiosity).

Sarah’s Transition from Study to Work

In looking to the future, Sarah was realistic about her skills and knowledge and planful in that she was:

going to add those extra masters training sessions on because that will truly prepare me, as well as the internship I think that would be very good. So at the moment not really prepared because I haven’t had a lot of practical experience in terms of counselling (Concern).

After reflecting on her career transition between her previous and future occupations in terms of her *SDS* three letter code, Sarah claimed:

I do believe I have made a transition. I know who I am; I know what I want to do. I have been studying not just these four years but the past ten years I have been growing along the part. Yes so they are very different, very different (Confidence).

As reflected in Sarah's career stories, career adaptability was evident throughout the reflective ISI interview process in the five coded dimensions. While in some parts of Sarah's stories, the dimensions were discrete, at other times a recursive interplay was evident between them and this reflects the findings of McMahon et al. (2012a). The contextually embedded nature of Sarah's stories, in particular the social contexts of her transition, attests to the value of retaining Cooperation as a dimension of career adaptability as suggested by McMahon et al. In essence, participating in the reflective ISI process, Sarah was provided with a safe space for reflection where the scores provided a stimulus for meaningful career storytelling and for examples of her career adaptability and resilience to be revealed.

Conclusion

Transition in the field of career psychology will require a rethinking away from what amounts to a medical model of career practice, heavily invested in limited and limiting quantitative assessment (Amundson, 2009; Maree, 2015, 2016; McMahon, 2017; McMahon & Watson, 2012b, 2015; Reid & West, 2016). It is clear from the literature on adult career transitions that such individuals find themselves in a process of change. Further, it is also clear from the discussion of macrosystemic factors impacting on the world of work that this process of change will be ongoing in their lives. The earlier literature on career adaptability (e.g., Goodman, 1994) grappled with how to assist adults who experience ongoing career transition, as well as the need to move more towards a constructivist approach to career practice. Goodman, for instance, purposely identified a 'dental' model in contrast to the analogy of a medical model in order to emphasise the fact that attending the dentist should be a regular, ongoing maintenance process. It raises the question over 20 years later of how extensively career practitioners themselves accept the concept that their skills and knowledge will require ongoing adaptation and reconstruction in order to remain relevant to the times within which they practice. Clearly there are excellent examples of such acceptance in the proliferation of edited texts that provide guidance for practitioners (e.g., Maree, 2007, McMahon, 2017; McMahon & Patton, 2006; McMahon & Watson, 2015)

It seems apt in a chapter on adult career transitions to conclude by considering adult career practitioners and the impact of macro-, meso-, and micro-systemic factors on their practice. It is one thing to consider the need for career adaptation and resilience in adult career development, it is another matter to consider the adaptability this requires of career practitioners. Jain (2014) argues that the

transition facing our profession suggests that “career guidance professionals also need to engage in lifelong learning and networking” (p. 303). This will require of career practitioners that they rise to the challenge of moving beyond what McMahon (2014) refers to as “the pervasive trends of the dominant theory base” (p. 24), the simpler (indeed possibly simplistic) forms of practice and assessment that have been almost exclusively grounded in quantitative, linear paradigms. There is promising work that has begun to appear in the field in this regard (e.g., see, for instance, chapters written by 45 authors in McMahon and Watson’s (2015) book) The ISI is another example that provides career practitioners with a useful means of bridging traditional forms of quantitative assessment with newer forms of career narrative (Watson, 2017a). Further, the reflective ISI interview process enables stories of resilience and career adaptability to be told by adults in career transition and subsequently reinforced by career counsellors.

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Part V
**Utilising Career Adaptability,
Employability, and Career Resilience
to Manage Transitions**

Chapter 13

Career Adaptability, Employability and Resilience for Children in the Early School Years

Wendy Patton

Abstract Career development in childhood has attracted minimal focus in the field as most attention has been placed on key transition points, such as entry to college or workforce. However, a number of theoretical developments has changed this position. This chapter will present discussion on why these changes have occurred and will focus on three key constructs in the early school years: career adaptability, employability and resilience. Proposals for interventions with this age group will be discussed.

Keywords Career adaptability · Employability · Resilience · Early childhood

Career Development in Childhood

Attention to career development in childhood has only received substantial attention since the publication of reviews by Hartung, Porfeli, and Vondracek (2005, 2008), Schultheiss, (2008), and Watson and McMahon (2005). Additional advanced thinking and proposals for future work have been published in an edited book (Skorikov & Patton, 2007a), a Special Section in *The Career Development Quarterly* (Watson & McMahon, 2008), a Special Issue of *International Journal of Educational and Vocational Guidance* (Watson, Nota, & McMahon, 2015), and an edited book by Watson and McMahon (2017). These works have affirmed that the career development field has erred in not attending to developmental tasks able to be successfully completed in childhood, with Hartung, Porfeli, and Vondracek (2008) stating that “Childhood marks the dawn of vocational development, involving developmental tasks, transitions and change” (p. 63). Indeed, Porfeli, Lee, and Vondracek (2013) identified the essential vocational tasks of childhood as:

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(a) learning about the world of work and establishing a basic sense of self; (b) imagining the self doing various work tasks, having different jobs, and being a part of different work settings; and (c) projecting the self into the world of work (e.g., a future worker self) to establish a budding worker identity (p. 135).

This expansion in the focus on childhood has been driven by a number of advances across integrated fields in psychology. These include progression in (social) constructivist and social constructionist thinking in vocational psychology (Young & Collin, 2004), the integration of advances in vocational psychology and the human exploration literature (Patton & Porfeli, 2007), and the inclusion of systems thinking in developmental and lifespan psychology perspectives (Lerner, 2004, 2006a, 2008, 2011). These advances have enabled a theoretical and empirical understanding that includes both developmental and contextual factors, in addition to addressing the how of development (Vondracek & Porfeli, 2008; Vondracek, Ford, & Porfeli, 2014). The constructivist and developmental systems perspectives have been applied to key career development psychology (or vocational psychology) constructs, including those being discussed in the current chapter.

Lerner (2004) emphasised that “contemporary, cutting-edge scholarship in human development is framed by developmental systems theories emphasizing that the basic process in development involves mutually influential relations between the individually distinct person and his or her diverse, multilevel context; stressing that relative plasticity in development derives from such individual ↔ context relations; ...” (p. 327). In order to understand the antecedents and outcomes of the process of children’s dynamic interactive engagement with their environments, we need to take into account all aspects of their development, the mediating role of the many relevant contexts, including family status at birth and resulting opportunity structure, including educational opportunity. Lerner et al. (2012) emphasised the importance of examining development “from a lifespan perspective informed by relational developmental systems theory” (p. 275). Most developmental writers within this new thinking emphasise the importance of foundational development in determining an individual’s future, noting that children’s preparation for accomplishing life tasks, including those related to work, begins in early childhood.

The present chapter will review the developmental systems theoretical literature in more detail, including the connections between the relational paradigm and development systems theory, and between the contemporary human exploration literature and the career exploration literature. It will then focus on career adaptability, employability and (career) resilience in the early childhood years. Intervention proposals will be included within the construct discussions. A concluding discussion will present intentional interventions to facilitate children’s development in relation to these constructs.

Developmental Systems Theoretical Underpinning

The development of systems thinking in human development has progressively changed from an individual focus on traits to a multisystemic understanding of reciprocal processes in person-environment interaction. The systems perspective has moved developmental psychology “from a field framed by a unidisciplinary, developmental psychological conception of change to one that is framed by a developmental science model, that is, a multidisciplinary integrative approach to understanding the breadth of the course of human life” (Lerner, 2008, p. 71). Lerner further emphasised the application of systems theory principles to new developmental science, noting that developmental systems models “stress that mutually influential relations among the multiple, biological through sociocultural, physical, ecological, and historical levels of organization within the ecology of human life should be the focus of the developmental analysis” (p. 71).

Within vocational psychology, a number of perspectives underpinned by developmental systems theory have gained traction. These include developmental contextualism, developmental systems theory, and systems theory, in particular the Systems Theory Framework. Each one will be discussed.

Vondracek, Lerner, and Schulenberg (1986) asserted that the developmental-contextual framework synthesises two key ideas from contextualism and developmental organicism, “that contextual change is probabilistic in nature, and that development proceeds according to the organism’s activity” (p. 32). Developmental-contextualism therefore emphasises ongoing interactive change within the organism and within the environment, focusing on change and dynamic interaction. Further it acknowledges the internal stability of the organism, and the dual nature of influence between the organism and the context: “Dynamic interaction of the developing individual with various contexts was presented as the paradigm that could, for the first time, adequately account for the complexity of occupational careers, their antecedents, their unfolding, and their consequences” (Vondracek & Porfeli, 2008, p. 211).

Further to the interaction between the individual and the environment, Vondracek et al. (1986) emphasised the self-determination and agency of the individual. The developmental-contextual approach holds that the environment engenders chaotic and reflexive changes in an individual’s behaviour; however it also emphasises that the environment is facilitated or constrained by the unique characteristics of the individual who is an active organism operating in a constantly changing environment, hence the concept of dynamic interaction. An individual’s career development is a reflection of the continuous interplay of person and context at all possible levels.

Vondracek and Porfeli (2002b) emphasised the potential for an integration of lifespan psychological and sociological life course approaches to our understanding of career development in children (Hartung, Porfeli, & Vondracek, 2005) and adults (Vondracek & Porfeli, 2002a). In a precursor to further theory development, Vondracek and Porfeli (2008) noted that theoretical formulations of systems theory

have added to developmental-contextualism's capacity to address processes of development.

Developmental Systems Theory (DST; Ford & Lerner, 1992) was formulated to extend developmental-contextualism and to further synthesise this model with the living systems framework. DST extends our understanding from the description of human behaviour and attempts to answer the how and why of career decisions of individuals. Vondracek and Porfeli (2008) noted that the DST is a significant advance over the developmental-contextual framework as it presents a process model that includes content, organisation and the dynamics of the developing person, addressing the how of development "by describing and explaining the basic change processes and dynamics that are capable of producing the incredible diversity of developmental outcomes in humans" (p. 215). These authors asserted that "The framework is capable, in principle, of accounting for every aspect of human functioning" (p. 216). DST aims to extend the focus of the individual to all relevant aspects of human development, and to the processes by which individuals function. As such it can be applicable to an understanding of children's career exploration behaviour, with Patton and Porfeli (2007) emphasising that an integration of the vocational psychology and human exploration literature underscores the developmental progression of career exploration from childhood.

More recently, Vondracek, Ford, and Porfeli (2014) have developed an advanced theoretical framework, a Living Systems Theory of Vocational Behaviour and Development. This metatheory incorporates the Living Systems Framework (LSF; Ford, 1987), Developmental Systems Theory (Ford & Lerner, 1992), and Motivational Systems Theory (Ford, 1992) as basic theoretical foundations. These authors have purposely included development in their theory to acknowledge the lifespan nature of career development and decision making, and acknowledge that including development in their framework emphasises the importance of children's career development. Their theoretical formulation includes the importance of person-context interactions in all career development, with these authors stating "Theories of vocational behavior and development need not emphasize all of the complexity of human development, but they must be embedded in the larger framework of a person's life" (p. 10). While there is limited scope for expanding discussion in the present chapter, this theoretical framework promises to significantly advance the field, particularly as it incorporates both a conceptual and a propositional model.

The value of systems theory in advancing career theory has been proposed for some time. It has been shown to be relevant in relation to integration of career theories using family systems theory (Blustein, 1994; Bordin, 1994), in addition to providing a meta-framework to integrate all of the determinants of human development, and specifically career choice and career development (Osipow, 1983). Its development to date has been in providing a specific focus for the four governing functions in decision making: information processing, and storage, directive, regulatory and control processes which can be used in understanding career decision-making in concert with the knowledge of their interrelatedness with other relevant subsystems.

In addition, systems theory has been instrumental in the development of the Systems Theory Framework of career development (STF; Patton & McMahon, 2014), the first attempt to present a comprehensive metatheoretical framework of career theories. The STF is a metatheoretical account of career development that accommodates career theories derived from both the positivist and constructivist worldviews. Clearly illustrated in the STF are both the content and process of career development. The content influences are presented as a series of interconnecting systems of influence on career development, specifically the individual system, the social system, and the environmental/societal system, while the process influences include recursiveness, change over time and chance. With the individual as the central focus, constructing his or her own meaning of career, constructs of existing theories are relevant as they apply to each individual. The emphasis is placed on the individual and not on theory, and an individual's development processes can be applicable at a macro level of theory analysis, as well as at a micro level of individual analysis. Career development of individuals of all ages can be facilitated through an understanding of, and work with, the STF. As indicated by Skorikov and Patton (2007b), the STF's systemic approach assists in incorporating the changing contextual factors in theories of career development in childhood. Its focus on intra-individual factors also means that it can account for children's lifespan development influences.

These advances have received specific attention in relation to children's career development. Watson and McMahon (2007) used the various components of the STF to explore their existence in extant career theories as explanatory guides for children's career development. They concluded that this existence was variable, thereby emphasising the failure of career theory as a whole to provide theoretical foundations for understanding childhood career development. However, systems perspectives, which focus on content and process, enable a theoretical and empirical understanding that includes both developmental and contextual factors. The inclusion of the principles from the living systems framework provides specific approaches that can address the how of development (Vondracek & Porfeli, 2008). In particular, the recent advance of the theoretical framework of Vondracek, Ford, and Porfeli (2014) and the specific propositions, which provide a guide for research and theory development, offers significant promise for this approach to advance our understanding of children's career development.

Constructs: Resilience, Career Adaptability, Employability, and Developmental Phase

The next section of this chapter will examine the three constructs of resilience, career adaptability, and employability. Each will be discussed with a particular focus on children managing the early school years. However, it is important first to acknowledge what period is meant by early childhood for this current discussion.

A number of early career development theorists have proposed various stage models for career development learning, focusing on particular aspects of children's experiences and their relevance to career exploration (Bordin, 1990; Ginzberg, 1972; 1984; Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, & Herma, 1951; Gottfredson, 1981; 1996; Super, 1990), with suggestions of curiosity to fantasy stages (age 4–7) and career interests emerging from around age 7. Super (1990) discussed a growth stage which included completion of developmental tasks. Hartung et al.'s review (2005) focused on literature for children between the ages of 3 and 14, and Watson and McMahon's (2005) review defined childhood as age 13 years and younger. However, more recent discussion, including a merging of career exploration and human exploration literature, has emphasised that the timing of development may well vary across individuals (Patton & Porfeli, 2007). These authors also noted that childhood is the most active period of career exploration and indeed the best predictor of adolescent career exploration. Lapan, Bobek, and Kosciulek (2017) identified two major career development transitions in childhood-between ages 6 and 11, characterised by increasing career awareness and career exploratory actions, and ages 12–14 where the focus of much intentional career planning is made. These authors cite research which supports the view that children's career and self-awareness and career exploration are evident by at least age 9. Therefore, given an increasing focus on intentional career development learning in early childhood (to be discussed later in this chapter), this chapter acknowledges that early school years would include K through grade 6, or ages 5–11.

Resilience. As resilience is emphasised by many authors as a core underpinning of positive human development (Archdall & Kilderry, 2016; Lavoie, Pereira, & Talwar, 2016; Lerner, 2006a, b; Lerner et al., 2012; Rutter, 2012; Ungar, 2008, 2011, Ungar, Ghazinour, & Richter, 2013), this is viewed as a major construct which interacts with others to be discussed in this chapter. It is therefore discussed first. This construct is explored further in Chap. 2 (Lengelle, Meijers, & Van der Heijden, 2017). The understanding of resilience has moved from the study of the invulnerable child to a focus on the social-ecological factors and contexts that can facilitate the development of well-being in periods of stress (Ungar, 2011); from a focus on risk to resilience; and viewed as a process rather than as a fixed attribute (Rutter, 2012). Resilience has been defined by Ungar (2008) as “both the capacity of individuals to navigate their way to the psychological, social, cultural, and physical resources that sustain their well-being, and their capacity individually and collectively to negotiate for these resources, to be provided and experienced in culturally and meaningful ways” (p. 225).

Children are not born resilient, rather resilience is learned through interactions within the many contexts in which they develop. Ungar et al. (2013) have emphasised that the nature of children's interactions with their systems, and the quality of those systems, accounts for “most of children's developmental success under negative stress (their resilience)” (p. 349). The systems relevant in a child's social ecology, represented by Bronfenbrenner (1979) and more recently in vocational psychology by Patton and McMahon (2014), are not neat and contained as

per visual representations. Rather, interactions are reciprocal and multifaceted, and influences are constantly in operation across multi-layered systems.

Within the same theoretical frame, named relational development systems theory, Lerner et al. (2012) note that resilience, an attribute of positive human development, is “achieved through adaptive individual ↔ context relations (termed adaptive developmental regulations” (p. 275). These authors emphasise aligning the strengths of the individual and the strengths of their contexts in order to maximise a positive outcome. They note that individuals are embedded within systems or contexts, which possess assets, what they term contextual, or ecological, developmental assets. Four types of assets have been identified by Theokas and Lerner (2006), and these assets align strongly to the systems identified by Bronfenbrenner (1979) and Patton and McMahon (2014). The first type of asset is other individuals, or the social system, which includes peers, family, mentors, teachers, coaches and leaders of other relevant social groups. The second asset category is institutions, broader categories of the social system for each individual, for example schools, libraries and other community and sport groups. The third asset includes opportunities for interpersonal interaction and collaboration, which will more often exist within these social systems. The final asset identified by Theokas and Lerner (2006) is accessibility (to these broad context resources).

While acknowledging the relevance of developmental contextual assets in the development of resilience, Lerner et al. (2012) also affirm the importance of the individual’s role, in particular “the cognitive, emotional, and behavioural facets of intentional self-regulation” (p. 285). These authors emphasise the recursive mutuality of the role of the individual on context and the context on individuals.

Research has suggested that interventions in microsystems are less predictive of positive outcomes than interventions within meso- and macrosystems (e.g., Gewirtz & Youssef, 2016; Weine, Levin, Hakizimana, & Kahnweih, 2012). Using key principles of systems theory then, interventions in systems in which the child operates contribute more to positive change that attempts to change the individual alone. As such, key interventions in a child’s system can serve to facilitate a mutually supportive environment for positive change. Examples include helping parents in contexts of disadvantage in addition to specific interventions within school programs (see Cefai et al., 2015; Nolan, Taket, & Stagnitti, 2014 for school program examples). Multiple authors emphasise the importance of early transition support to maximise children’s adjustment in school and their overall well-being, including resilience (see Margetts, 2009).

Career adaptability. In line with developmental theory, Hartung et al. (2008) emphasise the importance of career adaptability in children’s preparation for educational and vocational decisions, noting that this lifespan period is foundational developmentally for individuals’ construction of work careers. Research on children’s career development has affirmed that children begin engaging in career relevant exploration at a young age. For example, children’s career exploration has been shown to begin in early years of school, and to qualitatively shift to more advanced understanding by latter primary school grades (Phillips et al., 1995; Seligman, Weinstock, & Heflin, 1991). Further, Schmitt-Rodermund and

Vondracek (1999) affirmed that childhood career exploration was the best predictor of adolescent career exploration. Studies have suggested that elementary and middle school children begin contemplating career directions and considering obstacles on their way toward accomplishing possible career goals (Auger, Blackhurst, & Wahl, 2005; Creed, Conlon, & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007; Liu, McMahon, & Watson, 2015).

Career adaptability (formerly referred to as career maturity, see Chap. 1 by Hartung & Cadaret, 2017 for a more detailed discussion) is a cornerstone of children and adolescents' career development, and a key construct of career construction. Career adaptability, more reflecting the person-environment interaction theoretical frame than the developmental stage based frame of career maturity, has been defined by Savickas (1997) as the individual's "readiness to cope with the unpredictable tasks of preparing for and participating in the work role and with the unpredictable adjustments prompted by changes in work and working conditions" (p. 254). Attitudes, beliefs, and competencies (ABCs) for planning a future, making career decisions, exploring self and occupations, and building confidence to shape a career comprise core dimensions of career adaptability (Savickas, 2013).

Savickas (2013) asserted that to begin building career adaptability, children interact with their contexts to form initial: (a) concern about the future, (b) control over their lives, (c) curiosity about work and careers, and (d) confidence to construct a future and deal with barriers. Hartung, Porfeli, and Vondracek (2008) emphasised the importance of the child's personal skills interacting with their experiences in familial and social contexts in the development of career adaptability.

There has been a significant focus on appropriate interventions to support the development of career adaptability. These will be discussed later in this chapter.

Employability. Resilience and career adaptability are construed as key employability skills, and as such, these three constructs are closely interconnected. Since the beginning of the 21st century writers have written about skills essential for workers in the technological or knowledge age. Workers are required to respond to changing work environments, assume broader roles and responsibilities, and demonstrate a broad portfolio of capabilities as opposed to narrow job skills. The literature is replete with lists of enterprise skills, generic capabilities, and a range of attributes and skills which the Knowledge Age worker needs to possess. Walz and Feller (1996) suggested that every worker needs a "core set of survival skills" including "resilience, the capacity for continuous learning and improvement, the ability to network and team, skill in using technology effectively, willingness to take calculated risks and learn from setbacks" (p. 431). Collin and Watts (1996) described such skills as the skills of career self-management, more recently termed career management skills (Jarvis, 2003; Sultana, 2012). Jarvis (2003) referred to "career management skills", as those which give people legitimate confidence in their ability to construct fulfilling lives, asserting that Knowledge Age workers need:

- Focus, on who they are and what they have to offer;
- Direction, knowing options and how to be prepared to maximise opportunity;
- Adaptability, the skill of making the best of change; and
- Healthy self-esteem and self-knowledge to counter uncertainty and doubt.

Sultana (2012) defined them as a “whole range of competences which provided structured ways for individuals and groups to gather, analyse, synthesise, and organise self, educational and occupational information, as well as the skills to make and implement decisions and transitions” (p. 229).

The change in terminology to career management skills reflects differences between the skills and competencies needed by workers in the industrial era and those required by workers in the globalised world of work of the 21st century (McMahon, Patton, & Tatham, 2003). While technical and job-specific skills have sufficed in the past and indeed are still essential, the worker of the future will need “‘meta-competencies’ such as learning skills, life management skills and communication skills that are not occupation specific and are transferable across all facets of life and work” (McMahon et al., 2003, p. 3).

Most governments and organisations involved in career development have developed summaries of employability skills or core skills, generally referred to as abilities or competencies necessary for competitive engagement in a changing world of work. More recently, research has identified skills necessary for the new work order (Foundation for Young Australians, 2015) and the importance of soft skills in the workplace (Deloitte, 2017). In relation to the constructs being discussed in this chapter, comparable relevant skills include ability to deal with pressure, and flexibility and adaptability (i.e., adapt to changing situations and environments). These are described variously across the many sources of this literature, however each one refers to the importance of adaptability and resilience.

The importance of learning in children’s career development has been an ongoing focus of the work of Watson and McMahon (2007) and Crause, Watson, and McMahon (2017). These authors emphasise the value of unintentional learning in young children (for, example observing work contexts and workplace behaviour) but also are adamant that a greater attention needs to be placed on intentional career development learning in key context in which children develop. The next section of this chapter will review the work on intentional career development learning.

Facilitating the Relational Career Development Process—Interventions in Relevant Contexts

Drawing from the human exploration literature, Patton and Porfeli (2007) suggest that children are capable of specific exploration at an earlier age than is traditionally presumed in the career exploration literature, noting that this may be explained by a limited exposure to the work environment often imposed unintentionally by the family and school. Patton and Porfeli (2007) emphasise the age specific

appropriateness in relation to the development of career constructs in young children, and the need to develop intentional opportunities to facilitate this career exploration. In addition, a review of learning theories by Crause, Watson, and McMahon (2017) found that career development learning is appropriate for children from a young age. Based on theories of children's career development learning, Magnuson and Starr (2000) suggested a number of strategies appropriate for career interventions with elementary school children, including developing activities to encourage curiosity; scaffolding learning onto children's existing experience and knowledge; and developing social understanding in terms of self-awareness and awareness of others. Similarly, research with subject matter experts reported by Lapan et al. (2017) identified five Education and Career Navigation domain constructs for grades K-5 transitions—personal attributes, expectations, self-efficacy, exploration and awareness, pointing out what learners should know and be able to do at each developmental transition. However these authors commented that despite the development of curriculum interventions, career development learning needs of elementary school children remain insufficiently addressed, a conclusion drawn by researchers and practitioners for more than two decades (McMahon & Patton, 1994; Murrow-Taylor, Foltz, Ellis, & Culbertson, 1999; Porfeli & Lee, 2012).

A developmental systems approach to career development interventions would suggest a focus on the key relational systems relevant to children, also referred to (see earlier in this chapter) as contextual developmental assets. For young children, these systems/assets are primarily the family and the pre-primary, primary, and secondary school. As such, it is important to advocate for intentional school and family related interventions, which help children, manage these critical developmental constructs in the early school years. In keeping with systems theory, a number of external systems are appropriately involved in the development of these interventions. These include governments and policy developers, schools and education departments, families and parents, and other relevant community members. Each of these will be reviewed.

Internationally, government policy has supported a comprehensive and coordinated approach to enhance career service provision, which targets a range of people involved in career development, including parents and the community as well as formal institutional providers. It is this national strategic coordination of career guidance services, including all relevant stakeholders, which is emphasised in the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2004) review of career development provision as an important strategy for all countries to adopt. These policies advocated for provision of lifelong career development learning opportunities from childhood to adulthood, and encouraged the development of formal curricula in many countries. These include the Canadian Blueprint (Hache, Redekopp, & Jarvis, 2000), the Australian Blueprint for Career Development (MCEECDYA, 2010), and the Life Education Curriculum in South Africa (Department of Education, 2002).

School authorities have worked to develop career education programs for students of all ages, led by the work of Gysbers and Henderson (1997, 2006) and Hoyt (2005). However, in some jurisdictions, this work was limited to students at key

transition points, for example transition from school (Patton, 2005). While many writers have advocated for the intentional intervention in the career development learning of children and adolescents through school based curriculum interventions (Gysbers & Henderson, 1997, 2006; McMahon et al., 2003; Patton, 2001), in many cases the reality was short term add-on activity at the periphery of the school curriculum (Patton, 2005). Despite these shortcomings, strong examples of effective programs for early childhood settings exist, including McMahon and Carroll's (1999a, b) career education program in a K-12 setting, Proctor's (2005) career education program integrated across the curriculum of a primary school, and a career exploration program for students in grades 4–6 developed by Liu and McMahon (2015). Welde, Bernes, Gunn, and Ross (2016) described the impact of 25 career projects developed for elementary students, noting their positive impact in their career exploration. Crause et al. (2017) emphasised that career development learning activities for children need to include exploration, curiosity and opportunities for career developmental tasks to be achieved.

While school curriculum based programs are important to provide career interventions for all young people, other useful interventions include individual and group career counselling, technology directed career programs, community/career partnerships (Morrow-Taylor et al., 1999) and parent facilitated interventions. Group strategies allow a wide range of possibilities and facilitate opportunities for children to engage in career exploration together. An increasing set of materials is available to assist practitioners to develop activities for individual and group sessions with all age groups (e.g., Bassot, Barnes, & Chant, 2014; McMahon & Patton, 2015).

Constructivist approaches to career engagement provide effective process strategies for children to engage in career exploration. An extensive overview of constructivist approaches has been presented in McMahon and Patton (2006) and McMahon (2017). These approaches have been shown to be useful entry strategies to discuss a wide range of relevant influences on career thinking. For example, the My System of Career Influences (MSCI; McMahon, Patton, & Watson, 2005) is a constructivist-based tool, which has been designed to assist children to explore a wide array of systems influences in individual or group situations.

Digital technologies (including mobile communication devices) can be used to encourage children to engage in the career exploration process (OECD, 2004; Watts, 2002). Processes involve integration between information and communication technologies, curriculum, and individual and group work. Many authors note that digital technology is a big part of children's lives (Edwards, 2013; Palaiologou, 2016; Waller, 2011), noting that from birth, digital technology is the vehicle for learning about a complex range of cultural, social and literacy practices (Waller, 2011). These authors assert the need for all areas of early years' education to integrate digital technology with curriculum and pedagogy. In addition, it is important to note that inclusion of information and communication technologies alone is not sufficient. The practitioner needs to be aware of the unique needs of individuals in accessing information sourced from the internet, and in particular, the

possession of skills to effectively evaluate and discriminate between sources of information.

Parental involvement remains a key predictor of a child's school achievement (Levine & Sutherland, 2013), and family is a key context in children's career development (Liu & McMahon, 2017; Liu, McMahon, & Watson, 2015). With a view to extending parent and community engagement in both unintentional and intentional career interventions (from K through to secondary school), the Australian Government developed an on line package of career materials, *Awareness of Career Development* (Australian Government, 2005). These materials were designed specifically for people such as parents, relatives, and youth workers. Tangen (2015) described a workshop to assist parents in understanding familial influences on children's career development. However, a review conducted by the Career Industry Council of Australia in 2012 confirmed that the pursuit of parental engagement strategies throughout Australia with regard to career development remains undeveloped.

Despite the growing literature about forms of intentional career intervention for young children, a number of issues remain. These include gaps between career interventions at elementary school level and research, which should inform these interventions (Porfeli, Hartung, & Vondracek, 2008). Persistent views held by parents and school personnel that career interventions should be focused on school and work transitions (Porfeli & Lee, 2012), and ongoing criticisms about an evidence base supporting the effectiveness of career development programs generally, and especially those with elementary school children (Crause et al., 2017). Levine and Sutherland (2013) reported that parents often transmit their own career experiences rather than encourage broad exploration with their children. These authors asserted the need to increase the career development exploration capacities of parents.

Conclusion

While there is an extensive literature exploring the three key constructs in this chapter, it is evident that there is much more work to be done to develop their usefulness for children in the early school years.

Although much of the development of these constructs is undertaken through unintentional activities, this chapter has argued that more needs to be done through intentional interventions within relevant systems of children, such as play groups, families and schools. "Children's ... career-related attitudes and behaviour undergo a range of changes as a result of the epigenetic unfolding of the child's capabilities and learning through self-chosen and socially assigned vocational, educational, and leisure activities. This process of change is guided and mediated by the context of significant relationships and social conditions, such as societal norms, economy, and technological change, which set developmental career tasks and provide resources for accomplishing them" (Skorikov & Patton, 2007b, p. 326).

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Chapter 14

Using the Dialogical Concept of the “Architecture of Life Space” in Facilitating Career Adaptability, Resilience and Coping with Transitions

Violetta Drabik-Podgórna

Abstract In post-modern reality, it is imperative to analyse life in its entire complexity. In this chapter, a holistic perspective is proposed to grasp the multi-dimensionality of life in terms of a spatial structure with a specific dynamics of its own. This life space is increasingly often recognised and examined by scholars; it is also targeted by helping interventions of career counselling. Because self-construction takes place in interpersonal relationships, dialogue becomes a key factor in counselling, where it designates a mindset, a principle and an intervention method. The author outlines the dialogic concept of counselling as participatory architecture of life space and argues that this counselling model fosters such competences as adaptability, resilience and coping with transitions.

Keywords Counselling · Life design · Dialogicity · Architecture of life space

Self-creation as a Task in Liquid Modernity

The contemporary world, described by scholars as ambiguously opaque, liquid and chaotic, lacks clear signposts for life, univocal rules and universally endorsed principles. The overwhelming uncertainty, unpredictability, plurality of beliefs, vagueness of life norms-and-values which should guide people’s lives, all aggravate the existential problems that refuse to be solved even by recourse to the state-of-the-art technologies. Deprived of guidelines and plunged into the world of multiplying options, people feel abandoned to drift in haphazard directions. At the same time, they are doomed to constantly search for their life paths and place under the sun.

To identify their locatedness and identity, people must first answer the question “Who am I?” Anthony Giddens insists that “we are, not what we are, but what we

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make of ourselves” (1991, p. 75), and this means that the human is not a ready-made product, but rather a certain potential that can and should be actualised and realised. Delsol (2006) also believes that the subject¹ enters into the world only as a promise in which what the person expects forms only a part of his/her being if he/she in fact actualises himself/herself in what he/she does (Delsol, 2006). Identity, thus, is not a given. Instead, it requires intentional action, which means that the human must create his/her own Self. The contemporary world, on the one hand, facilitates this self-creation by offering a range of equally valid identities and generating technical opportunities of self-fashioning (diets, training regimes, cosmetic surgeries, etc.), which in turn enhances the perceived authorship of action and the sense of being one’s own product (Jacyno, 2007, pp. 182–183). On the other hand, however, the same world withholds any guidelines but requires, at the same, time autonomous and mature choice- and decision-making.

In liquid modernity, the “Self” comes to be viewed as a reflexive project (Giddens, 1991, p. 75). The essence of self-construction, and consequently of reality-construction, lies in discovering, making sense of, attributing meaning to, interpreting and understanding life events. In a world characterised by permanent change, biographical continuity (in which the past, the present and the future are integrated) tends to be interrupted repeatedly while “the life course is seen as a series of ‘passages’” (Giddens, 1991, p. 79). Proliferating transitions disrupt lives, enforce ongoing modification of life plans and projects and necessitate alertness to changing contexts, expectations and events. People are confronted with contradictory expectations—of flexible adaptability to change and adamant perseverance in the face of adversity—which produce a state of permanent agitation. To amalgamate life episodes into a coherently meaningful whole and to meet multiple unrelated requirements poses a daunting challenge. Hence, individuals keep building and re-building their lives hectically and incessantly (Although the word “construction” and derivations thereof are commonly used, too, I am inclined to use the word “building” here. One reason for it is that, though constructing/construction may indeed be a more customary phrase, “building” is also widely used in such contexts. Secondly, “building” corresponds satisfactorily with the architecture framework used throughout the article both metaphorically and literally. In its literal sense, “building” more emphatically conveys the sense of effort than construction does. Thirdly, in this particular sentence, building makes more logical sense since

¹While I am aware that the word “subject” is highly contested across disciplines, I do not agree that it uniformly carries negative connotations. In a number of philosophical frameworks, it is a cornerstone, a fundamental term used either purely neutrally or even with clearly positive overtones to refer to a human being that has achieved the position of self-awareness, subjectivity and agency. Delsol uses it repeatedly as one of the most essential human designations. I will not be using it elsewhere in the text to avoid any controversy, but at this point I believe it merits being retained as it is very specific to Delsol’s philosophy. Also, while I do understand that there is a widespread standard of using the plural form “people” instead of the singular “person,” I wish to give a precise account of Delsol’s thought with all its distinct terminology as well as to keep my stance of personalism, where the term “the person” is invested with value, meaning and dignity and denotes something else than “one specimen from among people” or “an individual.”

construction implies certain regularity and design while what I seek to stress here is the haphazard nature of the enterprise).

Construction of the “Self” is productively aided by helping professionals—therapists, teachers, coaches, educators and counsellors. In response to the growing sense of confusion and the exacerbating experience of existential discontinuity, the demand for counselling services increases. These services can no longer be provided in the manner in which they were provided a dozen or so years ago, but call for new approaches (Maree, 2013). The directive model (telling people what to do) recedes, giving room to a non-directive model of assisting and following the client or the dialogical model of co-construction of the existential space. In this chapter, I present a dialogical concept of the architecture of life space idea, which aims to facilitate help-provision in terms of self-construction, -deconstruction and -reconstruction and constitutes a viable model of contemporary lifelong counselling. I purposefully rely on spatial metaphors not so much to communicate something about space as such as to convey the complexity and multidimensionality of human existence through spatial categories (Piętkowa, 1991, p. 189).

Selected Concepts of Life as Space

Life space is a key category in my argument. This concept was first used in the context of career counselling by Super (1963), who realised that human life has not only a “length” but also a “breadth.” He rendered this idea in his celebrated life-career rainbow, in which he inscribed both the consecutive stages in the individual’s development (growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline) and the roles the individual usually assumes in life: child, student, leisurite, citizen, worker, parent, etc. The roles are not ascribed to particular ages. Still, in each life-stage, the individual may attach different weight and attribute different meanings to each of the roles.

The individual develops not only in a linear way along the life-course but also in a synchronic way, that is through the concurrent and co-existing roles that can complement and interpenetrate each other. One of them, as a rule, occupies a central position and forms a core around which the individual’s identity is constituted. This role organises the functioning of the remaining ones, which take up peripheral positions. The central place is often awarded to work and career development, even though sometimes civic activity or parental engagement are given this special position. The roles can also compete with each other, with one of them possibly dominating or, even, excluding the other ones, which results in a one-sided life. The organisation of roles performed by the individual at a given moment of his/her life constitutes an idiosyncratic life space or life structure. The shape of this space is by no means fixed as it has its own dynamics resulting from a confluence of various dimensions and resources. As Guichard and Huteau (2005) put it: “The life cycle involves transitions in which the prior balance among particular roles is subject to change” (Guichard & Huteau, 2005, p. 167). Negotiating these transitions

successfully shapes the self-image and may even produce entire constellations of self-images (Guichard & Huteau, 2005, p. 171). Each of these self-concepts is “generally the picture of the self in some role, some situation, in a position, performing some set of functions, or in some web of relationships” (Super, 1963, p. 18).

Another concept in which human life is envisioned in spatial terms has been put forward by Bronfenbrenner (1979). Exploring the ecology of human development, Bronfenbrenner observed that humans function simultaneously in a system of various settings and social interactions. The context of human functioning is, thus, multi-layered and formed by five major systems: the micro-, meso-, exo-, macro- and chronosystem. Microsystems are systems in which the individual directly participates in interactions. Mesosystems are ensembles of “interrelations among two or more settings in which the developing person actively participates” (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p. 25). The individual engages in active pursuits in several settings at the same time, thereby potentially taking up different positions in them. The exosystem is made up of “one or more settings that do not involve the developing person as an active participant, but in which events occur that affect, or are affected by, what happens in the setting containing the developing person” (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p. 25). The exosystem consists of economic, political, educational systems, etc. The micro-, meso- and exosystems add up to the macrosystem. On the one hand, the macrosystem encompasses economic, social and technical contexts, on which the availability of some vocational options depends. On the other, it is comprised of the “ideological framework” of values and beliefs which perpetuate cultures and societies. The macrosystem provides the most extensive and comprehensive context of human existence as it includes the totality of cultural settings—religions, ideologies, language, shared norms and collective representations of the world. Still another layer is to be found in the chronosystem, which encompasses both the objectively measurable time and the subjectively lived time. The systems make up a concentric structure in which relationships form a mutually interpenetrating and interlocking grid (Guichard & Huteau, 2005, p. 182).

Guichard (2014) also seeks to grasp and convey the space of human existence. He believes that identity is a dynamic, multiplanar, spatial construction built of *subjective identity forms* (SIF) (Guichard, 2010). The multiplicity of these forms, however, does not rule out a sense of being the self-same person. Subjective identity forms designate the entirety of ways of being-in-the-world, acting and interacting, related to self-concepts prevalent in a given context; they are dealings and relations with objects, with oneself and with other people (Guichard, 2010). The individual creates the self as an open system, receptive to the changing social contexts, through both internal dialogues and dialogues with the environment. Particular subjective identity forms are anchored in the past but, persisting in the present in one form or another, they can as such affect the individual’s current functioning. SIF’s are also capable of future anticipations (representations of and responses to social expectations as to one’s positions and roles). Various narrative SELVES are interconnected and make up a dynamic structure (Guichard, 2014). The system of subjective identity forms is bound to change in time, whereby what

Guichard (2014) has referred to as “life space” is re-organised as one of the forms may be given precedence and centrality while the other ones are displaced to less prominent, or even marginal positions.

Piorunek (2009), too, emphasises the multidimensionality of human life. She asserted that “Lived and constructed in particular social conditions,” individual biographies “emerge in people’s dynamic relationships with the outer world, (...) at the intersection of objective conditions of social life and subjective perceptions, where the individual’s inner and outer worlds meet. A biography is comprehended as an episode within society’s objective history” (Piorunek, 2009, p. 11). This means that a biography must not be analysed in isolation from the context/s in which it unfolds. On the contrary; understanding how a biography works is only possible if its multiple connections with the world are discerned and grasped. Piorunek continues: “Human life can be viewed as an objective sequence of events and as subjective experiences of these events” (Piorunek, 2009, p. 11). Having both an objective dimension and a subjective one, a biography can be objectively reported and personally experienced and interpreted. It can be considered in terms of a chain or space of events, but it can also be explored through what disturbs and ruptures this sequentially and disorganises this space (transitions), compelling individuals to face and deal with new situations and challenges—conditions that are objectively present and subjectively felt and experienced.

People working in the helping professions are increasingly inclined to acknowledge that humans are embedded in multiple contexts and function in several configurations, interdependences and relational networks. Consequently, to fully comprehend the individual’s life, one must examine his/her multidimensional rootedness and actions in different settings; examine how his/her position and involvement in various systems change and how he/she tries to cope with frequently disparate expectations and demands; look into the meanings he/she affords to particular roles and into frameworks he/she relies on to organise them; and explore his/her experiences and perceptions. In other words, one must study the individual’s life in the horizon of its totality. Such a horizon can best be discerned when life is envisaged as an architectonic construction.

Counselling as the Architecture of Life Space

What Giddens has said about therapy can be legitimately applied to counselling: it is not “‘done to’ to a person or ‘happens’ to them; it is an experience which involves the individual in systematic reflection about the course of her or his life’s development” (Giddens, 1991, p. 71). The concepts of life space recounted above broaden our view of the contemporary human condition, emphatically directing us beyond the linear. As already stated, current life trajectories are ripped by manifold transitions, have several turning points and resemble chaos rather than an ordered progression. What is crucial to my argument here, however, is less seeing change as unfolding along life course and more tracing it in its multidimensional space (Drabik-Podgórna, 2010, p. 100–101).

In the realities of post-modernity, self-construction and life-construction are fundamental tasks that should be regarded as artistic creations. Their outcome is supposed to be a complete “structure” or construction. To facilitate this construction, deliberate and purposive self-transformation strategies are needed to satisfy particular stylistic demands and accomplish particular aesthetic values (Foucault, 1990). Conceptualisations of life in terms of creating, designing, constructing, building, forming or composing its complex structure clearly rely on viewing life as spatial. If, as Bruno Zevi insists, “architecture is an art of shaping space” (Zevi & Barry, 1993, p. 32), counselling, I believe, can become an art of shaping life spaces. In this way, counselling—support in constructing life as a multidimensional composition—amounts to architecture in the form of the shaping of life spaces.

Theoretical underpinnings for such conceptualisations can be provided by the constructivist paradigm, which has already been usefully channelled into career counselling through *life designing counselling* (Savickas, 2012, pp. 13–19). A meta-theory, constructivism presupposes that both individual knowledge and individual identity are products of cognitive and social processes that unfold in interactions between groups and individuals as they give meanings to reality and co-construct them in social, historical and cultural contexts (Savickas et al., 2009, p. 244). The individual is viewed as an agent, a designer and a constructor of his/her own life rather than as a passive executor of ready-made life scripts devised and supplied by social engineers. Identity formation is perceived as a lifelong, holistic, non-linear and dynamic process comprised of manifold realities and role models. Life-designing counselling requires reflection on the self and the environment and a specific capacity to imagine possible selves (Duarte, 2014, pp. 214–215). Taking into account the life space model, Mark L. Savickas—like Super—underscores that the individual constructs his/her identity by engaging in various activities, with vocational career being just one of them. For this reason “the new paradigm for counseling must produce specific knowledge and skills to analyze and cope with ecological contexts, complex dynamics, non-linear causalities, multiple subjective realities and dynamical modeling” (Savickas et al., 2009, p. 242).

The notion of “Architecture of life space” corresponds positively with the principles and implied boundaries elaborated on above. It relates to the notion of life being conceived holistically (in other words, life is lived in many different ways and in various contexts, which include, but are not restricted to, the physical context). When I think of life space, I think of the human as reflexively constructing his/her identity (Guichard, 2010, 2014; Savickas et al., 2009, 2011) and actively participating in multiple systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) through enactment of numerous roles (Super, 1963) which represent the objective and subjective dimensions of his/her biography (Piorunek, 2009).

Dictionary definitions of architecture describe it as the science and art of constructing and shaping buildings (Tokarski, 1971, p. 45). In a broader sense, architecture is “an art and a skill of shaping and organising space in tangible forms intended to meet the material and spiritual needs of humans; it is also a reflection of the social and economic needs of humanity at a particular stage of its development and of the contemporaneous organisation of its life forms” (Encyklopedia

Powszechna, 1973, p. 124). Paraphrasing this definition, we could say that “architecture of life space” is an art and the skill of shaping and organising an individual’s life space so as to foster his/her harmonious development and enable him/her to reconcile his/her needs and expectations with the expectations that others have of him/her.

The links between psychological life spaces and architectural designs are highlighted by Bańka. In his work, he focuses on environmental psychology and analyses the ways in which the psychological order is reflected in architecture in the strict sense of the term and the ways in which architecture affects human functioning. He explores the dynamics of relations between humans (their minds, emotions and behaviours) and the physical arrangement of space. Bańka explains: “Mental order as a patterned set of events in which innumerable human mental processes that unfold across human life span (life’s length and width) intersect is a structure that knows only a dynamic balance. It means that mental order, as well as its emanation in architecture, is never an equilibrium given once and for all, but one that emerges, lingers on, disintegrates and resurfaces anew” (Bańka, 1997, p. 6).

Architecture embodies a building’s compositional arrangement; the totality of the work produced in the process of creation; a human construct in space; and designates the eventual outcome of an architect’s labour (Encyklopedia Powszechna 1973, p. 124). Just as the final construction can consist of various “constituents,” life can be a composition of several various experiences and roles lived and enacted in multiple dimensions. In this sense, architecture is a structure of life to be found in Super’s life-career rainbow or Guichard’s system of subjective identity forms.

Bańka observes also that “architecture is of dual—primary and secondary—nature. The former, primary one is determined by the spatio-physical order transmuted out of the mental order. The other, secondary one ensues from the mental order that emanates from the completed physical architectonic form and whose reality is not of the material world of form, unlike in the former case, but of the immaterial world of human behaviours. Briefly, architecture exists in the physical form of space and in the immaterial form of human behaviours in the mental life space” (Bańka 1997, p. 8). We could extend this line of thinking and conclude that architecture of life space is reflected in human behaviours, but arises in and out of the dynamic, concentric and overlapping structure of systems, contexts, roles, experiences, events, relations and entanglements.

Hitherto referred to as counsellors, life-design specialists can thus be called “architects of life space.” The help they provide can involve supporting the client in developing a design after they have identified the client’s needs, expectations and capacities. It can also involve supplying the “raw materials” (knowledge, experiences, values, etc.) for life space construction and monitoring the work in progress. Such an architect can act as an expert “on life” and decide how it should be “built.” Yet, this form of helping in fact constitutes *arbitrary design*, in which the client hardly participates. Consequently, the client is not a genuine life-designer but merely a worker at a huge construction site or, in extreme cases, just a tenant in the space he/she occupies. Such arrangement embodies the directive model of

counselling, in which the counsellor is seen as the all-knowing expert and given a privileged position in the helping process. This is the approach adopted by agencies responsible for career and unemployment management. The help they offer is tailored to suit policymakers' instructions rather than the clients' actual needs; it tends to be limited, circumscribed and, consequently, stigmatising and exclusionary. In such helping models, it is the counsellor-architect that determines what an individual's life space will look like.

Fortunately, though, other viable forms of helping others can be discerned. One of them draws on Henry Sanoff's concept of *participatory design*. In architecture, this model involves using the participants' knowledge and experiences in the designing process, which gives them a sense of influence on the designed space and breeds responsibility for the environment (Bańka, 2002, p. 268). This model seems to be better adjusted to the challenges of the contemporary world and dovetails with the *Life Designing* framework (Savickas et al., 2009, 2011). Without questioning the counsellor-architect's professional knowledge about life-design, it is assumed that the client also has equally valuable knowledge relevant to the helping process, though this knowledge differs from the professional counsellors'. In the spirit of participation and collaboration, clients not only articulate their opinions, obtain insight into the decision-making process or choose "materials" from which their lives are to be built, but crucially, are regarded and accepted as authentic partners in the enterprise. Constructivism regards clients as active agents (active creators) and, the process of counselling becomes co-construction. Constructivism's fundamental tenet is that the client is also an architect as he/she knows his/her life best, shapes it consciously and domesticates its space, imbuing it with structure, order and meaning.

Dialogical Counselling as Participatory Architecture of Life Space

Based on co-construction, participatory architecture assumes and prerequires co-responsibility and genuine engagement of both parties. Its organising principle is dialogicity, i.e. the logic of what happens between the two individuals involved in relation-building. Of course, each model of counselling presupposes a certain form of interaction, and dialogue is an fundamental method of counselling interventions (Duarte, 2017, p. 5). In proposing dialogical counselling, I do not simply play on words; instead, I seek to unveil the profound layers of what we colloquially refer to as dialogue and reveal its inherent potential. In my thinking on dialogue, I draw on the very fundamental source which is philosophy of dialogue, and I understand it as a specific human way of life (Drabik-Podgórna, 2009, pp. 110–11; 2016, pp. 51–52). In Martin Buber's notion, the human essence lies in relationality and orientation toward the Other, which does not mean in the least that the human being is reducible or reduced to social relationships only (Buber, 1992, 1993). Relations do

shape a person and his/her life space, but they do so mentally and existentially rather than ontologically (Kowalczyk 1995, pp. 50–51). In my view, dialogicity is an indelible human trait and a principle that organises interpersonal relations; at the same time, dialogicity is an attitude the counsellor adopts and a tool applied in counselling interventions.

Puchalska-Wasył (2006) emphasises dialogicity as an integral element of the human mind. In her *Nasze wewnętrzne dialogi* [*Our Internal Dialogues*], she observes that each individual is involved in an internal, imaginary dialogue (or dialogues), whereby he/she constitutes his/her dialogical SELF. She argues that because of its dialogical nature “the Self as a centre of intentionality can move in space from one position to another in response to situational and temporal changes. The positions that the Self takes tend to be in opposition to each other.” Puchalska-Wasył (2006) believes that the Self’s is able to articulate every single one of the positions. Consequently, “each position can enter into a dialogue with all the other positions. Having their own voices, the positions function like a novel’s characters that are involved in relations of discord and concord as well as in arguments in which questions are asked and answers are offered” (p. 16). She argues further that whenever one of these characters enters the theatre, so to speak, it assumes an own life and a distinct narrative pattern emerges. Puchalska-Wasył (2006) concludes that, seen from this perspective, “each ‘character’ can become the author of its own tale. Because characters, as different voices, exchange information on their self- and world-concepts, what is produced in effect is a narratively structured Self” (Puchalska-Wasył, 2006, p. 16). This elaboration makes it clear that the SELF model has also its spatial dimension.

Dialogical counselling creates an opportunity to bring personal histories to light and to construct life stories in which the individual gradually opens up, analysing and building his/her identity. Because the building of the world—of the social world and the self-world—always involves weaving “together coherent meanings” (Delsol, 2006, p. 58), the aim of counselling is to make sense of and attribute meaning to life events. It does not simply mean using conversation as a main working instrument that facilitates narrative production. Instead, it essentially alludes to a certain posture that the counsellor—“an architect of life”—assumes. In the dialogical framework, conversation designates any discourse of two (or more) people, but dialogue is predicated on relationship as its sine-qua-non condition: “Conversation is a starting point or raw material, a stuff from which relationships are moulded, a platform on and from which dialogue may commence and develop” (Baniak, 2004, p. 8). Seen thus, conversation is an indispensable origin, a beginning of the journey that the counsellor and the counselee are supposed to make together. Conversation is a foundation upon which dialogue is built as an essential *existential event*—a human interaction, development and co-creation of identity, defining one’s own subjectivity, advancement of reflexive life-style, making sense of entire existence or of biographical episodes only, etc. Jointly, these actions enhance personalisation, that is, the constitution of the human person. Thus, I define dialogical life space design counselling as interpersonal and existential dialogue founded upon a trusting relationship and promoting permanent construction,

deconstruction and reconstruction of one's own life space. It finds an ally in the views expressed by Guichard (2014, 2016), who usefully proposes a specific methodology of counselling intervention, which he calls life designing dialogues.

The posture of dialogical openness enables the counsellor to work on and through internal dialogues and to make/find sense of life. Telling their stories, clients order their reflections, re-interpret particular events and, sometimes, re-invent their narratives all over (Duarte, 2017, p. 7). Sometimes it is only when they focus attentively on an event that they are able to perceive its details and discriminate between truly relevant issues and less important ones. They construct new representations and get used to them; they design the space of their future and try to get used to it before they actually inhabit it (Hänninen, in Björkenheim & Karvinen-Niinikoski, 2008, p. 116).

Dialogical engagement helps one examine oneself from many different temporal and spatial perspectives against the horizon of the entire life. The fragmentation and episodic disarray of life are overcome through reflexive narrative, which provides a unified vantage point from which to view the past, the present and the future, thereby fusing the mosaic of life incidents into a uniform image. The concept proposed here is thus of a clearly narrative character (Maree, 2016a; Savickas, 2011). Events, experiences, thoughts, feelings, projects and plans are all interlinked by the meanings that the individual invests in them. Of course, they can mutate as the time passes and the contexts change, but the awareness of this interpretive changeability can only prompt one to search for new perspectives on life (Hänninen & Valkonen, in Björkenheim & Karvinen-Niinikoski, 2008, p. 123).

To promote such developments, the counsellor as an architect of life should possess competences such as empathetic listening, relation-building, following the client, relieving anxieties and worries, alleviating uncertainties, and change-, time-, career-, risk- and knowledge-management. The counsellor's responsibility is to offer opportunities of reflecting on life goals. Through inducing hope, positive attitudes, and, ultimately, action, the counsellor can enhance resilience—a skill that designates both resistance and flexibility, which helps cope with stress, regain life balance and face up to transitions, by bolstering flexibility adaptability and capacity of confronting the environment (Borucka & Ostaszewski, 2008; Szwajca, 2014). Another essential skill is fostering adaptive competences (Maree, 2016b) and self-regulation strategies, which is underpinned by the discovery of inner resources and boosting of the client's autonomy through encouraging experimentation and permitting mistakes.

Exemplifying the Notion of Life Space

Life space is an ineffaceable phenomenon, and its construction entails permanent efforts to create the best future possible. It involves demarcation of *exposed* (open) areas and (inaccessible) *enclaves of loneliness*. It can be planned in advance, but it can also happen spontaneously in response to the changes at hand. In my view, the ideal helping model in this respect is the dialogical, participatory architecture of life

space, which helps people to chart life spaces (i.e. produce its topographical map including key points/values), recognise life roles and identity forms, form corresponding anticipations/representations of the future and encourage clients-architects to engage staunchly in undertakings that promote goal achievement.

In my argument above, I have outlined a certain concept which, naturally, requires operationalization and guidelines for counselling practice. Counselling interventions are ample and can differ widely. If dialogues are to help the client become an architect of his/her life, they should be a site of transformative learning through the application of such techniques as prognostication, simulation, model-building and production of alternative action scenarios (Kargulowa, 1986, p. 28).

The “Wheel of Life” Technique

In conducting dialogues, one can usefully resort to techniques like, for example, the *wheel of life*, which is widely employed in life coaching. The wheel of life props the analysis of one’s own SELF and of the level of satisfaction from functioning in various settings (work and career, relationships, education, fitness and health, spirituality, financial wellbeing, leisure, personal development, etc.). As can be seen, the wheel of life covers physical, mental and spiritual aspects of human activities that make up the individual’s life space. It helps one realise where one’s priorities lie and what one’s essential values are. The graphic representation of the wheel of life delineates a unique map of the individual’s activity, charting the areas in which it is possible to make changes, to dismantle stiff structures and to re-cast significant life roles. Stimulating reflexive self-scrutiny, goal-setting and -accomplishment, it helps the individual find his/her place in the world. The wheel of life can be used repeatedly during counselling dialogues in order to track changes in the life space or compare the real SELF with the ideal SELF. In this process, participatory design enables the client to become an architect of his/her life.

Demonstrating the Spatial Metaphor: The “Life as a House” Exercise

The spatial metaphor can be used in life design also through the “Life as a House” exercise.² I use the exercise described below in my coursework with students, where we focus on the application of the constructivist perspective in life space

²The exercise I describe in this chapter is based on an exercise developed by Minta (2012) for group work with students. I have modified, expanded and specified it based on the notion of interpersonal dialogue for the use in the counsellor-client dyad. Cf. Minta (2012, p. 63).

architecture counselling. To practice counselling competences relevant to dialogical interventions, the students engage in role-playing, taking the roles of the counsellor and the client. The client's task is to envisage his/her life as a house, to design and construct it, using his/her resources—knowledge, skills, talents, personality traits, interests, passions, values, etc.—as “building materials.” The counsellor encourages the client to represent this vision graphically on paper. In the exercise, the students employ not only their imaginations but also drawing gear (paper, rulers, protractors, crayons, pencils, etc.). To illuminate the problem field and to inspire the client to look for new solutions, the counsellor asks open questions, such as: *What kind of house will it be? (high, low, a detached house, a block of flats, an office building, floors, rooms, etc.) What will it have for foundations? What will it be built of? Where will you build it? What surroundings will it have? Who will you build it with? How do you want to furnish it? What obstacles are you afraid will interfere with its construction? How can you prepare today for overcoming them? How will you celebrate consecutive construction stages? Which of your resources will help you achieve satisfaction? What will you be when you move in? What do you need to start designing? What will your first step be? When will you take it?* Thinking through and over the questions and answering them, the clients discover their capacities and verbalise their dreams, expectations and plans as well as their fears and concerns. They reflect on the necessary components they will really need to build such a house/life, look for motivations, plan indispensable actions, anticipate possible obstacles, search for strategies of overcoming barriers and make decisions about what to do first to make the vision of the future they are designing a reality. In other words, designing a house they design themselves and their place in the world. Such dialogues enhance resilience, prepare for possible future developments and help acquire coping skills in the face of transitions. Dialogical counselling aims not only to release individuals' potential but also to use the counselling situation to find and improve problem-solving strategies and measures.

Life Space Mapping

The dialogical perspective of SELF-design can also effectively draw on the method of *Life Space Mapping* (Peavy, 1997), which involves illustrating biographical events by means of drawings, symbols, human and animal figures, images and phenomena. The client produces a visual representation of his/her life, draws important episodes, situations, people, animals and objects, and uses symbols and words of crucial relevance to him/her. Expressive of the client's lived experiences, deciphered meanings, modified expectations and planned actions, these “biographical objects” serve as instruments in the process of reflexive life designing in reference to the past, the present and the future. Mapping and dialogue are concurrent and call for the involvement of both people engaged in the counselling relationship.

Conclusion

The aforementioned only comprises a very small sample of examples which, obviously, do not even remotely cover all the feasible applications of the concept depicted in the chapter. Moreover, we still need to devise and develop new methods and tools for dialogical help-provision (Pouyaud, 2016, pp. 191–192; Duarte, 2017, 5–6). Analysing the existential space facilitates looking at life in a broader context, juxtaposing various dimensions and discerning their interconnectedness. It also helps understand one's own inner coordinates as in dialogues not only needs are revealed but also values and goals, including those sought, those discarded and those never achieved. Dialogue is also capable of “broadening perspective, lifting one's eyes to the farther horizon” (Miller & Rollnick, 2013, p. 75). Promoting positive thinking, dialogical counselling supports the individual in performance of various roles, which involves both dedication and distancing, detection both of opportunities and of risks (Jacyno, 2007, p. 23). Delsol (2006) rhetorically but poignantly poses the following question in this regard: If identity is “forged through my undertakings and actions, how could I shrink from this risk?” (p. 119). Shunning risks, the human being cannot possibly become a true subject because, lingering in the sphere of non-sense, he/she forever remains only a spectator of his/her own existence (Delsol, 2006, p. 113). In conclusion, I contend that drawing on the life space perspective, dialogical counselling can enable individuals to craft many alternative scripts for the future, which serve to prepare people for numerous changes and transitions, for inevitable shifts of and across contexts. Notwithstanding that, what is absolutely crucial to the concept of the architecture of life space is the imperative assumption of the posture of dialogicity. The counsellor's dialogical being with the client has a transformative potency since “the human encounter carries so much persuasive power that it is capable of changing radically the individual's attitude to the world, re-shape his/her being-in-this-world and undermine the hierarchy of values upheld so far” (Tischner, 1980, p. 137).

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Chapter 15

Career Adaptability, Employability, and Career Resilience in Managing Transitions

Maria Eduarda Duarte, José Tomás da Silva and Maria Paula Paixão

Abstract School-to-work transitions, in the sense of being processes that take place over a period of time and which involve both personal meaning and social issues (e.g. contextual factors), are what mark the starting point of this chapter. This chapter is essentially divided into three blocks, although the three follow the same structure. The first block is shaped around career adaptability, offering an overview of the concept and its historical perspective. The second block deals with employability. The most common definitions of this construct are first presented, along with a brief historical contextualisation of its role in career studies, followed by a selective review of existing research into employability. The third and final block looks at resilience. By looking at the notion of a career as an action, rather than a structure, we characterise the concept of career resilience as pertaining to the overarching framework designed to understand the process of self-directed career management, particularly when viewed as one of the components of the multidimensional concept of career motivation. Conclusions draw this chapter to a close, summarising the most useful and important suggestions which have been presented.

Keywords Career adaptability · Career resilience · Employability · Transitions

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Introduction

In Western societies, it is often difficult to establish a line or a timeframe during which such transitions take place: school and training and a subsequent entry into the labour market is not a linear, or even a predictable, process. Work-based learning experiences in secondary education or in vocational education and training for young people, as well as adult education and validation of prior learning are examples of such phenomena. In such an unstable and changing context, concepts such as adaptability, employability and resilience take on significant importance in helping us deal with transitions, normative and non-normative, voluntary and, mainly, involuntary (Fouad & Bynner, 2008).

Focus on adaptability is given here to the definition tabled by Savickas (1997), however space is also given to career adaptability models/concepts. This block follows with a discussion on the utility of career adaptability in career guidance and career counselling, concluding with the proposal of the Career Adapt-Ability model for forging a link between the utilisation of instruments with guidance and counselling interventions.

After the presentation of employability definitions, a selection on measures applicable as part of this construct and their utility in career guidance and counselling is discussed.

The third part is about resilience. After the explanation of the concept, we will identify the concept's situational and personality sub-groupings, thereby taking into account selected views on (a) the career construction process as a result of continuous shifts in educational and working contexts and (b) the personal variables needed to healthily deal with both voluntary and involuntary transitions.

Adaptability

The Concept and Its Historical Perspective

The application of the vocational maturity construct in adults leads us to the concept of career adaptability, with this concept essentially being the definition of the attitude and information needed for us to quickly deal with changes in our working lives and working conditions. This idea of necessity is coined as part of the framework of "Career Pattern Study" (CPS, Jordaan & Heyde, 1979; Super & Bachrach, 1957; Super & Overstreet, 1960), which took the form of a longitudinal project looking to study processes of career development. The employment market is in a constant state of alteration, throwing down new and unpredictable hurdles for workers. However the majority of these hurdles are nothing to do with age, making it all the more important to build and develop another approach that takes into account the psychological factors involved in career development, without constantly resorting to the connotations of the term 'maturity'. It is from this backdrop

that the concept of career adaptability, “attitudes and information needed for readiness to cope with changing work and working conditions” (Super, Thompson & Lindeman, 1988, p. 5), emerges. In brief, the concept of adaptability, or adaptation process, emphasises an individual’s competencies and attitudes, and the origin of this emphasis is in the definition of the sub-stages of the growth phase (from approximately 4 to 13 years old), which includes four major developmentalist tasks: (1) worrying about the future (2) having control over one’s own life (3) having belief in a capacity to succeed and in the acquisition of work habits and (4) competent work attitudes (Super, Savickas & Super, 1996). The first four dimensions of career adaptability—concern, control, conviction and competence—were subsequently refined, with conviction being substituted for curiosity and competence for confidence (Savickas, 2005). From this concept we can trace the model of adaptability, encompassing five dimensions: two of which are attitudinal (planning and exploration), two cognitive (information and the taking of decisions) and finally one covering the conative dimension—reality orientation (Super, Thompson & Lindeman, 1988).

Savickas suggests that adaptability can be conceptualised by building on the use of developmentalist dimensions such as planning, exploration and decision. For the author, “career adaptability, whether in adolescents or in adults, involves playful attitudes, self and environmental exploration, and informed decision-making” (Savickas, 1997, p. 254). According to Savickas (2012), career construction theory characterises adaptation outcomes as being the result of adaptivity, adaptability and adapting. These notions denote a sequence ranging across adaptive readiness, adaptability responses, adapting responses and adaptation results. Despite being distinct constructs, a similar guiding theme can be found running through this entire sequence (Hirchi, Herrmann & Keller, 2015). The most important refinement to have taken place is the replacing of readiness with resources, allowing for a distinguishing of the individual’s willingness to face change. Career construction theory presents the resources available to adaptability as a combined construct (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), based on the assumption that the construct is formed through a combination of its indicators. This essentially means that attaining higher levels in the dimensions of planning, decision, exploration, cooperation and confidence permits a greater level of career adaptability, not the opposite. This then goes against the suggestion that the formula should be inverted, in which it would be greater career adaptability that allows for higher levels of planning... and so on. Adaptability, at least in the form of a combined construct, reflects an individual’s psychosocial resources for dealing with tasks, transitions and traumas related with occupational roles and this could alter social integration, in the sense that these resources reside at the intersection of the person and his/her surroundings/environment (for more details see Chap. 1, this book).

The concept of adaptability is also used as an explanatory instrument for the way in which the individual adjusts and goes about managing career transitions (Del Corso, Rehfuß, & Galvin, 2011). Other authors refer to adaptability as a form of performance construct (Pulakos, Arad, et al., 2000), or individual adaptability as being a composite of KSAOs—knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics

(Ployhart & Bliese, 2006). In summary from the perspective of career construction theory, adaptability resources help to form the strategies that individuals use to direct their adaptive behaviours. Career adaptability resources are grouped into four dimensions, suggesting that someone *concerned* about the future of his/her work life, who sets out to take *control* of his/her own life, who is *curious* about him/herself and the surrounding environment and who has a *sense of faith* in the future is better prepared to handle transitions, to cope with current or imminent tasks or changes and to deal with personal traumas or vocational development tasks that may to some degree alter their social integration.

The Utility of Career Adaptability in Career Guidance and Career Counselling

Adaptability plays a key role in the world of career guidance and career counselling. The articulation of adaptability dimensions with issues related to school-to-work transitions leads to the need to better understand the way in which these same dimensions interrelate and influence attitudes and behaviours for dealing with transitions. Hypothetically speaking, we could affirm that individuals who show greater concern/care for career planning and greater control over decision making make more use of strategies focused on transitions. For example, Koen, Klehe, Van Vianen et al. (2010) consider that behaviours indicative of curiosity and confidence are more associated with exploratory strategies, thereby facilitating transitions. Assisting the individual in situations of transition can represent a synonym not only for the usefulness of an understanding of which career adaptabilities constitute areas which should be/could be taken advantage of, but also for what the role of the mediator of attitudes, beliefs and competencies is. A study undertaken by Duffy (2010) with 1st year university students evidenced the strong relationship between a feeling of control and adaptability, meaning that the students who show a greater sense of personal control could be better prepared for easily adjusting to the world of work. However, we must highlight that adaptability has to be seen as a complex being, formed of many shapes and sizes, which must be contextualised. Indeed, the context may have an effect on career adaptability and an impact on general life satisfaction (Santilli, Marcionetty, Rochat, Rossier & Nota, 2017).

The tendency to discuss adaptability as a category (or a discipline) is an obstacle of trying to understand what the *other* is saying, or what past experience leads him/her to say such a thing. This disrespects the goals of guidance and counseling itself, which is to support intervention and to promote change.

Adaptability dimensions must support and provide knowledge and can support decision-making processes and investment in learning. The benefit which can be taken not only for the individual, but also for society in general, is immense. When well documented and communicated, adaptability outcomes can be, on the whole, helpful for the future implementation of decision-making procedures. According to

Bocciardi, Caputo, Fregonese, Langher & Sartori (2017) also work self efficacy play an important role in predicting career adaptability. Additionally, adaptability can stimulate discussions about the implementation of new practices that go far beyond the current target problem. They can take the form of an evidence-based platform to launch new improvements for boosting learning, thereby broadens opportunities and enhancing equity.

Traditionally, the “core business” of career guidance and career counselling was in the matching of individuals and work. However, in what is a world full of uncertainties, theory and interventions are changing, transforming a relationship of help into a relationship of utility, which can ensure the study of understanding of the individual narrative and write this knowledge into the law of the universe in a way that gives consistency throughout the development of counselling. In this way, guidance and counselling are evermore geared for the future, placing the focus on the resources available to each individual, inclusive of the resources conceptualised in the adaptability approach.

The utility of this approach can be analysed through several different perspectives, one of which is adaptability as an assessment tool considering the operationalisation of the psychological construct for the study of individual differences. In general, the notion of assessment refers to the formal and systematic scrutiny of a planned intervention, meaning that testing and assessment are not actually synonyms. Assessment may of course involve testing, including interviews, projects, analysis associated with the implementation of new ways of working or studying and other observation techniques. From this perspective, we can affirm that assessment is focused on a careful and systematic examination of evoked mental processes and products resulting from a particular situation (this can include the administration of a single or a variety of assessment methods). Different practices can be used at the level of a single individual and the counsellor can adopt a broader scope such as, for example, the addressing of questions found in cross-cultural studies (Duarte, 2005).

Another perspective considers adaptability as viewed from a cultural standpoint, integrating adaptability within the framework of a specific culture (or sub-culture). To frame this perspective, there is one main issue, which inevitably must be considered: the conceptual definition of what the counsellor intends to address and the context of its operationalization. The undertone of this issue is essentially ecological relatedness (Duarte, 2005) mixed with qualitative and oriented procedures, which could even come to enlighten specific contextual and acculturated career variables that affect experience, reveal the idiosyncratic nature of personal experiences and show the extent to which the individual performs an active life-long role in the life process.

The utility of career adaptability tools is not to designate a *quantitative* function (for example, to consider the number of existing dimensions), but rather an function of a *qualitative* nature, in the sense that the objective is to find the general set of relationships which define a form of individual singularity in which nothing can be forgotten or ignored. From a social and cultural point of view, the individual is the result of the interaction of multiple and diverse factors which he/she is surrounded

by and which interact relative to the cultural and social production that must be taken into account (Duarte & Cardoso, 2015).

Today, social, economic and political changes are occurring across the globe and problems, which affect large swathes of the population—unemployment, the quality of living standards and the transition from school to work—have contributed to the consolidation of new perspectives in the field of guidance, as well as in the field of counselling (Savickas, Nota, Rossier, et al., 2009). Indeed, guidance in a broader sense, as well as counselling in particular, partners with life in that it can help individuals to become consciously aware of their own careers, lifestyle and options and can help to attribute a greater sense of importance to a person's life (Duarte, 2009, 2015) (For more information on the difference of the nature of guidance and counselling, see Savickas & Lent, 1994; Savickas & Walsh, 1996).

The Career Adapt-Abilities Scale and Its Utilization in Guidance and Counselling Interventions

“Take a test, and they tell you what you should do” is a well-known colloquial expression. For many people, career assessment and testing are closely associated. This link, although controversial, comes from the classic approach of using tests to collect information suitable for matching individuals and jobs.

Nowadays, the concept of assessment is more comprehensive, but is viewed as just one of a variety of sources of information. Prediger and Swaney (1995) suggest that practitioners should use test scores as one of these sources of information to enhance self-awareness of an individual's array of options, while allowing him/her to use these scores as a stimulus for further exploration.

The purpose of a comprehensive approach to assessment in terms of the strengths and weakness of the individual or populations has methodological implications on various levels, namely: studies design, research settings, features/traits sampling and data collection (Duarte & Rossier, 2008).

These concepts carry with them practical implications for researchers who are developing psychological instruments. A good example is the development and construction of the *Career Adapt-Abilities Scale Inventory* (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). At its earlier stages, the *Inventory* consisted of a research project set up through the collaboration of an international team and brought together researchers from 18 different countries spread across several continents (for more details, see Leong & Ott-Holland, 2014; Leong & Walsh, 2012). The team “produced the framework... as readiness, resources, responses and results. They settled on the career construction model of adaptability resources to identify and linguistically define what would be called “adapt-abilities”. Moreover, they decided, “to jointly construct a measure of career-adaptabilities in the English language and then translate it as needed for use in their home countries” (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012, p.664). This project led to an internationally implemented instrument and a special

issue of *The Journal of Vocational Behaviour* (2012), publishing data from 13 different countries.

The promotion of adaptability in contexts of transitions can benefit intervention strategies sustained on the support of the building up of personal resources and attitudes for dealing with these transitions. These resources and attitudes are extremely important for learning how to deal with transitions. Adaptability provides for the utilisation of mixed strategies, while considering the qualitative and quantitative angles of the analysis of the results obtained from the application of CAAS and facilitating the individual's search for meaning in his/her life and stories (Maree, 2010) which have been developed in the social, economic and political contexts in which he/she exists. The use of adaptability in guidance and counselling interventions could contribute to a better understanding of the most difficult, yet most banal, aspect of science: the decisively human meaning of the importance of individual difference, so often striped out by a framework of uniformity and the correlation that we call conformity.

Employability

The Concept and Historical Perspective

Noticeable changes to the trajectory followed by individual careers have taken place since the 1990s. During that period, it became clear that traditional paths (i.e. bureaucratic, linear and predictable careers) were in many cases being quickly substituted by more uncertain and flexible professional paths (Wijers & Meijers, 1996). Two new types of careers are emerging from this shift: "protean" careers and "boundaryless" careers. These new types of careers are mainly driven by people, rather than organizations offering employment. People who chose these kinds of careers tend to be guided by fundamental values such as freedom and personal development and, according to Hall (2004), see also (Hall & Mirvis, 1996), demonstrate a high level of mobility (intra and inter-organisational). For these individuals, the measurement of career success (e.g., Hall & Chandler, 2005) is built subjectively (psychological success), with the benchmark attitudes for career success being satisfaction in work and professional commitment (reputation).

For Forrier and Sels (2003), the idea of "employability for life" rather than a "job for life" is often viewed as an antidote for growing insecurity in the employment market. In the context of this new perspective of the world of work, employment, careers and the notion of employability have inevitably take on an inescapable notoriety in the political, organisational and scientific discourse of the last few decades (e.g., Arnold & Jackson, 1997; Collins & Watts, 1996). In today's world, staying 're-employable' is a highly prized asset for any worker, particularly for the large group of individuals who make do with temporary or part-time work. The existence of a workforce with a high level of employability (highly flexible labour)

is also just as important for 21st century organisations and companies and is a strategy frequently applied in the struggle for survival and prosperity in the uncertain and shifting world in which we currently find ourselves. As Brown, Hesketh and Williams (2003) so appropriately affirm: “Employability is a notion that captures the economic and political times in which we live” (p. 107).

While this concept has only really been thrust into the spotlight over the last thirty years, authors have already extensively written on the topic (e.g., Forrier & Sels, 2003; Fugate, 2006; Harvey, 2001; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005; Thijssen, Van der Heidjen & Rocco, 2008; Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). Indeed, the first publications looking at the concept of employability date to the 1950s and 1960s and were heavily influenced by economic policy, most notably in relation to the push towards the objective of 100% employment rates.

Employability’s modern-day definition is highly linked with the type of psychological contract (e.g., De Cuyper, Van der Heijden & De Witte, 2011; Rousseau, 1995) in play between employers and employees and is characteristic of the new economy. This new form of contract places the emphasis of taking responsibility for the construction of careers squarely with the individual (Forrier & Sels, 2003), meaning that a career belongs more to the individual than to the organisation (Duarte, 2009). In this sense, keeping up a high level of employability throughout our working lives, namely by showing wisdom and common sense in managing our career, is in our economic interest. Likewise, it is also in the competitive interests of nations and, *pour cause*, of each nation’s business and industrial players, to ensure that a competent and flexible workforce is available (i.e., with a high level of employability).

It has been said before that there are as just as many theories of constructs as authors who write on the issue and the same can be applied to the concept of employability. As Forrier and Sels (2003) affirm: “Employability has become a broad term given a very wide interpretation” (p. 105). After undertaking an in-depth historic analysis and critical revision of the state of the art, Forrier and Sels (2003) define employability as “an individual’s chance of a job in the internal and/or external labour market” (p. 106). Through this definition, the authors on the one hand look to highlight the idea that the chance of getting a good job depends as much on an individual’s capacity (ability) as his/her drive (willingness), while on the other noting that the possibilities of such a job can only be effectively gauged when contextual factors are appropriately taken into consideration. In this sense, employability is not an exclusively individual characteristic, which can be based solely on the capacity and motivation of each individual. On the same topic, Thijssen et al. (2008) propose the following formula for a general definition of employability: “The possibility to survive in the internal or external labour market” (p. 167). In their view, this is a sort of catch-all definition (through its notably generic character) which allows for the incorporation of the majority of the current concepts of employability. Another definition frequently cited in the area of vocational behaviour is that of Fugate, Kinicki and Ashford (2004), who approach employability as being a psychosocial construct, focused around the person (person-centred) and being independent relative to the job itself. More specifically,

Fugate et al. (2004) comment that employability “represents a form of work specific (pro) active adaptability that consists of three dimensions—career identity, personal adaptability, and social and human capital” (p. 15). Considering then that employability is dislocated from the status of the individual relative to his/her job, we can affirm that a person can be employable, even when not he/she is not actually in employment.

This brief analysis of the concept of employability allows us to draw several conclusions. Firstly, it is evident that the concept has been in the limelight since the 1990s, thereby being examined from various different perspectives. For example, Thijssen et al. (2008) discuss three perspectives (societal, business and individual) which, in being centred on the concept of employment, have clear implications for the way in which the concept of employability is constructed. These perspectives were shown to be related with developments which took place during three recent periods (e.g., 1970s, 80s and 90s), moving the focus onto different issues (e.g., employability seen as the flexibility of society, business and/or workers) and championing different objectives (e.g., 100% employment, the efficient management of human resources and the individual opportunity of employment in the internal or external market). Secondly, it has been made clear that employability is a complex abstract and multidimensional entity, which integrates different facets (e.g., Fugate et al., 2004; Fournier & Sels, 2003; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005; Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2005). This variability in terms of reference frameworks does of course have direct implications on the investigation of employability and its practical applications.

The Utility of the Employability Concept in Career Studies and Interventions

Employability, as we have seen, is a concept, which is frequently cited in the literature of a variety of different disciplines (the Science of Organizations, Economics and Management, Education, Psychology). Yet for many, employability is little more than a buzzword, often nominated but poorly explained and understood. Increased interest in the concept of employability by both political decision-makers and scientists stems directly from the transformations fed by globalization, most notably a shift in the idea of “lifetime employment” in the same organization or institution towards a paradigm of “lifetime employability”. The focus of employability (the capability of being employed in a job) can also trace its roots to the tangible consequences for the adaptive capabilities of individuals, organizations and nations.

We must of course not overlook the fact that a significant volume of works identifiable in recently published literature continue, as was the case in the past, to investigate the antecedents and main consequences of employability across different levels of analysis. These studies, undertaken across different continents and with

different groups, incorporating distinct theory-based variables, are a testament to the vitality, reach and interest in the construct for a multitude of audiences. In the following paragraphs, we present some examples of studies carried out in the last five years on this topic.

The association of PE with the wellbeing of employees and of both factors with the success of organizations, controlling the effect felt by the respective type of psychological contract, was examined in a study by De Cuyper, Van der Heijden, and De Witte (2011), in a sample of 463 Belgian workers. In agreement with their hypothesis, the authors discovered associations in PE with satisfaction in life, self-evaluation of performance and turnover intention (negative). Contrary to what had been anticipated, PE was not related to job satisfaction.

Van Emmerik, Schreurs, de Cuyper, Jawahar, and Peeters (2011) examined the associations between job resources (i.e., feedback, autonomy and variety) with the type of motivation (intrinsic or extrinsic) and PE, in a study of 611 workers in a Dutch municipality. The authors discovered that only performance outcome goals set by employees proved to be important for the association between job resources and PE.

De Vos, Hauw, and Heijden (2011) undertook a survey study involving more than 550 workers in the Belgian financial sector, thereby looking to uncover the relationship between competency development, employability and career success. They found a positive association between the level of participation of workers in activities for the improvement of competencies, level of support received for participating in these activities and the level of PE.

Kang, Gold, and Kim (2012) examined the role of PE in moderating the relationship between experiences of job insecurity on the part of employees and behaviors related to work (discretionary extra-role and impression management behaviors, in a group of 207 supervisors from banking and financial institutions in the Republic of Korea). The results showed that the perception of job insecurity had an effect on behaviors related with work (negative in extra-role and positive in impression management behaviors) and that this effect is intensified in correlation with PE.

Lin (2015), using a sample of more than 500 banking sector workers in Taiwan, analyzed the potential mediating effect of learning-goal orientation in the relationship between protean career attitude and PE as both an internal and external component. Lin verified a favorable attitude with regards to protean careers and a statistically significant correlation with both aspects of employability. Protean talent individuals, proved to have a high level of external employability. Lin also noted that learning-goal orientation fully mediated the relationship between protean attitudes and internal employability. However, only a partial mediation was evident in the case of external employability.

Onyishi, Enwereuzor, Ituma, and Omena (2015) undertook a cross-sectional study of 254 Nigerian university students, both employed and unemployed, highlighting the mediating role of EP between core self-evaluations (CSEs) and job-search behavior (preparatory and active job-search). The authors discovered a positive association between CSEs and preparatory job-search behaviors. However,

the same could not be said of active job-search. The authors also proved that PE fully mediates the relationship of CSEs with preparatory job-search behaviors, but does not mediate the relationship with active job-search behavior.

Forrier, Verbruggen, and De Cuyper (2015) developed a non-recursive model in which they look to integrate three popular notions of employability (job transitions, movement capital, PE), linking them in a dynamic flux and defining employability as “an individual’s chance of a job in the internal and/or external labour market”. Through a two-wave study with a sample of more than 600 Belgian workers, Forrier et al. were able to prove that the three notions of employability form a kind of dynamic chain: job transitions influence movement capital and this in turn impacts on PE levels. Finally, PE triggers a new possibility of job transitions.

The above revision of employability studies focus on a new program that seeks to explain the mediator and/or moderator role that employability plays in the dynamic flux of processes which exist between relevant input and output variables (For another recently published example, in the direction we have just pointed out, see Creed, Hood, & Shi, 2017). Future research should keep up with this level of sophistication in order to better capture its unique and complex role.

Measuring Employability in Guidance and Counselling Interventions

Considering the enormous difficulties in defining what employability is (e.g. Harvey, 2001; Hillage & Pollard, 1998) and in accepting that we are dealing with a multidimensional complex (Forrier & Sels, 2003; Fugate et al., 2004; Heijde & Heijden, 2005; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007) which is expressed across distinct perspectives, (Thijssen et al., 2008), it comes as little surprise that the respective literature is also packed with different proposals for measuring the construct. Many of these different operationalisations are essentially homemade, however we can also reflect on some measurements which are psychometrically solid and which are increasingly cited in literature. Bearing in mind the focus on the individual, which the authors have adopted in this chapter, we have chosen to use the self-perceived employability scale (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007) as an illustrative example from the various possibilities available. The scale was initially developed and validated in a sample of workers employed in human resources roles, however a version has also been adapted for university students (Rothwell, Herbert, & Rothwell, 2008). Sixteen items were initially constructed, in a reflection of the crossing of the two main dimensions of employability (internal vs. external labour market and personal vs. occupational attributes). Responses are given in a five-point Likert-type scale with anchors from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). In attempting to determine the discriminative validity of these employability items in relation to two independent constructs, namely subjective career success and professional commitment, Rothwell and Arnold (2007) found out that only 11 of the items were of

sufficient discriminative value. To study the internal structure of self-employability scale, the 11 items were examined based on the idea that employability presents two components: internal employability (relating to the internal labour market) and external employability (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). This analysis demonstrated that employability items are indeed distributed over two components. The first of these reflects external employability and is composed of seven items (e.g., “I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere”), with loadings between 36–70 and explaining 27.4% of the total common variance. The second component, reflecting internal employability, integrates four items (e.g., “Even if there was downsizing in the organization I am confident that I would be retained”), with loadings of 53–81 and explaining the 22.8% total variance. The Cronbach alpha values stood at .79 and .72, for external and internal employability respectively. For the overall set of 11 items, internal consistency reliability was .83. Other analyses undertaken by the authors revealed that the scores presented good validity. In summary, the scale of 11 items showed a high internal consistency and there is additional evidence, which suggests that self-perceived overall employability is distinct, although related to the level of subjective career success and professional commitment of individuals. Moreover, the analyses demonstrated that we should show caution in considering self-perceived employability as a unitary construct. In addition and according to Rothwell and Arnold (2007), a two-factor solution “produced a fairly clear split between items reflecting internal (i.e. within-organization) and external employability” (p. 36). We can conclude then that the self-perceived employability scale could be legitimately used as a single scale or as two independent scales, depending on the goal of the particular investigation/application. Indeed and as stated by the authors, a contrasting of internal employability and external employability could be deemed appropriate in situations such as downsizing or in specialist organisations which are relatively isolated from wider labour markets. The scale could prove useful for such an undertaking in career interventions (as diagnostic tool), where it could be applied to clients who are looking for support in tackling career transitions. It does of course go without saying that the validity generalisation of the scale scores will have to be tested in different groups of individuals and in different cultural contexts before we can recommend a wider use of the self-perceived employability scale.

Resilience

The Concept and Its Historical Perspective

“Ordinary magic” is the designation that Masten uses to express the development of the resilience process, defined as the extraordinary (although quite common) fact that many children, adolescents and adults (and not only the “invulnerable” or “invincible” ones) seem to develop well, despite the fact that they are consistently

exposed to contexts of risk and adversity (Masten, 2001). Research on resilience groups an ever-growing set of studies which have been uncovering the internal (assets) or external (resources) factors that explain and promote adaptive and healthy development, in several age groups, in individuals exposed to risk contexts (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005; Masten, 2001). According to Masten (2001) these studies can be grouped in two major approaches: variable-focused approaches (which analyse the associations between risk variables, promotive and protective factors, and developmental outcomes in rather complex quantitative studies) and person-focused approaches, which compare, in relation to substantive developmental criteria, individuals with different profiles, via the use of both qualitative and quantitative studies. Both approaches have given rise to a comprehensive body of research pointing out to a short list of fundamental protective systems for human development (Masten, Herbers, Cutuli, & Lafavor, 2008), covering individual, family, relationships and larger environmental factors (Blustein, Connors-Kellgren, Olle & Diamonti, 2017), as well as their respective links and connections to basic human adaptive systems (e.g. intelligence and problem-solving skills with learning and thinking systems, perceived efficacy and control with mastery motivation). All the evidence collected has contributed significantly to provide a resilience framework for intervention in educational contexts, including a mission statement, models, measures, and methods (Galassi & Akos, 2007).

The Utility of the Career Resilience Concept in Understanding the Career Construction Process in Contemporary Societies

In contemporary societies, risk factors for unhealthy behavioural patterns or developmental trajectories might come up as overwhelming, if we do not take into account both promotional and protective factors that can help build career resilience within non-linear career construction processes in educational and work contexts (Hirschi, 2012). Thus, contemporary career literature has come up with a series of concepts focusing on self-directed career (promotive) processes which underline a proactive set of career strategic attitudes that might help the individuals, namely adolescents and adults, making important career decisions, survive, and even flourish, in an era defined by flexible work and mobile and, often, insecure life journeys. Constructs like career competencies and career capital (Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006), or protean (Briscoe & Hall, 2006) and boundaryless career orientations (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006), all depict the notion of career as an action that is self-directed, self-managed and meaningful in a complex context that requires career resilience. Taken together, these concepts express the idea that career construction is driven and directed by personal competence factors that promote positive developmental outcomes in unpredictable contexts. Cordeiro, Paixão, Lens, Lacante, and Luyckx (2015) found out, in a longitudinal study carried out with a sample of 12th graders, facing the transition to enter higher education or join the

world-of-work, that the “bright” pathways of career decision-making (in opposition to the “darker” ones), depend upon a set of cognitive-motivational factors (e.g. basic needs satisfaction, autonomous career commitment-making, self-efficacy, a-schematic thinking, positive emotional adjustment) that seem to foster psychological resilience.

Nevertheless, it was London (1983) that explicitly addressed the concept of career resilience, conceiving it as a core component of the broad construct of career motivation (in the sense of mastery motivation, identified by Masten as a human basic adaptive system), and defining it as the ability to adapt to changing and, quite often, very adverse circumstances, that might be discouraging, or put the individuals at risk of being entrapped in courses marked by vulnerability. Scientific evidence has been underscoring the role of career resilience as mainly a promotional factor, and some examples can be pointed out. Alniacik, Alniacik, Akçin and Erat (2012) observed, in a sample of 250 employees working in various industries, in Turkey, that career resilience has a positive correlation with organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Liu (2003) explored the relations between career resilience and career beliefs in a sample of 178 employees, in Taiwan, and found out that the participants who had higher scores on career resilience displayed fewer irrational career beliefs. Coetzee, Mogale and Potgieter (2015), in a sample of predominantly black African staff people, demonstrated that career resilience was significantly correlated with the participants’ career anchors.

However, the protective and buffering role of career resilience in the face of severe adversities has been understudied. London and Noe (1997), when reflecting upon the directions for future research in the domain of career resilience, stress, precisely, the urgent need to study either populations and groups facing persistent societal and cultural constraints, or risk features of contemporary work environments, like job demands related to voluntary and involuntary transitions, changes in the psychological contract, and organisational restructuring and downsizing. Extensive work has still to be done in order to comply with these authors’ suggestions and with resilience research requirements.

The Utility of Measuring Career Resilience in Guidance and Counselling Interventions

Career resilience has mainly been measured via the use of self-report instruments assessing rather stable individual characteristics, and this represents a weakness in the research that has been developed in this important career domain. In fact, following Fergus and Zimmerman (2005) reasoning, resilience should not be measured as a static trait, nor as the quality of an individual that is always present in every situation, once should be mainly conceived as a process which is defined by the context, the population, the risks, the promotive/protective factors and the outcomes. However, the focus on individual-level assets has been favoured within

the career motivation model proposed by London (1983), as well as in similar approaches in the career construction domain. Even in the very few longitudinal studies that took place in the last few years (e.g. Cordeiro, Paixão, Lens, Lacante, & Luyckx, 2015), self-reports instruments have been the measures more frequently (and sometimes, exclusively) used.

Thus, concerning these measures, we are going to briefly refer the ones that are more frequently reported. London (1993), introduced a 17-item instrument (Career Motivation Inventory) measuring the three dimensions of the career motivation construct (identity, insight and resilience) focusing on feelings and attitudes. Items intended to measure career resilience (5) include the ability to adapt to changing circumstances, willingness to take risks, welcoming job and organisational changes, ability to handle work problems, and the desire to work with new and different people. Items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale, from 1 = low to 5 = high. In a similar vein, Noe, Noe and Bachhuber (1990) proposed a 26-item measure assessing the dimensions proposed in the London's model (1983) and using a similar response scale, where the items measuring career resilience (13) include the notions of making uncalled suggestions to others, maintenance of friendships with people working in different departments of the same organisation, the design of better work procedures, the proactive outlining of ways of accomplishing jobs, and the dedication to do the best job on a task. Grzeda and Prince (1997) elaborated a 14-item scale to measure career resilience, which results from a combination of the resilience items of the two inventories previously mentioned, originating in a study in which these authors investigated the convergent and discriminant validity for these items in a sample of 94 Canadian managers. Fourie and Van Vuuren (1998) constructed the Career Resilience Questionnaire, a 45-item measure of the cognitive, affective, and behavioural components of career resilience comprising four dimensions: (a) belief in oneself; (b) own success ethic, disregarding traditional sources of career success; (c) self-reliance, and; (d) receptivity to change.

However, London himself suggested that there are more dynamic strategies and procedures to study career motivation and resilience, although they may be time and resources consuming. Along with London and Bray (1984) he developed a 2-day assessment center that encompassed the use of several and complementary techniques. All the test results and written responses to the exercises were rated by several specialists in the three dimensions of career motivation.

Nevertheless, the most interesting proposal regarding both the assessment and development of career resilience during critical transitions (and which is clearly aligned with the study of resilience as a developmental process) was presented by Hirschi (2012), when he devised a career resources model, aiming at the facilitation of career self-management, encompassing four types of critical resources: (a) human capital resources (factors such as formal, non-formal and informal education, experience and training, and cognitive ability, all of which equip the individuals to fit the expectations to perform different occupations); (b) social resources or social capital (the structure and content of the individuals' social relations networks and that provide them with the material, instrumental and emotional supports needed to adequately face both their normative and unanticipated transitions);

(c) psychological resources (positive motivational, cognitive and emotional traits and states, which are not only expressed in work roles, but generalized to the overall psychological functioning, fostering the persistence in the overcoming of obstacles and promoting a flourishing motivational orientation and optimal development), and; (d) career identity resources (the assessment of the assets that are closely related to their career construction process, such as interests, aptitudes, abilities, values, goals, structure of meaning, and so on).

Following the ideas expressed by London and Noe (1997), taken together, these resources might help the individuals overcome frame-breaking changes (either internally caused or externally caused, such as unsuccessful job-seeking or the need to adapt to working contexts that do not fit their formal education and training path), and set them to perceive these changes as being positive opportunities to attain increasing outcomes or as positive transitions that bring about transformational changes (e.g. fostering strategic reasoning or planning) and unforeseen, albeit highly desired, career changes.

Conclusion

In the future, theory and research should look to make proposals and investigations, which take into account a wider scope of variables which affect the vocational behaviour of human diversity, idiosyncrasy, ethnics and culture. After all, “career paths and behaviours are a function of many individual and contextual factors that are not under the control of the individual or cannot be rapidly modified” (Rossier, 2015, p.161). In the new millennium, research must encompass and account for diversity and paradigms, methodologies and population studies are the tools, which we readily have at our disposal.

There is space for further exploration down the path of some of the ideas, which are inherent to this conceptualisation of career adaptability, employability and career resilience in managing school-to-work transitions. These three concepts are not only useful in predicting career success, but also in identifying and helping individuals to develop competencies required for success—adaptability in the life long process of personal development.

Employability, as previously mentioned, is still a broad term, which is given a very wide interpretation. This does not facilitate the comparability of the results coming from diverse disciplinary views on the construct, although the recent trend focusing on the operationalization of its psychological dimensions (e.g., internal resources such as openness to changes, proactivity) and contextual factors (e.g., labour market conditions) is a good promise for the future.

Considering the study of career resilience in the transition process, adversities can range from long-term chronic stressors (e.g. mental health problems), to short-term acute stressors (e.g. not being successful in the implementation of their current choice) and traumatic stressful events (e.g. being the victim of harassment in educational or work settings). The exposure to some of these risks might bear

immediate strong effects that dissipate over time, while the exposure to other risk conditions might only be revealed in the vulnerabilities that the individuals display in the long run. The negative outcomes might, thus, vary according to these exposures, and the assets and resources required to overcome them are, eventually, also different. Only longitudinal study designs will properly address these complex interactions between risks, assets and resources, and outcomes, and longitudinal studies are scarce in the study of career resilience. Considerable developmental research on career resilience is still needed if we want to fully understand its correlates, antecedents and consequences and, thereof, outline substantive implications for healthier life designs.

Our review has disclosed a still substantial overlap among the three constructs covered in this chapter. More conceptual and further empirical work should help disentangle this unclear matter. Moreover, the analyses of data must be based on an idiographic (as opposed to nomothetic) definition of success. Guidance and counselling are contextual in nature, therefore implying an awareness of personal 'style' (values and goals) and of the historical environment in which the individual has to intervene and make changes. To put it another way, we must forge a close relationship between guidance and counselling within socio-cultural contexts.

Adaptability, employability and resilience must not only serve the purpose of predicting success (a question of ranking), but these concepts must help us to capitalise on our strengths and/or counterbalance our weaknesses (a sense of equilibrium).

The progressively increasing importance of constructivist approaches to career counselling also determines a developing emphasis on dimensions and variables, which are subjective in nature, such as satisfaction or idiographic definitions of success, rather than objectively evaluated achievements and outcomes. Guidance and counselling do not simply aim to describe and explain behaviour, but rather look address major issues of adaptation in the sense of wellbeing and the making of an adjustment.

We cannot forget or ignore the fact that the ever-evolving reality of the 21st century makes no exceptions in pushing us towards an integrative and comprehensive perspective across all fields of knowledge and intervention.

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Part VI
**Promoting the Career Adaptability,
Employability, and Career Resilience in
Special Populations**

Chapter 16

Promoting Affirmative Career Development and Work Environment for LGBT Individuals

Jacks Cheng, Elyssa M. Klann, Nelson O.O. Zounlome
and Y. Barry Chung

Abstract Recent human rights movement has engendered significant changes in the political and social landscape for lesbian, gay, bisexual, and trans (LGBT) people around the globe. Given this nascent international shift in attitude, this chapter aims to provide an overview of career issues emerging from recent literature and global events. In particular, this chapter endeavors to address issues of career adaptability, employability, and resilience for LGBT individuals related to (a) equality and workplace climate, (b) international migration and intersectional identities, and (c) identity and career development for LGBT youths, from an international perspective. Implications for research, practice, and training are discussed within each section, and the chapter ends with summative suggestions for future directions.

Keywords LGBT career development · Career adaptability · Career resilience
LGBT equality

Introduction

The global community has witnessed in recent years a cascading movement of support and activism for lesbian, gay, bisexual, and trans (LGBT) human rights and freedom, particularly in terms of favorable changes in political, legal, and social spheres. Many LGBT politicians have been elected to important governmental

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offices around the globe, including the world's first openly out head of state, former Prime Minister of Iceland, Jóhanna Sigurðardóttir, as well as the current Prime Minister of Luxembourg, Xavier Bettel, and Taoiseach of Ireland, Leo Varadkar. Other prominent politicians, such as the Prime Minister of Canada (Justin Trudeau), President of the United States (Barack Obama), and President of Taiwan (Tsai Ying Wen), have also demonstrated LGBT affirmation and sensitivity openly. This emerging political openness has perhaps contributed to the affirmation of marriage equality in the legislation of the US, Canada, the UK, South Africa, amongst many other nations and jurisdictions during the last decade.

Chung (2003) provided a prospective overview of emergent career issues for LGBT individuals for the next decade. The literature in these areas has since increased substantially for lesbian (Burnett, 2010; House, 2004; Lehtonen, 2008), bisexual (Parnell, Lease, & Green, 2012; Russon & Schmidt, 2014; Schneider & Dimito, 2010), and trans persons (Dispenza, Watson, Chung, & Brack, 2012; Sangganjanavanich, 2009; Scott, Belke, & Barfield, 2011). More than one decade later, we build on Chung's (2003) suggestions of future opportunities and threats to review recent literature and events, and highlight nascent career issues for LGBT people from a global perspective. In particular, we discuss effects of LGBT global climate changes in regulation and social attitudes to address (a) the equality movement and employability issues in a diverse global workplace, (b) the influence of intersectional identities, immigration, and acculturation on career adaptability, and (c) LGBT youths' career development and resilience. We conclude the chapter with a discussion on global implications and future endeavors for research, practice, and education and training.

LGBT Equality and the International Career Landscape

The recent emphasis on LGBT rights and regulations is reflected in the gradual implementation of non-discrimination policies for LGBT people at different governing levels of international society. The Human Rights Campaign Foundation (HRC; 2016) reported in the *Corporate Equality Index 2017* that the vast majority of Fortune 500 corporations instituted non-discrimination policies for sexual orientation and gender identity for their employees. In addition, the HRC found that over half of the Fortune 500 corporations provided their employees with same-sex partner benefits, and around half of them have demonstrated organizational LGBT competency and public commitment to the LGBT community.

LGBT people in countries such as the US, Canada, and Australia are now protected under similar nondiscrimination policies and safer space programs in the workplace (Kosciw, Greytak, Bartkiewicz, Boesen, & Palmer, 2012; Taylor et al., 2015). Certain schools, districts, and education departments in the US and Canada provide institutional support for LGBT-specific curricula, resources, and gay-straight alliances (GSA), while others make efforts to recruit LGBT educators

and mentors to serve as positive role models and in advisory roles (Kosciw et al., 2012; Taylor et al., 2015; Vancouver School Board, 2010).

These advances in enshrining LGBT rights through national and local legislation have had a tremendous impact on the increasing positive experiences among LGBT workers and students. LGBT workers are more likely to make strategic and interest-based career choices (versus choices confined by the opportunity structure), and to disclose their sexual orientation at work when they perceive a nondiscriminatory work climate (Chung, Chang, & Rose, 2015; Ragins, Singh, & Cornwell, 2007; Trau, 2015). Not only do LGBT-supportive policies and work climate increase job satisfaction and commitment, health outcomes, and positive work relationships, they also reduce anti-LGBT discrimination by encouraging cisgender heterosexual colleagues to engage in prosocial and pro-diversity behaviors (Badgett, Durso, Kastanis, & Mallory, 2013; Schmidt, Miles, & Welsh, 2011; Trau, 2015). The implementation of LGBT-supportive policies, programs, and resources in educational institutions also foster a similarly supportive environment for LGBT students' educational and career endeavors, which in turn motivates the educational communities' positive attitudes towards LGBT issues (Ferfolja, 2015; Kosciw et al., 2012; Kwon & Hugelshofer, 2012; Taylor et al., 2015; Worthen, 2014).

Emerging Workplace Issues for Sexual Minorities

Despite significant improvements in anti discrimination and affirmative efforts toward an LGBT-friendly work and school climate, scholars have raised questions about the impact, authenticity, and legitimacy of this workplace equality. In the US and Canada, LGB employees continue to experience workplace discrimination regardless of openness and regulatory protection from both the state and the company (Bowring & Brewis, 2009; Marrs & Staton, 2016; Wright, Colgan, Creegany, & McKearney, 2006). While overt acts of heterosexism are discouraged, discrimination against sexual minority workers has modernized as workplace incivility, often manifested as inappropriate jokes and language, emphasis on gender stereotypes, and intrusive questioning (DeSouza, Wesselman, & Ispas, 2017; Di Marco, Hoel, Arenas, & Munduate, 2015). These acts may often be overlooked or interpreted as misunderstanding, and therefore unaddressed in organizational policies (Marshburn, Harrington, & Ruggs, 2017).

These incivilities are forms of micro aggression and can create unique minority stress for sexual minorities, which can lead to lower job commitment, poorer life satisfaction, social isolation, and decreased mental health outcomes (Meyer, 2010; Nadal, 2013; Velez, Moradi, & Brewster, 2013). Moreover, sexual minorities also suffer a considerable pay gap compared to their heterosexual counterparts. Sexual minorities are more likely to expect a lower salary, receive a lower initial salary offer, and accept a lower salary (Badgett, 2007; Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons, 2012). Ng and colleagues (2012) further explained their findings citing that sexual minorities often experience gender socialization differently from their gender

performance, which creates lower self-efficacy and internalized homophobia, leading to self-devaluation and invisibility in developing interest-based career choice. In these cases, sexual minorities often employ different strategies to help select and maintain employment in face of discrimination, which often include self-employment, tracking for inclusive and discriminatory work environments, covering or being implicit about their sexual orientation, and remaining silent in face of discriminatory experiences (Chung, Williams, & Dispenza, 2009).

In countries where anti discrimination laws may not be in place nor readily accessible, governmental and societal stances can be a substantial interference with LGBT acceptance in the workplace. For example, sexual minority workers in Singapore experienced difficulties coming out at work because Singaporean government and society only provide respect for LGB private lives but continue to stigmatize LGB individuals as risks in work and public spaces (Weiss, 2007). A lack of explicit legal protection further contributed to the concealment of LGB identities as LGB workers feared that disclosing their sexual orientation could lead to dismissal without cause in Singapore (Weiss, 2007). Some countries, such as Jamaica and Uganda, may also have governments that overtly sanction LGBT discrimination in their rhetoric. This phenomenon can further propagate messages of anti gay violence in popular culture and pathologize sexual minorities particularly by associating them with HIV/AIDS, and thus jeopardizing their employability (DeJong & Long, 2014; White & Gerke, 2007).

The aversion and risk for sexual minorities in the workplace are often associated with traditional gender roles and the devaluation and pathologization of acts of nonconformity (Simpson, 2015). While sexual minorities are more likely to choose non traditional careers than their heterosexual counterparts, their sexuality is often conceptualized as a potential barrier to their work competence (Chung & Harmon, 1994; McDermott, 2015; Parnell et al., 2012; Simpson, 2015). Moreover, the misgendering of sexual minorities creates issues for those who wish to enter workplaces with rigid expectations of gender behaviors, such as police and armed forces. Officers in the US, Canada, and the UK reported struggling to integrate their sexual identity into a hypermasculine culture, and often found themselves prioritizing their hegemonically masculine officer identity to avoid perceptions of incompetence and discrimination, effectively erasing their sexual identity (Bowring & Brewis, 2015; Broomfield, 2015; Charles & Arndt, 2013; Colvin, 2009; Jones & Williams, 2015). Scholars similarly described that culturally defined gender roles in South Africa and Turkey often force sexual minorities to conform to heterosexuality to increase career options, reduce confinement to typecast LGBT spaces, and avoid familial, religious, and political persecution (Göçmen & Yılmaz, 2017; Öztürk & Özbilgin, 2015; Van Zyl, 2015).

Trans Identity, Gender Nonconformity, and the Workplace

The unique issues facing trans and gender nonconforming (TGNC) people have long prompted scholars to separate gender identities and expressions from sexual orientation, yet only a few studies focused on TGNC workers (Brewster, Velez, DeBlaere, & Moradi, 2012; Budge, Tebbe, & Howard, 2010; Chung, 2003). It is clear that TGNC people continue to have less access to extant career options and legal protection internationally, compared to their cisgender counterparts (Brewster, Velez, Mennicke, & Tebbe, 2014; Dispenza et al., 2012; Grant et al., 2011; HRC, 2015). For example, in the US there is a remarkable gap in TGNC inclusive benefits and spaces, as well as anti discrimination policies that explicitly protect gender identity (US Government Accountability Office, 2009). Unfortunately, the conflation of sexual orientation and gender identity, and the widely varying language used for people with TGNC experiences within laws and policies often lead to human rights denial for TGNC people and ambiguity in enforcing nondiscrimination regulations (Bender-Baird, 2011).

A lack of employment nondiscrimination policies increases likelihood of a hostile workplace and experiences of violence for TGNC people. TGNC workers reported differential treatment after coming out, persistent physical threats and emotional abuse, and negative employment outcomes such as wrongful termination and denial of employment or promotion (Budge, Tebbe, & Howard, 2010; Grant et al., 2011). Dispenza and colleagues (2012) also found that micro aggressions and institutional discrimination by governmental, educational, and social agencies created a more negative work experience for TGNC workers. Many TGNC people, particularly women of trans experience, described experiences of horizontal discrimination from members of the LGB community and from TGNC people with masculine gender expressions.

TGNC workers' experiences are additionally overshadowed by the institutional and social support they might receive if they choose to transition. Transitioning at work is certainly stressful, not only because it is a highly socially visible and costly private experience, but also because it may change employers and coworkers' respect, perception of work competence, and provision of opportunity for economic development towards them (Schilt & Connell, 2007). Moreover, TGNC people's childhood socialization in their assigned gender may create issues in learning socially acceptable behaviors for their gender identity and expression during their transition (Schilt, 2010). For example, a man of trans experience may have enjoyed discussions about sex with girlfriends before transition, whereas this may become sexual harassment after transition. With this unique workplace issue, TGNC workers often choose between being open (e.g., disclosing and openly transitioning at current workplace) versus stealth (e.g., seeking employment in new gender appearance or remaining silent) based on extant protective policies, workplace openness, and managerial support (Brewster et al., 2014; Dispenza et al., 2012; Schilt, 2010).

LGBT People of Color and Intersectional Identities

Recent research has achieved a broader understanding of the forces at play in the career lives of LGBT persons, particularly identifying general trends in TGNC and lesbian career theory. However, a more specialized inquiry into other identities, both marginalized and privileged, can further deepen this body of literature. The theory of intersectionality, coined by legal expert Kimberlé Crenshaw (1989), may help to illuminate how aspects of career development, more specifically career adaptability, may function for individuals given their multiple identities. In this and the following sections, we examine two axes of identity in addition to sexual minority status: (a) ethnoracial culture and (b) immigration status and nationality.

Understanding the intersections of ethnoracial culture and sexual minority status may hold a key to unlocking the career adaptability potential of LGBT people of color across the globe. Typical discussions of LGBT career development are often based on research with majority sample of White gay men from the US, Canada, and the EU, which does not account for the many ways in which ethnoracial culture interacts with an individual's experience of their sexual or gender identity in a particular social environment. For example, Adams, Cahill, and Ackerlind (2005) found in a qualitative study that Latinx gay and lesbian emerging adults from primarily Latinx communities emphasized the salience of their sexual minority identity, while a participant from a primarily White community outlined the salience of both identities.

This aspect of the LGBT experience illuminates an essential piece of adaptability that can be understood only through intersectionality: the environment affects the salience of one's identities and specific cultural experiences (in this case, ethnoracial or LGBT identities), whereas any environmental changes may affect career development and adaptability throughout the lifespan for LGBT people of color. LGBT people of color often feel the need to "prioritize" or choose between their "clashing" LGBT and ethnoracial identities, especially when the values of the communities they belong to are at odds (Chen & Vollick, 2013). Nonetheless, these challenging experiences also help LGBT people of color build significant flexibility and strength, to balance their multiply marginalized identities at work and adapt to new career situations. These influences of multiple changing cultures and environments mirror the contextual effects described in Lent, Brown, and Hackett's (1994) social cognitive career theory (SCCT), such that these contexts have a strong effect on individuals' career decision-making.

Another qualitative study of Black LGBT emerging adults at a historically Black university found that participants experienced career pressure based on both their ethnoracial identity and sexual or gender identity (Harris, 2014). These participants reported feeling that their Black identity was supported and that they hold a sense of pride for their ethnoracial identity, and they felt prepared to handle racial discrimination in the job market. However, they reported feeling much less supported in their sexual orientation and gender identity, and notably did not discuss the sense

of pride (or lack thereof) that they felt about being a LGBT person of color. Congruent with SCCT's conceptualization of self-efficacy, these results provide evidence that career counselors and other helping professionals may utilize LGBT people's sense of pride to help build career adaptability and resilience.

International Marriage and Immigration

The changing landscape of international marriage equality presents a new horizon for understanding how ethnoracial identity, nationality, and immigration status may play a part in the career decision-making and adaptability of LGBT individuals and their family members. A study funded by the Williams Institute using data from 2010 reported that over 79,000 same-sex couples living in the US included a partner who was currently not a US citizen; of these, 53% were legally "barred from pursuing permanent residency" in *both* of the partners' home countries (Konnoth & Gates, 2011). The inequity of policy in countries around the globe has a significant effect on LGBT individuals in a number of ways, including personal well being, family stability, and career decision-making (Human Rights Watch, 2006). The issues of immigration and acculturation that result from this inequity raise major concerns about career adaptability of individuals with international same-sex partners. For example, partners with citizenship in binational same-sex couples had higher median incomes than noncitizen partners, and noncitizen partners were more likely to be unemployed than their citizen partners (Konnoth & Gates, 2011). This may suggest barriers for noncitizens to obtain equitable employment, and may affect the emotional well being and career development of both partners in same-sex couples.

Studies by Kassan and Nakamura (2013) and Nakamura, Kassan, and Suehn (2015) also documented how the immigrating partners in a binational same-sex marriage felt "forced" to immigrate to Canada from the US because same-sex marriage was a legitimate ground for immigration in Canada. These participants further reported that the stress of living in the US undocumented or scraping by on a student or work visa affected their well being, relationships, and careers. For these individuals, immigration represented a time of career transition where the necessity of career adaptability skills were drastically elevated. Participants discussed numerous career barriers, including a lack of professional network, non transferability of credentials, and discrimination. While some individuals noticed an improvement in their career adaptability, others reported feelings of loss, depression, and crisis (Kassan & Nakamura, 2013). It is clear that "forced" immigration due to a lack of marriage equality across the globe can have severe impact on LGBT individuals' general well being and occupational livelihood.

As many countries around the globe move towards marriage equality, the impact on same-sex couples will continue to grow complicated (Nakamura et al., 2015). In the US, the Supreme Court's decision to overturn the Defense of Marriage Act in 2013 resulted in updated immigration policy that allows same-sex couples to apply

for family-based visas (US Citizenship and Immigration Services, 2014). Indeed, same-sex immigrant couples whose home countries have now legalized their marriages will experience the benefit of equality policies. However, they are also confronted with the decision to relocate and engage in yet another career transition process or to stay put, creating additional issues to consider for their career development, and perhaps relatedly, their relationship status.

Institutional and Personally Mediated Discrimination and Career Accessibility

LGBT youths' perceived and experienced discrimination has a greater impact on their educational experiences as compared to their cisgender and heterosexual peers (Chesir-Teran & Hughes, 2009; Murdock & Bolch, 2005; Russell, Seif, & Truong, 2001; Zaza, Kann, & Barrios, 2016). Discrimination towards LGBT youths can include sexual harassment (Bochenek & Brown, 2001), physical and verbal assault (Bontempo & D'Augelli, 2002; Kosciw et al., 2012), social isolation and exclusion (Ueno, 2005), and interpersonal issues (Pearson, Muller, & Wilkinson, 2007; Russell et al., 2001), and may result in these youths feeling uncomfortable and unsafe at school. Discomfort and unsafeness are further linked to decreased school attendance, lower levels of academic achievement, school disengagement, feelings of not belonging, and elevated discipline problems (Kosciw et al., 2012; Murdock & Bolch, 2005; Pizmony-Levy & Kosciw, 2016; Russell et al., 2006), as well as substance use, low self-esteem, depression, and suicide attempts (Bontempo & D'Augelli, 2002; Wyss, 2004; Zaza, Kann, & Barrios, 2016).

Indeed, LGBT youths experience low career preparation and difficulty developing a career identity (Schmidt et al., 2011; Schmidt & Nilsson, 2006; McFarland, 1998). In addition, LGBT youths often lack "out" role models, encouragement, and support and/or inclusive representation from those important to them (Dodge & Crutcher, 2015; Nauta, Saucier, & Woodard, 2001; Ng et al., 2012), and may need to expend additional psychological energy in order to cope with the challenges associated with their LGBT identity (Hetherington, 1991; Raskin, 1989). For LGBT youths, these lower levels of social support and higher levels of inner identity conflict create higher vocational indecision and lower career maturity (Schmidt & Nilsson, 2006), and limit their energy and engagement with vocational development (Lyons, Brenner, & Lipman, 2010). Age, however, may be a mitigating factor for LGBT youths' experience, as developing a vocational identity uses considerably more psychological resources only towards their late twenties (Arnett, 2014). As such, younger LGBT youths can usually develop their sexual identities before focusing on their vocational identity (Lyons et al., 2010). Nonetheless, more research is needed to better understand the relationship between sexual and vocational identity development in LGBT youth.

Effects of Visibility of LGBT Role Models and Media on Career Choice

Since Ellen DeGeneres came out in 1998, LGBT visibility in the media has increased greatly with numerous shows that include LGBT characters and themes such as *Will and Grace*, *Empire*, and *Transparent*. There are more public figures who have come out as LGBT such as Sia (singer), Don Lemon (news anchor), Michael Sam (football player), Balian Buschbaum (pole vaulter), and Tim Cook (CEO of Apple Inc.). This increasing media representation has created role models and instilled a sense of pride and social support for LGBT youths, helped them realize their sexual identity, and facilitated their coming out process (Bringaze & White, 2001; Gomillion & Giuliano, 2011). In addition, Craig, McInroy, McCreedy, and Alaggia (2015) found that positive media representation helped to lessen the impact of negative experiences and foster self-esteem among LGBT youths. Moreover, LGB college students reported the importance of having visible LGB role models to their career identity development (Nauta et al., 2001). In a study of male-to-female (MtF) trans individuals, Wellborn (2015) reported similar positive attitudes from MtF individuals toward the increase in trans characters in the media and the support they consequently derive in constructing their gender identity.

The historical paucity of LGBT visibility in the media, however, has type-cast gay men with a “sissy” archetype and lesbian women with a “dyke” archetype, and rendered other potential identities inaccessible (Capsuto, 2000; Gross, 1994; Hart, 2000; Russo, 1987). In addition, TGNC individuals are portrayed with consistent narratives of fear (e.g., murderers) and comedic relief, as well as the inability to attain feminine beauty standards, despite normalizing positive role models such as actress Laverne Cox (Wellborn, 2015).

More research is needed to understand how members within this diverse population relate to the media. One thing is certain—most LGBT individuals aspire to see realistic portrayals of LGBT individuals and families as normal people with normal jobs who just happen to be LGBT (Gomillion & Giuliano, 2011; Wellborn, 2015).

Issues of Career Assessment with LGBT Youths

To fully address the unique challenges LGBT youths face, counselors need to consider the distinctive experiences of LGBT identity development and coming out, discrimination, and academic environments (Kosciw, Greytak, & Diaz, 2009; Kosciw et al. 2012; Lyons et al., 2010; Orecchia, 2008; Zaza, Kann, & Barrios, 2016); to be aware of their own assumptions and perceptions about sexual orientation and gender identity, as even therapists who work with LGBT populations often still demonstrate societal bias (Pope et al., 2004); and to address potential

intersectional identities and experiences such as for LGBT youths of color (Kuper, Coleman, & Mustanski, 2014). Counselors should also be familiar with how certain therapeutic approaches, such as Cognitive Behavioral Therapy, may be helpful in combating the deleterious impact of perceived discrimination on LGBT youths by helping them change maladaptive cognitive and behavioral responses to this discrimination (Craig & Smith, 2014). LGBT youths may also hold differential work values when compared to their heterosexual peers (Ng et al., 2015), and it is important to explore both career environments matching their values, as well as options they have not yet considered due to experience with discrimination.

Counselors may also need to address LGBT people's disclosure of their identity at work. As mentioned previously, identity disclosure in the workplace can have positive influences on work environment, relationships, and satisfaction, but can also lead to lowered self-worth and self-esteem, changes in ability perception, and additional physical and emotional distress. Since the choice of whether to disclose is partially based on external elements including work-team culture, organizational climate, and the presence of equal opportunity policies (Griffith & Hebl, 2002; Rostovsky & Riggle, 2002), these factors must also be addressed while taking into account the personal, economic, and social implications of the decision. One such approach that may prove beneficial for working with this population is career construction counseling. By having clients complete a career construction interview and life portrait, counselors can help LGBT youths explore their personal and/or career identities in order to increase their sense of self and personal authorship in the process (Maree, 2014).

Managing Sexual and Gender Identity in the Workplace

Career counselors working with LGBT people on employability and career adaptability are encouraged to consider the following in their practice. Counselors should have an understanding of LGBT-related characteristics of their clients' workplace of interest, including general LGBT climate in the industry and LGBT-inclusive policies and benefits, as well as an awareness of local, regional, and national regulations around sexual and gender identity protection, and existing and common forms of discrimination at all levels of society. Counselors can use this body of knowledge as a guide to help LGBT clients to explore their career options, including both traditional and nontraditional workplaces for their gender, with consideration to their needs for compensation, institutional support, and congruence of personal values. Moreover, counselors should assist clients in differentiating possible areas of circumscription and compromise based on their needs, rather than internalized discrimination. For TGNC clients, counselors should discuss with clients their expectations of gender behaviors and their impact on their ability to work and integration of their gender identity in the workplace.

Future research may address the apparent dearth in literature for understanding the effects of intersectionality of sexual and gender identities with other identities

on LGBT people's self-efficacy, employability, and career adaptability. In addition, research and community engagement in the emerging dialogue about sex work by choice or for survival among LGBT people may create social justice opportunities to reduce harm for LGBT people and further understand the relationship between sex work, sexual and gender identity development, and career and mental health outcomes. Lastly, counselors can engage in LGBT activism by providing LGBT-affirmative workshops and disseminating LGBT-affirmative information to promote positive attitudinal and regulatory changes within companies, governments, and society.

Transgressing the Intersectional and International Boundaries

Career counselors who work with LGBT clients on issues of intersectionality and international movements must strive to grasp their clients' cultural backgrounds and the many identities that intertwine with and challenge each other. The synthesis of cultural contexts may serve as protective or empowering factors that can improve their clients' ability to adapt and thrive in new career transitions. Counselors should be aware of the ways in which changing environments and contexts may impact their clients' experiences of their identities. Is the client part of the majority group in their area? What are relevant national policies and rhetoric surrounding their culture? For example, in working with a Nigerian client who identifies as trans, it is not only important to understand Nigerian culture (and the manner in which this culture intersects with the client's trans identity), but also to understand how the client's culture looks in context. A Nigerian client living in Nigeria will likely experience their culture differently than a Nigerian living in Germany.

A critical examination of cross-national political, legal, and cultural environments can help counselors better understand how binational same-sex couples make decisions about career and livelihood. Beyond traditional immigration issues, clients may find themselves in dire political situations due to war, poverty, genocide, and other factors, and may be affected by refugee or asylum status. These identities may have major implications on LGBT individuals' ability to find safety and shelter, as well as work and career stability. Counselors should work as advocates at the personal level, empowering clients in the midst of career transition with adaptable skills. Counselors must also gather resources that LGBT immigrants may rely on during these stressful times of transition and adaptation, such as community and religious centers, shelters, food banks, and specific immigration-focused organizations. On a macro-level, it may be appropriate for counselors working with LGBT people to get involved in activism related to immigration and public policy, where they may be able to dismantle political barriers to their clients' immigration difficulties and trauma.

Fostering Positive and Supportive Growth for Youths

In order to combat discrimination and repair damage resulting from a hostile school environment, counselors, educators, and administrators should work together as advocates on implementing policies that foster inclusive and safer space to increase social and institutional support for LGBT youths. Interventions such as school-wide policies and programs targeted at reducing bullying, assault, and harassment; peer support groups such as GSAs; and opportunities for parental support and community involvement, could improve LGBT youths' academic performance and reduce their experiences of heterosexism and gender identity discrimination.

Advocates need to compile accurate information to combat stereotypes and educate school and community members such as teachers, parents, health care providers, and public policy makers (Baruch-Dominguez, Infante-Xibille, & Saloma-Zuñiga, 2016; Cooley, 1998; Gutiérrez, 2004; Passani & Debicki, 2016). Witnessing these individuals advocate on their behalf may inspire LGBT youths to begin advocating for themselves, helping to build resilience as they navigate different changes, particularly for TGNC youths who are transitioning (Stieglitz, 2010). Counselors should also help LGBT youths identify members within their community and in the media to serve as role models, which may help them increase identity confidence and self-worth and possibly develop them become future leaders (Gomillion & Giuliano, 2011; Wellborn, 2015).

One important area of future research is the need to further enrich and address issues facing bisexual and TGNC youths who are often left out of research samples completely or combined with gay men and lesbian women in discussions of research findings. Even with increased attention to the career development of LGBT youths in the last decade, there is still a lack of practice, empirical, or theoretical literature to direct career counselors in working with TGNC individuals, let alone youths (Chung, 2003; Pepper & Lorah, 2008). Another area of interest is to examine the relationship between developmental transitions and resilience building with TGNC and LGB youths. Lastly, training programs and organizations around the world are encouraged to work towards using current literature to develop career competency measures for counselors, as well as validating career assessment instruments for working with LGBT youths.

Conclusion

The field of LGBT career counseling has made vast strides over the past three decades, in both research and practice. In this chapter, we reviewed current events and literature to facilitate a better understanding of LGBT career issues in the present day global village. As we delve deeper into the complex experiences of LGBT identities to empower our clients, we must concurrently de- and reconstruct the rhetoric of a single "gay" or "lesbian" narrative, and expand our horizon with an

open mind. To truly understand the career lives of LGBT individuals, we must seek to understand and integrate the various cultural contexts and international environments that impact them, as well as the policies and political realities that shape their world. With this knowledge, we will be better prepared to gain insight and offer compassion for our clients' struggles, reinforce our clients' existing strengths, and promote career adaptability throughout their lifespan.

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Chapter 17

Women's Career Construction: Promoting Employability Through Career Adaptability and Resilience

Jacqueline J. Peila-Shuster

Abstract While slightly over half of women worldwide are in the workforce, men's participation rate is about 77% and the average global gender wage gap is 24%. These statistics, among others, are clear indicators that gender equity in the workplace is not yet a reality. In this chapter, the author presents information regarding the gendered workplace, which is highly influenced by gender role socialization and stereotyping. Then, through the lens of a life design paradigm, the application and integration of career construction theory and social cognitive career theory are discussed. Additionally, the use of reflexivity within career construction counseling, as well as deconstruction that can occur around limiting beliefs and/or behaviors, and other strategies for developing resilience and career adaptability are proposed. Lastly, there is a call for lifelong career development, starting at an early age and continuing throughout the lifespan, to help combat gender stereotypes and promote women's employability (career) resilience, and career adaptability, thereby opening opportunities for a lifetime of optimal life design.

Keywords Women's career development • Life design • Career construction
Social cognitive career theory • Career adaptability • Career resilience

Women in the Workplace

It is estimated that a little over half of women worldwide (ages 15+) participate in the workforce, while men's participation rate is about 77% (The World Bank, 2016a, 2016b). In addition to the disparity in workforce participation, the average global gender wage gap is 24% and women spend well over double the amount of time on unpaid care and domestic work than men (United Nations, 2015). Furthermore, women are more likely to have work that is concentrated in areas that tend to have low pay and they are more likely to be unemployed (United Nations, 2015).

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These statistics are concerning and indicate that gender equity is far from a reality, which is not only a concern for women, but also for men. According to the World Economic Forum (2016), “because women account for one-half of a country’s potential talent base, a nation’s competitiveness in the long term depends significantly on whether and how it educates and utilizes its women” (pp. 44–45). Unfortunately, though, the World Economic Forum indicated women will not reach parity with men for a century or more. Furthermore, with the ever-changing world of work and labor markets, gains in gender equality could be reversed “unless women and girls are better prepared for the type of occupations that are likely to grow in the future” (World Economic Forum, 2016, p. 45). To be employable in these occupations, individuals will need to have a deep knowledge of their area of work; be technologically agile; have the ability to engage in critical thinking and problem-solving with interdisciplinary and cross-functional teams; and possess high quality communication skills, flexibility, and emotional intelligence (Hrabowski, 2015). Unfortunately, in addition to these requirements, women must be able to overcome a variety of obstacles, many of which are grounded in gender stereotypes that go hand-in-hand with individual and institutional implicit, and explicit, bias.

Gender Role Socialization and Stereotyping

In her theory of circumscription and compromise, Gottfredson (2005) suggested that children begin to narrow preferences at an early age based on unconscious processes long before they have the cognitive capacity to use reason in their vocational choices. In her theory, one of the early stages of circumscription is orientation to sex roles, which may prompt children to unconsciously rule out choices based on their gender. After conducting two extensive literature reviews (see Hartung, Porfeli, & Vondracek, 2005; Watson & McMahon, 2005), Porfeli, Hartung, and Vondracek (2006) proposed that children start learning about the world of work at a young age, possible as early as the age of four, and that their career aspirations are influenced by gender-based stereotypes. Furthermore, they stated that there is a circumscription process that steers girls away from careers in math and the physical and biological sciences, and boys away from careers generally comprised of females. Intersectionality was also addressed in these reviews leading Porfeli et al. (2006) to conclude that “vocational learning and aspirations may be involved in a complex, dynamic relationship with an emerging sense of self that includes elements of sex, race, and social class” (p. 28). Indeed, while this chapter focuses primarily on women, the author urges readers to expand their perspectives by understanding that identity is how individuals think of themselves in relation to their social roles (Savickas, 2012) and “the intersectionality of racio-ethnicity, gender and other categories of social differences should be positioned as central to identity work” (Carrim & Nkomo, 2016, p. 262).

Research continues to accumulate regarding women in the workplace, supporting the idea that gendered stereotypes remain strong. Science, technology,

engineering, and math (STEM) are fields that have been stressed as providing excellent opportunities for women to access jobs and generate higher incomes. According to the Commission on the Status of Women (2014), "it is of critical importance that women and girls have equal access to education at all levels and acquire relevant skills, particularly in STEM-related fields, in order to take advantage of the growing opportunities in these fields" (p. 1). One such opportunity involves income; women in STEM occupations in the United States experience a smaller wage gap compared to men and overall, earn 33% more than those in non-STEM occupations ("Women in STEM," n.d.).

However, while the importance of women in STEM is acknowledged, Beede et al. (2011) reported that women hold a disproportionately lower share of STEM undergraduate degrees (especially in engineering), and those with a STEM degree are more likely to work in education or healthcare while male STEM graduates are more likely to work in STEM occupations. Additionally, the United Nations (2015) reported that while female participation in higher education surpasses male participation in almost all developed countries and half of developing countries, only one in 20 women, compared to one in five men, graduated from engineering; and only one in 14 women graduated from science (excluding social sciences), compared to one out of nine men. Women are also underrepresented in advanced degree programs, especially in science-related fields, with women accounting for only 30% of researchers worldwide (United Nations, 2015).

Cheryan, Master, and Meltzoff (2015) asserted that stereotypes can act as a gatekeeper to educational fields such as computer science and engineering. In particular, they stated that women's choices are especially constrained by stereotypes surrounding these fields and their perceptions, even if inaccurate, help shape their academic choices. Their arguments stem from research findings that suggested stereotype threat was more impactful (negatively) for women than men, with women feeling a lower sense of belonging in computer science when presented with stereotypical environments (Cheryan, Meltzoff, & Kim, 2011; Cheryan, Plaut, Davies, & Steele, 2009). Master, Cheryan, and Meltzoff (2016) suggested that presenting a more diverse image of computer science may help those that are more sensitive to stereotypes and likely to be deterred by them.

While much research has focused on women in STEM fields, gender stereotypes exist in numerous occupational fields. Buhr and Sideras (2015) found the presence of gender stereotypes in various subfields of International Relations, and the United Nations (2015) indicated that "occupational segregation of women and men continues to be deeply embedded in all regions" (p. 87) of the world with women predominating in the social services, especially education, health, and social work. Furthermore, women are less likely than men to hold managerial positions worldwide (United Nations, 2015). In 2015, while women held 51.5% of all management, professional, and related occupations in the United States, they still only held 27.9% of chief executive positions (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016), only 4.4% of CEO positions at S&P 500 companies (Catalyst, 2016), and only 4.2% of CEOs in Fortune 500 companies (Zarya, 2016).

To fully embrace and achieve their employability potential, women must be resilient and find ways to overcome the obstacles introduced and reinforced by gender stereotyping. Career construction theory (Savickas 2005, 2013b) and counseling within the life design paradigm, as well as attention to constructs offered by social cognitive career theory (Lent, 2012; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002), can provide women with critical support in their endeavors.

Life Design

Much of today's world is shaped by liquid modernity, which according to Bauman (2007), no longer provides the typical social structures and routines that have long provided reference points that shape patterns of acceptable behavior (as cited in Guichard, 2015). Instead, these reference points are fluid and do not provide individuals with social, organizational, and ideological frameworks of what is a 'normal' way of life (Guichard, 2015). Increasingly, individuals must map out their own way of being in this world in a manner that provides meaning and mattering within their own culture and context. This may be especially helpful for women in honoring their unique strengths and experiences, instead of comparing them to a masculine standard.

In this new era of liquid modernity, there are three key types of career interventions that are useful when used appropriately—career guidance, career education, and career counseling. According to Savickas (2012), career guidance focuses on enhancing self-knowledge, increasing occupational information, and thoughtfully matching them (Savickas, 2012), thus helping individuals develop a self-concept compatible with employability norms (Guichard, 2015). Career education emphasizes the development of agency required for career management by educating, preparing, advising, and coaching individuals to cultivate the attitudes and competencies needed to successfully accomplish career development tasks (Savickas, 2012, 2013a). Additionally, Guichard (2015) explained that career education involves learning about job activities and requirements, educational requirements, employment prospects, and job search activities such as résumés, cover letters, and job applications. Career guidance and career education were the guiding paradigms of the career development and counseling field for much of its history and are still important paradigms in helping others with career development and management (Savickas, 2013a).

However, in today's world of liquid modernity, individuals navigate a world in which career path stability is rare, occupational prospects are fluidly defined and less predictable, and job transitions are more frequent (Savickas et al., 2009). Thus, individuals must learn to prepare for possibilities rather than formulate plans, making career *counseling* vital (Savickas, 2013b).

The intervention of counseling focuses clients' reflection on themes in their career story and then extends the themes into the future. It may recognize similarity, and it may promote readiness, yet counseling mainly uses reflexive process and thematic content to design a

life. It is about uniqueness more than resemblance and emotion more than reasoning (Savickas, 2013a, p. 653).

The life design paradigm and career counseling must supplement, and complement, career guidance and career education to assist individuals in finding consistency, coherence, and continuity of their identities in today's uncertain and continually evolving workplace (Savickas, 2012). Through engagement in "life design dialogues", career counselors partner with individuals to cultivate the reflexivity that is required to design their lives in ways that help them consider and define their own norms (Guichard, 2015, p. 18). This is an important qualification for women and others that are not of the "default" norm which is often inextricably linked with white male status and privilege. For a more in-depth discussion on life design, interested readers are referred to Chap. 4 by Pouyau and Cohen-Scali (2017).

Career Construction Theory

Savickas' (2005, 2012, 2013b) career construction theory advances Super's (1957) seminal career development theory and is situated within the life design paradigm. It emphasizes that careers are co-constructed by individuals via interpersonal processes as they make career choices to help express their self-concepts and support their goals. This subjective career construction, according to Savickas (2013b), "imposes meaning and direction on their vocational behavior" (p. 150) and helps provide continuity and coherence across one's career, but it is not done in a vacuum. Savickas (2013b) further asserted that individuals build their careers through "personal constructivism and social constructionism" (p. 147), thus emphasizing that one's self (and career) is constructed within the context of one's social world, and her/his interpretation of that reality.

In career construction counseling, clients tell stories about their work lives, as well as about current transitions and issues, and integrate those stories into "an identity narrative about self and work" (Savickas, 2013b, p. 168). Following deconstruction of these stories to illuminate assumptions, omissions, and what was overlooked or inadequately addressed, the stories are reconstructed into a grander narrative that defines (or redefines) one's identity narrative or "life portrait" (Savickas, 2012, p. 15). The life portrait, which helps give individuals a sense of personal meaning and social mattering in their life, can facilitate action and movement into a more satisfying life (Savickas, 2013b). For a more comprehensive understanding of career construction theory and career construction/life design counseling, the reader is referred to Savickas (2013b, 2015).

There are two metacompetencies highlighted in career construction theory, identity and career adaptability. Identity gives personal meaning to vocational behavior and work activities within individuals' lives and can offer the consistency, coherence, and continuity that helps individuals make meaning of their past to carry

them forward to their futures (Savickas, 2012). “By holding onto the self in the form of a life story that provides coherence and continuity, they are able to pursue their purpose and projects with integrity and vitality” (Savickas, 2012, p. 14).

It should be noted that the *self* and *identity* are not synonymous. Identity involves how individuals think of the self in relation to their social roles (Savickas, 2012). Thus, identity formation is not just about exploring who one is, but also reconciling that self with one’s social world. Consequently, identity is fluid and “a developmental resource that updates in context” (Pouyaud, 2015, p. 63).

Career adaptability, the other metacompetency in career construction theory, represents individuals’ “resources for coping with current and anticipated tasks, transitions, traumas in their occupational roles that, to some degree large or small, alter their social integration” (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012, p. 662). There are four dimensions of career adaptability which will be discussed in greater detail later in this chapter.

Social Cognitive Career Theory

Social cognitive career theory (SCCT) (Lent, 2012; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002) is based upon the premise of human agency—that individuals have the ability to exercise a certain degree of self-direction—and emphasizes the interplay between self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations, and personal goals which help facilitate the use of agency. SCCT also asserts, though, that individuals encounter a variety of factors, both supports and barriers, “that can strengthen, weaken or even override personal agency” (Lent, 2012, p. 118).

Self-efficacy beliefs signify one’s judgment about whether she/he is capable of producing a desired effect or accomplishing a certain level of performance with a certain domain or activity (Bandura, 1986). According to Bandura (1997), these beliefs can be acquired and modified through four types of learning experiences: (1) performance accomplishments—learning-based personal experiences within a specific performance domain/activity; (2) vicarious learning—learning based upon experiences of watching others; (3) social persuasion—learning based on others’ suggestions (or negations) that one can be successful; and (4) physiological and affective states—learning based on one’s physiological and affective state surrounding the performance domain/activity and her/his cognitive appraisal of that state. Of these learning experiences, Bandura (1977) stated that performance accomplishments are especially powerful.

Outcome expectations refer to individuals’ beliefs about the outcomes of executing certain behaviors, or the consequences of engaging in specific courses of action (Lent, 2012). Bandura (1986) asserted that self-efficacy and outcome expectations work together to influence various aspects of human behavior including what one will choose to pursue or avoid, and that self-efficacy may be the more influential of the two. Thus, an individual may hold high outcome expectations of a certain career but may avoid it if they do not hold high enough

self-efficacy beliefs about their capabilities to succeed at it (Lent, 2012). However, it is also not unusual for outcome expectations to influence individuals with high self-efficacy, but who believe that the consequences of their course of action would be negative (Lent, 2012).

The third primary component of SCCT are personal goals (an important avenue through which agency is exercised) which are delineated into choice goals—what one plans to pursue, and performance goals—the quality one desires to achieve (Lent, 2012). According to SCCT, personal goal selection is highly affected by one's self-efficacy and outcome expectations and in turn, one's self-efficacy and outcome expectations are influenced by one's progress, or lack of progress, in accomplishing goals (Lent, 2012).

SCCT utilizes interlinking models to hypothesize how career interests and choices are largely influenced by self-efficacy and outcome expectations and are considered in concert with other person inputs (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity, health status) and one's context (Brown & Lent, 2016; Lent, 2005). The interested reader is referred to Lent (2005, 2012) and Lent et al. (2002) for a more thorough discussion of SCCT.

Resilience and Career Adaptability

In today's liquid modernity, having healthy coping responses and behaviors is critical for successfully charting and navigating one's career course. According to Bimrose and Hearne (2012), resilience and career adaptability are two such coping responses. While these concepts are similar, and perhaps overlapping, resilience is considered to be more reactive following a stressor antecedent (Luthans, Vogelgesang, & Lester, 2006), while career adaptability seems to have a more proactive element (Bimrose & Hearne, 2012).

Resilience

Mate and Ryan (2015) surmised that “women may require greater resilience than men over their careers” (p. 157) based on their study with working professionals which indicated that women, more than men, referred to how they overcame barriers and built resilience. It is also interesting to note that being female was found to be a resilient quality in two different studies (as cited in Richardson, 2002). Resilience is generally defined as a person's ability to bounce back in spite of adverse circumstances or personal obstacles, and perhaps even grow and become stronger from the experiences (Luthans et al., 2006). For a more in-depth discussion on career resilience, interested readers are referred to Chap. 3 by Lengelle, Van der Heijden, and Meijers (2017).

Career Adaptability

As discussed earlier, career adaptability is a critical metacompetency within career construction theory and regards one's resources for coping with career issues (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). "Career adaptability resources are the self-regulation strengths or capacities that a person may draw upon to solve the unfamiliar, complex, and ill-defined problems presented by developmental vocational tasks, occupational transitions, and work traumas" (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012, p. 662). The first dimension of career adaptability, career concern, involves developing a future orientation, or in other words, a sense that it is important to look ahead and prepare for the future (Savickas, 2013b; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). The second aspect of career adaptability is career control, which refers to the development of self-regulation to engage in vocational tasks and transition processes (Savickas, 2013b). Career control is not about independence, but instead consists of intrapersonal self-discipline and being conscientious, intentional, and decisive when engaged in career developmental tasks and transitions. Career curiosity comprises the third dimension and involves being inquisitive about, exploring, and experimenting with possible selves and future possibilities (Savickas, 2013b; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Finally, the fourth element of career adaptability is career confidence, which is acquiring and enhancing self-efficacy to pursue aspirations, execute a plan of action to make educational and career choices, and implement those choices (Savickas, 2013b; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). For a more in-depth discussion on career adaptability, interested readers are referred to Chap. 2 by Hartung and Cadaret (2017).

Similar to resilience, the construct of career adaptability has also been found to be of import to women. For example, McMahan, Watson, and Bimrose (2012) found in a qualitative study with women ages 45–65 years from Australia, England, and South Africa that career adaptability was evident during periods of transition and in other aspects of the careers of these women. This finding was supported in a study by Whiston, Feldwisch, Evans, Blackman, and Gilman (2015) of professional women over the age of 50 in the United States whom all reported career adaptability themes within their current and future projected career-related tasks, transitions, and traumas.

Practical Implications

Utilizing Career Construction Theory and SCCT

Both career construction theory (Savickas, 2013a, b) and SCCT (Lent, 2012; Lent et al., 2002) provide powerful, and empowering, avenues through which career counselors can conceptualize and work with women. Both theories address the dynamic interaction between individuals' cultural and contextual environments and

their personal characteristics, which influences their beliefs about themselves and the world around them. A high level of awareness of these person-environment interactions is important in working with women given the gendered contexts in which they work and live.

The process of career construction counseling lends itself to direct application in assisting women with their life and career design. This process involves the activities of construction, deconstruction, reconstruction, coconstruction, and action (Savickas, 2013b). In the construction and deconstruction activities, the Career Construction Interview (CCI) is conducted through which career counselors are able to elicit small stories from the client that reveal how she has constructed her "self, identity, and career" (Savickas, 2013b, p. 168). During this time, potentially dispiriting ideas, beliefs, scripts, or incidents (which often involve cultural biases) can be listened for and deconstructed, potentially opening new pathways not previously considered, or considered possible (Savickas, 2012, 2013b).

While feminist theories are highly diverse and complex, when considering the deconstruction process with women, understanding two foundational themes of feminist approaches to counseling is valuable: (1) the personal is political, meaning that personal problems are connected to and influenced by the socio-political climate, and (2) issues and "symptoms" are often coping mechanisms that have arisen in response to dealing with oppression (Enns, 2004). Given that women's environments are embedded with gendered stereotypes shaping thoughts, feelings, beliefs, and behaviors, it makes sense that women may face unique challenges in their career development and employability. For example, in a review of vocational psychology literature, Brown and Lent (2016) discussed results from a study conducted by Thompson and Dahling (2012) that suggested gender and socioeconomic privilege predicted individuals' exposure to learning experiences, which subsequently helped shape career-related self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Thompson and Dahling (2012) recommended that exploration occur around experiences with resources and barriers that influence women's perceptions of available career options. By deconstructing gendered stereotypes that emerge from women's stories, and helping women consciously and realistically appraise their stories, new insights may emerge that can open new doors and possibilities.

After listening to the client's micronarratives elicited from the CCI, the career counselor reconstructs a subjective macronarrative of identity (Savickas, 2012, 2013b). The identity macronarrative "explains clients' past, orients them to the present, and guides them into the future" (Savickas, 2012, p. 16). Furthermore, it highlights the person's career theme which involves how the person shifts "pre-occupation" to "occupation," thus allowing her to use work as a means towards becoming more whole (Savickas, 2012, 2013b). Stated otherwise, the person can move from "pain-filled to triumph-filled themes" and toward social contributions (Maree, 2013, p. 4). All of this comes together as a life portrait that the counselor shares with the client, encouraging her to reflect upon and emotionally engage with it, subsequently allowing the client and counselor to modify it and "craft a move in meaning with which to confront choices" (Savickas, 2012, p. 17). This move in meaning can include a greater awareness of how the client's choices have been

affected by gender stereotypes and oppression which may allow her to view herself and her future life design with a broader perspective.

Lastly, after shifting tension to intention in co-constructing the life portrait for the individual's next life chapter, action must ensue to turn that intention into behaviors (Savickas, 2013b). Savickas (2012) also stated that action stimulates further creating of the self, shaping of identity, and career constructing. Developing goals to drive action is essential because according to SCCT, goals are one way in which agency is exercised (Lent, 2012).

Throughout co-construction and action, it is important for the career counselor to continue to listen deeply to both verbal and non-verbal communications from the client and address limiting thoughts and beliefs that may inhibit action. Furthermore, throughout the career construction process, clues will emerge regarding career adaptability assets and limitations, as well as cognitions and behaviors surrounding self-efficacy and outcome expectations. The career counselor and client can work together to identify areas in need of strengthening and co-develop action plans in support of those needs.

Building Resilience and Career Adaptability

Career construction counseling can be an avenue for developing resilience via its purposeful engagement in reflection, introspection, and reflexivity. Richardson (2002) defined resiliency as "the process of coping with adversity, change, or opportunity in a manner that results in the identification, fortification, and enrichment of resilient qualities or protective factors" (Richardson, 2002, p. 308). He also indicated that to facilitate the resiliency process, counselors must help people discover the driving force that resides within them. In his resiliency process model, he explains that life disruptions cause emotions that may lead to introspection and eventually the reintegration process. Resilient reintegration, according to Richardson (2002), involves gaining insight or growing, and results in identification and strengthening of resilience qualities. Thus, individuals engaged in career construction counseling are provided the opportunity to explore their life disruptions in a reflective manner that leads to introspection and reflexivity to develop greater insight and awareness, possibly bolstering resilience.

Likewise, Luthans and colleagues (2006) asserted that resilience can be developed and enhanced through interventions that emphasize introspection and the development of coping skills. Tomassini (2016) has described the construct of *reflective resilience* as a "pragmatic meta-competence, put in action by individuals in order to take deliberations about their own lives, especially when facing negative conditions which require intensified levels of internal conversation and a strengthened focus on personal projects for overcoming such conditions" (p. 188). Additionally, reflexivity is important and described by Archer (2007) as individuals' "mental ability...to consider themselves in relation to their social context and vice versa" (p. 4). This is similar to Savickas' (2012) description of identity as

reconciling one's knowledge of *self* with her social world. Through career construction counseling, the identity narrative provides greater clarity, coherence, and continuity for the individual (Savickas, 2013b), which in turn, may assist with developing or enhancing resilience.

Career construction counseling also helps individuals view their work across their lifetime to gain perspective on how the past informs the present and connects to the future, thus giving a sense of continuity which "allows individuals to envision how today's effort builds tomorrow's success" (Savickas, 2013b). Shifts in perspectives and identification of new pathways and goals can help build a future orientation and planful attitudes (i.e., career concern), in part because they can instill hope. Indeed, Maree (2015) found that life design counseling helped to infuse hope in individuals, and Niles (2011) asserted that "having a sense of hope allows a person to consider the possibilities in any situation" (p. 174).

In addition to promoting career concern, consideration of potential selves and future opportunities can also cultivate career curiosity. Building upon this curiosity, career counselors can partner with clients to reflect upon ways in which unplanned events have presented opportunities in their past, and work to facilitate an increased awareness of (and curiosity about) future unplanned events (see HLT, Krumboltz, 2009). Career guidance can also capitalize upon and contribute to career curiosity in helping the individual to explore her interests, values, skills, strengths, and so on, and how potential opportunities may be compatible.

Conscious deliberation and choice-making about which opportunities to take action on can potentially develop and enhance career control (Peila-Shuster, 2016). Additionally, career counselors can assist women in identifying areas over which they have control and in strategizing how to overcome obstacles (Masdonati & Fournier, 2015), or mitigate and cope with those situations over which they do not have control. Career education can be called upon to also build career control as the individual is educated, advised, and coached through various career development tasks such as learning about educational and/or job requirements, developing resumes, networking, and interviewing.

Lastly, to build self-efficacy, thus contributing to career confidence, it is useful to remember Bandura's (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997) four sources of efficacy information (performance accomplishments, vicarious learning, social persuasion, and physiological or affective states). Since performance accomplishments are considered the strongest of these learning experiences (Bandura, 1977), reflecting upon previous successful experiences with the client, and building upon current and future mastery experiences, can be useful strategies in building self-efficacy. Additionally, cognitive restructuring that encourages women to credit their successes to the development of personal capabilities, rather than to luck or the ease of the activity, can encourage greater self-efficacy and can help them view "ability as an acquirable attribute" (Lent, 2012, p. 135). Another approach to developing self-efficacy can include facilitating the client's exposure to positive role models (vicarious learning experiences). In doing so, it is important to keep in mind the suggestion from Master et al. (2016) that it may be more helpful for career role models to present a diverse image of the fields they are representing (e.g., not only

women in science, but women that do not represent a stereotypical image of a scientist). To also support and build self-efficacy, career counselors can use their relationship with the client as a source of encouragement (social persuasion), and help cognitively reframe physiological or affective states (e.g., from nervous to excited), and/or teach interventions such as mindfulness to positively influence these states.

Conclusion and a Call for Advocacy

The gendered workplace is still a reality and is highly influenced by gender role socialization and stereotyping. The application and integration of career construction theory and social cognitive career theory through the lens of the life design paradigm can assist career counselors to intentionally and carefully consider the personal, cultural, contextual, and socio-political forces at work in women's lives. Furthermore, the career construction counseling process itself involves multiple avenues for building resilience and career adaptability, as well as for examining self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations.

While much of this chapter has focused on working directly with clientele, these interventions do not carry their fullest impact if there is not also change at the institutional and societal levels. "The cognitive, emotional, and behavioral changes that women make must be matched with institutional changes" (Enns, 2004, p. 8). Handelsman and Sakraney (n.d.) suggested open discussions regarding implicit bias can reduce the impact of it on the behaviors of individuals in organizations and communities. They further asserted that even small changes in institutional policies and practices can work towards bias mitigation. Furthermore, advocacy that embraces the understanding that career development is part of life-span development is also essential. It is imperative to start career development with children, not in the form of having children make career choices, but instead as a means to expand young minds to "learn to imagine, explore, and problem solve in order to construct a viable work future" (Hartung et al., 2005, p. 63). It is imperative to combat, or at least mitigate, "the many spoken and unspoken messages that individuals are exposed to throughout their lives that provide powerful guidance in how they think about themselves and design their lives" (Peila-Shuster, 2015). Hence, there must be a concerted effort towards greater critical consciousness (Martín-Baró, 1994) in our educational systems, as well as in the world of work and beyond, so that oppressive messages and experiences can be replaced with those that are more inclusive, honor differences, expand options, and facilitate optimal life design.

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Chapter 18

Career Adaptability, Employability, and Career Resilience of Asian People

Hsiu-Lan Shelley Tien and Yu-Chen Wang

Abstract Career adaptability, employability, and career resilience are important ideas in the current society. These concepts define an individual's ability to find a job, maintain the job, make proper transitions, and lead to a satisfied life. In this chapter, we first discussed the meaning of career adaptability in Asian society. The relationship between adaptability and life satisfaction was discussed. In the second part, we introduced a hierarchical model of career employability based on interviewing 41 adults in Taiwan. The model established based on grounded theory analysis included six categories of employability: positive preparation for entering the work world, professional knowledge, cooperation, career planning, identity, and personal factors. Career resilience, which is closely related to career adaptability and employability, was finally proposed to discuss its relationship between adaptability, employability, and life satisfaction. It would be a new direction for future research.

Keywords Asian people · Career adaptability · Career resilience · Employability

Introduction

Nowadays, the world of work is characterized by change. People need to comply with changes in order to perform optimally in the global market. It is even more important for them to be creative and adapt to the diverse workplace culture in the boundaryless career world. As successful workers, we need to learn new skills to be competitive for different tasks in our jobs. As successful managers or leaders, we need to learn new ways to manage our own career. To be able to find a job, keep the

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job, transition successfully, and search for personal meaning of life—these are all important career tasks. In this process, employability, adaptability, and resilience are all important concepts for individuals to acquire. Asian people, compared to Western societies, displayed a more traditional orientation to work-related matters in the past. The meaning of work focused mainly on earning a living. Today, however, the broad meaning of career is emphasized and encompasses a broad set of activities across individuals' life-span. People need to be concerned with their future, curious about the world they experience, display confidence in what they can do, and able to control their future development. In this chapter, we will discuss the importance of the three concepts, adaptability, employability, and resilience, from the viewpoint of research and practice.

Adaptability

The Meaning of Career Adaptability

“Career adaptability” is a term proposed by Savickas (1997) decades ago to replace the concept of career maturity. He defined career adaptability as a psychosocial construct that denotes an individual's resources for coping with current and anticipated developmental tasks, occupational transitions, and work trauma, etc. For adult workers, current sources of work stress include workloads, family/personal life, communications with peers/leaders/followers/elders, and the possibility of being fired. Are they happy with their life, both professional and personal? We are concerned about their personal growth and life satisfaction, which we believe are related to career adaptability.

Construct Validation of Career Adaptability in Asia

A special issue on career adaptability structure was published in *Journal of Vocational Behavior* in 2012. In that issue, Savickas and Porfeli (2012) assumed that career adaptability was composed of four psychosocial resources for managing individual's career development: concern, control, curiosity, and confidence. In Chinese culture, the validation of the *Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)* has been conducted by several career researchers in Taiwan (Tien, Wang, Chu, & Huang, 2012), Macau (Tien, Lin, Hsieh, & Jin, 2014) and in China (Hou, Leung, Li, & Xu, 2012). Results of these studies suggested that the CAAS is a psychometrically sound instrument that assesses career adaptability in a reliable and valid manner.

Life Satisfaction as a Dependent Variable of Career Adaptability

In Asia, there is an increasing number of studies regarding career adaptability, but not many about its predictors and other related factors. In Taiwan, Yang, Tien, Wu, and Chu, (2015) proposed a model to explain antecedent and subsequent factors related to career adaptability. In this model, life satisfaction is the dependent variable which has been defined as “a global evaluation by the person of his or her life” (Pavot, Diener, Colvin, & Sandvik, 1991, p. 150), and has been identified as a key aspect of quality of life and subjective well-being. A number of studies have found that career adaptability positively predicts employees’ general and professional well-being, orientations to happiness, and quality of life; and negatively predicts perceived career barriers and work stress (Johnston, Luciano, Maggiori, Ruch, & Rossier, 2013; Maggiori, Johnston, Krings, Massoudi, & Rossier, 2013; Soresi, Nota, & Ferrari, 2012). In Asia, Tien et al. (2013) proposed a hypothesized model and similar results were found. Career adaptability would predict an individual’s perception of life satisfaction positively.

Predictors for Career Adaptability

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined as people’s beliefs about their capability to perform well in certain given tasks. Several studies have shown that career adaptability measured by the CAAS is related to important career-related skills, beliefs, and strategies. For instance, career adaptability positively predicted team work skills (de Guzman & Choi, 2013) and job search self-efficacy (Guan et al., 2013). Yang et al. (2015) explored the differences and relations among career self-efficacy, career adaptability and work adjustment of adult workers in Taiwan. In Tien et al.’s (2013) study, they found (1) statistically significant gender differences in adult workers’ career self-efficacy; (2) significant differences in adult workers’ career adaptability was also found; and (3) the model proposed to describe the causal relationship among career self-efficacy, career adaptability, and work adjustment was partially supported.

Personality. People are interested in and tend to gravitate toward occupational environments that, at least to a certain degree, fit their personality (Barrick, Mount, & Gupta, 2003). In Tien et al.’s study (2013), personality is also believed as an important factor related to career adaptability. Teixeira et al.’s (2012) research showed that career adaptability correlated positively with personality traits such as extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience in a Brazil sample. Van Vianen, Klehe, Koen, and Dries (2012) found similar relationships between career adaptability and the Big Five traits in Dutch participants.

Many research studies indicated that personality traits continue to change during adulthood, mainly during ages 20–40 years (Roberts, Robins, Caspi, & Trzesniewski, 2003).

Employability

The Meaning of Employability

Employability is important for an individual to obtain and keep a job. It is a skill or technique that can be acquired. It can also include an individual's attitude and personal traits (Harvey, Locke, & Morey, 2002). Fugate, Kinicki, and Ashforth (2004) defined employability from a psychosocial viewpoint. They believe that employability is a psychosocial construct that embodies individual characteristics. These characteristics enhance the individual-work interface and are valued by prospective employers. Employability can also be viewed as a personal resource (De Cuyper, Raeder, Van der Heijden, & Wittekind, 2012). It could be an aspect of self that reflects a sense of resiliency and an ability to manipulate the environment (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003).

Briefly summarized, it seems that employability concerns an individual's ability to gain and maintain employment. The contents of that ability include competencies (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006) and dispositions for an individual to obtain and retain a job. However, it can also be interpreted in terms of outputs associated with the likelihood of getting and retaining a job. Therefore, employability could be a concept of process instead of just being a status. People need to possess a certain number of employable skills to become employed, to keep a job, and to be successful in the process of career development. In our study, we will explore the concept of employment in terms of status and process in order to help people know more about the new meaning of employment today.

Components of Employability

Many researches have started to explore the content and components of employability in recent years. Guilbert, Bernaud, Gouvernet, and Rossier (2016) pointed that the definitions and models of employability are found to conceptually complement but not to contradict each other.

Hillage and Pollard (1998) indicated three components of employability: obtaining a job; keep the job or transferring to similar job; and transitions within the same organization. For an individual, employability depends on the knowledge, skills and attitudes they possess, the way they use those assets and present them to employees, and the context within which they seek work. In essence, there are four

important elements of employability: assets; deployment; presentation; and the context of personal circumstances and the labor market. The first three are analogous to the concepts of production, marketing, and sales. The fourth is analogous to the market place in which an individual operates. The employability assets comprise an individual's knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Deployment is a linked set of abilities, which include career management skills, job search skills, and strategic approach. Presentation refers to the specific ability to get a job, such as resume writing, references, interview techniques, and work experiences. The context of personal circumstances and the labor market includes personal circumstances such as caring responsibilities and household status affecting individuals ability to seek different opportunities, and external factors such as macro-economic demand and the pattern and level of job openings in the labor market.

Fugate et al.'s (2004) psychosocial viewpoint alludes to three component dimensions of employability, namely career identity, personal adaptability, and social and human capital. Career identity refers to an individual's "self-knowing" or knowing why s/he chooses a certain job. It is associated with one's motivation, value, and belief. Adaptability refers to the individual's perception and response to his/her surroundings, including people and environment. It refers to an individual's willingness and ability to change behaviors, feelings, and thoughts in response to environmental demands (Fugate et al., 2004). Human capital could be considered as an individual's personal resource, which may affect an individual's competence of knowing how to get more skills and knowledge to get a better career development. Human capital could be developed through continuing education and then used to promote the individual's career advancement. Batistic and Tymon (2017) found networking behaviors is related to increased internal and external perceived employability. This shows that social capital is vital to the development of employability. Ngoma and Dithan Ntale (2016) also reported that the psychological capital, social capital, and career identity are three elements that are helpful for individuals to respond to the challenges in employability.

From the viewpoint of competence and disposition, employment is the likelihood of obtaining and retaining a job. Competence-based employability includes job-specific and general or transferable skills (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). The four more general competencies are: (1) anticipation and optimization; (2) personal flexibility; (3) corporate sense; and (4) balance between employers' and employees' interests. In addition to the four competencies, occupational expertise is the basic component to obtain a job. People with occupational expertise derive greater benefit from inter-firm career opportunities (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996).

Given the increase in demands of today's work, skills acquisition, both professional and transferable, is important for employees to cope with changing work situations. Another component of competence-based employability is personal disposition, which includes attitudinal flexibility and a proactive personality (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). Attitudinal flexibility refers to the individual's willingness to be mobile, to change jobs, to develop competencies, to following training, or to be functionally flexible (De Grip, Van Loo, & Sander, 2004). The proactive

personality is a fairly broad concept. It includes openness to change at work, resilience, or positive self-evaluations (De Cuyper, Raeder, Van der Heijden, & Wittekind, 2012). From this viewpoint, self-efficacy, values, and beliefs can also be components of employability. In our study, the qualitative interview and verbatim analysis will include a more broad meaning of employability.

An Empirical Examination of Employability Competencies from Employers' and Employees' Viewpoints

Because of the significant changes occurring in the current work world structure, we need to search for new meanings of employability. Accordingly, research regarding employability is important in the current society. We accept that employability refers to an individual's ability to find a job, maintain the job, and make proper transitions. In our empirical study, we further explore the components of employability from the viewpoints of employer and employee. We applied grounded theory to interview adult workers and employers to establish a hierarchical model of employability. The meaning, content, and dimension of employability were also examined.

Method

Participants. In the study, *participants* were 29 (8 males, 21 females) employees and 12 (5 males, 7 females) employers in six work areas as defined by Holland (1985). For employees, the mean age of the 8 males was 31.88, $SD = 3.64$, ranging from 28 to 39 years. The mean age of the 21 females was 32.62, $SD = 3.35$, ranging from 27 to 38 years. They were interviewed by focus groups with 4–5 persons in a group. There were a total of six groups.

For the 12 employers, the mean age of the 5 males was 47.20, $SD = 14.55$, ranging from 34 to 67. The mean age of the 7 females was 38.57 ranging from 30 to 45, $SD = 5.0$. The 12 employers were interviewed (semi-structured interviews were used) individually. Their working experiences ranged from 4 to 45 years with an average of 18.75 years, $SD = 10.88$. For the 29 employees, average years of work experience was 10.04, ranging from 1 to 20 years and the $SD = 4.46$.

Research team. The *research team* was comprised of one 48-year-old female licensed psychologist and 5 graduate students, 2 in a doctoral program and 3 in a master's program. One student in the doctoral program and 2 in the master's program graduated while the study was conducted. The 5 graduate students aged from 24 to 37 with a mean of 31.60 ($SD = 5.18$). All team members received training regarding interview and data analysis. While the research was at the stage of interview and data analysis, the team members met weekly to discuss issues

related to interview and data analysis. While the doctoral assistant was conducting interviews, a paired master assistant was observing the process. During the process of data analysis, paired researchers conducted the analysis. The first author then served as the audit to enhance credibility and validity of the data analysis (Hill, Knox, Thompson, Williams, Hess, & Ladany 2005; Morrow, 2005). The first author is a professor with 17 years of experiences in teaching and research at universities. The 2 doctoral students and 1 master student have completed coursework in qualitative research. Four of them have taken career-related courses and conducted their thesis or dissertation on career topics.

Process. Participants were recruited by invitation letters sent by research team members through personnel offices in a variety of work areas such as business manager, teacher, computer program, interior designer, and tour guide. Some participants noticed the advertisement and called to participate, some were invited by the research team, and others were invited individually through the technique of “snowballing” or chain sampling. Morrow (2005) asserted that snowballing or chain sampling is also a legitimate strategy as long as the strategy is purposeful.

The semi-structured interview guides were developed to provide a general structure for the research team to ensure that each of the topics was addressed in the process of interview. We created two versions of interview guidelines, one for employer and the other for employee. Both protocols covered similar materials but differed in terms of some wording. In the process of interviewing, we started with background information in present and previous jobs. For employers, the protocol included the following topics: (1) work experiences and current status; (2) experiences of seeking a job and getting promotion in work placement; (3) factors considered in hiring an employee; (4) criteria applied in evaluating an employee’s performance; and (5) how to balance group/company/personal interests and employees’ benefits. For employees, the protocol included the following categories of questions: (1) current status and school learning experiences associated with skills applied in work; (2) factors affecting job obtainment and promotion; (3) personal life and career planning; (4) family-related and environmental factors affecting personal career decision-making and future career; (5) life experiences and career adaptation in the past few years; (6) interpersonal relationships in the workplace; and (7) future career development.

Data analysis. Data were collected by semi-structured interviews. For the employers, most of the interviews were conducted individually in a counseling room at the first author’s department. Some were conducted at the interviewees’ office if it was quiet and suitable. Participants signed an informed consent before the interview. All interviews were audio taped and transcribed verbatim by college juniors or seniors in the department. They signed confidentiality agreements before transcribing and received 35 USD per hour of tape as part-time work salary. They were all students from the College of Education at the authors’ university.

For the employee, we conducted 6 focus groups, on average 4–5 members in each group. All focus groups were conducted at the conference room or group therapy room at the authors’ department. One of the doctoral assistants (the second

and third authors) served as the main facilitator and paired with a master assistant as co-facilitator in each of the focus groups. All the interviews were also audio-tape-recorded and transcribed by the same group of work-study students for individual interview. Waterton and Wynne (1999) assert that focus group allows for a flexible and fluid conversation essential to understand relations between risks and feelings of insecurity. It also strikes a balance between the informal nature of talk and the focused discussion of research topics (Puchta, Potter, & Wolffs, 2004).

Data collected through individual and focus group interviews were transcribed and analyzed by grounded theory method, which is a comprehensive method of data collection, analysis, and summarization whereby a hypothetical theory might be constructed. More specifically, the interviewed data was analyzed using the following process: (a) creation of a transcription derived from the semi-structured interviews, (b) identification of irrelevant or contextual material, (c) identification of meaningful units and coding, (d) assimilation of meaningful units coding into conceptual categories, (e) grouping of conceptual categories into domain categories, and (f) development of core categories. In the (a), (b), (c), and (d) steps of the process, two of the authors in a group read the responses and generated themes together. We refer to step (c) as “open coding.” In step (d), similarity comparison, categorization, and definition for each of the conceptual categories were processed. We denote this step as “axial coding.” After open coding and axial coding, the six authors then worked together to discuss and agree on specific category themes in steps (e) and (f), which is the step of “selective coding.”

At the stage of open coding, we applied the principle of descriptive coding, which relies primarily on the participants' words in the verbatim for meaning and avoids researchers' personal subjective interpretation (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Based on the detailed line-by-line open coding, we discovered meaningful units of the concept of employability. The research team, two in a group, then continued to code all the individual participants' responses and classified those responses into several categories at the stage of axial coding, selective coding, and cross-participants/cross-group analysis.

To describe this more specifically, we scrutinized the meanings of each participant's responses and recorded each meaningful unit on separate cards (open coding). We then compared these units, classifying them into different categories. We then provided a name for each type (axial coding). The similarities among the category names were further examined and sorted into the core categories (selective coding). Each core category was given a “category theme.” The hypothetical model was then established, based on these themes, to describe the employability perceived by participants.

During the process of data analysis, we analyzed the individual participant and group separately. After this was completed, we conducted cross participant/group analysis, but the models of employability perceived by employers and employees were created separately. The created models will be discussed in the results section.

Ethical aspects. All the participants signed the informed consents before they were interviewed. They are willing to participate in the study without any rewards.

However, the interview process helped them review the important issues related to their career development.

Results

Since the data in regard to employability perceived by employers and employees were analyzed separately, we created the hypothesized models separately. Figures 18.1 and 18.2 are hierarchical models of employability perceived by employers and employees. Both models are quite similar to each other. Both models contain 6 core categories: professional knowledge and skills; career planning and transferrable skills; career identity and adjustment; communication and cooperation; career preparation/readiness; and personal traits/human capital resources. Under the 6 core categories are 11 subcategories of employability, two in each main category except for the career preparation and readiness. In addition, the only difference between employers and employees is the subcategory, “career promotion and transference.” For the employees’ perception, it parallels the concept, “work performance.” It seems that employees usually sense their own performance, while their boss would think of promotion and transference. It means that the bosses with more work experiences in the workplace would think more about their near future.

During the process of data scrutiny and analysis, the research team members found that the relationship among these categories of employability might not be static. It might be cyclical and flowing. We therefore created more figures to describe the relationship between these categories of employability. Similar to the aforementioned hierarchical models, the two figures for employers and employees are quite the same. Figure 18.1 is for employers and Fig. 18.2 is the model of context and process of employability for employees. Before entering the world of work, ability of career preparation and readiness are important. In addition, personal positive traits and background might be related to the individual’s possibility of being hired. Personal skills and abilities in a certain field should be the basic components of employability at this point of career development.

After the individuals enter employment important employability components include positive working attitude, interpersonal relationships/cooperation, identity and loyalty to the professional work, and work-family balance/adjustment. Generally speaking, the components of employability contained in the process model for employers and employees are similar to each other. Only the micro-categories under some of the employability categories are different. For example, under the category of interpersonal relationships and cooperation, employees perceive more emphasis on team work spirit, communication with colleagues/supervisors/customers, and increasing opportunities via network. For employers, perceived employability focused on leadership ability, conflict resolution ability, interpersonal skills at work, and ability to communication with supervisors.

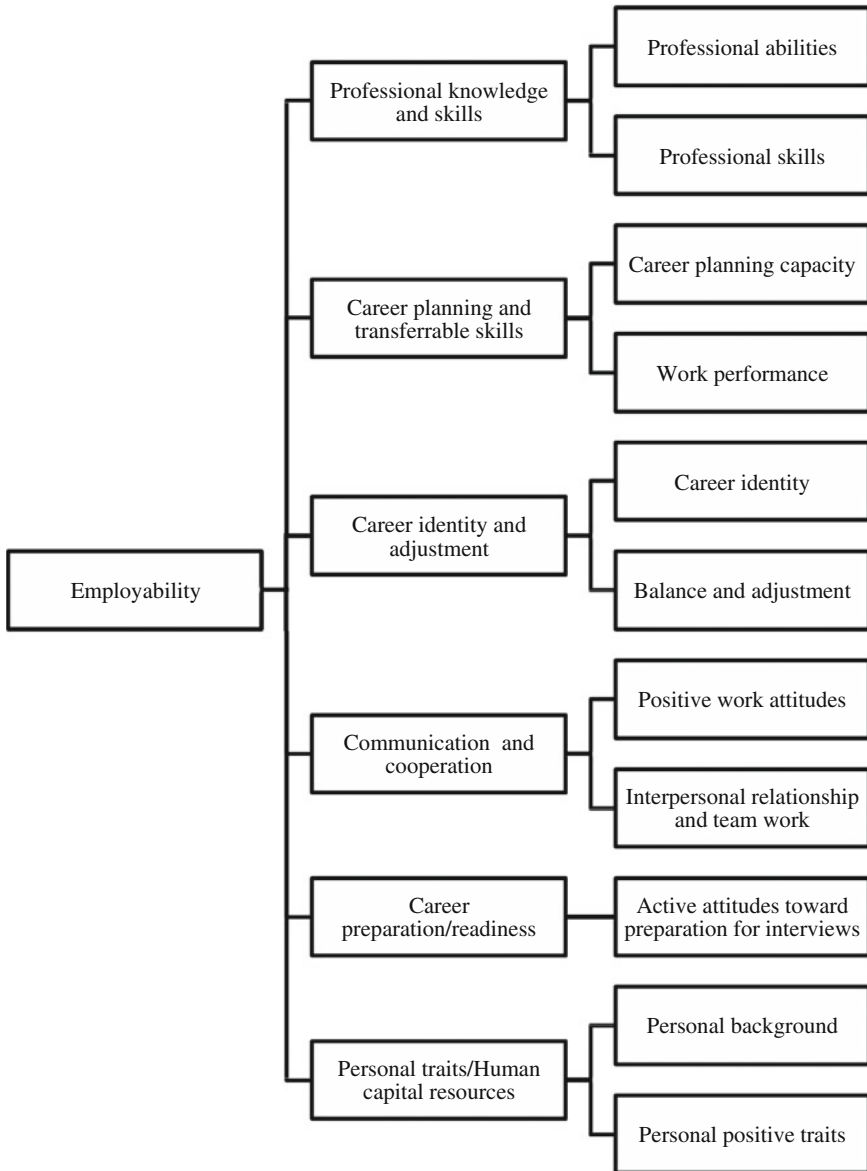


Fig. 18.1 The structure of core categories of employability (employer)

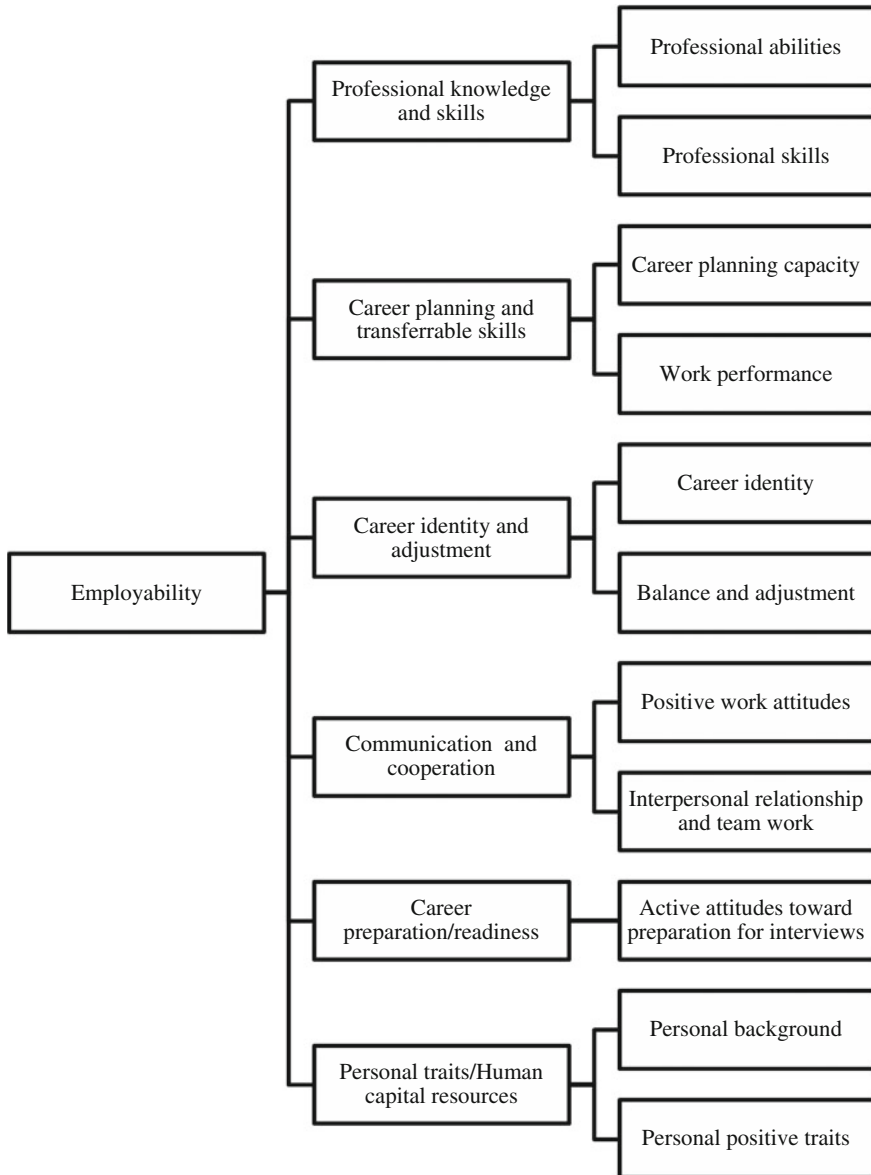


Fig. 18.2 The structure of core categories of employability (employee)

Resilience

The Meaning of Resilience

Resilience refers to a positive adaptation process within which an individual confronts obstacles or challenges (Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000; Masten, 1994). Under the contexts of a career or job organizations, Luthans (2002) believes that resilience is “a new positive organizational behavior capacity (p. 699)” emphasizing that resilience is not just a simple adaptation but an important resource in an individual’s adaptation process. Luthans recommends full implementation of resilience in careers or jobs and defined the concept of resilience, as adapted to the workplace, as “the developable capacity to rebound or bounce back from adversity, conflict, and failure or even positive events, progress, and increased responsibility” (p. 702).

Among the studies related to career resilience conducted in Taiwan, China, and other Asian areas, most of them focus on the concept and content of career resilience and the correlation between career resilience and workplace. These studies have suggested that career resilience can be viewed as a multidimensional construct (Lee & Chen, 2008; Wei & Taormina, 2014) and that it is a vital psychological capital for an individual and an important factor for working adults to successfully confront and resist stress (Chen, Hsu, Lu, & Wu, 2012).

Resilience as Antecedent for Work Stress and Other Career Variables

Career resilience also has a positive effect on job performance (Lee, 2009), career success (Wei & Taormina, 2014), and maintains a close correlation with career decisions and decision-making strategies. Also, career resilience has a positive effect on career adaptation (Buyukgoze-Kavas, 2016).

As for coping with stress, Chen et al. (2012) conducted a study on Taiwanese female managers and found that female managers adopt a positive, optimistic attitude, carefully filter negative messages, actively cope with stress when they confront stereotypes, doubt and rely on external recognition, and meet requirements and balance of being in multi-roles. Regarding adopting a positive, optimistic attitude, Lee and Chen (2008) constructed a multidimensional occupational resilience scale which converse three contents, managing embarrassment with humor, self-relaxation, and optimistic imagination, using preschool teachers as subjects. Lee and Chen found that there was a positive association among occupational hope beliefs, occupational resilience, and organization virtuous behaviors. They also found that hope beliefs had a significant effect on resilience and resilience had a significant effect on virtuous behaviors. Lee (2009) and Hsiao (2015) also indicated a positive correlation between these significant psychological capitals and work

performance of Taiwanese teachers. Based on 244 nurses in China as subjects, Wei and Taormina (2014) indicated that career resilience is a good indicator of predictability in career success.

Moreover, Hong (2012) in Taiwan found that career resilience is a significant protective factor for unemployed people. The content of career resilience includes assisting unemployed people to cushion and adjust their emotions at the initial stage of unemployment, to continuously self-affirm and be persistent in the middle stage of unemployment, and to enhance their assessment of their job transformation and develop learning abilities in the late stage.

Regarding career decision, Shin and Kelly (2015) investigated resilience as predictors of difficulties that people experience during decision making processes, using 264 Korean college students as subjects. The result demonstrated that resilience had a positive correlation with decision-making strategies that are active, firm, and focused, such as being willing to coordinate, and involvement and hard-working during the process. Overall, resilience had a negative correlation with decision-making difficulties. After they controlled background variables, resilience showed a significant explanatory power on career decisions.

Buyukgoze-Kavas (2016) conducted a study regarding the correlation between career resiliency and career adaptation on 415 undergraduate students in Turkey and found that participants with greater resilience, hope, and optimism perceived themselves to have better career adaptabilities. They also found that career adaptability was significantly predicted by hope, resilience, and optimism.

Recommendations for Future Research

Although there are some research studies for the idea of resilience, there are not many in career resilience. As we do the literature review and based on the counseling practical experiences, we believe that career resilience might be an important intermediate variable between career adaptability and satisfaction. The relationship between resilience, career satisfaction, and life satisfaction are worthwhile to be further explored.

Summary

In this chapter, we presented the meaning and components of career adaptability, employability, and resilience for Asian people. The three concepts were emphasized separately although they usually connected to each other in real life. In Asia, a more traditional society compared to Western society, people exhibit a more collectivist inclination and share experiences with each other. However, they also emphasize competition between people because they want to perform better than others and feel proud of themselves. In summary, career adaptability is a new idea that has been tested in different countries. The short 24-item evaluation could be applied in

different countries (including Asian countries). For employability, the current chapter proposed an empirical study to describe components of employability from both employer and employee viewpoints. Resilience has been an important variable concerned by psychologists and counselors in work stress area (Hong, 2012; Lee & Chen, 2008; Masten, 1994; Shin & Kelly, 2015; Wei & Taormina, 2014). However, we need to have more research on the connection between resilience and the field of career counseling.

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Part VII
**Drawing on Career Adaptability,
Employability, and Career Resilience to
Promote Social Justice**

Chapter 19

Paradigm and Promise: Life Design, Psychology of Working, and Decent Work

William C. Briddick and Hande Sensoy-Briddick

Abstract The 21st century has brought with it considerable change in the world of work across the globe. Recent events within professional organizations and the professional literature related to career development and counseling signal interesting opportunities to address the topic of decent work. The arrival of the Psychology of Working Theory along with other theories in recent years answers Savickas's call for the renovation and reinvigoration of the study of careers. Scholarly efforts in advancing the paradigm of Life Design and those, more recently, to address the topic of Decent Work show promise for a new direction in theory and practice of career development and counseling. The authors identify two specific pieces of the Life Design paradigm they feel may prove useful in advancing career development and career counseling toward emerging horizons.

Keywords Career development · Career adaptability · Life-design
Psychology of working · Decent work

Dedication

When I (Chris Briddick) asked my father about his definition of decent work he had a most interesting reply: "A decent day's pay for a decent day's work". It was no surprise, coming from the grandson of a man who worked with John L. Lewis on issues related to the work environment of coal miners. Women in our family have been equally as hard working both in traditional roles in the home as well as working in the labor force, finding whatever solid employment they could and sticking with it. My great-grandfather was a miner. In fact, there were miners on both sides of my family and my father married a coal miner's daughter. However, my father and his brother broke from the ranks and moved into trades. My father was refused initial employment as a miner by someone who knew his father.

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My grandfather was maimed in a mine blast losing his leg well above the knee. My father is a retired union electrician with the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers 702 in southern Illinois. He spent a lot of time around construction across his career as an electrician. My dad's work was good and steady. The union helped keep his work decent, his pay respectable, and his retirement secure. My two brothers are electricians with the same union, my sister is an electrical engineer. I am a construction worker of sorts with my interest being how people construct their careers and how counselors can help them mine certain pieces of their life to energize the connections that will shed light, giving meaning and power to their stories. This chapter is dedicated to the many generations of our family as well as any and everyone who has ever sought to find, secure, and maintain decent work. Like many of us, I am where I am because of where they have been.

I, Hande Sensoy-Briddick, as a foreign born American citizen, have always had an interest in sociological aspects of life. Born in Turkey and exposed to different religious and ideological perspectives, simply due to location of my country of origin, I was raised paying attention not only to intrapsychic aspects of human growth but also environmental factors that promote wellness and achievement. Maybe my exposure to certain philosophers such as Karl Marx and Vladimir Lenin during my college years increased my sensitivity to social justice issues. Consequently, I have long thought that psychological concepts should also be anchored in sociological perspectives. Simply put, I believe that a decent work environment is as essential to career development as a client's personal inner resources. An exploitative work environment will never allow a person to achieve their potential. As employers demand 21st century skills from workers, it is equally important for them to create a 21st century work environment that encourages and empowers their employees. The concept of decent work helps to capture the complexity of career counseling in this century. Indeed let us dedicate this bit of writing and thought to those who desire and seek decent work.

The goals of this chapter are to highlight the global changes in the world of work since the turn of the 21st century as well as responses to these changes by scholars in the field of career development as well as those of global organizations. The authors also seek to identify recent key theoretical advances as well as recognize the significance of the emergence of the paradigm of Life Design. The authors make as their specific purpose, identifying two particular pieces of the Life Design paradigm both of which can be highly instrumental in helping to shape the future of career development work into a broader context and in the direction beyond traditional settings and populations into the realm of decent work.

Introduction

The arrival of the 21st century brought with it recognition of the changing landscape of work. In 1999, the US Department of Labor (DOL, 2009) released a report entitled *Futurework: Trends and Challenges for Work in the 21st Century*. Released on Labor Day in 1999, the report was meant to be thought-provoking for its readers as well as outlining just how much the world of work had changed in the last few decades of the 20th Century, reminding the reader that though the 20th century was drawing to a close, the 21st Century had, in fact, already arrived. With a strong economy and the lowest unemployment rate in 30 years, the US entered the new century and new millennium with higher wages, productivity on the rise, and inflation in check (p. 1). The last year of the century was also marked with another significant document that was more global in nature. The first report of Juan Somavia in his role as the Director General of the International Labour Organization acknowledged the “preoccupations” for finding decent employment opportunities during times of great change. His report would launch the Decent Work Agenda, focused on what was defined as four strategic objectives:

- (1) The promotion of rights at work
- (2) Employment
- (3) Social protection
- (4) Social dialogue (ILO, 1999)

While in 1999 the audiences and focus of the two aforementioned reports were quite different (national vs. international), by the end of the first decade of the 21st century the turmoil and uncertainty created by a global financial crisis would find workers and those providing employment and career related services across the world having more in common than perhaps ever before.

Responses to Change

The challenges and needs that have emerged have been addressed on various levels. Intergovernmental agencies such as the United Nations including the International Labour Organization and professional organizations such as the International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance, and national organizations such as the US based National Career Development Association and other career related organizations, promote the significance of work and the availability of opportunities (i.e., training, education, etc.) as well as career related services. Such efforts continue to create a global awareness of the need for quality career services and increasingly the availability of career services for all workers across their working lives. Scholars in fields such as vocational psychology and career development and counseling have searched for more useful approaches in theory and practice answering Savickas’s call for the renovation of the psychology of

careers and reinvigoration of the study of career development (Savickas, 2000, 2002a) to meet the challenges of the first decade of the new century and beyond toward a more comprehensive theory of career development (Savickas 2001a, 2001b). The providers of career services have been faced with the challenge to respond to global changes in the world of work by adapting and changing their work to meet the career-life needs of clients across a rapidly changing landscape.

Progress: Theory and Paradigm

Still, in spite of the rapid, unsettling changes of the first decade of the 21st century there have been positive responses and directions in career development and counseling. Theoretical advances in career counseling and development (Blustein, 2011; Duffy, Blustein, Diemer, & Autin, 2016; Krumboltz, 2009; Savickas, 2002b, 2005) have helped practitioners and clients alike appreciate the personal nature of work and provided new perspectives from which we can address career issues and concerns.

While multiple theories have contributed considerably to the field, the emergence of the paradigm of Life Design (Savickas et al., 2009; Savickas, 2012) has likewise made for significant contributions to meeting the challenges many workers face the 21st Century. Life Design (Savickas et al., 2009; Savickas, 2012) represents a shift in paradigm for career intervention addressing the instability and uncertainty related to the world of work that has intensified within the first decade and beyond of the 21st century and responding to the crisis related to models and methods in the field of career development. Savickas (2012) describes the necessity of the shift in paradigm as a result of the changes in the world of work. Essentially, workers in the 21st century need something more than the two paradigms of the 20th century, namely vocational guidance and career education, could provide. Still, Savickas clarifies that the purpose of Life Design is not to replace existing paradigms of career intervention but rather to enhance career intervention to better address both “a client’s needs and social context” (p. 17). Five presuppositions of Life Design counseling proposed by Savickas et al. (2009) clearly demonstrate the shift in thinking: (1) From traits and states to context; (2) From prescription to process; (3) From linear causality to non-linear dynamics; (4) From scientific facts to narrative realities; and (5) From describing to modeling (pp. 242–244).

The framework of Life Design interventions advanced by Savickas et al. (2009) is based in social constructionism addressing both identity and meaning making within the theory of self-construction (Guichard, 2005) and Savickas’s theory of career construction (Savickas, 2002a, 2002b, 2005). As noted, the framework is purposefully methodized “to be life-long, holistic, contextual, and preventive” (p. 244). Ginevra, Di Maggio, Nota, and Soresi (2017) recently highlighted significance of life design based intervention in addressing the complexities of the modern world of work.

Intervention within the Life Design paradigm has the dual goals of adaptability and narratability. Adaptability is fostered as a means of assisting the client in dealing with change. Narratability brings a sense of cohesion and stability to the client's story. Adaptability is improved via focus on what are known as the Five Cs of Career Construction Theory: concern, control, curiosity, confidence and commitment (Savickas et al., 2009). Narratability is used to bring coherence to the client's story not only in regard to their career but also their life in general. Savickas (2012) concisely outlined the purpose of how intervention is structured within the paradigm:

The paradigm for Life Design structures interventions to (a) construct career through small stories, (b) deconstruct these stories and reconstruct them into to an identity narrative or life portrait, and (c) co-construct intentions that lead to the next action episode in the real world (p. 15).

Savickas et al. (2009) outlined six steps in the intervention model of Life Design: (1) identify the problem and client hopes; (2) client exploration of subjective system of identity forms; (3) opening perspectives/making the implicit explicit; (4) placing the problem in a new story; (5) identify specific activities for the client to assist the client with trying on and actualizing desired role or identity; (6) and follow-up (long and short-term) (pp. 246–247). The *Life Design Counseling Manual* (Savickas, 2015) provides an in-depth rationale and protocol for the Life Design counseling process.

Promise: Psychology of Working, Life Design, and Decent Work

The arrival of the Psychology of Working Theory (PWT) represents a shift as significant as the theory itself, that being the topic of decent work. Duffy et al. (2016) speak directly to the topic of decent work noting the shortcomings of the actual study of decent work within psychological research. The arrival of the PWT presents an opportunity to consider utility of existing paradigms and theories in addressing the topic of decent work. A suitable place to start might be the most recent paradigm of Life Design. The Decent Work Agenda was introduced in 1999 while Life Design, though its pieces were coming together across prior years, was introduced a decade later. In the years since its introduction Life Design has attracted considerable attention from scholars and practitioners. The Life Design related *Career Adapt Abilities Scale* (CAAS) has proven useful for work in countries around the globe. Glavin and Berger (2013) succinctly summarized the success of the scale and its development. The scale developed by collaborators from 18 countries eventually culminating in research in 13 of the 18 countries on the reliability and validity of the scales signal an excellent intervention for assisting clients toward improving their career adaptability (Glavin & Berger, 2013). Duffy et al. (2017) have further advanced the relationship between Psychology of Working

Theory and decent work with the development and validation of a 15 item Decent Work Scale to provide a means of being able to assess decent work from a psychological point of view. Along with the arrival of Psychology of Working Theory, seven years into the first decade of Life Design and into the second decade of the Decent Work Agenda there resides hope and promise for part of what the United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (UN, 2015) seeks to accomplish found in Goal 8, that is to “Promote inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all.”

Adaptability and Narratability

Two pieces of the Life Design paradigm that hold immediate promise for addressing decent work are found within its goals of (career) adaptability and narratability. How might Life Design and its interventions be useful to individuals who by the definition provided by Duffy et al. (2016) are pursuing work that is comprised of “(a) physical and interpersonally safe working conditions (e.g., absent of physical, mental, or emotional abuse), (b) hours that allow for free time and adequate rest, (c) organizational values that complement family and social values, (d) adequate compensation, and (e) access to adequate health care” (p. 130)?

Adaptability

Savickas (1997) defined adaptability as “the readiness to cope with the predictable tasks of preparing for and participating in the work role and with the unpredictable adjustments prompted by changes in work and working conditions” (p. 254). As stated previously, within the Life Design paradigm individuals develop adaptability via the Five C’s concern, control, curiosity, confidence and commitment (Savickas et al. 2009). Rudolph, Lavigne, and Zacher (2017) conducted a meta-analysis involving 90 studies looking at the relationships between career adaptability and measures of adaptivity, adapting responses, adaptation results, as well as demographic covariates. The study yielded results that offered significant support for career adaptability in its relation to the aforementioned.

Workers pursuing decent work may, on one hand, be no different from other individuals in pursuit of employment. However, the Life Design paradigm and its counseling approach is flexible in helping individuals in enhancing their *concern* for their future as well as helping them achieve a better sense of *control* for what is ahead of them. Life Design does not preclude considerations of decent work identified by the ILO such as desire for work that can be deemed productive and provide fair compensation. It likewise does not preclude considerations for security, personal development, families, and the necessity of involvement in workplace decision-making (i.e., organizing, representation, expressing concerns, etc.).

Life Design can foster *curiosity* beyond the confines of the present by encouraging exploration of possibilities for one's future while building *confidence* to move toward what one can imagine. It can help those in search of decent work to consider what other possibilities might be attainable for them outside what they recognize in the present and in the direction of more decent opportunities. Lastly, Life Design can assist clients in developing their *commitment* to what they can envision ahead for them in a more decent, attainable future.

Narratability

Assisting clients with their career stories can be achieved by using the Career Construction Interview (Savickas, 1989, 1998, 2009). Savickas (2015) provided a shorter version of the Career Construction Interview (CCI) than previous versions. The most recent version provides questions related to Role Model; Favorite Magazines, Television Shows, and Websites; Favorite Story; Favorite Sayings; and Early Recollections. Case studies demonstrating its utility can be found in the literature (Savickas, 2005; Taber & Briddick, 2011; Taber, Hartung, Briddick, Briddick, & Rehfuss, 2011; Maree & Crous, 2012; Maree, 2014, 2016)

While the *Career Adapt Abilities Scale* (CAAS) has proven to translate across cultures and countries other resources are still emerging. *My Career Story* (Savickas & Hartung, 2012) while having versions in English, French, and Portuguese, has not been translated or adapted to a wide extent thus far though other translations are underway (e.g., Turkish). Briddick and Sensoy-Briddick (2012) in writing about the role of role models in Life Design noted the overall utility of the Career Construction Interview (then referred to as the Career Story Interview). The same can be said about the Career Construction based resource *My Career Story* as it allows clients to expand upon their answers to questions related to their own career construction in a workbook format. Briddick and Sensoy-Briddick reminded the reader of the potential utility of such interventions across cultures and countries:

Every society has its own model examples, stories and cultural scripts readily available to its members. Whether these examples are human or nonhuman, factual or fictional does not matter. The aforementioned are generalizable enough for individuals to apply to their own life, constructing and designing who they want to be via these sources of self (p. 331).

Perhaps the question related to whether or not Life Design is relevant to those seeking decent work is the wrong question entirely replaced by two more appropriate questions asking just how it is relevant and when Life Design will arrive front and center in working with clients who might be seeking decent work?

Professional and Governmental Organizations

In recent years the UNESCO Chair of Lifelong Guidance and Counseling at the University of Wrocław's Institute of Pedagogy has coordinated three conferences the first of which was entitled *Career Guidance, Counselling and Dialogue for a Sustainable Human Development* held on November 26–27, 2013 at the University of Wrocław. The second conference was related specifically to Life Design and decent work and was held July 4–5, 2015 in Florence, Italy. It was referred to as the UNESCO Chair on Lifelong Guidance and Counseling Conference and posed the question, "How can career and Life Designing interventions contribute to a fair and sustainable development and to the implementation of decent work over the world?". The third conference took place back in Wrocław, Poland June 6–8, 2016 and was recognized as a joint effort by Institute of Pedagogy, University of Wrocław and the European Society for Vocational Designing and Career Counseling. The most recent conference was entitled, *Career and Life Design Interventions for Sustainable Development and Decent Work*. Network for Innovation in Career Guidance & Counselling in Europe (NICE) held a conference entitled *Counseling and Support for Decent Work, Equity and Inclusion: Passwords for the Present and the Future* on October 5–7, 2017 at the University of Padova in Padova, Italy. Life design was well represented on its program of presentations.

Professional Literature

Life Design continues to flourish as a paradigm. *The Career Development Quarterly* devoted an entire issue to Life Design in March of 2016 entitled Special Issue: Career Intervention for Life Design with articles by who's who list of scholars involved in Life Design related work (Hartung, 2016). As Duffy et al. (2016) published the Psychology of Working Theory in the *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, (Blustein et al., 2016) published *Decent Work: A Psychology of Working Perspective* in the online, open access journal *Frontiers in Psychology*. The articles, along with the one by Blustein et al. were related to a research topic entitled: *From Meaning of Working to Meaningful Lives: the Challenges of Expanding Decent Work* (Frontiers Media, 2016). Pouyaud (2016) provided another article of particular significance to the topic of Life Design and its potential useful role of intervention for clients seeking and trying to maintain decent work. Pouyaud's article entitled *For a Psychosocial Approach to Decent Work* lays out a proposed psychosocial framework for approaching decent work within career counseling which is inspired by a grand research design examining the impact of the counseling relationship. Pouyaud incorporated parts of the *bilan de compétences*, a career counseling and guidance system utilized in France, inspirations from grounded theory, triangulation of perspectives, and self-confrontation procedure into a six part Participatory Action Research procedure with Part 3 of the procedure utilizing the Career Construction Interview (p. 5). Other articles addressing this research topic included articles addressing

marginalization, temporary, and insecure work (Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2016), positive self and relational management (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2016), Brazilian workers without a college education (Ribeiro, Silva, & Figueiredo, 2016), career adaptability related to retirees returning to work (Luke, McIlveen, & Perera, 2016), and career and self-construction among emerging adults (Maree & Twigg, 2015).

Pouyaud (2016) provides a conclusion that is telling. Issues related to decent work have always been a factor in the lives of some workers but the modern world of work has witnessed issues once related to decent work spreading across groups of workers and social class.

Pouyaud observed:

A main difficulty of today's world of work is that working conditions are deteriorating. Work has become increasingly precarious and constraining. This change does not only concern the poorest countries, where work may not even allow survival, but also rich ones, where work has become a form of alienation, even if it provides sufficient income. Thus, middle class populations are now concerned with the problem of decent work (p. 12).

More recently, Autin, Douglass, Duffy, England, and Blake (2017) incorporated career adaptability into a study informed by Psychology of Working Theory as a means of exploring the relationships over time between subjective social status, work volition, and career adaptability.

Conclusion

As the Decent Work Agenda approaches its 20th year and Life Designing approaches its 10th year an interesting opportunity presents itself for career development both in theory and practice. The convergence of the Decent Work Agenda and Life Designing moves career development and counseling in the direction of populations who need us most both those who have traditionally sought our services and those who have desperately needed our services since the arrival of vocational guidance in Boston with the work of Frank Parsons in 1908. Workers across the planet have more in common at present than perhaps at any other point in history. Helping them move forward with confidence in their stories and with skill in adaptability to assist them is certainly within our reach as theorists and practitioners. Recent activities in gatherings of scholars both at historic meetings and in the literature are promising. However, Savickas might be quick to remind us that we are not alone in paradigm or promise. We also have other parts of our history on our side. As Savickas (2012) noted:

Depending on a client's needs and social context, practitioners may apply career interventions that reflect different paradigms: vocational guidance to identify occupational fit, career education to foster vocational development, or Life Design to construct a career. Each paradigm for career intervention whether it is modernity's guidance, late modernity's education, or postmodernity's design—is valuable and effective for its intended purpose (p. 17).

May we move forward with purpose and confidence in our profession's stories as well as our own adaptability in mind.

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Chapter 20

Career Self-determination Theory

Charles P. Chen

Abstract Self-determination theory is a more recent psychology theory that focuses on finding and utilizing the inner human strength and potential to promote individuals' wellbeing in life, convening a perspective of positive psychology for human motivation and behavior. This chapter attempts to apply the core principles and constructs from the self-determination theory to the field of vocational and career psychology. To do so, the chapter navigates the optimal prospect of the three adopted key determinants and constructs, namely, career autonomy, career competence, and career relatedness, demonstrating and supporting the consideration of self-determination in career development. The three core constructs are elaborated in conjunction with the main tenets and perspectives from a wealth of major vocational and career psychology theories, establishing the relevance of the three core determinants and constructs in forming a career self-determination theory. Thus, the newly proposed career self-determination theory represents a meaningful endeavor of theoretical integration. In this regard, career self-determination theory is an emerging meta-theory to conceptualize and promote vocational and career wellbeing.

Keywords Positive psychology • Motivation and behavior • Vocational and career psychology • Career autonomy • Career competence • Career relatedness
Career self-determination theory

Introduction

As an emerging theory to describe and understand the psychology of human motivation, self-determination theory (SDT) proposed by Ryan and Deci (2000, 2008) appears to provide a useful alternative in explaining the dynamic and complex interaction between motivation influences, human behaviors, and life

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outcomes. With a developmental perspective, SDT adopts a positive outlook in considering key constructs that affect human growth in life situations, focusing on the specific conditions that promote healthy development. To bridge these developmental outcomes to specific motivational processes, SDT elaborates how fulfilling the fundamental human needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness shapes the overall healthy state of human psychological functioning, which in turn, affects various aspects of wellbeing of individuals. It is these three essential constructs that help individuals to motivate themselves more intrinsically, thereby contributing to better life outcomes in various ways and under different circumstance.

This chapter intends to espouse SDT in career psychology. More specifically, the chapter navigates the great potential of utilizing the three key human needs, namely, autonomy, competence, and relatedness, in establishing and maintaining more optimal career motivation and behaviors that lead to more satisfying and favorable outcomes in individuals' worklife. Similar to the worldview of positive psychology, SDT aims to prompt the general wellbeing of individuals through a better comprehension of the three primary human needs that comprise the very sources of sustainable motivations for human action. As a pivotal part of individuals' total life, vocational and career wellness is definitely affected by the core motivational sources as those identified in SDT. This validates the consideration of SDT in contexts of career development and vocational wellbeing. To this end, the present chapter aims to take a close look at the pertinence of the three key constructs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness within the domain of career psychology, establishing the relevance of these key aspects in directing and helping individuals as they endeavor to manage their career actions and vocational behaviors for more desirable outcomes. To incorporate the existing major career theoretical principles and tenets into the key dimensions of SDT, the chapter proposes the new framework of a career self-determination theory (CSDT).

To facilitate clarity and smoother delivery, the third person usage of "she" and "he" is neutral in meaning and not gender-specific. The terms he, she, his, and her are used interchangeably, indicating merely a third person in a life-career situation.

Career Autonomy

Career autonomy represents an integral part of human need to direct and manage vocational life in ways that allow individuals to master their will and liberty more fully, expressing what they truly want or do not want to do in composing their worklife experiences. Within vocational and career psychology, the essential role of autonomy was well-recognized by work adjustment theory (Dawis, 1996). According to Dawis (2002), autonomy is an essential human need to manifest "the importance of being independent and having a sense of control" (p. 446). As a general tendency and inclination in living and existence, the need for autonomy

covers all aspects of human life, including individuals' worklife and its associated vocational behaviors and career actions. While career autonomy is an integral expression of people's need to be in control of their general life destination, it pertains more specifically to elements and aspects that affect people's vocational and career wellbeing. These aspects include, but are not limited to, essential constructs of self-concept, vocational interest, and meaning in one's vocational life.

Self-concept

Lying in the core of the career autonomy is the career self-concept or vocational self-identity defined by Super (1982, 1990), parallel to the postmodern notion of sense of self in the career realm (Maree, 2013). Career self-concept serves as an overarching, comprehensive, and integral controller that interacts with, coordinates, and directs other dynamics and determinants in a person's complex psychological activities and operations via entire lifespan. Among all these personal dynamics that facilitate and reinforce career autonomy within the person, self-concept plays the most important and inclusive role. It takes control at the center, processing and managing other psychological elements into a coherent whole for the unique selfhood in life-career processes (Maree, 2015). Career self-concept manifests the natural human needs and tendency to take control of one's occupational aspirations and vocational behaviors in line with one's perceived life roles and vocational identity, reflecting the core of autonomy. This autonomous selfhood seeks to construct subjective meanings that make sense to one's self-concept system in which vocational self-identity or career self-concept operates and evolves.

Being part of the total self-concept system in a person's psychological functioning, the career self-concept plays a pivotal role to direct and coordinate the selfhood when it comes to encounter aspects of vocational life. With a strong inclination toward their subjective views of selfhood, individuals prescribe to career choices that resonate to their sense of individuality (McMahon, 2017). Notwithstanding the similar variables and norms such as positive and negative senses of self in career decision making situations, the formation and operation of self-concept indicates a unique process of one's exercise of independence. Guided or affected by one's self-concept, how a person thinks and feels about a career problem or possibility represents an autonomous attempt for solution and outcome (Chen & Haller, 2015; Chen & Keats, 2016). In recognizing the fact that the individual self-concept is always rooted in and conditioned by the various environmental and contextual influences entangled at any given time and situation, the salient nature of self-concept as a core aspect in vocational behavior is too basic to be ignored. Career self-concept originates from the very human autonomous need to be an independent actor in living and it reflects both a human desire and directedness toward an end that is more fitting to the self-image people portray and project for their role and experiences in worklife contexts.

To follow Super (1990), there is a self-concept system in each person's psychological utility. This is because a person assumes multiple roles in her life-career journey, and each of these roles may pertain to a content-specific, context-defined, and meaning-salient self-concept that is more corresponding to the requirements and needs engendered by the role. A wealth of self-concepts compromise and operate within the self-concept constellation, directing the person to exercise autonomy over various roles and tasks in diverse environments and situations through the entire life-span. Depending on the need of the practicality under different circumstances, a self-concept may act individually or collectively with other self-concept(s) in the system to direct the person's psychological state, functionality, and movements in these particular settings and contexts. For example, a social and personal domain self-concept(s) may pertain to the person's way of communication with others in socialization. Likewise, a self-concept(s) in similar dimensions may prompt positive or negative perceptions while the person is conducting a self-talk to assess the priority and quality of his living experiences. In a vocational life and career development context, career self-concept ascribes a significant influence to an individual's subjective "I" in assessing a situation, understating the circumstance, making a decision, and executing a course of actions.

The metaphoric illustration of self-concept as both sides of the same coin, i.e. the subjective dimension "I" and the objective dimension "me", is heuristic to conceive the entirety of a self-concept in practice and operation (Chen, 2015). It is well understood that the subjective "I" dimension of the career self-concept is an apparent and direct expression of a person's tendency and functionality of psychological autonomy in regard to vocational life events and experiences. On the other side, the more objective dimension "me" is heavily influenced by all kinds of interpersonal, extra-personal, environmental, and other external events, factors, and conditions. This state points to the coexistence and interrelation of "I" and "me" in forming and utilizing one's career self-concept for vocational wellness. The object "me" is the social dimension of self that processes information from a person's interaction with other people, as well as the outside world. The role of "me" is to provide the subjective "I" with the much-needed contextual and background information so that external and social meanings are well considered and incorporated into one's internal and personal meanings while composing a more well-rounded, socially pertinent, and subjectively meaningful self-concept in career construction. Apparently, the ultimate function of "me" is to inform, improve, and enhance the subjective "I", building a unique and independent selfhood that allows a person more liberty to go for her career projection that is coherent to and reflective of her self-concept. In doing so, both dimensions work together to strengthen the person's autonomy, enabling her to exercise more control toward a more optimal and desirable direction in career development actions and activities.

Vocational Interest

While Holland's (1997) personality type theory can be both a heuristic epistemology and assessment tool to understand the basic nature of personality or interest in people's career preference, the role and function of vocational interest as a key component for individuals' career autonomy goes above and beyond the traditional perception of vocational personality types. Vocational interest here indicates a person's desire to mobilize and make use part of her inner power and strength to regulate and manage a career decision making situation. To follow the major principles and tenets proposed and established by Holland, it is necessary to accurately identify the dominant personality types of a person with regard to his vocational interest. Based on that, a search of the corresponding occupational alternatives that match the dominant personality types is conducted to ensure the right fit between the two sides, i.e., the person and the appropriate occupational setting. A more accurate congruence between the personality types and the work environment may provide the person with a higher degree of liberty to utilize his interest in a much more fulfilling way because of the congruence between the two sides.

The anticipated outcome of the congruence starts with people's natural tendency to make full and more appropriate use of their unique quality of personality and interest in their vocational behaviors and worklife experiences. People's inclination to express their personality and interest via the fitting work environment is essentially a manifestation of their unique personal qualities. The better the congruence between the personality types and the chosen work environment, the more control a person feels in the correspondent work environment. It is expected that the congruence will allow a person to better utilize her unique personality, leading to the higher probability of more motivation, better job performance, more successful results, and greater satisfaction. Consequently, career autonomy is better achieved when the congruence is better attained. Expression of vocational interest, in this context, is a way to express one's desire to be unique and independent when it comes to choosing a more pertinent career option and vocational environment. As such, the rationale for a career choice is deepened, and the purpose for a personality-environment fit expanded. Vocational interest, therefore, operates as a viable channel to express, access, and implement career autonomy. In so doing, it enables people to become more cognizant and proactive in examining their other unique inner qualities and constructs that coexist and intersect with their personality and interest. In conjunction with other personal constructs and circumstances, vocational interest can become less static yet more contextual in facilitating one's endeavor to choose and manage a meaningful career path.

Meanings and Meaning Making

The central role of personal meaning is arguably evident in all aspects of human living experiences, including vocational life (Bloch & Richmond, 2016; Chen, 2001; McMahon & Watson, 2015; Young, Valach, & Collin, 2002). In general and in essence, human functionality, whether psychological or physical in nature, is meaning-driven and meaning-yielding. This is to say that personal meaning provides the initial motivation and reasons to start a human function such as an act, action, activity, behavior, task, move, etc. In turn, this very function ends with expected and/or newly-generated meanings for the individual in process. Career autonomy depicts individuals' basic and instrumental tendency to express, utilize, and construct meanings that will guide and regulate their career prospects. Being autonomous means to go for career choices and possibilities that are truly making sense and meaningful to a person. Personal meaning provides the contents and context for a rationale upon which people exercise their independence when encountering career problems, carrying out course of action to maintain control of their worklife dynamics. Autonomous thinking, feeling, and action become operationalized as personal meanings are examined, processed, clarified, and integrated.

To explain the role of meanings and meaning making in career development, the contextualist career theory (Young, Valach, & Collin, 1996, 2002) can provide a viable illustration in light of career autonomy. People are goal-oriented and purposeful in their career construction, exercising intentionality through their career action. Intentionality directs people to incorporate personal meanings into the career development practice. Meanings that compose the intention instruct people to take or not take action, pointing to the right course of actions to implement and carry through. Career actions to instigate one's intention are really about realizing the meanings that inform and comprise the very intention to act and react to a career situation. Individual meanings can vary substantially so that the intention behind a vocational behavior may differentiate from one to another. Through these unique and different meaning manifestations, career autonomy is articulated and operated through meaning-rich intentionality. The autonomy, as represented by personal meanings and meaning making endeavor, is never static, but always in motion with one's evolving and dynamic functioning in life-careers. New insights and meanings may emerge along the meaning making process, contributing to the adjustment and enrichment of a person's autonomous need for career choice. At times, the newly-created meanings may even become a catalyst and logic that brings about a significant life-changing experience to one's career possibilities and vocational prospects. Career autonomy as a way of meaning-expression and meaning making, therefore, remains open and flexible for change, growth, and development.

In adopting the contextualist action perspective (Young et al. 1996, 2002), individual meanings can only be making sense in the particular contexts in which these meanings are defined and explicated. By the same token, meaning making ought to be performed within its given context in order to ensure the pertinence of the meaning making operation in process. In life-career situations, meanings can

alter if their contexts change. Without the clarity and understating of the relevant contexts, subjective meanings and meaning making processes have little meaningfulness to a person simply because meanings can be only described and explained within their very situations and circumstances. Consider the context of an unsuccessful job interview for two job seekers. Person A feels an overwhelming sense of failure and setback to his career autonomy because this job opening was deemed an extremely important career opportunity for him. Yet, person B feels a deep sense of relief because she knew that it would be a dilemma if the job offer came her way. She was hoping that it would not be her who has to decline the offer although she disliked many aspects of that opportunity in weighing the pros and cons. Thus, the rejection from the job interviewer actually facilitated her sense of control and autonomy in this career context. Apparently, different personal contexts can lead to very different meaning interpretations. In this sense, meanings are contextual, and so are the meaning making processes. Exercising personal control and realizing career autonomy are a depiction and practice of contextual meaning making that reflects diverse, rich, complex, dynamic, and open characteristics of various intrapersonal, extra-personal, environmental, and other pertinent contexts that affect people's career action and vocational behaviors.

Career Competence

In order to achieve autonomy, individuals have to possess, attain, and utilize innate competence that allows them to solve problems and reach more desirable outcomes. Career competence refers to an umbrella and overarching construct that encompasses a broad range of human qualities such as talents, wisdom, capacities, and skills to be used for effective vocational behaviors and career wellness (Niles & Harris-Bowlsbey, 2017; Zunker, 2015).

Competence Essentials

Competence is an umbrella and overarching human quality that includes many aspects of competence in various life contexts. Within this constellation of a person's total competence in life, career competence functions as an integral part, supplying resources to form effective behavior, implement productive plans, and execute the right course of actions. Competence in vocational behaviors is intertwined with competence in other aspects of life. As such, career competence is a representation of life competence, and vice versa. Elements of competence in one's general social and personal life coexist, interact, and integrate with competence in vocational life and career pursuits. For example, competency in interpersonal communication can affect all dimensions of one's life, including vocational life.

Likewise, abilities in making career choices and decisions depict in most cases a person's caliber in life-shaping and life-designing endeavor and activities (Cochran, 1991).

Despite the varieties and features of competence necessary for tasks under different circumstances and in diverse environments, career competence is composed of two major categories, namely, given capacities and gained skills. Given capacities are primarily the human qualities from the birth of each individual, reflecting the impact of nature in human development and living. In a career context, given capacities are the synonym of the genetic endowments and special abilities defined by Krumboltz (1994). These given capacities can be very diverse and unique, having strong mental and physical influences in people's adaptation, coping, reaction, and other related functioning and experiences in their lives. Given capacities are too important to be ignored because of their pivotal role in facilitating or hindering vocational choices and career opportunities. It is these given capacities that provide the important or even necessary conditions for a workable career preference. Physical characteristics such as body height, stamina, and dexterity can be important elements of given capacities pertaining to some demands in the world of work. Certain occupational aspirations may be constrained and career choices compromised by the genetic endowments and capacities a person possesses. Similarly, special mental abilities such as exceptionality in memory, sensitivity to forms of creative arts, swift cognition in sophisticated and abstract reasoning with numbers, and the like, can make some individuals much more advantageous and successful than many others in certain lines of worklife and occupations.

In conjunction with given capacities, gained skills constitute the other major key component of nurture in shaping life-career competence. These skills are the result of ongoing and accumulative learning experiences through the entire life span, similar to the construct of social learning defined by Krumboltz (1994). While given capacities indicate the dimension of nature (i.e., genetically endowed quality), gained skills reflect the phenomenon of nurture (i.e., taught and learned quality via living experiences). Learning forms the very foundation of skills attainment, and learning comprises virtually all aspects of life. Every event and situation in life, whether positive or negative, can become a useful learning experience. Some of these experiences are more influential than others to provide individuals with resources, incentives, materials, and other related and relevant mechanisms to build and acquire skills. The dynamic and diverse nature of social and lifelong learning can provide various possibilities and probabilities for individuals to learn and build new skill sets in their competence repertoire, tackling various coming and management needs in their life-career journey.

Differentiating from the stable and constrained characteristics of given capacities, gained skills manifest potential for growth and expansion in the competence domain. People may obtain new skills and refine their existing skill sets to a higher level along with new learning experiences. Apparently, learning becomes pivotal in composing and shaping the scope and magnitude of one's competence. While the premise of social learning in careers (Krumboltz, Mitchell, & Jones, 1976) is

definitely applicable to understand and ground the various learning experiences that influence the given capacities and gained skills for competence, the extent and dynamics of learning are broadened to include more flexible, open, comprehensive, and progressive nature of human learning in the current world of work and its ever-changing social and societal context.

Competence and Learning

To accumulate and sharpen life-career competence calls upon a combination of diverse and interactive learning aspects and modalities. Intentional learning refers to the purposeful and goal-oriented learning initiated by individuals. People engage in this mode of learning with clear intention to acquire certain defined and focused end result via their learning action. For example, pursuing a major of study in computer science aims at the career direction of becoming a professional computer programmer. Similarly, participation in an apprenticeship program of electrician training leads to the occupational goal of a certified electrician. Regardless of the eventual outcome, there is a clear purpose to acquire and strengthen one's competence through intentional learning for an attempted result. Intentional learning is a fundamental and most important mode to build and expand one's career competence because career construction is ultimately a subjective endeavor that delivers an individual's intention to do or not to do toward certain directions and possibilities in worklife.

To supplement intentional learning, casual learning can affect individuals' competence in a substantive manner. Casual learning refers to the broad and varied learning experiences that occur in all aspects of our daily life, reflecting mostly informal learning experiences that accompany the flow of daily routine. For example, by playing a leisure activity in a group event, we learn the importance of team collaboration. From reading or watching a story in the news media, we are informed of some current trends of the labor market and economy. An unexpected and random conversation with a stranger may lead us to be more cognizant of certain ways in interpersonal communication. Encountering a seemingly minute and normal incident in daily living may provide us with food for thought, triggering curiosity and motivation to reexamine possibilities in life-careers. Countless examples as such comprise the casual learning events and situations in people's life. Casual learning reflects the essential truth that life experiences are primarily learning experiences. It is these experiences that provide people with rich resources for life-coping and life-living competence. The synergy between life and career makes most casual learning experiences transferable and applicable to career situations. Consequently, casual learning via daily living can supply ongoing source materials to skill attainment and refinement, contributing to the enrichment and expansion of competence in life-careers.

Intentional learning and casual learning work collectively to facilitate the attainment and refinement of skills that make individuals more competent in

life-careers. While each of these learning modalities constitutes specificity of learning in life, they intersect and interrelate to each other in a dynamic and coherent manner. First, they are both embedded in the overarching human progression of lifelong learning. Casual learning goes naturally with the living experiences through the entire human life span. During their life span, people are constantly reminded of the necessity of updating their existing skill sets and procuring new knowledge and skills so that they will stay on top of the emerging demands in the work world. This necessity encourages and urges people to remain continuously motivated in their intentional learning, making this mode of learning a perpetual and ongoing continuum, alongside new learning ideas, initiatives, plans, projects, undertaking, and the like, as they travel through their life span. As such, both learning modalities contribute to substantiate and materialize lifelong learning, making lifelong learning concrete and grounded in real time of life-careers. In other words, lifelong learning is comprised of two essential types of learning, namely, intentional learning and casual learning. Second, intentional learning and casual learning are closely intertwined through a reciprocal link. Knowledge and skills gained from intentional learning make individuals more competent in gathering and distilling experiences from casual learning. In the meantime, casual learning enriches intentional learning with new curiosity, motivation, ideas, initiatives, and information sources. Third, lifelong learning via intentional and casual learning modalities provides opportunities for competence growth and expansion. The more people learn, the more skills they obtain, and the more competent they become in managing their life-career problems. Career competence, therefore, represents the human quality and potential to enhance vocational wellbeing through learning experiences, using given capacities and gained skills in career development and advancement.

Competence and Self-efficacy

Exercise of career competence relies heavily on one's self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1982; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002). Individuals have to know their competence when it comes to career-related situations such as career planning, career exploration, career decision making, career problem-solving, career transition, and the like. This awareness of competence has to be built on the solid foundation of an accurate self-efficacy. A low self-efficacy belief may under-estimate one's level of competence that can be performed in a career task, while an inaccurate high self-efficacy can lead to an over-estimation of one's capacity that deviates substantially from the true reality of what one is able to do. An accurate, factual, and positive self-efficacy belief, therefore, becomes essential to the understating and utilization of a person's effective and optimal level of competence in career situations. Self-efficacy directs individuals to see through their given capacities and gained skills in relation to the tasks they need to complete, making an assessment as to whether or not their level of competence is adequate and sufficient to manage the

tasks they encounter. In order to be engaged in a career task, the self-efficacy belief informs and convinces individuals under the circumstance that they possess the relevant caliber and skills to execute the task successfully. Career self-efficacy becomes the guiding vehicle of the career competence, accompanying the implementation of competence in its entirety toward the successful execution of the career task. The paramount role of self-efficacy in assessing and applying competence to real life career tasks and missions is evident and promising. Self-efficacy goes hand in hand with career competence, enriching competence with clarity, insight, and direction in real life experiences of career construction.

To assess one's own abilities in performing tasks, self-efficacy is a cognitive skill in its own making. In this sense, self-efficacy is in fact an essential component of a person's total repertoire of life-career competence. In other words, self-efficacy is a form of competence that can be gained and improved through social learning and lifelong learning experiences. People become aware of their capacities of performing tasks and achieving results as they make self-observation generalization and worldview generalization (Krumboltz, 1994) while participating in learning and reflecting upon their interaction with the world of work and society at large. Through such learning encounters and events, a person becomes more cognizant of his or her own abilities in relating to others in various situations. This information provides the much-needed resource for the person to build a more accurate and factual constellation of one's self-efficacy beliefs in facing different life-career situations and scenarios. For example, a university student majoring in the discipline of industrial engineering may possess high level of self-efficacy on the technical aspects of the subject matter, while feeling lower level of self-efficacy on the interpersonal and organizational communication aspects also required by the major of study in this domain. As such, feedback from learning experiences informs the formation of one's self-efficacy in a situation-specific way, shaping and using self-efficacy accordingly to fulfill career development needs and tasks under diverse and unique circumstances.

The learned characteristic of self-efficacy makes it a more flexible and open aspect of competence. Individuals' self-efficacy beliefs may be adjusted and modified as the scope and depth of competence changes through social and lifelong learning. Trials and practice of competence in life-career activities and actions offer real time evidence from which self-efficacy draws references for amendments, updates, expansion, and development. Consequently, the possible gaps between self-efficacy and the actual competence exercised and achieved in life-career actions are observed, identified, and analyzed. As self-efficacy is framed and reframed to reflect a person's true capacities and skills, these possible gaps are narrowed down while self-efficacy is refined to indicate one's true competence to carry out life-career tasks.

Career Relatedness

Being an integral part of one's totality of life, worklife and vocational behaviors replicate the indispensable and imperative phenomenon of interpersonal relationship, interaction, and socialization as a basic propensity and necessity rooted in human nature. To be is to do, and to do is to live with other human beings under given circumstances. Expressing career autonomy and exercising career competence can never occur in a social vacuum. In fact, autonomy and competence lose their vitality and meaningfulness if they are not presented in relation with other people and via relevant social environments and contexts. Career relatedness, therefore, represents the necessary social condition that links the autonomy and competence, integrating all related psychological dynamics and constructs into a coherent whole in light of diverse contexts of human actions, interactions, and collective actions. Career relatedness refers to dynamic phenomena of relational contexts, socialization, and social interaction and connections in various life-career situations.

Relatedness and Context

From a social constructivist and constructionist worldview, context is the foundation upon which vocational behaviors and career actions are to be explained and understood. In their contextualist career theory, Young et al. (1996, 2002) defined context as a complex whole that is comprised of many interrelated and interwoven parts. These authors also adopted the definition from the New Webster's Dictionary of English Language, indicating that context (1) is a combination of parts of written and spoken communication, (2) follows the format of language, text, and discourse that affects its meaning, and (3) manifests the human power, act, and process to interweave several parts into one entity, alongside the surrounding environment, circumstances, or facts that influence and help this interweaving. In light of life-career development scenarios, the pivotal impact of environment has long been recognized by social learning theory of career decision making (Krumboltz 1994; Krumboltz, Mitchell, & Jones, 1976). According to Krumboltz (1994), one of the key tenets that constitute the human function of social learning is environmental conditions and influences. Various kinds of environment, such as political atmosphere, social and economic trends, cultural norms, demographic changes, geographic location, natural phenomena, organizational settings, etc. can have direct and indirect impact on people's vocational wellness. At times, environment represents the entirety of a context. In other situations, environment may be part of a context, or contribute factors that affect the composition and formation of a context. Therefore, environment can be conceived as an integral part of context. It is this context that provides a person with certain conditions within which life-career actions are planned and carried out, confirming the natural and fundamental connection between people and the various contexts comprising these very people's living experiences.

Context provides the necessary reference points for human perception to form and action to occur. As with other life events and encounters, career developmental tasks via life-span do not take place in a social vacuum, but rather, through dynamic and active interaction with diverse influences and factors in the surrounding context where these career tasks are carried out. The social characteristics of vocational life indicate that interpersonal communications, relationships, interactions, and other actions and activities of socialization are the primary and most common determinants that constitute the person-context ecology. In relating to contextual factors and influences, individuals make sense of their career intention and vocational needs with respect to pros and cons in the world of work and the general society. Career relatedness, therefore, reveals the fundamental coexistence between individuals and their living contexts. It is this relatedness that makes individuals to think about who they are, what they want, and why they want it when it comes to a vocational preference and career decision. Relating to context allows individuals to view and understand their life-career events in a situational and interwoven entirety. Meanings are generated as various relationships and connections in the specific context are identified and established, providing the necessary groundwork and essential ingredients for contextual meaning making. Career tasks are ultimately meaning making actions, and meanings only become coherent and pertinent when the very career actions are perceived and explained in relation to the context that accompanies these actions.

Notwithstanding the fact that a life context may include a wide range of very diverse elements and factors, context pertaining to individuals' vocational behaviors and career actions is primarily a manifestation of the coexistence and interplay of various relationships, especially the interpersonal, familial, communal, social, societal, and other human interactions alike, in the person-context ecology where careers unfold and develop. From this perspective, it is necessary and of paramount importance to acknowledge the three core propositions that define the correlation and connection between career relatedness and context. First, career relatedness refers to a person's cognition, emotion, and behavior to make a link between one's own intention and action and the multifaceted and dynamic contexts that influence one's very intention and action in vocational life and career development experiences. Thus, career relatedness depicts a person-context ecology and interplay. Second, context refers to an inclusive, overarching, and comprehensive entirety that covers multiple and various events, conditions, situations, environments, relationships, interactions, and the like, putting impact on an individual's intention and action for vocational enhancement and career wellbeing. All such contexts, whether physical or psychological, tangible or abstract, direct or indirect, foreseeable or unpredictable, can affect a person's career intention and action under a given circumstance. Third, in situations of career construction and vocational actions, context is most often comprised of human-to-human relationships and interactions. This relational nature determines that, by and large, career relatedness manifests the state of how a person relates to other individuals, perceiving, processing, and utilizing possible influences from other people in these relational contexts when it comes to one's own vocational planning and career decision making.

Relatedness in Motion

Relatedness consists of two major categories of relational contexts, namely, the essential relatedness and the general relatedness. The essential relatedness characterizes a person's relatedness to significant people and relationships in life-career contexts that have long-lasting and immediate impact on one's formation of vocational behaviors and career decision making. More often, the essential relatedness is featured by some marked turning-points in one's life span, such as school-to-school, school-to-work, and other points of transition in life-careers. The general relatedness includes connection to all kinds of contexts, especially relational contexts that are impactful to a person's life-careers. While the general relatedness may share similar function as the essential relatedness, it pertains more to a person's here-and-now and immediate vocational behaviors and career actions as they are related to multifaceted and various contexts in general, and human relationships and interaction via these very contexts in particular.

Within the essential relatedness domain, family is no doubt the most important context for most individuals in their career initiation and development. An individual's relationship with his or her parents can impact very substantively the person's vocational life and career direction. This pivotal impact forms the centrality of the needs-based career theory by Roe (1957). According to Roe and Lunneborg (1990), the parent-child relationship can become a determinant that affects the career needs and preference of a child. Different parental styles tend to direct an emerging and young adult toward either a people-orientated or a non-people-oriented vocational aspiration. As a result, the way that the young person relates to her upbringing experiences with her parents will likely decide whether she will engage in a career involving constantly working with other people, or a career that requires less or minimum interaction with others in a workplace.

While Roe's theory focuses only on the correlation between the parental styles and the children's two opposite prospective career tendencies, namely, toward-people or not-toward-people, the influences from parents to their children's career choice and development are much more complex, substantial, and extensive than the scope identified by Roe (Duffy, Blustein, Diemer, & Autin, 2016). The multitude and magnitude of parental influences, whether positive or negative, facilitating or hindering, can be felt in various ways and across multiple aspects in individuals' vocational behaviors and career actions. Relating to their parents' expectations may make adolescents and emerging young adults more inclined to some preferences while avoiding other choices in career planning. Older adults may reveal the deep-rooted values they learned from their parents as they ponder career options in mid-life career transitions they encounter. The relatedness with parents forms the initial and most important interpersonal and relational context in which career aspirations are cultivated and vocational behaviors shaped. While adolescents and emerging young adults may be more susceptible to influences from diverse contexts of parent-child relationship and interaction, parental influences can penetrate the career path through an individual's entire life span, presenting a

long-lasting impact in various situations and facets when the person is engaged in career development tasks. Such career tasks occur and recur in one's life-career journey, especially during critical times and episodes such as school-to-school, school-to-work, work-to-school, work-to-work, voluntary and involuntary job loss, worklife reentry, retirement transition, and the like.

In addition to the parent-child relationship and subsequent parental influences, a person may often find his career path to be affected by other significant relational contexts in life. These contexts may include, but are not limited to, the individual's relatedness to significant people such as a sibling, spouse/partner, child, extended family member, close friend, teacher, and mentor. In relating to the life-career experiences of a sibling, a person may become inclined to some career choices while avoiding other occupational options. Wellbeing of a child, and the attitude and circumstance of a spouse may be a critical factor to consider when a person weighs a career opportunity. Advice from a well-respected teacher and guidance from a mentor figure may play a prominent role in a person's career decision making. Similarly, encouragement or discouragement from a close friend may put a significant impact on the career plan a person is contemplating. Such relatedness to other significant ones in a person's life-career experiences is characterized by rich, diverse, dynamic, and multifaceted relationships and interactions, covering all aspects of one's entire life span (Chen & Hong, 2016). The significance of such relational contexts may differentiate from one individual to another. The need to relate, and the impact from the very relatedness, is a reflection of contextual meaning making that incorporates the personally defined and identified significant relationships in one's career actions and vocational behaviors. Despite its diverse and situational nature, the relatedness to significant people in life remains as the imperative and indispensable context within which an individual draws critical reference points, makes sense of subjective meanings, and composes colorful narratives for a career pathway.

Having considered the essential relatedness, i.e., pivotal influences from parents and other significant relational contexts in a person's life-careers, it is necessary to recognize the fact that there are many other human relational contexts affecting a person's worklife and vocational wellness. In this regard, the general relatedness domain comprises all other contexts that reveal complex and multiple relationships and interactions that may include the person's relatedness with employers or prospective employers, peers in learning or training settings, co-workers, anticipated colleagues or supervisors in the workplace, prospective customers or clients, and many other diverse human contacts or links under various life-career circumstances. In comparison to the essential relatedness identified in the prior discussion, this second type of relatedness is much more extensive and broader in scope, covering all possible human links and connections that can have a direct or indirect impact on a person's life-career development. The general relatedness is important in that it often forms the current and immediate career context where a person relates to and interacts with other people. Regardless of how this relatedness may occur in similar or diverse ways that stretch to all aspects of worklife, it denotes the

social interest as a basic human need in composing and living a vocational life. To express and practice one's social interest, worklife and career construction provides the real space in which an individual's occupational needs and inspirations are socialized with complex relational contexts, or in other words, connected to how other people feel, think, and do in these very contexts.

A career action only becomes meaningful to a person when the general relatedness is established in a way that is meaningful to the person. To illustrate the role and function of the general relatedness in an individual's life-career experiences, it may be heuristic to take a look at some conventional and ordinary real-time scenarios in one's everyday worklife. Relationship with co-workers may make a person feel supported or not supported in a work environment, affecting her sense of vocational satisfaction in the work setting. Similarly, interaction and communication with one's supervisor may encourage or discourage the person's intention to seize an emerging opportunity for career advancement. Witnessing or learning the involuntary job loss of colleagues and peers may put a serious psychological constraint on a person, casting a sense of survivor's guild, and a burden of uncertainty on his own sense of worklife security and career prospects in the same organization. Experience with a potential employer via a job interview may reinforce or hinder a job-seeker's motivation and interest in the employment opportunity. In relating to a negative societal change such as a political disturbance and economic downturn, a person may perceive a more pessimistic and unfavorable generalization with regard to career opportunities. The general relatedness as such encompasses various direct and indirect relational contexts that engender certain meanings, influencing the career thinking process and subsequent action to take. Thus, complimentary to the essential relatedness, the general relatedness also plays a very important role in forming impactful contexts for individuals' vocational behaviors and career actions (Fig. 20.1).

Fig. 20.1 Career Self-Determination Theory and its three key constructs in interplay



Summary

In proposing a career self-determination theory (CSDT) as shown in Fig. 20.1, the three adopted key constructs, namely, career autonomy, career competence, and career relatedness, are defined and elaborated within a focused context of life-career integration in general, and vocational and career psychology in particular. It is within this specific domain and parameter that the three key constructs of career self-determination theory are considered and examined as they pertain to improving and enhancing human vocational behaviors and career actions. Key tenets from major career development and career psychology theories are incorporated into the illumination and validation of the three key determinants or constructs in life-careers, demonstrating the relevance and promise of career autonomy, career competence, and career relatedness as they stand and comprise the career self-determination theory. In this sense, the career self-determination theory presents the characteristics of a meta-theory that integrates essential components from both the self-determination theory (SDT), and a wealth of prominent career psychology theories such as work adjustment theory, Holland's personality typology theory, Super's life-span and life-space theory, Krumboltz's social learning theory, Roe's needs-based career theory, social cognitive career theory, and contextualist career theory. The utilization and integration of these major career theories have provided the ground work to actualize the key constructs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness in a career psychology paradigm, leading to the formation of a career self-determination theory. Collectively, these three key constructs interrelate to one another, making career self-determination an optimal possibility in life.

Conclusion

With a solid foundation on the existing major career theories, the career self-determination theory (CSDT) can definitely inform and guide career development practice. In particular, the three key constructs of the theory have their specific relevance for utilization in real life situations of career education, guidance, counselling, consultation, and other helping contexts alike. A work of elaboration on the practical intervention strategies based on the career self-determination theory will be advisable in the very near future to operationalize and implement the real worthiness of the theory. In linking the theory to practice, career self-determination theory will facilitate and promote career wellness in real life experiences and circumstances. In the meantime, it is also hoped that more interest toward the career self-determination theory will lead to research studies on the theory, generating

more empirical evidence that will support and consolidate the theory. This research effort is certainly desirable to further strengthen and validate the theory as it is to be applied to various forms of career development practice, especially vocational guidance and career counselling interventions.

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Chapter 21

Utilizing Career Adaptability and Career Resilience to Promote Employability and Decent Work and Alleviate Poverty

Kobus Maree

Abstract In the first part of this chapter, the effect of changes in the world of work on people's lives and society's failure to create opportunities for decent work for everyone are considered as well as ways in which this situation can be improved. Global attempts to alleviate poverty by fostering career adaptability and career resilience in disadvantaged regions in particular are also considered. The chapter begins with a discussion of the most significant work-related changes that have taken place in the world over the past few decades and how these changes have influenced the world of the work and workers themselves. Next is considered what is meant by career counselling in general and by career adaptability, career resilience, and employability in particular. The second part of the chapter is devoted to seven research projects that illustrate how adaptability and career resilience can be enhanced and harnessed to promote employability and decent work and reduce poverty.

Keywords Career adaptability · Career resilience · Employability
Decent work · Poverty alleviation

Effect of Changes in the World of Work on People's Lives

This chapter was motivated by the plight of millions of people who have lost their work because of changes in the world of work caused by recent economic meltdowns. Below I present personal accounts of workers to personalize and clarify how they experienced the effect of the changing work environment. These comments, made by anonymous participants at an outplacement workshop reveal the trauma of "outplaced" workers: "I have read and thought and talked about the effect of change for many years and I always pitied those who lose their jobs. Now that it has happened to me, I realize that nothing could prepare me for the feelings of

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sadness and anger about how we were treated I am still experiencing.” “The work environment became more and more challenging all the time. The demands more difficult to meet. There was a lot of talk about lay-offs and such things, but I chose to ignore the negative talk. Or maybe I was not willing to face reality.” “ICT-related assignments in particular were very challenging. Posed a serious threat to older employees in particular. I feared that my own incompetency was making me vulnerable.” “I don’t know where I will find the courage and the strength to carry on with my life. I am depressed. Devastated.” “The thought of spending Christmas with my family without money to buy them gifts, not knowing what the New Year will bring, where or even whether I will find employment again, how I will be able to acquire new skills to help me find work is a threat like nothing else I have ever experienced before.” “I feel like a complete failure.”

The negative effects of changes in the world of work have been highlighted by many authors (Guichard, 2004, 2013; Hartung, 2016; Maree, 2016; Savickas, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c, 2013), for example, the disappearance of work-related structures, the failure of the work environment to provide the “safety” blanket it used to provide for workers, the decreasing opportunity and consequent inability of people to negotiate and secure life-long work-related agreements with employers, the emergence of short-term work assignments as the new standard for employer-employee contracts, and the acceptance of employability as the new catchphrase rather than people just trying to find work. Researchers, theorists, and practitioners should therefore work together to promote the resilience, wellbeing, political engagement, and employability of workers. They should also keep abreast of fifth wave changes in the world of work globally, in order to adapt and improve their existing theory and practice.

Di Fabio and Maree (2016) highlight the dangers of failing to deal with rising unemployment and unequal access to decent work globally: “The future of humankind will be bleak indeed if we do not join hands today to overcome these challenges in a spirit of collaboration” (p. 11).

Change and its impact on the world of work and, more particularly, on workers themselves, stem largely from sweeping technological advances, in particular the ever-increasing need to disseminate information across the globe more quickly and more efficiently. Workers need help to deal with a world of work that is characterized by “fixed” (if disappearing) hierarchical structures in many work contexts on the one hand and a world of work that is becoming increasingly less stable largely as a result of networking and connectivity (Gurri, 2013). While most people seeking employment today will find it outside the traditional hierarchical structures, with little assistance in trying to construct their careers, shape their identities, and design successful lives, many others will be compelled to “fit” into traditional, hierarchical, and top-down work-related structures. The latter group will constantly be obliged to “toe the line” and “respect” set regulations but will also be confronted with the drivers of change, namely networking and connectivity. Whereas some people believe that people are fortunate to get **any** work these days, I support the view that all people should be made aware of their right to decent “work [that] helps all workers attain a sense of self-respect and dignity, experience freedom and security

in the workplace, and ... [allows them] opportunity to choose and execute productive, meaningful and fulfilling work that will enable them to construct themselves adequately and without restrictions and make social contributions” (Di Fabio & Maree, 2016, p. 9).

Changing the Language of Discourse to Capture the Essence of Change in the World of Work

Professionals working in the field of career counselling continually update the discipline’s vocabulary to keep abreast of the changes taking place in the world of work (Maree, 2015a). For example, new terms are appearing such as “postindustrial careers” (a term that denotes that “stable” work and work identities are disappearing and that workers have to redefine themselves constantly in contemporary work contexts) (Gershuny, 1993) and “protean” careers (an allusion is to the Greek god Proteus who could transform himself (shape-shift) at will). These terms indicate that employees today are expected to draw on their career resilience to help them cope with negative experiences in the workplace (Baruch, 2004; Hall, 1996; Ungar, 2012a, 2012b). Scrutiny of these terms reveals a number of common themes. First, workers are increasingly left to their own devices to find work. Second, life-long employment in organizations is rapidly disappearing. Third, workers are no longer prepared to pledge unconditional loyalty to organizations. Fourth, workers are increasingly moving from one job to another (some to take up short-, others meso-, and a few long-term work assignments). Fifth, part-time work has become common as long-term contracts are less often awarded. Sixth, regular up-, re-, and multi-skilling are becoming the order of the day. Seventh, employability rather than just finding work is essential today. Workers are compelled to learn new skills and think differently to cope with and master 21st century information communication technology changes and developments. Eighth, career adaptability as an essential skill is closely aligned with the ability to ideate (come up with new ideas for finding/creating work and making a living) and has become an authentic survival mechanism (Di Fabio & Maree, 2016). Ninth, career resilience is needed to cope with repeated challenges and to make repeated work-related transitions.

In summary, confronted with numerous far-reaching and ongoing changes in the world of work, career counselling theorists, researchers, and practitioners have had to devise new terminology to articulate a response to what is happening in global economies, the workplace, and, in the end, the career-lives of people; a response that is practically useful as well as theoretically sound. As far as career counselling is concerned, I support what I refer to as the Mandela response to challenges, namely overcoming major challenges but also taking advantage of the many opportunities embedded in change, including the opportunity to make social contributions. This notion is well aligned with “[t]he 21st-century perspective on career counselling [that] moves from the empiricism of objective vocational guiding and

the humanism of subjective career developing to the social constructionism of projective life designing” (Savickas, 2015, p. 136).

Theoretical Perspective on How to Deal with Global Change and Its Impact on the World of Work

Since the concepts (career) adaptability, (career) resilience, and life design are discussed elsewhere in the book, I only refer to the concept “career resilience” only briefly in this chapter to explain my particular understanding of that term. Interested readers are directed to Chap. 1 (Hartung & Cadaret, 2016) (adaptability), Chap. 2 (Lengelle, Meijers, & Van der Heijden, 2016) (career resilience), and Chap. 3 (Pouyaud & Cohen-Scali, 2016) (life design) for more detailed information on these concepts.

In this chapter, career resilience¹ (Maree, 2015a) is defined as “a set of [career-life related] behaviors over time that reflect the interactions between individuals and their environments, in particular the opportunities for personal growth that are available and accessible” (Ungar, 2012a, p. 14). Moreover, career resilience is not a “stable”, “fixed” trait but, rather, a work-in-progress or course of action that manifests during the course of people’s lifetimes and is exhibited before, during, and after adverse experiences. It involves critical reflexivity, reflexive subjectivity, and the ability to contextualize experiences as well as “qualities that include active agency, flexible responses to varying circumstances, an ability to take advantage of opportunities, a self-reflective style making it easier to learn from experiences, and a commitment to relationships” (Ungar, 2012b, p. 40).

Any discussion about career resilience requires an explanation of the link between career resilience and a person’s sense of self. Sense of self is a process and a project (Savickas, 2007a, 2007b). It includes and integrates people’s objective personality and their subjective self-belief (trust or confidence in oneself and in one’s ability) (*Collins Dictionary*, 2008) and self-concept (one’s view of one’s status, strengths, and areas for growth; a view that is based largely on and determined by the feedback one receives from others or others’ reactions towards oneself (Self-concept, n.d.). It is revealed by analyzing who people believe they are (and why) and by scrutinizing various aspects of people’s subjective and objective as well as their personal and social selves. The sense of self is strongly influenced by and also influences people’s career-life stories and their identity and thus contributes to the establishment, maintenance, and furtherance of their career-life scripts.

¹For the purposes of this chapter, the terms “resilience” and “career resilience” are used interchangeably. The terms denote adequate self-knowledge, a sound sense of self and of identity, a sense of flexibility, emotional-social intelligence, a desire to seek information continually, as well as the ability to prioritize short-, medium-, and long-term career objectives with or without the support of any employing entity (Duarte, 2010; Waterman, Waterman, & Collard, 1994).

From Theory to Practice

Helping people become employable, acquire career adaptability, become resilient and, ultimately, find decent work has been a central theme in all my research (for more details, visit my website: www.kobusmaree.org). In addition to conducting research and publishing our results, my co-researchers and I have consistently encouraged communities to establish development projects in disadvantaged regions in particular. This includes the establishment of vegetable gardens, the distribution of clothes and technical equipment to disadvantaged schools, and the raising of funds for various life designing projects (Maree, 2017a). These initiatives have impacted positively on poverty alleviation and their influence can probably best be summed up in the words of the Vice-Chancellor of the University of the Free State, (Jansen, 2008), during his keynote address at the Rise and Shine Vegetable Garden Launch (Limpopo): “These initiatives bring together government, the private sector, higher education, but most importantly ordinary people who voluntarily give of their time, of their emotions, of their energy to enable everyone, including the poorest of the poor, to be served in our country. They are giving ordinary people hope.” The following comment supports Jansen’s view: “Social justice is more likely to be achieved when macro-level interventions (such as policies) are augmented by micro- and meso-level interventions in supporting students who are struggling to survive financially in higher education” (Firfirey & Cornelissen, 2010, p. 1001).

Case Study

By examining the career-life stories² of community members, researchers can discover what works and what does not work in everyday contexts.

The focus now shifts to a discussion of an intrinsic, instrumental, collective case study (comprising seven research projects) to illustrate how this aim (identifying trends and patterns) was achieved. An interpretivist paradigm was used to better understand the information revealed during our interactions with the participants. An explorative, descriptive approach was implemented to determine how career construction counselling and life design counselling facilitated adaptability and career resilience, promoted employability and decent work, and contributed to poverty alleviation. The reason for focusing on seven research projects collectively was my belief that it would enable my co-researchers and me to study relevant constructs from multiple perspectives **within the context in which the research occurred** (Creswell, 2013).

²I acknowledge the fact that some people question whether indigent people can have such stories.

Adapted Action Research Approach

The undertaking of the seven projects described in this chapter was premised on the belief that researchers should commence their interventions from an accepted foundation. Interventions should be refined and tailored, on the basis of what has been learnt, to the distinctive context of the next project. In all seven projects, we started with what we knew and adapted our interventions until our goals had been achieved. We followed a step-by-step strategy: not until we were sure about the next steps in any project (and it was difficult to speculate about any new project until we knew what happened in the previous one) could we decide in any detail about future research. Finding out which programs worked best with which target groups was vital as was the need to improve or replace weaker components of any intervention (Elias et al., 1997). Our focus was on formative assessment, especially during the earlier phases of the research. We did not endeavor to identify definitive outcomes until an intervention strategy had been clearly established. It should be noted that the African context, unlike North American and European contexts, is not, for instance, the typical context in which newer developments such as career construction counselling and life design (both of which were increasingly applied during the latter projects) have been applied in the past. Career construction counselling and life design are, after all, ideally suited for use in well-resourced contexts with individual people, while the overriding need in Africa at large is to facilitate group-based career counselling in resource-scarce in a short space of time to as many people as possible (Maree, 2017b). Inequality, unemployment and poverty seem even more prevalent in South Africa at present than before 1994 (when democracy was obtained), and the number of discouraged work seekers is rising progressively. South Africa has a disturbingly high Gini coefficient (indicating that it is one of the most unequal societies in the world). The country has a growing shortage of appropriately skilled graduates, in addition to high emigration figures. Unemployment rates are steadily rising—while jobs are created, the number of work-seekers is rising faster (Berkowitz, 2013). Moreover, occupational trends have remained unchanged over the past 15 years (Maree, 2015b).

Despite my own efforts and those of a few colleagues, career counselling intervention is still practised from a predominantly ‘positivist’ perspective. The successful application of career construction counselling and life design in the African (developing country) context therefore remains a legitimate question (Mpofu, Maree, Ntinda, & Oakland, 2017). As yet, career construction and life design have been applied in the African context to a very limited certain degree level and under certain circumstances only. Apart from its limited application South Africa, virtually nothing has happened elsewhere in Africa.

I draw on the seven projects (and art in the form of photographs) to demonstrate the plight of millions of people in South Africa and to promote debate on the subject. Ultimately, I am trying to share my passion for the topics in this chapter with other people and (re-)kindle hope that we can somehow find a way to turn wealth disparity, poverty, and inequality into hope. On a practical level, this means that I believe we can find a way to contribute to efforts to deal with rising unemployment.

Table 21.1 Projects and associated time frames

	Project title	Time frame
1	Limpopo project	2003–present
2	Rasekgala project	2006–present
3	Youth Foundation project	2007–present
4	Junior Tukkie project	2007–present
5	Vingerkraal project	2008–present
6	Tshwaraganang project	2009–present
7	Good Work Foundation project	2016–present

Table 21.1 lists the projects and their associated time frames. The projects will be discussed in the order in which they appear in the table.

a. Limpopo Project (2003–present)

As stated in earlier publications (Maree, 2005, 2013a, 2015c), my co-researchers and I were deeply disturbed by what we witnessed in rural communities in South Africa. It was not uncommon, for instance, to find 72–136 learners crammed into a single classroom with the teacher doing her best to teach them. We sensed and saw the demotivation of teachers. We were informed that many learners had to walk up to 12 km [ca 7.5 miles] from their homes to their schools. Some children actually fainted from hunger while we were talking to them. We learnt that many children dropped out of school to take on household duties (e.g. looking after siblings or cattle). High levels of unemployment were prevalent, and most people depended on pensions or other state-provided forms of income to survive. Most school-leavers could not find even short-term employment in the nearby towns (Photographs 21.1 and 21.2).

Unsurprisingly, learners from socio-economically disadvantaged contexts and other disabling conditions (in rural and township regions in particular) often struggle to adapt to university because of their poor understanding of English as the medium of instruction, lecturers’ prejudiced perceptions of them, administrative challenges, perceptions of racism, financial concerns, and a general inability to deal with a “foreign” study environment. In June 2002, Dr. Maisha Molepo (co-researcher), Ms. Marina Heyns from the University of Pretoria, I, and a number of assistants recruited 100 learners from seriously disadvantaged regions in Limpopo to enroll for education degrees at the University of Pretoria to become teachers (Maree, Fletcher, & Sommerville, 2011). They had all attended school and achieved Grade 12 at the end of 2002 in desperate school conditions as described above. There was a clear need for them to be introduced to attending a large university in a big city in a structured and compassionate manner to facilitate their smooth transitioning from a disabling context to a new environment. Some of our strategies to achieve this aim included the following:

1. The students spent a lot of time studying under the mentorship of experienced lecturers and top local teachers in the Faculty of Education’s affiliate schools not only to master the subject matter but also to experience being taught by competent teachers.



Photograph 21.1 Finding employment is extremely difficult



Photograph 21.2 Making use of every conceivable 'opportunity' facilitate employment

2. All the students were enrolled in a comprehensive development support programme to supplement their academic activities. Since many of the students had very little home-based support (e.g. losing their parents at a young age), we administered emotional, social, life skills, and spiritual counselling and gave academic tutoring. This included some of the most basic skills: for example, some of the students were not accustomed to sleeping on a mattress or using sheets or deodorants. Experts were brought in from the private sector to assist us in the development of the programme.
3. A personal mentor was assigned to each student to provide general support, guidance, and encouragement (at least) once a week. Staff members of the Department of Educational Psychology who participated in the mentoring process provided regular feedback on each student to ensure sustained support and to prevent students from dropping out.
4. The University of Pretoria at large and the Faculty of Education (the then dean, Professor Jonathan Jansen, in particular) provided extensive financial support to ensure the success of the project. The students met with me (as project leader) to talk about their experiences, their needs, their study-related challenges, and their progress (or lack thereof). A dedicated tutor, appointed to help the students, provided assistance when called upon to do so.

Over time, it became clear that the inclusive support package ensured the sustainability of the project and greatly increased the students' adaptability and resilience. The students achieved outstanding results: ca 94% of students eventually graduated. Most importantly, though: after having received career counselling, ca 90% of students migrated to different fields of study. This came about as a result of integrated, quantitative + qualitative career counselling that was administered to those students who showed an interest in being assessed with a view to receiving career counselling to help them uncover deep-seated themes and storylines and introduce them to the wide repertoire of fields of study and careers on offer. Feedback from the students confirmed that their adaptability and resilience had been enhanced by participating in the project (Maree, 2012).

b. Rasekgala Project (2006–present)

This intervention took place in a rural region of one of the poorest South African provinces (Limpopo). In a project sponsored by the May and Stanley Smith Charitable Trust and the National Research Foundation, my co-researcher (Dr. Maisha Molepo), our co-workers, and I demonstrated psych-social but also (albeit to a very limited extent) economic transformation (primary value) in South Africa through our research on career counselling and our community outreach program. In a number of schools, we implemented the latest techniques in career counselling globally for the benefit of all learners instead of just a select few. Our aim was to design a blueprint for career counselling in (South) Africa. We endeavored to help the teachers and the learners in the schools narrate their life stories (narratability) so that they could draw on these stories (biographicity) when life imposed change and its related challenges on them. Having experienced first-hand the extreme poverty in the

region, and especially after discussions with the headmistress of the Rasekgala high school, we embarked on humanitarian activities to alleviate the poverty and help the school generate employment opportunities for the community at large. In other words, we attempted to instill in the people the courage and skills needed to create holding environments for their communities.

In this particular village (Rasekgala), the villagers have to travel 32 km to the nearest shopping complex and 128 km to the nearest town, and the growing population in the area merely adds to the problem (Trees for Africa, 2006). Since the desperate socio-economic conditions compromised our data, we designed a project that included life story counselling for learners, teachers, and community members (Maree, 2015a). We began by successfully approaching Mr. Jean du Plessis (Managing Director: Nedcor Securities) for funding for a vegetable garden, and we obtained sponsorship from Momentum Lives for a shoe, clothing, and bread oven project. Implements needed for establishing and maintaining the projects were purchased; shoes, school clothing, and toys were bought and given to the learners; permaculture training was provided; and plant materials were acquired. We requested Trees for Africa to help us establish the vegetable garden, facilitate the distribution of clothing and technical equipment, and raise funds for clothing and shoe projects (secondary values). We emphasized the community's potential to become a guiding light in the region; a beacon of hope and an inspiration as well as a source of food for community members. Overwhelming support was shown by community members for a food gardening project (Photograph 21.3), which they



Photograph 21.3 Overwhelming support shown by community members for a food gardening project



Photograph 21.4 The highly capable headmistress, Dr. Masehela, oversaw all activities including the start-up and long-term management of the garden

had unsuccessfully been trying to establish for a number years, as a feature of our project. The highly capable headmistress, Dr. Masehela (Photograph 21.4), agreed to oversee all activities including the start-up and long-term management of the garden. Other key members of the community, including the headman and the councillor of the village, gave the projects their support and promised to see all projects through to fruition, thereby making a substantial socio-economic contribution to the community. A picture soon emerged of a community of stakeholders collaborating to redefine, redesign, and redirect their collective lives and to move from despair to hope. Together, we thus constructed an all-embracing plan to foster purposeful action (Tiedeman, 1964).

Loaves of bread and fresh produce were soon distributed to indigent and unemployed community members as well as the nearby clinic (Photograph 21.5).

I have regularly followed up on the progress of the projects taking great care, however, to ensure that the research team was seen merely as mediators and facilitators and not as “experts” who would or could resolve the community’s problems. The project is still running smoothly today, almost a decade after its inception. At all stages of the project, members of the team answered open-ended questions on their perceptions of the project and our involvement. In-depth interviews were also regularly conducted with key community members to assess their perceptions of the project.



Photograph 21.5 Loaves of bread and fresh produce were distributed to indigent and unemployed community members as well as the nearby clinic

The project clearly impacted positively on many persons' employability. Regarding the question as to how these interventions helped with career adaptability and resilience: The intervention clearly inspired a sense of hope and a vision for the future in the community. The project was not experimental by nature and we did not try to 'prove' its success. Qualitative results nonetheless confirmed its value and effectiveness. Assessment took place in a number of ways. First, learner-participants initially completed the *Career Interest Profile* (Ver 2) (Maree, 2006) as well as an array of qualitative narrative questionnaires (e.g. stories and lifelines) and in in-depth interviews before and after the intervention. Teacher-participants, too, completed narrative questionnaires before and after the intervention. Second, after each session, participants answered a number of open-ended questions to assess their perceptions of the intervention. Likewise, in-depth interviews were conducted with community members on an on-going basis to determine their perceptions and experiences and feelings about the project. Analysis of the 'results' consistently confirmed the effectiveness of the intervention and participants' increased ability to deal with change, to turn their pain into hope by becoming actively engaged in the activities offered, by exhibiting an enhanced desire to confront major challenges actively and by refusing to accept their dire situation as an inescapable plight imposed upon them by fate.

c. Youth Foundation Project (2007–present)

In 2007, and again in 2008, I was invited by the Youth Foundation to assess Grade 11 learners from disadvantaged backgrounds to establish whether they were more suited for university, university of technology, or TVET training. The assessment included a creative mix of qualitative and quantitative techniques and strategies, including aptitude tests, a personality test, interest tests, study orientation questionnaires as well as an array of narrative assessment techniques. Despite the fact that a relatively small percentage of the students have provided feedback on their academic and professional progress over the years, the following types of support were identified as contributing to the students' success at tertiary training institutions and also in the workplace (Maree, 2013a, 2013b, 2013c). First, it emerged that encouragement and ongoing financial, emotional, and spiritual support, as well as sustained guidance and counselling, was very important. Second, the contribution of tutors and mentors was highly valued. This included help in regard to language-related teaching and learning because language-related problems often bring about communication and study-related problems. Third, and most importantly, the students (first-year students in particular) requested assistance on where to find help when it was needed (a common theme in all the projects reported on in this chapter). Fourth, the importance was emphasized of considering students' personal circumstances at all stages and ensuring that guidance and therapy were given appropriately and timeously. As one student put it: "Universities cannot expect 'normal' learning and achievement from those of us that come from impoverished and traumatized backgrounds." Many of the students benefited immensely from being channelled into foundation programmes for extra tuition in, for example, mathematics. Fifth, the students expressed the greatest need for support during their first year, and compassionate monitoring of their progress was essential.

d. Junior Tukkies Project (2007–present)

I have been participating in this project (aimed at recruiting promising students to study at the University of Pretoria) since 2007. Prospective students from disadvantaged backgrounds attend a week-long winter school at the university followed by brief interventions of various kinds throughout the year. The aim of the project is to develop and refine strategies for selecting black and other students of color from disadvantaged areas in particular who stand a reasonable chance of succeeding at university and to uncover predictors of academic success for these students.

This project (under the leadership of Dr. Petrus Lombard and Dr. Pieter Clase) has won several awards for the manner in which it has been managed and the outstanding outcomes it has achieved (my own role has been small—facilitator of career counselling counselling and life design for students as well as presenter of emotional-social intelligence and mathematical reasoning workshops). Feedback over the past decade has consistently highlighted the pivotal value of the following aspects of the program in ensuring its sustainability (also see Lombard, 2016):

1. The leadership of the two managers (and, during the past few years, of their colleague, Ms. Selena Davids) has consistently been described by attendees as empathetic, compassionate, emotionally-socially intelligent, and democratic.

Words often used to describe their contributions are “accommodating”, “understanding”, “compassionate”, “congruent”, “sincere”, “warm-hearted”, “participating”, “always the same (consistent)”, “stable”, “fair”, “calm”, and “genuine”. Many attendees have described this intervention as the highlight of their scholastic experience; a “life-changing event”.

2. The empathetic contributions of various other stakeholders including student mentors and presenters. Here, too, feedback consistently confirms that the participants experienced the input of these people as “meaningful”, “helpful”, “valuable”, “knowledgeable”, and “sincere”.

It should also be noted that the sustained financial contributions of the main sponsor (Investec) have been pivotal to the sustainability of the project. The support and personal involvement of Investec’s Corporal Social Investments, Mr. Sethlogane Manchidi, deserve special mention.

e. Vingerkraal Project (2008–present)

In the course of the May and Stanley Smith Charitable Trust and the National Research Foundation project (referred to earlier in this chapter), we were requested by the then Dean of the Faculty of Education of the University of Pretoria, Jonathan Jansen, to “reach out” to the only school in the Vingerkraal community (Photograph 21.6), outside Bela-Bela, as well. The Vingerkraal community was at the time recognized neither by the government nor by the broader community. Vingerkraal



Photograph 21.6 Dilapidated classroom in the only school in the Vingerkraal community

community members lived in a completely segregated village (64 km [40 miles] from Bela-Bela on a dirt road) without basic utilities and sanitation. Unemployment was endemic and food and healthcare were in short supply.

When we arrived at the school, we learned that various other stakeholders were making substantial contributions of various kinds to the Vingerkraal community. Our own involvement was limited to teaching Grade 11 learners the basics of emotional-social intelligence and to finding funding for a bread oven project (Photograph 21.7) as well as for clothing, textbook, and other teaching and learning material projects. Ms. Elize Gouws (Momentum Lives) provided funding for the bread oven project while Mr. Adolph Haislar (University of Miami) collected sufficient money to buy textbooks and clothing for many of the children. Sadly, another project sponsored by Mr. Haislar (buying clothing, toys, and shoes for children and shipping them to South Africa in eight large crates) came to nothing as the eight crates inexplicably disappeared after arriving at the WITS post office in Johannesburg.

Looking back, I realize that our own involvement in this project was only partially successful for the following reasons:

1. The untimely promotion to a neighboring school of the headmaster, Mr. Mashisi, whose leadership at the school was pivotal to the success of our input.
2. The inability of the stakeholders to maintain the bread oven.
3. The inadequate involvement of community members and lack of leadership.



Photograph 21.7 Funding was found for a bread oven project



Photograph 21.8 Funding had to be found for the purchase of basic commodities (including clothing and technical equipment) and for erecting a fence around the vegetable garden

f. Tshwaraganang Orphanage Project (2009–present)

For many years, this orphanage has provided food to up to 300 destitute children on any given day and had approximately 50 permanent residents. In collaboration with various stakeholders, who have selflessly contributed to the upkeep and improvement of the orphanage, we have done our best to assist the caregivers (who have received no remuneration and have managed the facility without any support or subsidy from government). We have involved a number of other stakeholders such as Mr. Ferdie Dippenaar, CEO of the Great Basin Gold Mine, who provided funding for the purchase of basic commodities (including clothing and technical equipment) and for erecting a fence around the vegetable garden (Photograph 21.8), and Prof. Marthie van der Walt from the University of the North West and Dr. Pam

Sheppard from the University of Atlanta in the United States, who raised large amounts of money to buy, for instance, blankets, clothing, and toys.

After a lengthy struggle on the part of stakeholders and the selfless efforts of the formidable caretaker, Mama Catherine Sepato (Photograph 21.9), the orphanage was finally recognized by the Department of Social Welfare for funding purposes. However, since the facility was approved as an institution catering for a small number of children, it still to a large extent depends on the efforts of many stakeholders for its survival. More than a year ago, for safety reasons, for safety reasons my involvement with the orphanage was put on hold.

The success of this project can be attributed the following factors:

1. The leadership, resilience, emotional-social intelligence, and compassion of the caretaker, Mama Sepato, and the great respect that the community and other stakeholders have for her. Without her, there would be no such facility.
2. The ongoing contributions of and collaboration between stakeholders and the fact that no stakeholders claim sole credit for the success of the project



Photograph 21.9 Mama Catherine Sepato, volunteer workers, and children at the orphanage

g. Good Work Foundation (GWF) Education Model for Rural Africa (January 2016–present)

My involvement with the GWF began in January of 2016. At the time, I was introduced to Ms. Mo Groth, CEO of the GWF, by Dr. Jopie de Beer, MD of JvR Psychometrics. Knowing about my passion for community outreach and related projects, Jopie suggested that I meet with Mo (who had expressed a wish to tell me how valuable she and her colleagues found the *Career Interest Profile (CIP, ver 4)* (Maree, 2015d, 2017c) in their work with young people in rural communities).

Our brief acquaintance can be summarized in terms of the steps listed below.

Step 1: Initial contact

Our initial telephonic conversation was followed up by an e-mail from Mo who suggested I pay them a visit in Hazyview. She also suggested that I visit the GWF webpage (<http://www.goodworkfoundation.org>) to get an idea of their vision and mission.

Step 2: Discussing the terms of reference

Mo and I discussed the terms of my visit (e.g. how long I would stay and what I would be doing, which included demonstrating to staff members how I use the *CIP*). She said: “The realm of rural education has many challenges but great opportunities. The opportunities make it a very exciting space to be working in.” The remarkable manner in which she showed how the GWF was putting theory into practice was inspiring (Maree, 2013d). Mo added that they were excited about my visit and that they would complete all the students’ narrative sections of the *CIP* by the end of that week and have a copy of each student’s answers in a file for me.

Step 3: Familiarizing myself with the GWF’s core activities

Perusing the GWF website, I realized that they were onto something genuinely ground-breaking and important. In collaboration with strategic partners, the GWF digital learning centers offer basic literacy and career training to school-aged and adult students (GWF, 2016a, 2016b). Moreover, whereas open learning academies offer English literacy, math literacy, digital literacy, and life skills training courses for school-aged learners, career-training academies provide vocational skills courses and digital literacy training for adult learners. Approximately 90% of the current adult learners are recent school-leavers who use the existing 12-month course as a bridging year that offers them a second chance at a bridging year. During this year, once the foundation of English and digital literacy has been laid, learners can attend the career academies at the digital learning centers that serve the local economies. More specialized modules in wine, coffee, and front-of-house management, as well as opportunities to study at the Information and Communications Technology (ICT) Academy (Photograph 21.10), are also offered.

In a remote corner of South Africa, the GWF thus offers training that compares well with state-of-the-art training anywhere else in the world. The GWF also realizes that learners need to become adaptable and employable—hence the



Photograph 21.10 In keeping with the African tradition that a tree is a place to meet and discuss important matters, learners can gather under a digital tree of knowledge, which features power points, a sound system, and a USB

emphasis on training them to communicate well in the language of business in South Africa, and to be ICT literate—a survival skill no matter where in the world one finds oneself. This realization is consistent with Ross’ (2016) assertion that there are the things that are most advantageous to young people preparing themselves for the world of work today, are the following: Studying languages (foreign and computer, but also the English language) because mastering these language will enable them to become better communicators (which is what is needed most today).

In addition, career counselling (a rare service, especially in such a deep rural region) is provided to learners who complete the bridging year. Many of them (who would otherwise in all likelihood have been doomed to a life of unemployment and incessant struggle) benefit from this service, which offers them a “second chance” to obtain qualifications that might help them to find employment and eke out a decent living.

Step 4: Making use of opportunity: Working together

During my visit, I spent approximately two days working with Mo and her colleagues demonstrating how I use the *CIP* (Photograph 21.11) and, at the same time, admiring their systematic use of the instrument to provide career counselling to students who had never before had the opportunity to receive career counselling. I was impressed by the passion, sincerity, and meticulousness of the staff members. The success of their intervention was evidenced by the students’ feedback and progress. The model was also eminently replicable in other rural contexts.



Photograph 21.11 Demonstrating how I use the *CIP* to Mo and her colleagues

Step 5: Confronting challenge and gaining perspective

During my brief stay in Hazyview, I was once again reminded of the challenges of conducting research in rural areas. A violent storm struck (roughly 150 mm of rain fell in six hours) while I was there, leaving the entire town and surrounding areas without power and running water. The heat in the venue where we worked the next day was intense, and mobile communication was seriously disrupted, yet neither the staff nor the learners complained.

Step 6: Follow-up to ensure forward movement

Two months after my visit to Hazyview, Mo and her colleagues enrolled for a short course presented by me on career counselling. I remain inspired by how these people turn intention into action and forward movement and thereby make important social contributions.

Key Factors in the Kinds of Endeavors Discussed in This Chapter

Careful analysis of the seven projects described above sheds light on key factors in these kinds of endeavors.

First, governments cannot help all citizens. Ordinary citizens, too, should assist disadvantaged communities to access services and other basic necessities: Merely talking about or intending or wanting to do things will not suffice (Nicholas, Pretorius, & Naidoo, 2017). Displaying mutual trust and respect and a shared sense of destiny cements relationships and promotes a sense connectedness and a sense of ownership. Second, any preconceived ideas about communities and how to “advise” them and how to intervene should be discarded. Instead, personal agency should be encouraged while collaborating with other stakeholders—drawing on the expertise and insights of communities themselves at all stages to create employment opportunities and to promote entrepreneurship. Third, it should be realized that human behavior can only really be understood in context (Brown & Brooks, 1996) and that the importance of creating and promoting experience through life stories as a team in addition to gathering information (data) should never be forgotten. Fourth, to enable communities to rewrite and redesign their life stories, people should be called upon to adopt new roles (e.g. pastors could adopt the role of auditors, beggars the role of caretakers, unemployed women the role of chefs, headmistresses the role of businesspeople and project managers, and educators the roles of farmers and researcher-practitioners). Helping “invisible” people become visible and actually experience being seen, “silenced” people become audible and actually experience being heard, inactive people become active, and unemployed people become employed is what holds projects together. This also answers the question of how these advocacy projects relate to career counselling interventions. It goes beyond participants taking different roles. For the majority of these marginalized individuals this was in fact the first time that they saw themselves in a different light. For instance, it was the first time that a beggar realized his power and ability to take care of others. These interventions gave them a different identity and a sense of hope that they are capable individuals (personal agency). In other words, they were able to step outside their enforced realities. Fourth, (career) counselling often occurs in uncontrolled conditions (Savickas et al., 2009)—it is therefore essential to be flexible and willing to adapt schedules and strategies whenever this is required. Fifth, action and forward movement are needed (Krieshok, Black, & McKay 2009)—intention and action must be married (Polkinghorne, 1992). Accordingly, the important role of dedication, application, motivation, and hard work cannot be emphasized strongly enough. A genuine desire to “make a difference” and to be useful to people (often without expecting appreciation) can contribute substantially to success. Sixth, a sense of “looking and moving forward” (actionality) is key to sustaining projects. This includes devising rolling two-, three- or four-year plans as well as the careful planning and setting of feasible short-, medium-, and long-term goals. Seventh, a sense of innovation, ideation, and reinvention can prevent projects

from becoming stranded as a result of constant change. Accepting that change is inevitable and that a protean orientation (making changes as and when needed and planning and budgeting for change and its impact) is essential. Eighth, strong, energetic leadership (characterized by compassion, emotional-socially intelligent behavior, and setting an example for others to follow) is probably the single most important factor in ensuring the sustainability of any project. “If you want leadership, take the lead” (R. Balfour, personal communication, June 29, 2016). Ninth, the role of sponsors and of others who are willing to contribute to projects and to continue to do so until a project has either run its course or until it has progressed to a point where it has become self-sustaining and outside intervention or support is no longer needed cannot be over-emphasized.

Lastly: Ensuring the safety of all stakeholders is of paramount importance and is, in fact, the ultimate prerequisite for the success of projects. This includes ensuring the safety of research-practitioners who have been shown to be highly vulnerable in the contexts described in this chapter. What is meant by this, is that there has been a marked increase in the number of violent attacks on the few of us who are willing to conduct research and apply start projects aimed at making a difference in the lives of the most vulnerable and impoverished members of our society. This is especially the case in townships areas and in deep rural contexts. Fewer and fewer researcher-practitioners have subsequently been willing to venture into those regions where is needed most.

Conclusion

All the projects discussed in this chapter, to a lesser or greater extent, contribute to the United Nations (UN) Agenda for Sustainable Development (2016). By encouraging a sense of wellbeing in workers and contributing to the establishment, maintenance, and promotion of formal and informal relationships in short-, medium- and long-term work related contexts—“constructing a place in the world” (Ribeiro, 2015)—these projects promote Goal 8 of the UN Agenda: “Promote sustained, inclusive, and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all.” People facing disadvantaging and disabling conditions are helped to become more (career) adaptable and (career) resilient, develop a stronger sense of identity and of self, and become more employable. The sustained involvement of bigger role players such as government and big business is also crucial.

In conclusion: I believe that when people do not have the opportunity to work, they also do not have the opportunity to experience authentic self-determination (Blustein, 2015)—in other words, the opportunity to construct themselves adequately, design successful lives, and make social contributions. This is summed up in the comment: “When work is going reasonably well, we have a sense of purpose in life. It makes people feel part of something bigger” (Blustein, 2016). I sincerely hope that, albeit in a very small way, what I wrote brought a different and inspiring

reality for readers of the chapter that they might not have considered previously. Hopefully the chapter will inspire replication of our ‘work’ (in the form of many projects similar to the ones explicated on in the chapter) in other poverty-stricken communities across the world in the foreseeable future.

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Chapter 22

Career Changes on the Horizon: The Importance of Group Norms in Interpreting Results of Career Adaptability Measures

Guðbjörg Vilhjálmsdóttir

Abstract This chapter describes a study in a national sample on career adaptability using the Icelandic version of the Career Adapt-Ability Scale (*CAAS-I*) (Einarsdóttir in *J Vocat Behav* 89:172–181, 2015). The aim of the research was twofold, to provide group norms for *CAAS-I* and to examine if participants that saw prospects of change in their careers would score higher on career adaptability. The *CAAS-I* was administered in a national sample ($N = 1575$, 15–65 years) as well as a question on future prospects. The purpose of gathering data for group norms is to make the comparison of scores easier and to enrich the interpretation of results in counselling. Two case studies were used to show the usefulness of group norms. The research also examined if and how foreseen career changes are reflected in measures of career adaptability. Participants that found career changes in the future rather or very likely scored significantly higher on four of six scales of the *CAAS-I*, concern, curiosity, confidence and contribution. These results support Savickas' theory that career adaptability processes are activated when changes occur or as in this case when people see career changes on the horizon.

Keywords Career adaptability · Career adaptability measures · Group norms

Introduction

The ability to deal with ever-changing work environments is increasingly important for the working individual. Changes in workplaces are constant and unpredictable and are due to social and economic forces such as new information and communication technologies, world trade and global competition, migration and unemployment. Savickas (1997) was among the first scientists to address this problem of adapting to frequent career changes and defined the concept of career adaptability

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(i.e. 2005). Savickas also led a group of international scientists from 13 countries in creating a measure of career adaptability (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). The study reported here was a part of this international effort. Until the year 2012 no measure of career adaptability existed (Savickas, 2005) that could indicate if and how people were using abilities and attitudes when adapting to career changes. Our experience of career adaptability measures only has a history of four years. In Iceland group norms have been established for the career adaptability scale in Iceland (*CAAS-I*) (KANS, 2014). The group norms were based on a study in a national sample, being the first study of its kind on career adaptability. The first aim of this chapter is to share with readers how established group norms per gender and age-group enhance the process of interpreting results from the *CAAS-I*. To begin with the *CAAS-I* results from the national sample will be presented. They provided group norms with men and women aged 15–65. Then two case studies will be reported where the intention is to show how group norms enrich the interpretation. Another aim of this chapter is to examine whether career adaptability scores were heightened when participants were expecting career changes in the next five years. The starting point of the chapter is a presentation of the different dimensions of career adaptability since they are a key to interpreting scores on career adaptability.

Dimensions of Career Adaptability

Career adaptability is a psychosocial construct that encompasses the abilities and attitudes people have in preparing for career changes and career transition (Savickas, 2005). It is the ability to willingly adapt the career to changes from within and surroundings. Some of these changes can result from traumas, others are more gradual. When adapting to career changes people need to rely on their strengths. Career adaptability has also been defined as the way people have to enhance their contextual and personal sources of strength and mitigate constraints in their lives. Several processes or dimensions are used to regulate the impact of both sources of strengths and constraints (Santilli, Marcionetti, Rochat, Rossier, & Nota, 2016). Interested readers can be directed to Chap. 1 (Hartung & Cadaret, 2017) for a more detailed information on the career adaptability construct. The four dimensions of career adaptability, however, are an important basis for measuring career adaptability and interpreting test results, as will be seen from the two case studies presented in this chapter.

Savickas theorised the complex concept of career adaptability in a concise manner making career adaptability both understandable and measurable. The attitudes and behaviours individuals need to adjust and solve career related problems (Savickas, 2005) and which constitute career adaptability are classified into four dimensions and organised into a structural model with three levels, the attitudes, beliefs and competencies (see Table 22.1). The four dimensions of career adaptability are concern, control, curiosity and confidence. “These four dimensions represent general adaptive resources and strategies that individuals use to manage

critical tasks, transitions, and traumas as they construct their careers” (Savickas, 2005, p. 51). Table 22.1 shows the attributes on each of the four adaptability dimensions that individuals need to handle developmental tasks, occupational transitions and traumas. A person who has these attitudes and competencies has the ability to adapt to career changes. The *concern* dimension refers to a person becoming aware of her future as a worker and that she needs to plan ahead. Her coping responses are being aware of the things to do and to involve herself in doing them. Someone who is indifferent about her future lacks attitudes and competencies of concern. The *control* dimension refers to a person who has increased control over her future career and is decisive in dealing with the tasks at hand. She is competent in decision making and ready and willing to take charge. Her coping behaviours are to be assertive, disciplined and responsible. Someone who has difficulties making decisions should strengthen attitudes and competencies on this dimension. The *curiosity* dimension addresses exploration of self and possible future scenarios as a worker. Inquisitive attitudes and competencies of exploring are attributes on this dimension and a person with strengths here can therefore gain knowledge of self and situations. A career problem that results from weak attitudes or competencies on this dimension is to make naive assumptions about self and the world of work. The *confidence* dimension “denotes the anticipation of success in encountering challenges and overcoming obstacles” (Rosenberg, 1989 in Savickas, 2005, p. 56). The attitudes involved are feeling efficacious and saying to oneself: “I can do it”. This person is capable of solving problems in her career and knows she can do it by being persistent and striving. When the confidence dimension is weak the person in question will feel inhibited by the problems encountered in her career.

The attitudes and competencies described in Table 22.1 are measurable and can be enhanced (Koen, Klehe, & van Vianen, 2012).

Development of two additional Icelandic scales. From the outset of our research project on career adaptability in Iceland and the development of the CAAS in

Table 22.1 Career adaptability dimensions

Adaptability dimension	Attitudes and beliefs	Competence	Coping behaviours	Career problem
Concern	Planful	Planning	Aware Involved Preparing	Indifference
Control	Decisive	Decision making	Assertive Disciplined Wilful	Indecision
Curiosity	Inquisitive	Exploring	Experimenting Risk taking Inquiring	Unrealism
Confidence	Efficacious	Problem solving	Persistent Striving Industrious	Inhibition

Adapted from Savickas (2005, p. 53)

Iceland one of our aims was to develop culturally specific items. After the first study on career adaptability and the creation of a five scale instrument (Vilhjálmsdóttir, Kjartansdóttir, Smáradóttir, & Einarsdóttir, 2012) a second study was conducted with the aim of exploring culturally sensitive aspects of career adaptability (Einarsdóttir, Vilhjálmsdóttir, Smáradóttir, & Kjartansdóttir, 2015). This study consisted of focus groups, the administration of a new instrument in a sample of 1249 university students and item analyses. The outcome was a six scale instrument with the four international scales of concern, control, curiosity and confidence and additional scales labelled co-operation and contribution (see Fig. 22.1). The two Icelandic scales of co-operation and contribution are relational in nature and only future research can show if they belong to the construct of career adaptability. *The CAAS-I* with six scales shows an acceptable model fit and a better model fit than a four dimensional model (Einarsdóttir et al., 2015; KANS, 2014).

This suggests that people in Iceland activate resources in the community when adapting to career changes. This aspect of the Icelandic context came up when experts in focus groups described how people in Iceland adapt to career changes and this six-dimensional model is supported by confirmatory factor analysis (Einarsdóttir et al., 2015). Table 22.2 shows hypothetical suggestions of the attitudes, beliefs and competencies at play in these dimensions. They are based on the items in the co-operation and contribution scales in the *CAAS-I* in Table 22.3.

We will now look to some research projects that have been conducted in recent years and see if they give reason to pay attention to the gender and age variables that in turn justify the creation of group norms.

Fig. 22.1 The six dimensions of *CAAS-I* with the two additional Icelandic dimensions of *CAAS-I*: co-operation and contribution



Table 22.2 Icelandic career adaptability dimensions

Adaptability dimension	Attitudes and beliefs	Competence	Coping behaviours	Career problem
Co-operation	Empathetic	Communicating	Networking Leading Understanding	Rejected
Contribution	Social	Out-reaching	Purposeful Directed Active	Isolation

Table 22.3 Scales and items of the career adapt-ability scale—Iceland form

<i>Concern</i>
1. Thinking about what my future will be like
2. Realizing that today’s choices shape my future
3. Preparing for the future
4. Becoming aware of the educational and vocational choices that I must make
5. Planning how to achieve my goals
6. Concerned about my career
<i>Control</i>
7. Keeping upbeat
8. Making decisions by myself
9. Taking responsibility for my actions
10. Sticking up for my beliefs
11. Counting on myself
12. Doing what’s right for me
<i>Curiosity</i>
13. Exploring my surroundings
14. Looking for opportunities to grow as a person
15. Investigating options before making a choice
16. Observing different ways of doing things
17. Probing deeply into questions I have
18. Becoming curious about new opportunities
<i>Confidence</i>
19. Performing tasks efficiently
20. Taking care to do things well
21. Learning new skills
22. Working up to my ability
23. Overcoming obstacles
24. Solving problems
<i>Co-operation</i>
25. Compromising with other people

(continued)

Table 22.3 (continued)

26. Going along with the group
27. Be a good listener
28. Understanding others point of view
29. Sharing with others
30. Knowing I cannot have my way all the time in cooperation
31. Taking constructive criticism from others
<i>Contribution</i>
32. Finding purpose in my studies and work
33. Expecting to be active in my community
34. Wanting to be appreciated
35. Wanting my work to be respected
36. Wanting people to think I do good work

Research on Career Adaptability

Research on career adaptability has been flourishing since the launch of measures of career adaptability in many countries and reported in a special issue of the *Journal of Vocational Behavior* in the year 2012. Career adaptability has been proven to be a dynamic construct (Autin, Douglas, Duffy, England, & Allan, 2016). Most research projects on career adaptability have focused on variables that co-vary with career adaptability measures in both adolescents and adults. More than one study has revealed that higher scores on career adaptability are reflected in more successful career transition in adolescence, such as vocational identity (Negru-Subtirica, Pop, & Crocetti, 2015), decision making, planning, exploration, or confidence beliefs (Creed, Muller, & Patton, 2003; Germeijs & Verschueren, 2007; Neuenschwander & Garrett, 2008; Patton, Creed, & Muller, 2002 in Koen et al. 2012) and making better career choices (Hirschi, Niles, & Akos, 2011). A recent meta-analysis of over 90 studies of the relationships of career adaptability with various career related measures (Rudolph, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017) showed the predictive validity of career adaptability measures for outcomes on career, work and well-being.

Among adults research has displayed connections between higher scores on career adaptability and positive work experience (Monteiro & Almeida, 2015) career satisfaction (Zacher, 2014), less job insecurity (Maggiori, Johnston, Krings, Massoudi & Rossier, 2013) and positive affect (Fiori, Bollmann, & Rossier, 2015). Another adult study revealed how adaptive adults develop career adaptability competencies through learning, both formal and informal (Brown, Bimrose, Barnes, & Hughes, 2012). A study in a small sample compared career adaptability in adults to younger people and revealed that adults that professional adaptability of mature adults is statistically significantly higher than that of young adults (Navaitienė, 2014). A study with undergraduates (Guan et al., 2017) of the relationship between

personality traits and career adaptability demonstrated that measures of core self evaluation (CSE) serve as the strongest predictor for career adaptability.

Careers unfold in a social context (Savickas, 2013) and occupations are a means to social integration (Savickas, 2005). When establishing group norms the social variables of gender and age are basic. It is therefore interesting to examine if research has revealed some differences on these variables. Results published by Ambiel, Carvalho, Maartins, & Tofoli (2016) are of particular interest to this study as they compare scores on career adaptability measures in different age groups. A comparison between adolescents and adults revealed that adults score higher on career adaptability measures, much the same as in the study by Navaitienė (2014), quoted above. At the same time Ambiel et al. (2016) conclude that although some items on CAAS gave specific information about either adolescents or adults that is not a reason for developing separate measures of career adaptability for adults and adolescents. This gives ground for establishing group norms. Interestingly from the age perspective, CAAS has been used with success in even younger age groups (middle school) (Tien, Lin, Hsieh, & Jin, 2014).

A few studies on career adaptability have explored gender differences in career adaptability and concluded that they were not significant (Hirschi, 2009; Tien et al., 2014; Zacher, 2014). Another study (Yuen & Yau, 2015) found significant gender differences, but effect sizes were small, and thus not meaningful for further interpretation (Yuen & Yau, 2015, p. 154). A third study, however, revealed net significant differences between men and women, with women scoring higher on career adaptability (Coetzee & Harry, 2015). These studies give reason to expect gender differences on career adaptability and thus give ground for group norms for men and women.

Future time perspective (FTP) is a factor that is gaining more attention in recent research (Thoms & Blasko, 2004; Walker & Tracey, 2012). It represents one's cognitive construct of future goals and present tasks (Jung et al., 2015). "We know that students who focus on their future goals and work hard on their current tasks are more likely to make career decisions with greater confidence and less anxiety" (Jung et al., 2015, p. 47). It could therefore be expected that career adaptability is a variable that is dependent on anticipated career changes in the future. From recent research we also learn that resources of career adaptability are in a "varying state of activation" (Maggiori, Johnston, Krings, Massoudi, and Rossier, 2013, p. 447) that are triggered with challenges such as professional transitions or work traumas and in relation to individual roles and different contexts. Perceived and likely future changes can also be expected to influence career adaptability scores, i.e. the activity involved in preparing future changes would be measurable on career adaptability scales. Prospects of change in a career are the core target of the construct of career adaptability, as focusing on career adaptability in career counseling involves assisting people in preparing for future career changes and to develop abilities to adapt to career changes (Vilhjálmssdóttir et al., 2012). When an individual is predicting future career changes they are either due to goal implementation or environmental events or both. "An individual's career concerns include contextual

strategies, motivational systems, and domain-specific skills for dealing with age-appropriate developmental tasks and social expectations and for pursuing personal projects” (Savickas, 2001, p. 308). An examination of the six dimensions and 36 items of the *CAAS-I* shows that many items are projecting towards the future or more precisely asking the person how she will react to career changes in the future. Examples of such future oriented items are “Thinking about what my future will be like” on the concern scale or “Looking for opportunities to grow as a person” on the curiosity scale. This study touches on perceived career changes in the future and how they are reflected in career adaptability scores.

Based on the literature review our hypotheses are therefore:

1. Gender and age differences in career adaptability give ground for gender and age related group norms
2. Scores on *CAAS-I* are higher when career changes are rather or very likely within the next five years.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants came from a national sample of 2772, in which a random sample of 2510 aged 18–65 were selected from the probability based Internet panel of the Social Science Research Institute at the University of Iceland, and a random sample of 262 adolescents aged 15–17 were selected from the national registry (Registers Iceland). Parental consent was obtained prior to administering the *CAAS-I* to the adolescents under 18 years of age. The parents of 262 children gave their consent, 8 refused and 30 parents were not reached. A total of 1662 participants answered the questionnaire containing the *CAAS-I* via the Internet, but 87 questionnaires were not fit for use, (the questionnaires had only been answered to a small extent). The final number of participants was 1575 (mean age 40.1 years, SD = 13.9, 729 males and 846 females), a response rate of 57%. Since the composition of respondents does not correspond totally to the population in terms of gender and age distributions (male and younger people being somewhat underrepresented), data was weighted according to the distribution of these variables in the population.

Measures

Career Adapt-Ability Scale—Iceland form (*CAAS-I*) is a 36 item scale that measures concern, control, curiosity and confidence, as well as the two additional Icelandic sub-scales of co-operation and contribution (see Table 22.3). The four

international scales measure psychosocial resources for negotiating occupational transitions and developmental tasks. The 24 items on the four scales of concern, control, curiosity and confidence are the same as in the international CAAS (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). The two additional Icelandic scales, labelled co-operation and contribution, are of a more relational nature (Einarsdóttir et al., 2015). Based on item and scale analysis the original 67 item instrument administered to the sample was reduced to the 36 item current instrument of six scales (see Table 22.3), the 24 international items and 12 items that had been developed in Iceland (Einarsdóttir, et al., 2015). Items are rated on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 Little strength to 5 Very much strength. Higher scores reflect greater resources.

Participants scored on average 3.88 on the CAAS-I (Career Adapt-Ability Scale—Iceland form), the scale ranging from 1 to 5. The highest scores on average were on the two Icelandic scales of co-operation (4.11) and contribution (4.18) and the lowest scores were on Concern (3.55) and Curiosity (3.59). The weighting of the data didn't affect mean scores on scales, except for the scales Control and Curiosity, where the mean lowered slightly, b 0.01.

The Cronbach's Alfas of all subscales were high (0.84–0.88) as seen in Table 22.4, which implies good internal consistency of the items. Confirmatory factor analysis was performed with LISREL 8.72 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2005) to examine the factor structure of CAAS-I. An evaluation of the factor structure was performed with diagonally weighted least squares (DWLS). Model fit was examined with root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) ≥ 0.05 , comparative fit index (CFI) ≥ 0.95 and normed fit index (NFI) ≥ 0.95 . As Table 22.4 shows, the value of the indexes indicate that the model fit is good, much better than in a previous study using the four international dimensions of career adaptability (Vilhjálmsdóttir et al., 2012). As a result, the CAAS-I is a valid measure of career adaptability.

Respondents were also asked the following question: Are you expecting changes in your educational or vocational career within the next 5 years? The answer was rated on a 5 point Likert scale from 1 very unlikely to 5 very likely. Additionally data was gathered on gender and age.

Table 22.4 Psychometric properties of CAAS-I

	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha	Corrected item total correlation	Factor loadings ^a
Concern	6	0.88	0.63–0.77	0.75–0.83
Control	6	0.85	0.52–0.73	0.65–0.86
Curiosity	6	0.87	0.60–0.71	0.75–0.81
Confidence	6	0.87	0.59–0.72	0.70–0.84
Co-operation	7	0.86	0.57–0.69	0.66–0.84
Contribution	5	0.84	0.64–0.68	0.76–0.87
CAAS-I	36	0.95	0.43–0.68	

^aRMSEA = 0.055, CFI = 0.983, NNFI = 0.984, SRMR = 0.044

Results

The career adaptability and sub-scales were examined on the following five variables, gender, six age groups (15–20, 21–25, 26–35, 36–45, 46–55, 56–65), and likely or unlikely career changes within the next five years (see Table 22.5).

Regarding our first hypothesis on gender and age differences in career adaptability a regression analysis was performed and is presented in Table 22.6.

The results of the analysis shows that the social variables (gender, age) and expected career changes only explain about 2% of the variance in career adaptability (see Table 22.6). The age variable was divided into six age groups, (15–20, 21–25, 26–35, 36–45, 46–55, 56–65) and results on each of the six sub-scales of CAAS-I are shown in Fig. 22.2.

The youngest age group (15–20 years) is higher on concern (a future orientation) and curiosity (exploration). Older age groups are higher on control (decisive). Scores on the two Icelandic scales are much higher than on the four international ones. The age group from 36 to 45 has lowest scores on four scales out of six. Omega Squared was calculated for the effect sizes of significant mean differences between age groups, showing a small effect (see Table 22.5).

Comparison between groups was used to answer the first research question on whether career adaptability is contingent on the social variable of gender. Gender differences revealed significant differences on the concern scale and the two Icelandic scales where women scored higher than men (see Fig. 22.3). Effect size or Cohen's *d* was calculated for significant mean differences on the gender variable (see Table 22.5), which show a small effect.

The second research question was more psychosocial in nature since it asked about the person's thinking and attitudes concerning likely future changes in their careers. Scores on career adaptability scales are higher when people see changes lying ahead with one exception. Those that expect changes in the years to come are significantly higher on concern, curiosity, confidence, co-operation, contribution and total score (see Table 22.7).

As with the other variables, the effect according to Omega Squared is rather small. Only the control scale does not show differences in scores between those that say that future career changes are likely compared to those that find career changes in the future unlikely (see Fig. 22.4).

A chi square test revealed significant differences between age groups in terms of anticipating career changes. In the youngest age group 45% of participants said that career changes within five years are very likely. Furthermore, 64% of participants aged 21–25 and 43% of participants aged 26–35 say that career changes are very likely. In comparison only 21% of the age group 36–45 say that career changes within five years are likely and in age groups over 45 years 15–17% find career changes likely.

Table 22.5 Means and standard deviation by gender and age on the six scales on CAAS-I

	<i>N</i>	Concern	Control	Curiosity	Confidence	Co-operation	Contribution	CAAS-I
Total	1575	3.55	3.95	3.59	3.93	4.11	4.18	3.88
Confidence interval		+/-0.04	+/-0.04	+/-0.04	+/-0.03	+/-0.03	+/-0.03	+/-0.03
Standard deviation		0.82	0.73	0.76	0.69	0.66	0.69	0.56
<i>Gender</i>		*				*	*	*
		<i>d</i> = 0.22				<i>d</i> = 0.21	<i>d</i> = 0.26	<i>d</i> = 0.12
Male	800	3.46	3.98	3.62	3.94	4.04	4.09	3.85
		0.84	0.71	0.75	0.68	0.67	0.73	0.57
Female	775	3.64	3.92	3.56	3.92	4.18	4.27	3.91
		0.79	0.75	0.77	0.70	0.64	0.63	0.55
<i>Age</i>		*	*	*	*	*	*	*
		$\omega^2 = 0.014$	$\omega^2 = 0.018$	$\omega^2 = 0.010$		$\omega^2 = 0.004$	$\omega^2 = 0.007$	$\omega^2 = 0.006$
15-20	207	3.80	3.92	3.72	3.92	4.10	4.18	3.94
		0.83	0.80	0.77	0.77	0.65	0.70	0.61
21-25	168	3.61	3.75	3.60	3.90	3.96	4.13	3.82
		0.93	0.83	0.78	0.75	0.75	0.79	0.64
26-35	334	3.53	3.91	3.60	3.94	4.13	4.17	3.88
		0.82	0.74	0.75	0.68	0.65	0.68	0.53
36-45	311	3.43	3.89	3.44	3.86	4.12	4.07	3.80
		0.81	0.73	0.77	0.66	0.65	0.71	0.56
46-55	313	3.52	4.09	3.65	4.01	4.17	4.27	3.95
		0.77	0.67	0.77	0.67	0.64	0.64	0.54
56-65	242	3.50	4.06	3.61	3.90	4.09	4.22	3.90
		0.77	0.61	0.68	0.67	0.64	0.63	0.52

(continued)

Table 22.5 (continued)

	<i>N</i>	Concern	Control	Curiosity	Confidence	Co-operation	Contribution	CAAS-I
Total	1575	3.55	3.95	3.59	3.93	4.11	4.18	3.88
<i>Changes in career expected within 5 years</i>								
		*		*	*		*	*
		$\omega^2 = 0.009$		$\omega^2 = 0.012$	$\omega^2 = 0.003$		$\omega^2 = 0.003$	$\omega^2 = 0.004$
Rather or very likely	891	3.62	3.93	3.67	3.96	4.12	4.22	3.92
		0.82	0.75	0.74	0.70	0.66	0.70	0.56
Neither likely or unlikely	293	3.49	3.94	3.54	3.86	4.09	4.12	3.84
		0.79	0.73	0.78	0.67	0.65	0.67	0.57
Rather or very unlikely	391	3.43	4.01	3.47	3.90	4.09	4.13	3.84
		0.83	0.67	0.77	0.69	0.66	0.67	0.56

*Mean difference is statistically significant based on a t-test for gender and Oneway Anova for the other variables

Table 22.6 Regression analysis of expected career changes, age and gender

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	β
<i>Step 1</i>			
Constant	3.81	0.02	
Expecting changes	0.11	0.03	0.10***
<i>Step 2</i>			
Constant	3.66	0.05	
Expecting changes	0.13	0.03	0.12***
Age	4.48	0.00	0.09**
Gender	0.09	0.03	0.08**

Note $R^2 = 0.009$ for Step 1, $R^2 = 0.020$ for Step 2 ($p < 0.001$)

** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

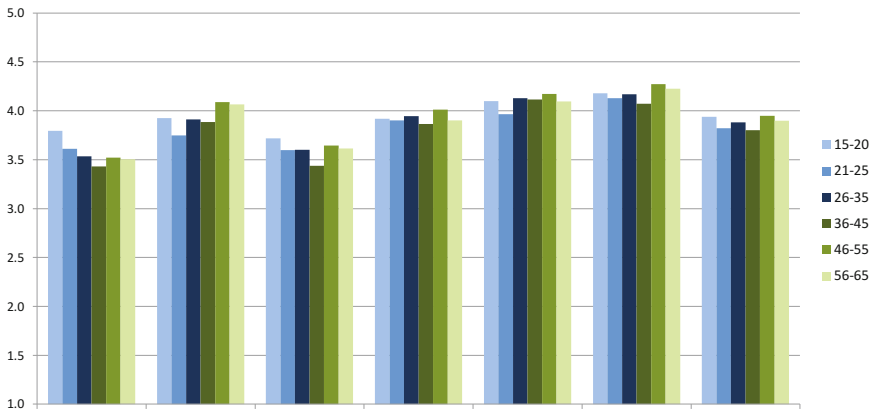


Fig. 22.2 Career adaptability in different age groups

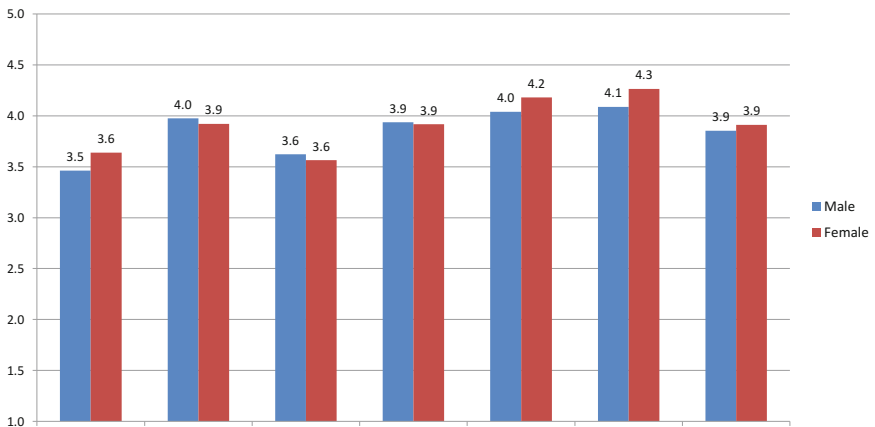


Fig. 22.3 Gender differences on career adaptability

Table 22.7 Changes in careers expected within 5 years

	<i>N</i>	Concern	Control	Curiosity	Confidence	Co-operation	Contribution	CAAS-I
<i>Changes in career expected within 5 years</i>		*		*	*		*	*
		$\omega^2 = 0.009$		$\omega^2 = 0.012$	$\omega^2 = 0.003$		$\omega^2 = 0.003$	$\omega^2 = 0.004$
Rather or very likely	891	3.62	3.93	3.67	3.96	4.12	4.22	3.92
		0.82	0.75	0.74	0.70	0.66	0.70	0.56
Neither likely or unlikely	293	3.49	3.94	3.54	3.86	4.09	4.12	3.84
		0.79	0.73	0.78	0.67	0.65	0.67	0.57
Rather or very unlikely	391	3.43	4.01	3.47	3.90	4.09	4.13	3.84
		0.83	0.67	0.77	0.69	0.66	0.67	0.56

*Mean difference is statistically significant based on a t-test for gender and Oneway Anova for the other variables

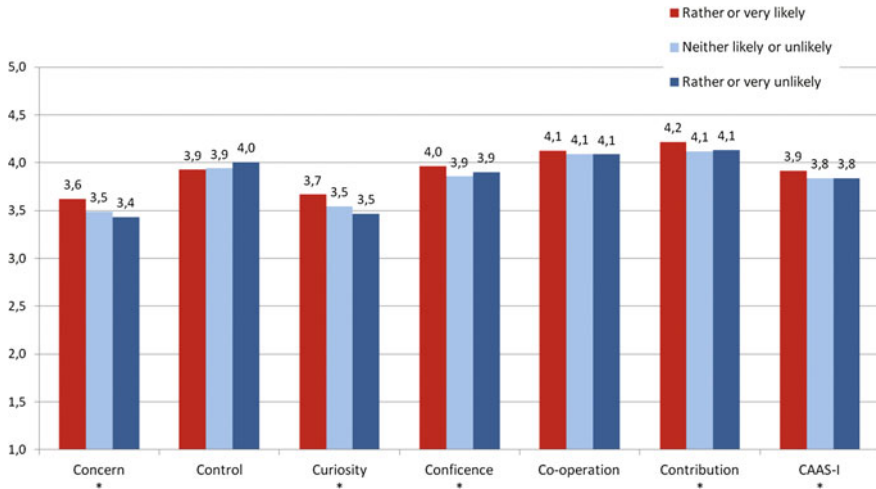


Fig. 22.4 Career adaptability and likely versus unlikely career changes within 5 years

Two Case Studies

The purpose of developing a measure of career adaptability is to use it in counselling. One aim of this study was to establish group norms for the use of CAAS-I. The following two case studies are a demonstration of the use of CAAS-I and group norms in action.

Helga is 16 years old in the first year of upper secondary school (16–19 years). While she was in compulsory school (6–15 years) she was bullied and she had serious problems making friends. Now that she is in a new school she is determined to step out of her isolation and connect with people. She is a hard worker and is careful that her schoolwork and school attendance are perfect. Some months ago, in the beginning of the school year, Helga was not certain that she would be able to overcome her difficulties. She was also not sure about her future in education and work. Helga is not very interested in what to study after upper secondary school, but she is willing to talk about plans. The counsellor decides to administer the CAAS-I to Helga. As the counsellor expected from talking with Helga she is low on concern, but the CAAS-I reveals that she is lower still on curiosity, compared to her age group. The items on that scale are rated 3, apart from one that is rated 4 (Probing deeply into questions I have). The fact that she scores lower than her peers surprises her and makes her think about exploring options. The counsellor and Helga discuss the importance of exploring what is out there and gain knowledge about opportunities. The counsellor reminds Helga that she has many strengths on the *co-operation* scale. But at the same time, the counsellor is aware of the fact that the average on this scale is very high (skewness) and therefore, in spite of a score of 4.86, Helga scores the same as 81% of people her age. Her relatively low score on concern seems to underline that she is not interested in what is “out there”.

Table 22.8 Helga's scores on the six dimensions of CAAS-I

CAAS-I	Means per scale	Percentiles for women in age-group 15–20 (%)
Concern	3.50	34
Control	3.83	44
Curiosity	3.17	17
Confidence	4.67	81
Co-operation	4.86	81
Contribution	4.0	37
Total	4.08	64

Compared to her peers her future matters less. She reflects that this might be because it matters so much to her to enjoy the next two years in upper secondary school. This is furthermore supported by rather low scores on the contribution scale, especially on the items *Expecting to be active in my community* and *Wanting people to think I do good work*. Helga seems to avoid contact with other people. The results on CAAS-I show a moderate disharmony with low scores on concern, curiosity, relatively low on contribution and high scores on the other scales, creating some career adaptation problems for Helga. The counsellor now has information on how Helga engages vocational developmental tasks and occupational transitions and can plan her intervention. Savickas (2005) suggested that someone who lacks concern for her career “might benefit from interventions that prompt anxiety about the future and then address this anxiety by exercises and interactions that foster planful attitudes, planning competencies and preparatory behaviors” (Savickas, 2005, p. 57). Helga might also need interventions that foster career curiosity „in the form of inquisitive attitudes, exploration competencies, and information seeking behavior” (Savickas, 2005, p. 57). The counsellor is convinced that the CAAS-I was a valuable tool in assisting Helga in being curious about people's careers and more attentive to future career plans (Table 22.8).

The second case. Josefina is 32 years old. A few months ago she moved back from California. She left Iceland after upper secondary school, when she was about 20 years old, eager to explore the world and try out new things. She worked for one year in a retirement home and then started studying and training to become a teacher. Teaching had been her dream for many years but one year into her studies she had lost her enthusiasm and decided to quit. For a few years she tried various jobs and took a course in graphic design before entering philosophy at the University of California Berkeley. In the next years she finished both a Bachelor and a Master's degree in philosophy. During her studies she worked at a bar where she became the manager and after graduating she continued to manage the bar. One year before she came back to Iceland the relationship with her partner for many years ended and for a while she hesitated if she should find another job in California, more relevant to her studies but never got very far thinking about it. She was very unsure of which kind of job she would like to do and which direction to take in her career path. She decided to return to Iceland. She felt she needed to go back to her family and friends; to her roots. When she returned she decided to give

herself some space, explore and try to find some interesting jobs, preferably in her field. After a while a friend of a friend told her that a restaurant and a bar in town were hiring a manager. She went for an interview with the owner and got the job. Somehow she went back to the safety of what she is good at. The transition has not been easy, she feels a bit like a foreigner in her home country after being away for many years. The system and the way of life are unfamiliar to her. A few months before returning from California she started dating a man and has been in contact with him since. That does not make the situation easier; somewhere she is regretting her choice to return to Iceland. Although raw scores on concern and control are mid-range, the percentiles on *CAAS-I* for women in her age group reveal that she is extremely low on these scales and relatively low on curiosity. Her decision to move to Iceland seems to have been indifferent to the consequences. Low scores on concern call for interventions that “allows individuals to envision how today’s effort builds tomorrow’s success” (Savickas, 2005, p. 54). Low scores on control reveal that Josefina doesn’t feel that she owns her future and needs to enhance her assertiveness and foster responsibility (Savickas, 2005). Training in decision-making, time management and self-management strategies are examples of counselling interventions that would strengthen her career control. These low scores indicate her confusion about which country to live in and the fact that she has a hard time deciding which path to choose. Her confidence is quite low and could be explained, for example, with her career choice when she returned to Iceland to become a bar manager. She had intended to work as a teacher of life skills and philosophy in upper secondary school, but did not succeed in doing that. Although she took the risk to move back to her home country, she is inhibited in exploring possibilities. The following Table 22.9 shows her scores on the six *CAAS-I* scales and percentiles for women in her age-group.

In the counselling session Josefina tells the counselor her story and how uncertain she is about her choice of returning to her home country. She feels totally confused about where to live, in Iceland or in California? Why return home and work at a bar here as well? The future is in a blur. This planlessness about the future is reflected in her extremely low scores on concern, compared with group norms. The counselor suggests that Josefina should devote some time to planning and thus clarify her goals. Her low scores on the contribution scale also reveal that she is not sure if she wants to stay in this community, her mind is elsewhere and she feels

Table 22.9 Josefina’s scores on the six scales of *CAAS-I*

<i>CAAS-I</i>	Means per scale	Percentiles for women in age-group 26–35 (%)
Concern	2.33	4
Control	2.83	9
Curiosity	2.67	20
Confidence	3.17	17
Co-operation	4.43	59
Contribution	3.40	13
Total	3.17	12

isolated. The counselor talks with Josefina about her low score on curiosity, that perhaps because the system in her home country was confusing she did not explore all the opportunities open to people with a degree in philosophy. Compared with group norms Josefina is also low on confidence, something that is not surprising when hearing her story of inhibition.

Discussion

Regression analysis tells us that the social variables in this study are not explaining a lot of the variance, only about 2%. These results confirm Savickas's theory of career adaptability as a psychosocial construct. Nonetheless, slight gender and age differences give reason to produce group norms, to ensure that the interpretation of the test results is more precise. This is also supported in practice in the two case studies, where outcomes are more easily interpreted when compared with group norms.

Our first hypothesis was: Gender and age differences in career adaptability give ground for gender and age related group norms. The youngest age group (15–20 years) was higher on concern (planning) and curiosity (exploration). These are similar results of age differences as in previous research, although in a comparable study adults scored higher on all four international scales (Ambiel et al., 2016). Younger age groups scored higher on some dimensions in this study. The concern dimension implies a future orientation, i.e. that it is important to prepare for tomorrow, and the curiosity dimension implies exploring self and surroundings. Both of these are important developmental tasks for people aged 15–20 as career development theories have taught us. The results reveal that older age groups are higher on control or being decisive. This could reflect developmental tasks that are typical for careers in adulthood. The results imply that developmental tasks differ with age, but as Fig. 22.2 shows they are not linear differences. It is likely that the results reflect a context where young people are faced with developmental tasks, or tasks that need to be resolved that call for concern and curiosity, whereas older people are required to be more in control when adapting to careers. It is not age in itself that triggers high scores on concern and curiosity when you are younger or on control when you are older, but rather the context and experience which are a more likely trigger. These results are in agreement with Ambiel et al. (2016) who conclude that the same instrument of measuring career adaptability, *CAAS-J*, can be used with both adolescents and adults, although this study gives specific information about both adolescents and adults.

Nevertheless, differences in age groups underline the importance of establishing group norms. This is illustrated in a case study where raw scores on the curiosity scale could be interpreted as being average, while Helga, compared to her age group, is below the 17th percentile. The same could be said about Josefina's score on control. Her raw scores could be interpreted just below average, but in fact 9% and fewer women her age score as low on the control scale.

This study found significant differences between men and women although effect sizes were small. Women are significantly higher than men on three dimensions: concern, co-operation and contribution. If Josefina in our case study was a man her percentile on concern would be 12% instead of 4%. As in previous research (Yuen & Yau, 2015) there seem to be some gender differences on the dimensions of career adaptability, in this case on the concern dimension and on the two relational dimensions of co-operation and contribution. The two additional Icelandic scales are relational in nature and it is of interest and not surprising that women score higher on these measures and might point to the fact that the Icelandic scales are measuring another construct than career adaptability. The gender difference on the concern scale is worth further investigation, but it has to be born in mind that in both a previous study and this one effect sizes of gender mean differences are small. A possible reason for gender differences might be that women need to balance more between work and family. A reason why women in this study scored higher on the two Icelandic scales might be that this is a relational dimension that might appeal more to women. Nearly all the career specialists we talked to in the focus groups were female, something that might have affected the process of scale development. This is something that needs examining in future research. Based on our findings from both research and practice we can accept our first hypothesis. That gender and age differences in career adaptability give ground for gender and age related group norms.

Our second hypothesis was: Scores on *CAAS-I* are higher when career changes are rather or very likely within the next five years. This hypothesis is accepted since those who say that career changes are rather or very likely in the next five years score higher on all but one of the six scales in the *CAAS-I*. Likely career changes in the near future activate many dimensions of career adaptability, something that supports that the construct of career adaptability is intrapersonal and self-regulating and that resources of career adaptability are in a varying state of activation. This supports the theory of Career Construction that says that career adaptability is constituted by psychosocial resources that are activated when career changes occur or are anticipated.

The study of career adaptability in a national sample has confirmed previous findings on the *CAAS-I* (Einarsdóttir et al., 2015) that a six dimensional scale with two additional Icelandic sub-scales is a better fit to the Icelandic context than a four dimensional scale. Interestingly, people in Iceland activate resources in the community when adapting to career changes. All the same the functioning of the two Icelandic scales needs further research in the future.

From the process of establishing group norms in Iceland, we have effectively learned that there are some gender and age differences. In accordance with Ambiel et al. (2016), reasons for separate measures for adolescents and adults were not found but group norms can account for nuances between age groups. Group norms based on age and gender makes interpretation of *CAAS-I* results more nuanced with clients, especially when he or she is deviating from gender and age groups. The psychometric properties of the *CAAS-I* were also examined in the process, showing

that the CAAS-I with six scales shows a better model fit than a four dimensional model (KANS, 2014; Einarsdóttir et al., 2015).

Another finding of the study was that when people are facing career changes in the near future, they activate their career adaptabilities. This finding supports Savickas' theory that career adaptability processes are activated when changes occur or as in this case when people see career changes on the horizon. Career adaptability is a psycho-social construct that teaches us that changes out there, affect changes within. The Career Adapt-Ability Scale is perceptive of this type of thinking, making it a very effective tool in assisting people to deal with career changes.

Limitations of the Study

Only one question was used to examine future career changes. It would be preferable to examine this variable further and to what extent people anticipate career changes. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that scores on the two Icelandic scales are much higher than on the four international ones. This might indicate that these two scales are measuring another constructs, something that needs looking into in future convergence studies.

Conclusion

This study has confirmed previous research on gender and age differences in scores of career adaptability. Gender and age differences give ground for the establishment of group norms for the CAAS-I (the Icelandic version of the Career Adapt-Ability Scale). The career adaptability scale is a very useful counselling tool which use is improved with group norms. Two case studies show how interpretation is more precise with group norms. This study also shows that when people are expecting changes in the future their scores on CAAS-I are higher, something that is in accordance with Savickas' Theory of Career Construction.

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Chapter 23

Understanding Career Resilience and Career Adaptability in Challenging and Vulnerable Contexts

Marcelo Afonso Ribeiro

Abstract This chapter aimed to understand these constructs in challenging and vulnerable contexts such as Global South countries, by means of analysis of research on career construction advanced in Latin America and based on the notion of intercultural dialogue. The overall aim was to produce knowledge that blends the Global North epistemology of social constructionism with contextualized theories from the South (a vulnerability and human rights framework). It also aimed to make a contribution to the social justice agenda in the field of career guidance and counseling. It was argued that three dimensions (personal, social and programmatic) that have the potential to transcend the person and include persons, contexts and relationships in its constructs should be considered in the process.

Keywords Epistemologies of the south · Social constructionism
Career counseling · Vulnerability · Latin America

Introduction

When discussing contemporary career guidance and counseling paradigms, Duarte (2015), Duffy et al. (2016), McIlveen (2015) and Savickas (2015a) stated that their theories and practices must be contextualized to facilitate an understanding of and assistance to those who could benefit from career guidance or career counseling.

The world can be socioeconomically and politically divided into two large blocks: Global North, including the United States, Canada, Western Europe, Australia and New Zealand, and developed parts of Asia; and Global South, including Africa, Latin America, and developing Asia (World Bank, 2013).

Career adaptability and career resilience constructs originated in developed Global North countries, founded on social and working contexts mainly characterized by development, stability, safety and social protection. The question that

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should be asked is: How should these theoretical constructs be considered in contexts mainly distinguished by a history of social inequalities, instability, precarious working conditions, a lack of social protection, and the possibility of constructing careers available to a few people only? Put differently: How should these theoretical constructs be considered in vulnerable contexts, such as the vast majority of Global South contexts, as well as smaller parts of contexts from developed countries from Global North?

This chapter has attempted to discuss this issue from the analysis of Latin American contexts and of the career theories produced in the region, proposing some conceptual underpinnings that can possibly be applied to any contexts in which social justice around career adaptability and resilience is needed, both in the Global South and the Global North.

According to Antunes (2015), contemporary Latin American contexts exist in a new era of structural precarious work, facing an intense and significant challenge to make working more flexible and informal. The working world has generated different levels of vulnerability (Castel, 2000), which complicates the decent work agenda in the region (International Labour Office [ILO], 1999) and sprouts distinguished forms of decent work that are not brought about by the state's actions (Ribeiro, Silva, & Figueiredo, 2016).

Decent work (...) involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men (International Labour Office [ILO], 1999).

Despite recent developments and the consequent emergence of increased levels of stability in many Latin American countries, these countries are still characterized by social inequality and psychosocial vulnerability, as can be seen in the World Development Indicators 2013 (World Bank, 2013) and the World Employment and Social Outlook—Trends 2015 documents (International Labour Office [ILO], 2015) with reference to Latin America. In educational terms, youths have issues with the educational system mainly related to school-to-work transitions (in Brazil, approximately 82% of the economically active population [EAP] have no college degree). In terms of labor market, 46.8% of Latin Americans are informal workers. And, the context is also marked by great socioeconomic inequality where the income poverty headcount ratio of the entire population is 27.9%, and moreover the inequality levels remain higher than in many other regions of the world (the median Gini index is 44.8 in Latin America, compared to an average of 30.2 in developed countries). In terms of career development, careers in the Global North are primarily focused on employment and more stable and continuous paths with social protection of the state; while, in the Global South, careers are often focused on several discontinuous and informal working opportunities without social protection of the state, and without employment as its baseline (Antunes, 2015; González Bello, 2008; Rascován, 2016; ILO, 2017).

Based on the scenario just outlined, and aiming to contribute to the matter at hand, this chapter discussed how the career adaptability and career resilience constructs can be understood and used or not in challenging and vulnerable contexts such as Latin American countries, as well as proposing some conceptual underpinnings to be possibly able to do this.

As career adaptability and career resilience have not been studied in the Latin American context (Bardagi & Albanaes, 2015; Fiorini, Bardagi, & Silva, 2016; Lassance, Levenfus, & Melo-Silva, 2015; Ribeiro, Uvaldo, & Silva, 2015), this chapter was prepared by means of analysis of research on career construction developed in the region. The aim was to develop an understanding of how these theoretical constructs explain the exemplars of career construction explicated here and to determine the relevance of the theoretical constructs vis-à-vis for the Latin American explanations about career constructions.

Central to the framework of the chapter was Boaventura de Sousa Santos's views on interculturality and the ecology of *knowledges* (here, it is important to stress the use of the plural: *knowledges*) (Santos, 2014). It was grounded in a social constructionism perspective on the Global North (Blustein, 2006, 2011; Flum, 2015; Nota & Rossier, 2015), viewed and reviewed through the lens of Southern epistemologies, particularly those epistemologies developed within the Latin American critical tradition (Ayres et al., 2006; Bohoslavsky, 1983; Freire, 1970, 1975; Martín-Baró, 1994; Rascován, 2005, 2016).

Lastly, the chapter proposed a possible way of conceiving career adaptability and career resilience as it manifests in Latin American contexts and from a Latin American perspective in an attempt to produce knowledge that blends the Global North epistemology of social constructionism with contextualized theories from the South (a vulnerability and human rights framework). The proposed theory should not be read as incidental to existing theories, and not only it specifically responds to the needs in Latin America (to the exclusion of needs elsewhere); on the contrary, it has tried to be a possible contribution to set the concepts studied in contexts with different cultures and living standards, and can possibly be applied to any contexts in which social justice around career adaptability and resilience is needed. My aim was to make a contribution to the social justice agenda in the field of career guidance and counseling.

Career Adaptability and Career Resilience in the Global North: History, Definitions and Current Concepts

Ever since Super and Knasel (1981) proposed that career adaptability would replace career maturity, the construct has assumed worldwide proportions and is currently considered one of the most important constructs in the field of career guidance and counseling. The career resilience construct, on the other hand, has a much longer tradition associated with the field of career management studies and work and

organizational psychology (Fourie & Van Vuuren, 1998). In general, the notion of career resilience was derived from other broader constructs, such as career motivation (London, 1983) and career commitment (Magalhães, 2013) and should therefore not be regarded as an independent construct, as indicated by Lyons, Schweitzer, and Ng (2015). Notwithstanding that, a review of the literature conducted by Bimrose and Hearne (2012) revealed that the dual concepts of career resilience and career adaptability are the main features that enable researchers to analyze the ways to construct a career in contemporaneity.

Savickas (1997) stated that “the word *adapt* also fosters a teleological view by emphasizing the purpose for which the change must be made” (p. 253) and “adaptability means the quality of being able to change” (p. 254). He regarded career adaptability as a psychological construct produced during the “individual-in-situation” interaction (p. 253), and defined career adaptability as a readiness to cope with predictable and unpredictable adjustments in the work or in working conditions. Savickas (2005) later changed his ontological assumption and asserted that career adaptability is, in actual fact, a psychosocial construct instead of a psychological one. He pointed out that “adaptability emphasizes the coping processes through which individuals connect to their communities and construct their careers” (p. 48).

The last-mentioned perspective was finally crystallized in the view expressed by Savickas and Porfeli (2012) which stated that “adapt-abilities develop through interactions between the inner and the outer worlds of the person” (p. 663), and that “these resources are not at the core of the individual, they reside as the intersection of person-in-environment. Thus adapt-abilities are psycho-social constructs” (p. 662).

Savickas (2005) also indicated that career adaptability focuses on self-regulation, that is, it is “a regulation process which mediates or moderates the relation with contexts” (Rossier, Maggiori, & Zimmermann, 2015). Hence,

(...) adapt-abilities (...) relate strongly to specific roles and contextual contingencies. This means that culture and context place boundary conditions around adaptability. Countries vary in the degree to which they prompt the formation of adaptability because they provide different opportunities and imperatives to develop and express psychosocial resources and transactional competencies (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012, p. 663).

Savickas (2005) proposed four dimensions of career adaptability (referred to as adapt-abilities), namely concern, control, curiosity, and confidence, which can be measured by the *Career Adapt-Abilities Scale—CAAS*. This measure was adapted and tested in many countries across the world (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), including in Latin America (Teixeira, Bardagi, Lassance, Magalhães, & Duarte, 2012). A large part of the career adaptability studies has focused on the development and validation of the CAAS in different contexts. However, some of these studies have discussed the development of the career adaptability construct itself. This chapter is intimately linked with the latter activity.

In a study of older women’s careers, McMahon, Watson, and Bimrose (2012) highlighted that “career adaptability is deeply contextually embedded at many

levels (...) and represents a recursive interplay of women, their social networks, and the broader sociopolitical system in which they live” (p. 767). Hirschi, Herrmann, and Keller (2015) and Rossier et al. (2015) drew attention to the strong link between career adaptability and identity constructions. They argued that these two constructs act as the main meta-competencies for career constructions as stated by Savickas et al. (2009). Goodman (1994) stressed that career adaptability is related to career resilience, the difference being that “career resilience appears to relate more to the ability to survive change once it happens, whereas career adaptability has a stronger proactive dimension” (p. 339). Rossier et al. (2015) saw career adaptability as a resilience factor. At the very least, it is closely related linked to career resilience, a view confirmed by Bimrose and Hearne (2012), Cardoso and Moreira (2009), and Maree (2015).

London (1983) proposed the first operational definition of career resilience, stating that it is the “individual’s resistance to career disruptions in a less than optimal environment” (p. 621). This definition was later improved and defined as “the ability to adapt to change, even when the circumstances are discouraging or disruptive” (London, 1997, p. 34). It is complementary to career adaptability and opposed to career vulnerability (London, 1983). Fourier and Van Vuuren (1998) extended this concept, defining career resilience “as a process of overcoming persistent and episodic career hardships, including loss of attachments in the workplace, loss of security, ambiguity about career paths, high levels of stress and difficulties in balancing work and non-work roles” (Lyons et al., 2015, p. 366). It is worth noticing that, whereas the career adaptability construct is regarded as a psychosocial notion, career resilience is defined as a psychological concept.

The Global North contexts, as already indicated, are more stable and have greater social and state support. In these contexts, psychological or psychosocial issues are the main focus for career development and therefore for career adaptability and career resilience. In the Global South, the contexts are more unstable with less state support, and the psychological or psychosocial changes are insufficient for enhancing career adaptability, and changes in the socio-economic and working contexts are required.

In this sense, Bimrose and Hearne (2012) pointed out that career adaptability and career resilience cannot be confined only to people but that both should be understood in their extension into the social and working world. This statement provided a bridge that facilitates research on and understanding of key aspects of both constructs in Latin American contexts, as well as in South Global as a whole. The following question thus arises: In contexts characterized by social inequality and psychosocial vulnerability, we should assume that these meta-competencies are confined to persons or extend them to the context, as proposed by Bimrose and Hearne (2012)? In the next section, I discussed this issue and the main possibilities of answering it based on Latin American contexts.

A Proposal for Understanding the Career Adaptability and Career Resilience from the Reconstruction of the Concepts by Global South: The Case of Latin America

In this section, I will present the three pathways in which career guidance and counseling in Latin America have been constructed, and I will hold a brief analysis of how the studied constructs are being used in this region, as well as I will suggest a possible way of conceiving career adaptability and career resilience from a Latin American perspective based in an intercultural proposal that has potential to be used in different challenging and vulnerable contexts, both from the Global South, as the Global North.

As stated previously, career adaptability and career resilience have not been studied in Latin American contexts (Bardagi & Albanaes, 2015; Fiorini, Bardagi, & Silva, 2016). The career adaptability construct has been highlighted as a matter for a future research agenda by 10% of the papers presented at the 2015 Career Counseling Ibero-American Congress held in Brazil (Lassance et al., 2015). The topic has been the topic of research in a small number of unpublished theses and dissertations. Career resilience, in particular, has appeared in a few studies more as an element that originated in other broader constructs rather than as its own independent construct. We can highlight two articles which have brought relevant contributions to the career adaptability studies in Latin America. The first one is offered by Ambiel (2014), who provided a historical outline of the career adaptability construct and discussed its relevance in the Brazilian reality from a transculturality position, in other words, the capacity a concept produced in one culture has to be used in another one, as posited by the notion of intercultural dialogue (Santos, 2014), as discussed later in this chapter. And, the second one, provided by Fiorini, Bardagi, and Silva (2016), proposed the analysis of the epistemological, theoretical and methodological perspectives of the career adaptability.

First Pathway Towards Theoretical Production in Latin America

In this Latin American theoretical pathway, concepts are imported from the Global North and integrated with existing constructs, as in the case of career adaptability (Audibert & Teixeira, 2015; Bardagi & Albanaes, 2015; Teixeira et al., 2012) and career resilience (Baiochi & Magalhães, 2004; Magalhães, 2013) in an attempt to align them with mainstream career guidance and counseling that represents the theoretical production from the Global North and it had to be adapted to Latin American contexts.

As already pointed out, the career adaptability construct has only appeared in a small number of Latin American publications. Moreover, the notion has been accepted and understood in the way it was proposed by the mainstream of career guidance and counseling produced in the Global North (Audibert & Teixeira, 2015; Bardagi & Albanas, 2015; Teixeira et al., 2012). According to Savickas (2005), “adaptability is conceptualized as the amount of resources an individual has to cope with tasks and transitions in his or her career” (Teixeira et al., 2012, p. 681), and as “a more general characteristic of the individual functioning” (Audibert & Teixeira, 2015, p. 90). In other words, it is a psychological or psychosocial construct (Hirschi & Valero, 2015).

In general, the most part of references from the cited articles regarding to this first theoretical pathway was mainly of an international nature and the sample was composed of students from public colleges, who are the population group with the most psychosocial resources for dealing with career construction processes. These authors also identified the need to investigate other populations, such as adult workers and unskilled adults, who comprise a majority in Latin American realities, so that the research can properly represent the career adaptability construct in these contexts.

The career resilience construct has not been studied widely in Latin American countries, and of the studies that have been conducted, they have primarily been in Brazil, including Baiocchi and Magalhães (2004), and Magalhães (2013). Likewise, as Lyons et al. (2015) pointed out, career resilience is an element derived from other, broader constructs, such as career commitment, and it is defined as the ability to “face adversities and frustrations inherent in the career” (Baiocchi & Magalhães, 2004, p. 65). The studies about career resilience have been based on both Global Northern and Latin American literature and have accepted the mainstream logic derived from career management studies and the field of work and organizational psychology. They also displayed the typical problem associated with career adaptability studies in that they focused their samples on adults with a high level of education.

In other words, this first theoretical pathway is aligned with the mainstream career guidance and counseling produced in the Global North without properly discussing the possible negative costs of applying “mainstream” concepts in Latin America.

Second Pathway Towards Theoretical Production in Latin America

In the second theoretical scenario, the incorporation of imported concepts is refused. Theories and concepts are developed without reference to the mainstream of career guidance and counseling produced in the Global North as a form

of resistance. Moreover, from the so-called “critical career guidance” perspective (Bock & Bock, 2005; Bohoslavsky, 1983; González Bello, 2008; Rascován, 2005, 2016), the view is held that imported concept, such as career adaptability, cannot be used to explain working trajectories in Latin American contexts satisfactorily.

I will present some career construction theories produced in Latin America to assess whether career adaptability and career resilience are relevant constructs for Latin American authors who has produced theories and concepts that do not relate to the mainstream of career guidance and counseling. These authors are Julio González Bello (Venezuela), Rodolfo Bohoslavsky (Argentina), Sergio Rascován (Argentina), and Silvio Bock (Brazil).

The clinical strategy proposed by Bohoslavsky (1983) is an important theoretical reference for Latin America in the field of career guidance and counseling. His conceptual model is based on British psychoanalytical theory, although without the influence of the traditional career counseling authors with a psychodynamic approach, such as Roe and Lunneborg (1990) and Bordin (1985).

Bohoslavsky (1983) did not mention career adaptability or career resilience, but crafted a compromise solution between vocational and occupational demands, which changes over time. The individual himself/herself is responsible for this compromise solution, even though it occurs at the unconscious level. The author made an attempt to understand the vocational psychodynamics of the individual and, as I stated in my previous work (Ribeiro et al., 2015), defined career as

(...) the synthesis between vocational and occupational through the interweaving of the psychological and social dimensions in which ‘doing’ is a manifestation of the ‘being’ that fulfils himself or herself by his or her own doing. The vocational (being) needs a project (strategy within time) so that it can become a trajectory (career), whereas the occupational (doing) needs objects to accomplish the vocational (p. 199).

Despite the fact that this is a psychosocial theory with a focus on the person, similar to the career adaptability concept, Bohoslavsky (1983) expressed the need for the transformation of reality for career construction processes, which opposes the notion of adaptability that is more focused on the person’s change.

Bock and Bock (2005) did not mention career adaptability or career resilience either, they did raise a critical awareness of social and psychological conditions for career construction of each person and the need for transformation of the reality so that this process may be fully achieved. Grounded on historical and dialectical materialism, as I stated in my previous work (Ribeiro et al., 2015) either, they pointed out that

(...) the foundations of career would be the human activity and the determination on concrete social conditions, since the activity is the unity amongst subjectivity and sociability (...). The individual is marked by subjective and objective conditions, which determine his or her possibilities of projects in the world, such conditions always generate contradictions that can be partially overcome through the reconstruction of the senses. Hence, autonomy does not mean a free choice, but a choice based on a critical awareness of reality that enables the analysis of the social and psychological limits and potentials (p. 200).

González Bello (2008) and Rascován (2005, 2016), in different ways, stated that the career construction issue must never be seen as an individual issue, but always as a communitarian one, because career construction is a process performed at the interface of health, education, work, and subjectivity. In this sense, there is no career adaptability at the individual level, mainly because it is a joint and relational construction between person and community. Hence, career issues would always revolve around relationships and bonds, but would never vest in an individual person. Furthermore, Rascován (2005) maintained that constructing a career would be one of the life actions, which fosters the social level of protection in order to deal with vulnerable situations, never on an individual level, but always on a relational one.

In summary, the golden thread that runs through the work of the authors presented in this section is the idea of career construction as a psychosocial process that cannot be reduced to the individual or the society separately. Instead, career construction should be considered within the boundaries of relationships established with certain contexts. Moreover, career construction is a communitarian process, not an individual one. Consequently, it does not depend on the individual only and does not strive to improve adaptability or resilience levels. Instead, it is aimed at potentially reconstructing social bonds by transforming both person and contexts. For these authors, in vulnerable and unequal contexts, such as the Latin American countries, concepts like career adaptability and career resilience do not make sense, because they are focused on the person and not on the relations. Transformation must occur within the relationship, which involves changing both people and contexts to enable facilitation of the career construction process.

This second theoretical pathway refuses to make any connection with the mainstream career guidance and counseling, producing theories that can generally be just applied to Latin American contexts.

Third Pathway Towards Theoretical Production in Latin America

In the third theoretical scenario, a search is conducted for an intermediate pathway that considers Latin American contexts from the perspective of the interaction between Global North and contextualized theories from the South. This approach is still in its infancy (e.g. Ribeiro, 2016; Silva, 2011; Silva, Paiva, & Ribeiro, 2016), undergoing a process of conceptual deconstruction and reconstruction, as recommended by the Life Design paradigm (Nota & Rossier, 2015; Savickas et al., 2009).

My previous work (Ribeiro, 2016) and Silva (2011), in different ways, have proposed innovative approaches that merge the knowledge produced from the mainstream of career guidance and counseling with contextualized knowledge from Latin American. We considered people's everyday lives in their endeavor to produce theories and concepts.

Silva (2011) offered the Global North application of career guidance and counseling as an instrument to facilitate social justice (Blustein, 2006; McMahon, Arthur, & Collins, 2008) with the Global South framework of vulnerability and human rights (Ayres et al., 2006); a framework generated in Latin America for use in the field of health. The starting point for this framework is Parson's position, in which vocational guidance must be intrinsically linked to a political project of social change (Parsons, 1909/2005). According to Silva (2011), for this to happen, we must consider two important issues. First, the culture and values are not always the same in different societies, therefore, concepts, such as career, would have to be contextualized and not imported from the other contexts and applied without modifications (McMahon et al., 2008). Second, an individualistic model of career acts as a barrier to the inclusion of other psychosocial dimensions, such as gender, class and ethnicity, in the analysis of the career constructions (Blustein, 2006).

Based on these ideas and coordinating them with the vulnerability and human rights framework (Ayres et al., 2006; Silva, 2011) pointed out that career construction should be the right of all. For the author, the only way to achieve the creation of a culture that respects this right should be constructing it in conjunction with the people involved and avoiding the reduction of career construction processes to generic solutions imposed.

Paraphrasing Freire, we can say that these processes “must be forged *with* others, not *for* others” (Freire, 1970, p. 32). We may also say that societal discourses (Nota & Rossier, 2015) about or for people without their own participation in the construction process, such as career development models, increase social vulnerability as they impose values and ways of acting on a specific social group, often without meaning.

According to Ayres et al. (2006), vulnerability must be understood from the perspective of the inseparability of its three analytical dimensions, namely: (inter) subjective vulnerability (person as a subject in interaction), contextual vulnerability (experienced interaction contexts), and programmatic vulnerability (social protection offered by the state or by third sector organizations). A person will be vulnerable due to a specific event in a given context; that is, vulnerability does not occur within a previous and determined situation, it is the result of multiple spaces for relationships, that is, the interaction between social, cultural, labor, economic, and/or symbolic issues.

Seen from this viewpoint, any possibility of self-construction in a given context depends on processing the three vulnerability dimensions proposed jointly and not only on focusing on the person, even if the person was conceived as an “individual-in-situation” (Savickas, 1997, p. 253), such as in the career adaptability construct.

It is important to conceptualize the person as a “right holder” (Ayres et al., 2006) potentially transforming him/her into a subject (rather than the object) of choices—keeping in mind that the notion of ‘subject’, in the Latin American tradition, integrates the idea of agency with the idea of citizenship; in other words, “a subject is a person capable to regulate his/her own life” (Silva et al., 2016, p. 49). This process is facilitated only by a critical awareness of the context in which a project

or a career will be constructed, and also by the possibility of transformation of the context itself, guaranteeing that career construction could be understood as a process of the facilitation of social justice (Blustein, 2006; Hooley & Sultana, 2016; Sultana, 2017).

My previous work (Ribeiro, 2016) sought to articulate the social constructionism perspective produced by the Global North (Blustein, 2006, 2011; McIlveen & Schultheiss, 2012; Nota & Rossier, 2015; Savickas, 2015b), reviewed through the lens of contextualized theories from the Global South (Ribeiro, 2014), particularly those developed within the Latin American critical tradition (Ayres et al., 2006; Bohoslavsky, 1983; Freire, 1970, 1975; Martín-Baró, 1994; Rascován, 2005, 2016).

In my theoretical proposal for understanding career construction (Ribeiro, 2016), I argued that career is a psychosocial construction that comprises two indissociable dimensions, namely the working life project (Bohoslavsky, 1983) and the working life trajectory. The first dimension is shaped by the working action plan and the working identity constructions (Savickas, 2005), and the second dimension is composed through life stories, life plots and life themes (Savickas, 2015a). The theoretical proposal was grounded in the notion of narrative reality (Gergen, 1997; McNamee, 2012; Savickas et al., 2009). In other words, the reality is configured as a discourse on the reality and not as the reality by itself, that is, consensual discourse on co-constructed reality (Gergen, 1997). A career can be understood as a personal narrative constructed in relation to societal discourses (Nota & Rossier, 2015) and socially legitimized by the context in which it was co-constructed through continuous construction, deconstruction, reconstruction, and co-construction processes (Rascován, 2016; Savickas, 2015a). It may be a reproduction of the societal discourses as well as a deconstruction and reconstruction of them by means of the personal narratives: “It is not a self-construction, but rather a co-construction of the self through one’s relationship with others” (Silva et al., 2016, p. 49).

Essentially, for both my own work (Ribeiro, 2014, 2016) and Silva (2011), the career adaptability and career resilience constructs, as postulated by the mainstream of career guidance and counseling, would make little sense, because they are person-centered, do not assume contextual changes, and have great difficulty in implementing an intercultural dialogue, as discussed later in this chapter. The latter is key for the contextualization of both constructs, making them relevant in distinct cultures. Moreover, there is a risk of imposing a de-contextualized conceptual production, causing a situation of social injustice by promoting cognitive injustice (Santos, 2014).

Thus, based on Santos’ assumption of interculturality and in accordance with the general issue of Part 7 of this book, which advances the notion of “drawing on career adaptability, employability, and career resilience to promote social justice”, the next section aimed to propose a possible use of the Global North career adaptability and resilience constructs in diverse contexts, like in the Global South.

A Possible Way of Conceiving Career Adaptability and Career Resilience from a Latin American Perspective: An Intercultural Proposal

As stated previously, this chapter was based on a social constructionist perspective. This perspective is grounded in a relational ontology, in other words, the view that knowledge is produced by relationships (Blustein, 2011; McNamee, 2012) and, as I have stated, “understood as a process that is neither ‘psychological’ nor ‘social’, but transcends the separation of these elements to create something new—the psychosocial” (Ribeiro, 2015, p. 20). In this regard, in my previous work (Ribeiro, 2016, p. 86), I contended that “in epistemological terms, the knowledge emerges from the intersubjective woven and it is configured as a discourse on the reality, not the reality by itself.” Seen from this perspective, knowledge has never been universal or substantive, but has always been a relational and contextual construction that should be deconstructed and reconstructed when used in different contexts. This view underpins interculturality (Santos, 2014), which serves as a key notion to the understanding of both career adaptability and career resilience in the Latin American contexts.

Santos (2014) averred that production of knowledge is always incomplete and any universalizing claim is false, because knowledge is always contextual and built on the relationship of all the social actors involved (the so-called intercultural dialogue or interculturality perspective). Thus, incompleteness would be the basic feature of the production of knowledge and the best way of dealing with this incompleteness is to promote the dialogue between the different knowledges associated with preexisting practices and the social discourses in a given context or field of knowledge. The aim is not only to avoid universalizing impositions but also to foster intercultural dialogue.

Mutual recognition of different cultures in a given cultural space through a diatopical hermeneutics is thus assumed. This principle was proposed by Santos (2002) to facilitate analysis of the relations among different nations and cultures. However, it can be used to understand the production of knowledge in a field of knowledge, such as career guidance and counseling, which was the purpose of this chapter.

The diatopical hermeneutics was defined by the possible relationships established among nations, communities, groups or persons in different *topoi* generally marked by unequal sociocultural positions and power asymmetries. For example, in the field of career guidance and counseling, I contended in my previous work that

(...) both counselor and counselee have an important contribution in the established counseling relationship, but in a different way, because the counselor has the scientific and technical knowledge and the counselee has the everyday life knowledge, and the final product of this relationship depends on the cooperation between these two kinds of knowledge that are put together. Such knowledge is complementary and the knowledge production is only possible by the joint between them (Ribeiro, 2016, p. 86).

According to Santos (2002), the *topoi* are common places of a specific culture, so it turns out to be extremely difficult to differentiate the *topoi* from the others, therefore, as I have already stated in my previous work (Ribeiro, 2016), “an intercultural dialogue is needed through diatopical hermeneutics (two *topoi*), mainly because every culture is incomplete, and this incompleteness is not visible within the culture itself” (p. 95). This generates the need to turn concepts and practices into valid ones. This is always a co-construction process, as recommended by Savickas et al. (2009). Thus, “the recognition of mutual incompleteness is a *sine qua non* condition for intercultural dialogue” (Santos, 2002, p. 44). Seen from this perspective, co-construction processes establish mutuality and the possibility of constructing distinct forms of understanding realities and concepts, always in a relational manner through intercultural dialogue. This perspective offers a possible way to understand the practical implications of the context for the production of theoretical constructs in the field of career guidance and counseling adequately, mainly through career adaptability and career resilience constructs. This viewpoint embodies the general purpose of this book.

One way we can achieve this aim is firstly by avoiding the imposition or the incorporation of concepts produced in a context, such as the Global North, upon other different ones, like in Latin America. And, second, by fostering openness towards the other context and the increased knowledge by a transnational organization in the defense of perceived common interests. This proposal was so-called cosmopolitanism (Santos, 2002), understood as a counter-hegemonic or bottom-up globalization, which intends to be a resistance movement against the imposition from the mainstream logic, for example, creating contextualized alternatives to dominant forms of development and knowledge by opening up spaces for democratic participation, in which knowledge is produced by interaction, not by imposition.

Cosmopolitanism advances co-construction processes through diatopical hermeneutics and intercultural dialogue as socially fair processes of knowledge production, because “valid knowledge is therefore contextualized knowledge; it is valid when it considers cultural differences and political differences (...) It should be oriented toward reality, which is taken both as a starting and an arrival point” (Silva et al., 2016, p. 48). This view was also proposed by Freire (1975) and Martín-Baró, (1994). In addition, Santos (2014) stated that “global social injustice is, therefore, intimately linked to global cognitive injustice. The struggle for global justice must be therefore a struggle for global cognitive justice as well” (p. 31–32).

As a proposal for an intercultural dialogue among the mainstream of career guidance and counseling and the Latin American proposals, we can minimize the criticisms that this chapter has made to the use of career adaptability and the career resilience constructs in Latin America, using the vulnerability and the human rights framework (Ayes et al., 2006) to reconstruct the possible understandings of the career construction processes. Both concepts therefore have to be understood in a three-dimensional way, not in a unidimensional way in which they were originally designed as psychological or psychosocial constructs.

According to this proposal, both constructs would maintain the existing personal dimension from the original design and the contextual and programmatic dimensions should be added to the constructs in order to make them relational constructs. The programmatic dimension is composed by the public policies held by the state or by third sector organizations. Based on the proposal, career construction should be a process involving co-construction among persons, contexts and existing public policies, which implies significant changes in the three dimensions for each person to enable him or her to increase his/her career adaptability and resilience. Without that, both constructs would only depend on the person and would not take the context and the public policies into account, which renders an increase or a decrease of career adaptability and resilience merely a personal responsibility.

Conclusion

To promote social justice effectively in challenging and vulnerable contexts, constructs such as career adaptability and career resilience must be co-constructed with the persons who construct their careers in such contexts and based on their own dynamics. Otherwise these two constructs are reduced to psychological or psychosocial constructs (Savickas, 2005). These two constructs must consider the three dimensions (personal, contextual, and programmatic) proposed by the vulnerability and the human rights framework (Ayres et al., 2006) reconstructed for the field of career guidance and counseling, including the person, the context, the public policies, and the social relationships in their constructs.

Hence, it is not the person who has sole control over having more or less career adaptability or career resilience, because those constructs are impacted by the relationships that are established between the person and the context, including what is offered by the state or by the third sector in the programmatic dimension, in other words, access to public policies on education, health, work, human rights and housing, and social welfare programs. The relationships between people and contexts are responsible for the increase or reduction of career adaptability or career resilience, as well as vulnerability, which is produced in contexts of intersubjectivity, as I previously stated, “not a personal fragility, nor institutional, but relational” (Ribeiro, 2016, p. 82). Furthermore, enacting personal change is not enough, because real change, which includes enhanced career adaptability and resilience, requires contextual and programmatic change. Ultimately, this is the main reason why career guidance and counseling interventions should be communitarian and not individual, involving community actors and institutions in their practices, according to my previous work (Ribeiro, 2016), Rascován (2005, 2016), and Silva et al. (2016). This is an essential prerequisite for ensuring some kind of direct effect in people’s life and to facilitate their career co-construction processes.

Although it was designed for the Latin American contexts, intercultural proposal suggests a way to build knowledge, does not posit the very concepts, what may allow it to be possibly applied to any contexts in which social justice around career

adaptability and resilience is needed. In summary, the understanding and reconstructing of career adaptability and career resilience by means of an intercultural proposal intends to be a humble contribution coming from the Global South to the social justice agenda in the field of career guidance and counseling.

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Chapter 24

Career Adaptability and Career Resilience: The Roadmap to Work Inclusion for Individuals Experiencing Disability

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and Ilaria Di Maggio

Abstract Work plays an essential role in career development and in achieving higher levels of life satisfaction for individuals with or without disability. It can be in fact considered as both a place for socialization and an instrument that helps people define their role in the society, thus contributing to the development of a better self-image and, therefore, to higher levels of self-esteem. Based on a Life Design approach, the present chapter focuses on career adaptability and career resilience as positive resources effective in coping with current unpredictable and unstable work contexts and in promoting social and work participation of people with as well as without disability. Suggestions to improve career adaptability and career resilience and to achieve a better quality of life will be also provided.

Keywords Disability · Career adaptability · Employability · Resilience

Work Problems and Challenges for People With and Without Disability in Postmodern Society

Rapid technological changes, globalization, and prolonged economic crises have important implications for each individual. Instability, insecurity and diversity are already characterising the world of work and the social system (Nota & Rossier, 2015). In this context career transitions are more complex and frequent, work journeys are far less predictable than two decades ago (Savickas et al., 2009), and a substantial shift towards short-term contracts instead of lifetime occupation is occurring (Tladinyane, Coetzee, & Masenge, 2013). The unemployment rate is growing and more people are turning to career counselors to face various difficulties

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such as, an involuntary dismissal, difficulties in managing work and family, employment dissatisfaction (Sampson, Reardon, McClain, & Musch, 2011). In contrast, austerity measures and funding cuts in social services and public assistance are exacerbating the socio-economic difficulties of most of industrialized western countries and individuals with disabilities are at higher risk than others (Nota, Soresi, Ferrari, & Ginevra, 2014; Santilli, Nota, Ginevra, & Soresi, 2014c).

People with disability face different disadvantages in today's labour market and, more in general, in today's society. In the EU28, in 2011, the employment rate of people aged 15–64 with disability was 47.3% compared to 66.9% of those without disability. Similarly the participation rate in education and training of non-disabled people aged 25–64 was 9.8% in 2011, as compared with 6.9% for those with disabilities (EUROSTAT, 2014).

Unfortunately, in Europe, lower levels of education are also associated with higher rates of unemployment (Istituto per la Ricerca Sociale and Institute for Employment Studies, 2012). Regardless of the presence of disability, people with lower levels of education experience and face more disadvantages in the labour market. They are more likely to be recruited for low-skill jobs, to benefit from less training in the workplace, to be paid less than those who have a regular job; they experience career barriers and more occupational transitions in poorly paid temporary jobs with few skill development opportunities (Bell & Blanchflower, 2010). These two conditions are often concurrent in people with disability thus suggesting a double disadvantage (Doren, Lombardi, Clark, & Lindstrom, 2013). Additionally, the possibility to foster successful work inclusion for persons with disability is complicated by employers' negative attitudes, who consider them for the help they need and not as socially and professionally competent people (2014a).

It is not surprising, then, that the work gap existing between people with and without disabilities was for Europe also noticeable for social inclusion: while in 2013 for people without disability aged 16 and over the at-risk of poverty or social exclusion rate was 21.4%, this rate stood at almost 30% for citizens with disabilities (EUROSTAT, 2014).

In this chapter after briefly discussing the role of work for people with disability as a resource for expressing self-determination, participating in work and community life and achieving quality of life, we will focus on a Life Design approach and review the importance of career adaptability and career resilience for people with disability. Suggestions for intervention will be finally discussed.

Work as a Resource for Self-Determination, Social Inclusion and Quality of Life for People with Disability

As for everyone, work may play an essential role in life designing for people with disability, by favouring a more positive professional identity and higher levels of life satisfaction (Wehmeyer, Shogren, Little, & Lopez, 2017). It can be, in fact, considered both as a place of socialization and a tool helping people to define their role in society, thus contributing to the development of a better self-image and, therefore, higher levels of self-esteem (Prins, 2013).

A large body of research has established that employed individuals are healthier than those who are not (Thomas & Ellis, 2013) and that competitive employment not only impacts on a person's financial standing, but also improves self-esteem, self-determination and quality of life through social inclusion (Wehmeyer et al., 2017). That is, employment can improve quality of life by increasing social capital, enhancing psychological well-being, providing income, and reducing the negative health impacts of economic hardship. Its benefits cut across many demographics, including gender, age, and disability status, even if factors such as the type and degree of disability, the ability to accomplish everyday tasks or activities, and satisfaction with social support often interact in subtle ways in impacting their quality of life. As Nunnerley and colleagues (Nunnerley, Dunn, McPherson, Hooper, & Woodfield, 2015) underscore, enhancing employment opportunities for working-age people with disabilities may improve health status and thus decrease health care costs. In times of economic crisis and budget cuts, this could contribute to free up financial resources to answer other needs and increase preventive actions. This complex set of reasons suggests that for the role work plays across the life span and its impact on life satisfaction, understanding how people adapt to work after any life-changing event or congenital illness is important for all professionals interested in life design and could represent a stepping stone toward work and social inclusion and quality of life.

Life Design Approach for Supporting Vulnerable Individuals Designing Positive Career Trajectories

Today the world of work is in general much less clearly defined or predictable, and entering the work world and moving through occupational positions requires more effort and greater self-knowledge and confidence. People now find themselves having to develop professional skills that differ substantially from the knowledge and the skills required in 20th-century occupations, such as continuous updating of knowledge, which is crucial to the use of increasingly sophisticated technologies (Maggiori, Johnston, Krings, Massoudi, & Rossier, 2013). Today workers must be employable, life-long learners who commit themselves to an organization for a period of time and adapt quickly to many changes and interpersonal challenges.

In order to address the issues of career construction in times of crisis and answer to the instability and insecurity which characterize the current job market, especially as far as individuals with disability are concerned, a Life Design paradigm for career counselling and education has been recently developed, a dynamic approach that encourages individuals' imaginative thinking and the exploration of possible selves (Nota & Rossier, 2015; Savickas et al., 2009). Built upon psychological constructivism that views meaning as interpersonally constructed by the individual, Life Design takes social constructionism as its central epistemology and views career as a project through which to make self and work a vehicle for instilling life with meaning and purpose.

Life Design emphasizes the need to support people become experts in constructing their life-careers, anticipate and deal with transitions, and create positive orientation toward the future (Savickas et al., 2009). In order to face up these conditions, individuals need to be supported in implementing their career adaptability and becoming able to build up their own systems of identity; to define themselves as subjects and identify significant aspects of their lives; to attribute sense and meanings to their difficulties; to examine experiences from different points of view considering the perspectives of people significant for them (Nota et al., 2015b).

Learning environments based on constructivism support collaborative construction of knowledge through social negotiation, with no competition. This position is in line with Youssef-Morgan and Luthans (2013), who assert that the employers and workers of the next years will introduce significant changes in their vision of work and organizational environment, searching for new ways in sustaining the psychological development of human resources and fostering a global social transformation, in which more emphasis is given to support and cooperation than competition.

As regards cooperation Blader and Tyler (2013) describe discretionary cooperation implemented when individuals decide by themselves to behave in a cooperative way, independently from the role they play or their work tasks. Workers who practice this cooperative modality are more inclined to provide additional explanation, to share information and activities, to help and give support without any external request, thus fostering development of more supportive contexts. Employers, on one hand, may lead the way themselves by acting in a cooperative and solidarity informed modality and, on the other, they may reinforce this type of cooperation by openly requiring it and showing the advantages that may derive for the whole context.

Within the Life Design paradigm this can be supported with different kinds of actions that include helping individuals learn how to find exact and relevant information about today's work and employment, build a vocational self-concept and acquire career management skills more appropriate to the current world of work and also skills to navigate in working contexts that facilitate a positive adaptation, as for example interpersonal problem solving skills. Career education interventions could, then, play a preventive role. Specifically, these interventions promote life-long learning and the ability to handle career transitions through specific training activities informed on adaptability and resilience, the resources that make it up and the ways to favour it (Savickas et al., 2009; Soresi & Nota, 2009).

Career Adaptability as a Set of Individual Resources

Research confirms career adaptability is a set of individual resources (concern, control, curiosity and confidence) related to numerous positive outcomes as future goals, job targeted search strategies, low barriers, optimism, hope, and life

satisfaction that help people navigate many career challenges and transitions (Koen, Klehe, Van Vianen, Zikic, & Nauta, 2010; Maggiori et al., 2013; Soresi, Nota, & Ferrari, 2012) both for people with and without disability and vulnerability. Santilli et al. (2014), for example, tested the relationship between career adaptability, hope and life satisfaction in a group of 120 adults with intellectual disability and found it is directly and indirectly through pathways and agency, related to life satisfaction. A similar pattern has also been recently evidenced with adults experiencing acquired chronic neurological disability (Sgaramella, Ferrari, Santilli, & Di Maggio, 2016). Additionally, in a study involving 65 students with vulnerability and cognitive disability, those with higher career adaptability showed higher career preparedness and higher quality of life (Ferrari et al., 2016).

In reflecting about career adaptability some insights can be derived from research on single resources typically under the adaptability construct. As regard concern, people with intellectual disability show difficulties in thinking about their future positively. Hitchings et al. (2001), for example, interviewed 97 postsecondary students with learning disabilities and found most of them have difficulties in describing what will happen when they will be entered in the world of work as well as the impact of their disability on their career exploration and planning. Also Bibby (2013) found adults with learning disability living with parents rarely plan their future due to internal and external barriers.

As regards control, many young adults with intellectual disability are less likely to be involved in job experiences, to develop knowledge about the world of work, and to access training and career opportunities that allow them to develop skills and to adapt changes (Lindstrom, Kahn, & Lindsey, 2013). During high school or postsecondary education, they attend career centers less than their peers; they do not consider these services effective sources of supports and report limited career related activities such as internship and work experiences (Briel & Getzel, 2014). This results in less expertise on career decision making and taking responsibility about their future. Future expectations of significant others appear also to significantly impact their life designing and future outcomes. Specifically parents and siblings find it difficult to think about his or her future and believe they can attend school with success or have a satisfactory working life. Nota and Soresi (2009) also report teachers have low expectation as regard success of students with intellectual disabilities.

The reduced opportunity to participate in school and campus life limits also their curiosity and exploration. On the contrary, when they and their peers without disability are offered the opportunity to explore self and the environment, they benefit in their awareness about their strengths and weakness, reduce difficulties in identifying majors and career goals and this facilitates career planning and future employment (Sheftel, Lindstrom, & McWhirter, 2014).

As regards confidence, evidence exist that they tend to show lower self-efficacy than non-disabled peers in career decision making (Ochs & Roessler, 2001) due to more frequent barriers and lower support. Men compared to women and individuals with a job compared to unemployed people report to perceive lower barriers as higher career information and wider career network, together with higher social support from family and friends.

Clearly more studies on career adaptability with people with disabilities are needed. Quantitative measures such as the Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) and the Career and Work Adaptability (Nota, Ginevra, & Soresi, 2012) with people with disabilities and vulnerabilities are supported by research. Qualitative procedures are also available. The Career Style Interview (Savickas, 2005) and questions (i.e. Think to your future in 5 years, what will it happen?; What about obstacles you will encounter? etc.) usually addressed at the Larios Laboratory and the Centro di Ateneo Disabilità e Inclusione (University Centre for Disability and Inclusion) of the University of Padova, for example, invite people to reflect on their future and anticipate possible barriers.

Career Resilience as a Set of Attitudes and Skills

Initially *career resilience* (London, 1983) referred to a multi-dimensional construct, internal to the individual but influenced by situational conditions, and reflected in one's career decisions and behaviours characterised by *self-efficacy*, *risk taking*, and *dependency*. Later it was defined as the process of overcoming persistent and episodic career hardships (i.e. loss of attachments in the workplace, loss of security, ambiguity about career paths, work-life balance stress and difficulties) and adapting to changing circumstances, both extraordinary and traumatic events and future uncertainties and challenges (Sapienza & Masten, 2011). Career resilience has been conceptualised within the positive psychology movement as a component of "psychological capital" which refers to a positive psychological state that includes self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006). This positive work-related attribute reveals a competency in modern careers, a goal for career counseling interventions more focused on career outcomes and career success (Bimrose & Hearne, 2012).

Thus career-resilient individuals are described by professional autonomy and willingness to take risks; sense of competence, self-efficacy, an enhanced ability to adapt to changing and competitive environments and increased professional satisfaction (Taylor & Reyes, 2012). The attention is then driven to specific psychological resources which have been shown to mediate the relationships between career resilience, career satisfaction and emotional stability, conscientiousness, openness to experience, career self-efficacy and protean career attitudes (Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015). Although this gives a specific relevance to the construct when dealing with individuals with disability, studies addressing this theme are nonetheless limited.

Several studies can be found describing levels of resilience in different disabilities. For instance, according to Terrill and colleagues (Terrill et al., 2016) persons with long-term physical disabilities report lower resilience levels than community samples while people with multiple sclerosis (MS) showed lower levels than other long-term physical conditions such as spinal cord injury. In Silverman, Verrall, Alschuler, Smith, and Ehde (2016) qualitative analysis involving adults

with MS, resilience depletion is described as one of the five most relevant barriers to life designing together with negative thoughts and feelings, social limitations, stigma and physical fatigue.

With respect to career domains, studies involving individuals with disability have highlighted some relationships and the following considerations.

Resilience is a protective factor in career development. Resilient students with ADHD and with psychiatric disabilities report educational and work goals, are less likely to drop out from college and to persist in the career plan (Dvorsky & Langberg, 2016; Hartley, 2010). Additionally, youth with disabilities who participated in a two-year work-based learning program showed that resilience was associated with other personal characteristics: understanding of one's disability and one's strengths, articulating needed supports and accommodations in the workplace and classroom; putting compensatory strategies in practice and successfully negotiating in work environments; maintaining a high level of motivation and persistence and, finally, communicating and effectively solving problems (Scholl & Mooney, 2004).

Resilience is a promoting variable for a successful work life. In adults with chronic unpredictable (and frequently progressing) neurological disability, such as multiple sclerosis, resilience influences and predicts job satisfaction (Battalio, et al., 2017). Additionally, working-age individuals with dyslexia using a range of resilience strategies have shown to more effectively cope with challenging professions for them, such as choosing to work as teachers (Burns, Poikkeus, & Aro, 2013). The authors also underline the relevance of Self-Awareness to build such effective resilience strategies in fulfilling professional requirements and experiencing agency and self-efficacy at work.

Resilience plays a role on the development of Career Design resources. Ganguly, Bronfelow, Du Preez, and Graham (2015) observed a relationship between resilience, career optimism, wellbeing, and academic achievement in university students with disability. Recently Sgaramella et al. (2016) found relationships between resilience and other Life Design resources such as career adaptability and future time perspective in working adults with neurological disabilities.

How to address this theme? Career resilience and related issues have been studied using more general measures or instruments focusing on resilient attitudes toward work, on resilient behaviors or on resilient perceived value of putting effort into a job (see Connor and Davidson, 2003; Di Maggio, Ginevra, Nota, & Soresi, 2016). Both qualitative narrative procedures (Bimrose & Hearne, 2012) and specific quantitative measures such as the Straby (2010) scale have been used. However, as the recent analysis conducted by Kossek and Perrigino (2016) underlines, resilience is individually and occupationally determined; specific occupational tasks and contextual demands may play a specific role in what it exactly means and on how contexts may constrain or foster it. There is the need, then, for a new composite instrument addressing main connotations of career resilience, either with direct and indirect measures, to conduct an effective analysis of complex situations such as those involving individuals experiencing disability.

Career Education and Career Counselling to Increase Career Adaptability and Resilience in People with Disability

Career adaptability and career resilience are conceptually similar constructs, supporting adults facing extraordinary and traumatic events as well as uncertainties and challenges (Sapienza & Masten, 2011). Both concepts support the person in navigating the uncertain labour market and are valuable in supporting adults manage positive or negative career transitions (Bimrose & Hearne, 2012; Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou, Argyropoulou, Drosos, Kaliris, & Mikedaki, 2016). Practitioners who work with disability are required to leave the traditional idea of working on deficits in functioning and on negative outcomes resulting from these deficits. They, according to World Health Organization suggestions, should rather focus on and work to enhance resources and strengths (WHO, 2011).

According to a Life Design approach, educational activities promoting career adaptability and resiliency among adolescents and adults with disabilities should be promoted from early ages or as soon as possible after a trauma or a diagnosis. Even difficulties experienced with minimal levels of disability may lead to reduced satisfaction with work life (Carrieri et al., 2014). Both in the case of adaptability and resilience these interventions acquire a preventive value and guarantee a large window for career exploration and the acquisition of skills necessary for career design and success, for a positive impact on job satisfaction, thus maintaining individuals with disabilities active in the work context, as it has been evidenced in adults with acquired disabilities (Raggi et al., 2016). Career education and counselling interventions should be aimed at reflecting on and stimulating the use of these skills and attitudes to construct people's professional life and, in turn, favour the transition from school to work life and/or facilitate employment and re-employment (Nota, Ginevra, & Santilli, 2015a).

Attention to people's stories should be also considered. Stories represent a way to organize personal lives, construct identities, and make sense of problems experienced and career. Examples of successful career episodes, drawings and pictures may be helpful to support the storytelling, co-constructing new meanings, finding ideas to build up new paths toward the future and identifying supports useful to achieve new goals (Gladding & Drake Wallace, 2010). Through stories they could be also trained to present themselves, their resources and strengths and advocate for their needs.

As regards career adaptability, Koen, Klehe, and Van Vianen (2012) tested a training program with people without disability aimed at increasing career adaptability resources. Specifically *curiosity and exploration* were increased through the analysis of personal values, of knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA) and through strategies for gathering information; *concern and planning* were promoted linking values to abilities, through the use of visualization techniques, then encouraging the description of their career goals.

Career resilience development, on the other hand, can be supported by fostering factors such as positive self-image and self-confidence, problem-solving skills, a

sense of control, and search for meaning in life despite difficulties or traumatic events. Professionals involved in educational as well as in counselling activities should focus on characteristics of those who are career resilient and accordingly orient their actions to: teamwork, effective communication, adaptability to change, positive and flexible attitudes, continuous learning, self-confidence, willingness to take risks, and a commitment to personal excellence are all characteristics identified with employability. Additionally, it is worth noting that exposure to stresses and to disability do not necessarily interfere with resilience levels: moderate levels of stresses can, in fact, increase resilience over time (Luthans et al., 2006). Resilience can be also strengthened through purposeful workplace interventions reducing risk, building assets (e.g., human and social capital and increasing employability), and improving self-efficacy (Luthans et al., 2006). Finally, career resilience is related to individual career variables and work satisfaction thus suggesting that building resilience positively impacts career outcomes (Seibert, Kraimer, & Heslin, 2016).

Suggestions for the Context Involvement and Activation of Natural Supports

The approach to Life Design advocated in this chapter attributes context (i.e., family, teachers, colleagues, etc.) a central role in “giving substance to individual future projects” by means of actions aimed at social and work inclusion. This is in line with the bio-psychosocial view of disability and with the constructivist vision of work identity development. Together with co-construction intervention with people with disability, the involvement of the contextual resources becomes crucial in shaping human development, recognizing individual and environmental risks and assets, and promotes social justice (Israelashvili & Romano, 2016). As literature also suggests, a significant role could be played by parents, teachers and other significant adults (such as employer, colleagues) living in the work and personal context in order to encourage experiences, opportunities, and activities useful to offer a growing sense of hope and planning for the future, that can foster them to be included in the work context (Ferrari, Sgaramella, & Soresi, 2015).

One issue particularly relevant in successfully impacting life designing of people with disabilities across the life span is reducing the use of diagnostic labels. Labels are, in fact, still overused; they are full of negative aspects and mainly underscore deficits and special needs. They also give birth to disadvantageous communication processes, minimally focused on searching for skills and characteristics interesting for all and valuable in every context. Evidence suggests that describing people with disability highlighting their strengths facilitate positive attitudes and behavioural intentions. For example, in a study conducted by Nota, Santilli, Ginevra, and Soresi (2014b), 80 Italian employers and company’s owners working in mid-size Italian metalworking industry businesses were involved to study their attitudes toward workers with disability. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two

experimental conditions. In the first condition candidates with disability were presented by referring to the disability and to the difficulties they presented (standard presentation condition: focus on disability); in the second they were presented by describing also their positive aspects (positive presentation condition: focus on strengths). Data showed that the second condition was associated with more positive employers' attitudes. In another study Nota and Santilli (2013) found that also parents' attitudes varied based on the type of information they received. When they were presented a future classmate with disability of their children, emphasizing his/her abilities and strong points, not only with a brief list of difficulties, more positive attitudes, regardless of the severity of disability, emerged. Similar results were also obtained when work colleagues and school children were interviewed. Advantages of reducing the use of labels include developing positive relationships, facilitating the identification of the supports needed and the most appropriate modalities to provide them, the opportunity to value the inclusion of all people in higher heterogeneous societies. People should realize exclusion result in numerous costs for the society in terms of equity, productivity, tax receipts, disability benefits and many others (Shogren & Wehmeyer, 2014).

Professionals interested in promoting social and work inclusion of people with disability need, then, to devote a lot of attention to the language and, as suggested by WHO (2011), to put efforts in describing more vulnerable individuals focusing on their social and work competences and positive characteristics, at the same time avoiding a massive attention to their vulnerabilities and disabilities. Due to their role, they have the opportunity to be positive models and to advocate for inequities. Moreover specific activities should be promoted to disseminate a positive vision of people with disability and in general vulnerabilities that emphasise their uniqueness and strengths and their possibility to contribute to the society. For example, parents could be helped to better co-construct their children's future and foster their career adaptability before career construction difficulties arise and in the same time undertake advocacy actions to benefit their relatives as well as all people with vulnerabilities. Themes of training programs developed by at the Larios Laboratory and the Centro di Ateneo Disabilità e Inclusione (University Centre for Disability and Inclusion) of the University of Padova are reported in Table 1. Specific versions of this intervention have been built also for school children and colleagues. Themes of these interventions include developing a new vision of disabilities, understanding diversities, recognizing strengths and resources, how to provide help and supports, how to advocate for peers. Employers have a crucial role in job tenure of people with disability. Increasing their disability management strategies should include a new vision of disability and reducing stereotypes by focusing on strengths and resources over disabilities; advocacy actions to facilitate job access, accommodation and organizational collaborations signalling abilities, providing, feedback and sustaining a positive mindset; promoting education and training to acquire new skills and attention to career advancement of people with disability (Lindstrom, Doren, & Miesch, 2011; Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014; Santilli et al., 2014).

Table 1 Themes of parent training programs developed at the the Larios Laboratory (Nota, Ferrari, Sgaramella & Soresi, in press)

(1) An overview of the course;
(2) How to support children’s interests;
(3) How to sustain self-efficacy beliefs;
(4) How to control irrational ideas and increase open-mindedness;
(5) How and when to speak of vocational guidance in the family, using negotiation and compromise;
(6) How to help children focus on their career goals with creativity;
(7) How to help children get information about career options;
(8) How to help children choose among options;
(9) How to facilitate children’s transitions and the journey ‘toward’ the future;
(10) How to support children’s self-determination.

Conclusion

There can be no doubt that professionals interested in social and work inclusion of people with disability and vulnerability are expected to manage a complex task and this requires complex and personalized answers. We believe that efforts to co-construct a better future in an inclusive society require to adopt a preventive perspective in order to increase the probability for most vulnerable people to foster their competitiveness in the world of work, their participation in social and working contexts and their experience of higher work and life satisfaction.

Preventive actions aiming at anticipating the development of prerequisites of career resources, such as career adaptability and career resilience, appear promising both for people with disability or vulnerable psychological conditions, as well as for any of their peers. Promoting these resources requires focusing both on people as well as on contexts and on the relationships between them. It is in fact necessary to take into account how the multiple meanings of disability are negotiated and socialized with the person with disability in his/her family, in the work contexts as well as in his/her diverse life contexts if we want to increase the meaningfulness and impact of Life Design interventions (Wehmeyer, 2014).

Prevention also requires preparing the context to include people with disability as early as possible. As Wehmeyer (2014) suggests, parents should not only be helped to not overlook the possibilities to experience the world, they should be supported in acquiring a more active role in becoming a ‘hunter’ of opportunities for their child, developing knowledge on work realities, make decision related to everyday activities as well as take part in their educational plans and school decisions.

Similarly, teachers have the opportunity to implement specific preventive interventions with all their students, including those with disabilities and vulnerabilities. Within career and life design research, in fact, a call was launched to devote attention to children and promote the early development of career adaptability’s

prerequisites as a way to equip them in finding resources for satisfactory life designing (Hartung, 2015). With this aim, career education programs devoted to increase preschool and school children's knowledge of occupations are recently proposed (Ginevra & Nota, 2017). Furthermore, strengths based career education actions besides producing significant changes in the level of hope, resilience, and time perspective, are effective in increasing adaptability resources, participation in the school context and involvement in future decision making (Sgaramella, Ginevra, Di Maggio, Santilli & Ferrari, 2015). In particular, these changes were found especially in adolescents who at the beginning of the activity showed a lower level of adaptability, either with or without disability, thus at risk for successfully dealing with future unexpected difficulties and/or transitions.

Teachers have also the opportunity to work with peers encouraging them to support and reinforce their cooperation and solidarity, devising interventions to strengthen their social skills in order to create what Maag (2006) defined 'entrapment', that is a context in which every member acts in a cooperative and supportive way. These experiences can help youths learn social and human competencies they can spend in their future life situation, to live their work experiences in a more meaningful way, to contribute their community and to enhance their quality of life.

Meaningful actions, diverse and nonetheless meaningful to varying degrees for prevention, can be also undertaken in the workplace. For instance, employers have the important role and responsibility to prepare and guarantee the appropriate conditions for a successful work inclusion. Partnership with other professionals are of course necessary but they can learn how to describe persons with disability emphasising what they do and could learn to their employees, to disseminate positive vision of disability as well as to model positive behaviours. Together with their employees they can take part to specific intervention programs helping them increase knowledge about disabilities and the specific strengths and vulnerabilities of the person that will be included as well as how to interact and provide support (Strauser, 2013).

Besides career education and counseling, several possible directions for future studies and interventions in the workplace are suggested by some recent studies. Arora and Rangnekar (2014), for instance, highlighted the role of both psychosocial and career oriented mentoring in predicting career resilience. Mentoring, i.e. a deliberate pairing of a more skilled or experienced person with a lesser skilled or experienced one, who agree on having the lesser skilled person grow and develop specific competencies (Allen & Eby, 2011), can play a significant role in building employees' self-confidence through feedback and positive reinforcement; this may also contribute in creating an environment conducive to risk taking, reduces the fear of failure and increase resilience toward career.

Additionally, a growing research supporting the development of positive resources through coaching (Theeboom, Beersma, & van Vianen, 2014). Career coaching aims to produce positive outcome on their career decisions, on work and personal fulfilment thus contributing to an effective life designing (Yates, 2015). As interventions realized under the heading of different approaches have shown (Grant, Curtayne, & Burton, 2009; Sherlock-Storey, Moss, & Timson, 2013) coaching is

effective in increasing resilience levels insofar it enhances key elements called upon by literature when dealing with career resilience, such as goal attainment, workplace wellbeing, reduced stress, increase in self-confidence and personal insight, management skills and organizational change.

Future research should then undergo new pathways and promote these activities and extend mentoring and coaching studies on career adaptability and resilience also to individuals with disabilities and vulnerabilities, paying an increased attention to individuals with invisible disabilities, such as mental illness or acquired brain injury, who experience multiple barriers that reduce their likelihood of postsecondary course completion and subsequent workforce participation.

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Chapter 25

Fostering Career Adaptability and Resilience and Promoting Employability Using Life Design Counseling

Kevin W. Glavin, Rachel A. Haag and Lisa K. Forbes

Abstract The world of work in 21st century has changed to such a degree that we have entered a new paradigm where traditional models of career counseling and development, while necessary, are no longer able to address the complex career issues that individuals currently face. This chapter discusses the changing nature of work and provides suggestions to help career counselors address the complex career-related needs of a diverse array of clients. The constructs of career adaptability and resilience are introduced as abilities and skills that clients can develop to promote and enhance their own employability. An overview of the Life Design Counseling tenets (Savickas in *Life-design counseling manual*, 2015; Savickas et al. in *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 75:239–250, 2009) sets the theoretical foundations for discussing the use of the Career Construction Interview (CCI; Savickas in *Career development and counseling: putting theory and research to work*. Wiley, Hoboken, 2005) in career counseling. The chapter concludes by providing Life Design Counseling resources for practitioners, educators, and researchers.

Keywords Career adaptability · Career construction · Career construction interview · Employability · Life design · Reflexivity · Resilience · Story

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A New Paradigm for the World of Work in the 21st Century

Globalization, innovations in technology, and a mobile workforce represent only a few of the variables that have combined to create an unstable and unpredictable world of work as compared to work in the 20th Century. The United States Bureau of Labor statistics reported, on average, individuals born between 1957 and 1964 held 11 jobs from the ages of 18–48 (U.S. Department of Labor, 2017). In addition, Mullins (2009) found that individuals change jobs approximately once every five years. This statistic suggests that today's workers face the challenge of navigating multiple career-related transitions and must learn to adapt to such changes in a timely manner in order to successfully manage their careers. Suffice to say, it is unlikely for many workers to remain in the same position with the same employer for the duration of their careers. "The new employment market in an unsettled economy calls for viewing career not as a lifetime commitment to any one employer but as selling services and skills to a series of employers who need projects completed" (Savickas, 2011, p. 3). The rapid pace with which these changes has taken place has left workers nervously employed, unprepared, and uncertain as they attempt to navigate the new world of work (Feller & Whichard, 2005). In many cases, this uncertainty has left workers feeling unsure and insecure (Savickas, 2011).

Insecure Workers and the New World of Work

Insecure workers face additional challenges. Not only must these individuals navigate multiple work transitions and commit to a lifetime of learning, they must also adapt to the changing nature of work itself. Globalization, technological innovations, and a mobile workforce, among other factors, have led to a process of dejobbing, which Bridges (1994) describes as a "trend towards non-standard employment" (p. 480). Processes that can be digitized can be automated, and automation in many instances negates the need for humans to perform a variety of work tasks. For example, smart phones can deposit checks directly into bank accounts, minimizing the need for bank tellers to perform the same such duties. Similarly, self-checkout technology reduces the need for supermarkets to hire checkout staff. Translators and captionists are competing with increasingly advanced software that can caption and translate far faster than humanly possible. This trend toward automation and dejobbing has contributed to a shift in the social arrangement of work in that fewer workers are considered full-time permanent workers (Schwab, 2016). Rather, workers are increasingly being described as part-time, casual, freelance, consultants, contingent, and self-employed (Savickas, 2007).

Organizations as Holding Environments

As the world of work continues to change, workers in the 21st century are now faced with the prospect of self-designing and managing their own careers. This may prove to be a challenging and daunting task for some, especially those who previously relied on the organization for life-long employment and a sense of belonging and purpose. Savickas (2007) suggested that organizations used to act as a safe and secure 'holding' environment, providing workers with daily structure, a steady income, social connection, as well as a sense of meaning and fulfillment. In addition to providing this holding environment, workers could rely on the organization to provide the grand narrative for their lives. The organization's story often became the individual's story. This meta-narrative allowed workers the opportunity to create their identity and implement their vocational self-concept.

When organizations provided the holding environment and grand narrative, workers felt safe and secure in an environment that was well organized and structured (Savickas, 2007). Such environments provide consistency and predictability, which provided workers with a level of certainty and a sense of comfort. Career theorists such as Holland (1997) and Super (1990) developed their models of career guidance and career development based on the consistent and predictable nature of the world of work that characterized the 20th century. Holland's theory of Vocational Choice and Personality Types built upon the work of Parsons (1909) who presented a simple, rational, and logical model which encouraged individuals to (a) know thyself (i.e., one's career related needs, values, and interests), (b) know the world of work (i.e., the rewards, tasks, and duties required), and (c) employ true reasoning to match oneself to the most appropriate work environment. Upon finding congruent work, workers could then rely on the organization to hold, guide, and direct their career and vocational identity. However, the bureaucratic and hierarchical nature of organizations in the 20th century, while providing comfort and security to workers, made it difficult for organizations to adjust in a timely manner to changing market and economic conditions. Organizations have adapted by simplifying processes and increasing efficiency. Bureaucratic rules and procedures have been removed or simplified, while hierarchical structures have been flattened. The stable and predictable nature of work that existed when Holland developed his theory has now been replaced by instability and unpredictability.

Super (1980) also developed his Life-Space Life-Span model of career development during a time when the world of work was relatively consistent and stable. Super's original model was comprised of a maxi-cycle of career activities and developmental tasks that workers engaged in over the course of their lives. The maxi-cycle activities included: (a) growth (i.e., developing interests and a self-concept), (b) exploration (i.e., narrowing vocational interests), (c) establishment (i.e., keep and maintain a job), (d) maintenance (i.e., maintain their place despite changes at work), and (e) disengagement (i.e., deceleration and retirement). As individuals mastered the developmental tasks associated with one activity they would then successfully transition to the next activity. Super (1990) believed the

maxi-cycle was estimated to take 30 years or more to complete. Towards the end of the 20th century, Super realized that his model no longer accurately reflected the current experience of workers. Instead of experiencing long tenures with a single organization, Super recognized that individuals were encountering work transitions far more frequently. As a result, he altered the maxi-cycle to a mini-cycle. The activities of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and disengagement remained the same, but within the mini-cycle the time it took workers to transition from one activity to another was drastically reduced. Super revised and updated his model to suggest that not only do workers spend less time transitioning from one activity to the next, but they may also find themselves traveling through these activities in a recursive manner. The maxi-cycle that represented a worker's entire career has been replaced with multiple mini-cycles representing multiple occupational transitions. These transitions make it increasingly difficult for workers to use organizations as holding environments. Instead, today's workers are now tasked with creating their own holding environments, which may be a foreign concept for many. Savickas (2007) suggested an individual's story can serve as the holding environment during times of transition and challenge, providing the individual with a sense of connection, meaning, and fulfillment.

Stories as Holding Environments. Stories are important because they shape and allow us to prescribe meaning to our lives. In addition, Savickas (2015) stated an individual's story "imposes meaning on vocational choice and work behavior" (p. 8). Humans have a way of adopting various identities, which are tied to significant roles they hold (e.g., worker identity). As individuals strive to navigate the uncertainty associated with repeated occupational transitions, many may experience a break in their narrative. In a sense, these individuals have become "de-storied, or fallen out of story" (p. 13). This type of loss of identity is often seen with athletes when they encounter a career ending injury. For example, an Olympic gymnast who breaks a leg or a football star who tears an Achilles tendon can become de-storied. The life the athlete once knew, the story followed, and the identity built, disappears, leading to the loss of a significant aspect of the individual's identity. Comparably, workers adopt a narrative and identity in a similar fashion; in the midst of an occupational transition, workers may experience feelings of pain and loss of self. When individuals become de-storied, the previously adopted narrative no longer fits and the new identity has not yet been constructed, leaving them lost and wandering as they search for direction and a way to continue their story (Savickas, 2006). Rather than rely on the organization to 'hold' and narrate their stories, many workers are now forced to become the active authors and designers of their own vocational narratives (Savickas, 2007). Savickas' (2015) Life Designing suggests a continuous and coherent narrative is essential because it has the ability to 'hold' individuals and provide them with a sense of comfort during occupational transitions and work traumas.

Life Designing

Savickas (2015) created Life Designing to address the complex career-related needs and concerns of workers in the 21st century. As previously mentioned, traditional theories have focused on career guidance (Holland, 1997) and career development (Super, 1990). While still necessary, these theories and models may no longer sufficiently address the needs and concerns of today's workers. Savickas (2015) described Life Designing as "the third major paradigm for career intervention, subsequent to vocational guidance and career education. The three paradigms move from scores to stages to stories" (p. 5).

Stories represent rich narratives that contain thoughts, values, interests, feelings, meaning, experiences, trauma, and triumph. These narratives can be analyzed for underlying patterns and themes. The patterns and themes help to explain an individual's vocational behavior. Savickas (2015) suggested that the narrative one creates helps the individual to 'know thyself,' and serves as a guide to navigate a life course and career story that is both coherent and continuous. During difficult transitions and traumas individuals can use their stories for support and guidance. Life Design Counseling assists individuals by engaging in dialogues designed to help clients create and strengthen their story and identity. A continuous and coherent narrative can provide the necessary conditions to support and expand an individual's degree of career resilience and adaptability as they face inevitable work traumas and vocational adjustments.

Life Design Counseling for career construction has received support from the literature regarding the enhancement of career adaptability (Del Corso, Rehfuss, & Glavin, 2011; Maree, 2016a), addressing career resilience (Taber & Briddick, 2011), and engaging clients in the processes of reflection and reflexivity (Cardoso et al., 2016; Hartung & Vess, 2016; Hartung & Santilli, 2016; Maree, 2016b; Nota, 2016; Savickas, 2016; Taylor & Savickas, 2016). Savickas (2016) differentiates between reflection and reflexivity, suggesting that "to reflect means to deliberate on past experiences or present circumstance." (p. 84), whereas reflexivity "Reflexivity fosters a self-awareness that flows into intention." (p. 84). Maree (2015) suggested clients can also benefit from feeling a sense of hope and validation. Maree's research found that Life Design Counseling:

Enabled the participants to understand themselves better and construct new selves, broadened their perspectives on career-life issues, facilitated change in their lives, encouraged action, and imbued new hope in them (p. 333).

Maree (2016c) found similar themes after conducting Life Design Counseling with a mid-career black man who "felt stuck in his career" (p. 23). Upon completing three sessions totaling four hours of Life Design Counseling, the client was asked how the sessions were useful to him to which the client responded:

Yes, I think the first thing that springs to mind is that you have filled me with hope and joy by validating who I am, who I can be, and what my talents are. I am amazed about how much I learned about myself (p. 31).

In its current form, Life Design Counseling appears to assist clients in developing a better sense of self, hope, career adaptability and resilience.

Fostering Career Adaptability and Resilience and Promoting Employability

Narrative techniques, such as Life Designing (Savickas, 2015), allow career counselors and clients to explore contextual factors, barriers, outcome expectations, and career preparedness (Stebbleton, 2010). In Life Design Counseling, individuals engage in reflection to deconstruct and reconstruct stories about their lives into career narratives (Di Fabio, 2016). Interventions commonly utilized include card sorts, genograms, early recollections, sentence completions, and career education groups. These and other narrative techniques help individuals find meaning in transitions and increase self-confidence (Di Fabio, 2016). Life Design proponents argue effective career counseling should also examine what people do in their lives outside of work (Di Fabio, 2016). These activities play a large role in how people construct identities and traits relevant to their career life. Two traits of particular importance to navigating career transition and uncertainty are career adaptability and resilience.

Individuals who demonstrate career adaptability are better able to adjust to work related challenges and obstacles (Duffy, 2010). They manage to endure changing employment markets and successfully navigate career transitions (Koen, Klehe, Van Vianen, Zikic, & Nauta, 2010). According to Savickas (1997, 2002, 2005), career adaptability is comprised of four dimensions: (a) planning, (b) decision-making, (c) exploration, and (d) confidence. Koen et al. (2010) investigated the relationship between these dimensions of adaptability as well as both the number and quality of job offers and found all of the career adaptability dimensions, particularly decision-making and confidence, played an important role in obtaining high quality reemployment.

Career resilience is described as a motivational force and a protective factor supporting individuals in successfully managing hardships (Bimrose & Hearne, 2012). Resilience is often expressed in the form of tenacity, determination, and flexibility (Bimrose & Hearne, 2012). Buyukgoze-Kavas (2016) found resiliency, along with hope, to be strong predictors of career adaptability. Results of his study suggest that individuals who perceive themselves as adaptable in their careers also tend to be more resilient and hopeful in general. Other research appears to support these results. For example, Bimrose and Hearne (2012) found resilience to be an especially important factor for clients experiencing barriers like age, conflicting priorities, and lack of growth opportunities.

Previous research has also examined the relationship between career adaptability and other factors including: sense of control, social support, self-esteem, and career optimism. It has been suggested that individuals who embody the above traits often

exhibit greater adaptability when faced with transition (Duffy, 2010). Duffy suggested that an individual's self-esteem, supportive relationships, and positive outlook, are related to the degree to which they feel they have control over their lives. A strong internal locus of control decreases career anxiety and increases career decision self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and job performance. Control is also one of the four career adapt-abilities (i.e., control, concern, curiosity, confidence) suggested by Savickas and Porfeli (2012) as central to the development of career adaptability. The degree to which individuals possess these adapt-abilities influences how flexible and adaptable they are when faced with change, barriers, and uncertainty (Bimrose & Hearne, 2012). Addressing hopefulness, resilience, and optimism in career counseling is also an important undertaking for career counselors because of the role these factors play in fostering adaptability (Buyukgoze-Kavas, 2016).

As career development becomes less linear and ever-changing, career counselors experience a new demand for their services and complexity to their work. Some of the challenges career professionals face are client volume, intensity and diversity of client issues, challenges in meeting stakeholder expectations, and measuring intervention effectiveness (Bimrose & Hearne, 2012). It has been suggested career counselors themselves could benefit from developing and enhancing their own degree of career adaptability and resilience. Maree (2013) recommended that career counselors should "take the necessary steps to stay abreast of the latest developments in their field in order to renew and improve their existing practice and re-invigorate their own careers and life stories" (p. 115). One recent development reflects Savickas' (2015) work that utilizes narrative techniques to engage individuals in the process of designing a life.

Engaging in Life Designing Dialogues Using the Career Construction Interview

Counselors practice Life Designing by engaging clients in life designing dialogues (Savickas, 2015). In order to aid the facilitation of life designing dialogues for career construction counselors use the Career Construction Interview (CCI; Savickas, 2005), which is provided as a free resource on Vocopher: The Career Collaboratory (<http://www.vocopher.com>) (Glavin & Savickas, 2010). The CCI is a qualitative instrument that seeks to explore and examine an individual's vocational narrative using stories. The interview prompts individuals to describe their (1) role models, (2) favorite magazines, television shows, or websites, (3) favorite story, (4) favorite saying, and (5) earliest recollections. A list of the CCI questions and their associated goals can be found in "Appendix". The CCI questions elicit short stories that can be analyzed by the client and counselor for repeated words and phrases, which can then be organized into patterns. The patterns can be collated to identify underlying themes, which can then be used to explain and understand an

individual's career decision making (Savickas, 2005). As individuals narrate their answers to the CCI questions, they are essentially expressing their self-concepts and preferred work environments. In addition, with the counselor's guidance, clients are invited to explore their pain, passion, and purpose. As clients engage in this storytelling process, their thoughts and stories are given a voice. For some clients, they may be voicing their stories aloud for the very first time. Savickas (2015) suggested it is not until clients hear themselves tell their stories that the stories become real and meaningful (p. 34). With the aid of a career counselor, clients can co-construct a narrative that fits the self and allows them to implement their self-concept in a work role.

Multicultural Considerations of the Career Construction Interview

The CCI represents a narrative approach to career counseling that can be applied across cultures. Two core aspects of this approach suggest (a) the client is the expert of his or her life and (b) the universal nature of storytelling can be used regardless of the client's culture. This intervention was developed out of a postmodern paradigm (Savickas, 2005), which views clients as experts regarding their lived experiences, rather than an all-knowing counselor discovering an objective truth within the client. Thus, the client is free to direct the content and outcome of the interview from their unique experiences and worldview. In addition, Savickas instructed counselors to meet the client where they are and warned against changing clients rather than simply removing barriers and increasing insight into what already exists within the client.

The most basic component of the CCI is activating and accessing personal narratives. These personal stories are unique to the individual and allow him or her to organize experiences, create identity, and make meaning related to career understanding (Savickas, 2005). While the content of the stories may vary across cultures, the element of storytelling is utilized universally. Not only will the story be unique to the client, the counselor, in turn, does not analyze the story by looking for objective truths, instead the counselor reflects back emerging patterns that are pertinent for that individual. Therefore, the very nature of this intervention takes into consideration unique worldviews, experiences, and cultural perspectives.

Although the CCI can be used across cultures, there may be some potential cultural concerns for career counselors to take into consideration. Clients-of-color may have difficulty identifying role models. For example, some clients-of-color may struggle to identify role models given the lack of role models in prominent positions in their community, in books, in movies, television shows, etcetera. This does not mean such clients will not be able to identify a figure to answer this question, however the recommendation is for career counselors to be mindful with regard to *how* they ask the role model question. For example, rather than ask clients

to describe their role models, career counselors should use more inclusive language by utilizing the exact terminology as outlined in the CCI:

Who did you admire when you were growing up? Who were your heroes/heroines? I am interested in learning about three people, other than your mother and father, who you admired when you were about three to six years. They can be real people you knew or didn't know personally, make-believe people like super-heroes and cartoon characters, or characters in books or the media (Savickas, 2015, p. 28).

It is also important for career counselors to be aware of the sociocultural factors affecting clients and or families from minority groups (Sue & Sue, 2016). For example, it is important to understand the client's social and cultural beliefs regarding expressing emotions freely and openly as well as his or her familial expectations and or rules regarding disclosing issues to others outside of the family. The majority of the questions comprising the CCI may not elicit strong emotions regarding personal and or familial issues; however, caution may be needed when asking about early life recollections. For this question, the counselor should (a) be aware of his or her own values and beliefs (Sue & Sue), (b) understand the client's sociocultural background, beliefs, and values (Sue & Sue), and (c) allow the client an opportunity to alter or skip the question (Savickas, 2015). Overall, it is believed that the CCI has the capability to be effective across cultures; however, career counselors should always consider the sociocultural factors for each individual client. While these considerations are important for all instruments, it is particularly important when using the CCI given the deeply personal and intimate stories that clients reveal.

Conclusion

The 21st century has ushered in a new world of work; one that can be characterized as dynamic, unstable, and unpredictable. The effects and magnitude of these changes has resulted in a paradigm shift where traditional models of career guidance (Holland, 1997) and career development (Super, 1990) are no longer able to address the diverse and complex career issues that individuals currently face. Workers can no longer rely on organizations to hold and comfort them by providing lifelong employment. Instead, they must consider the possibility of working on a series of projects for a series of employers (Savickas, 2007). While organizations can no longer provide workers with lifelong work, they can provide continual opportunities for growth, learning, and development. Upon the end of a working relationship the organization should have a job completed, and the worker will have another project to add to their portfolio as they seek to transition to a new project. As workers experience multiple career transitions they may find themselves lost and fall out of story (Savickas, 2007). Career counselors can assist clients by engaging them in life designing dialogues (Savickas, 2015). These dialogues serve to help clients narrate their own career story. The Career Construction Interview (CCI: Savickas, 2005), provides a structured intervention that can be used to help

individuals explore and continue their stories. As counselors listen and reflect they help clients hear and extend their stories. Extending an individual’s story ensures the story is coherent, consistent and continuous. The construction of one’s story may help clients develop a stronger sense of identity and greater self-esteem. An increased sense of self can then lead to improved resilience safeguarding clients against work transitions. The storytelling process can ultimately help individuals to hold themselves as they navigate the new world of work, and impose meaning on their vocational behavior (Savickas, 2005).

Researchers, educators, and practitioners can access free Life Designing resources at Vocopher.com. The CCI questions can be downloaded for use with clients. The Life-Design Counseling Manual (Savickas, 2015) provides practitioners with a step-by-step approach to understanding and practicing the CCI. The My Career Story Workbook (Savickas & Hartung, 2012), which is available in English, French, Portuguese, and German, provides individuals with a self-directed resource for completing the CCI on their own. The Life Design Theme Mapping Guide (Stoltz & Barclay, 2015) and The Life Design Group Guide (Stoltz & Barclay, 2016) can be used to help clients and practitioners identify themes and facilitate group interventions respectively. The *Career Adapt-Abilities Scale* (CAAS; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) can be used to measure Savickas’ (2005) four dimensions of career adaptability (i.e., control, concern, curiosity, confidence). As career counselors and clients strive to adapt to the changing world of work these resources can be used to guide and support individuals through the inevitable career transitions and challenges that lie ahead.

Appendix

Career construction interview questions and goals (Savickas, 2015)

Question	Goal
Entry Question How may I be useful to you?	Set’s the scene and identifies the current issue(s)
Q1: Role Models: Who did you admire when you were growing up? Who were your heroes/heroines? I am interested in learning about three people, other than your mother and father, who you admired when you were about three to six years. They can be real people you knew or didn’t know personally, make-believe people like super-heroes and cartoon characters, or characters in books or the media	Identify the client’s preferred self. Identify adjectives that describe a client’s construction and conception of the self

(continued)

(continued)

Question	Goal
Q2: What are your three favorite magazines/ TV shows/websites?	Identify the types of environments and activities that interest the client
Q3: Currently, what is your favorite story from a book or movie? Tell me the story	Understand the stories or cultural scripts that a client may be using to envision the transition outcome
Q4: What is your favorite saying?	Learn the advice that the client has been giving to the self. The favorite saying is autotherapeutic and identifies how clients motivate themselves
Q5: What are your earliest recollections? I am interested in hearing three stories about things that happened to you when you were 3–6 years old	Understand the perspective from which a client views the current issue(s) presented in their transition narrative

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Part VIII
Epilogue

Chapter 26

Epilogue: An Essay About Adaptability, Employability, and Resilience in an Age of Uncertainty

David L. Blustein

As I mull over the vast scope and depth of the chapters of this extraordinary new book, I am prompted to reflect on the events of the past few years, which bear directly on the themes of this book. The populist movements that have coalesced within the last two to three years have many antecedents. Indeed, I would not suggest that the majority of the causes of the Brexit and Trump victories and the growing nationalist movements around the globe lie exclusively in the world of work. However, most policy analysts and scholars do concur that the anxiety that people feel as they face growing deindustrialization, increases in precarious work, and underemployment is at least partly responsible for people seeking easy answers to complex problems. While the stakes grow as people struggle with work, it has seemed clear to me that career practitioners and scholars are called upon to provide some solutions for people and communities as they grapple with a radically transforming world of work. In this context, the publication of this brilliant volume edited by Professor Kobus Maree could not have been better timed. Devoting an entire book to adaptability, employability, and resilience creates a compelling case for a shifting paradigm in our field. As reflected in this important new book, these three constructs, considered individually and collectively, serve to enrich the language and tools needed to empower people to advocate for themselves and their communities in their search for decent, dignified, and meaningful work. In this essay, I will seek to enhance the overall impact of this wonderful book by making a case that these constructs can be productively viewed from a contextual perspective, which may serve to link these powerful chapters to broader movements devoted to creating a world where access to decent work is a human right.

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Moving from the Individual to the Context

Professor Maree has done a masterful job in organizing this volume and in recruiting the best and brightest scholars across the globe to discuss adaptability, employability, and resilience. While space limitations do not allow me to comment on individual chapters, I do want to commend each of the authors for preparing chapters that are scholarly, relevant, and creative. I envision that this book will form the basis for an invigorated consideration of these constructs as central organizing principles in career practice and research in the coming decades. As many of the authors have noted, the labor market is requiring that people be maximally prepared to manage their work lives and to adapt to changing circumstances. The material in these chapters provides important guidance for counselors and psychologists who are seeking tools to help clients become more adaptive in the face of a shifting work context.

As in many effective counseling interactions, it is often useful to examine the shadows behind the language that is used by a client to search for new trajectories or for subtly suggestive narratives about possibilities that have not yet found a voice; in a similar vein, I have sought to identify key meta-perspectives that underlie these insightful chapters. Consistent with my own perspective about the need for a context-rich and inclusive psychology of working (Blustein, 2006, 2013; Blustein, Connors-Kellgren, Olle, & Diamonti, 2017; Duffy, Blustein, Diemer, & Autin, 2016), I believe that material presented in this book can inform a case for the consideration of adaptability, employability, and resilience as attributes not just of individuals, but of communities and societies. While helping individuals to enhance their capacity to respond to a challenging context is a clear mission of our field, I have devoted much of my recent scholarship to creating a rationale and the intellectual tools that will help our profession actively engage in public debates about work and human rights. I am aware that moving from the individual to the context is not necessarily easy for many in our field. We have been trained primarily to work with individuals to maximize their hopes for meaning and purpose in life. While we are clearly skilled in individual-level analyses and interventions, we are also experts in the role of work in people's lives, writ large. We have internalized the stories and experiences that people have at work, which is a unique and much needed perspective in the contemporary discourse about work and careers. In my reading of these chapters in light of my experience with unemployed and underemployed clients and research participants, I believe that an undercurrent in this book is that contextual conditions need to be structured in a way that legitimizes and affirms our natural strivings for creative, collaborative, and constructive work projects and positions. As I suggest in the following paragraphs, each of these constructs can be examined from a broader perspective to provide fresh insights about how contexts can be shaped to create conditions that support adaptability, employability, and resilience.

Adaptability in Context

Examining adaptability from a contextual perspective suggests that employers and policy makers may find it useful to learn how they can adapt to the needs that people have for decent work. I am aware that the globalization process does not necessarily privilege the voice of workers in a world where economic competition for markets is fierce. Here is where career practitioners can provide some guidance. For example, as automation provides a pathway to improved productivity for organizations, often leading to major cuts in employment, governments can provide incentives for employers to provide workers with training and counseling that will help them to adapt to shifts in the workforce. In the U.S. during the presidential elections, the growing despair of people who had been quite content to work in manufacturing made them vulnerable to appeals, based on highly questionable arguments, which proposed that stable and decent work could be brought back to their communities. In this context, the voters/workers and the employers did not exercise optimal adaptability; rather, they sought solutions that were based on myths of turning back the hands of time to a period that seemed to fade too fast for workers to adjust. Enhancing the adaptability of communities and nations may be facilitated by infusing global standards about work, such as the International Labor Organization's (2008, 2017) Decent Work Agenda, which provides a framework for improving the infrastructure that exists for working people.

Employability in Context

The challenge of employability also evokes a discussion at the contextual level. Our literature, especially coupled with advances from work and organizational psychology, can certainly point to useful insights about how people can enhance their employability. In my view, employability is an interactional construct, one that is not exclusively embedded in individuals. In this context, employability may be best understood as a two-way street; communities and employers need to affirm that people are entitled to fair, stable, and dignified work. The culture of the populist movements seemed to tap into people's desires for work; however, the solutions that have been proposed offer potentially dangerous outcomes, including increased othering of people of color and other marginalized groups. Career practitioners and scholars might find it helpful to explore the space between the individual and the context in employability by considering how social and economic systems can be constructed to enhance individual strengths in the world of work and how employment may be more fairly and equitably distributed to all those who want to work.

Resilience in Context

The infusion of resilience into this tripartite consideration of 21st century career attributes represents a very thoughtful structure for this important publication. As we reflect again on the ways that voters in the United Kingdom and United States were swayed by uncritical arguments about the causes of deindustrialization, we are forced to reckon with a growing deficit in our educational systems with respect to critical thinking and critical consciousness. In order for people to be maximally resilient, they need to be able to read the world accurately and critically. While some of the onus for enhancing resilience to encompass critical thinking needs to occur in education, career practitioners and scholars may be wise to heed the advice of those vocational psychologists who have advocated that critical consciousness be infused into career counseling and career development education (Blustein, 2006; Diemer & Blustein, 2006; Duffy et al., 2016). The way that people construct meaning about their lives and their work environments is essential to building their resilience. By reading the world critically, people might examine the meta-messages of politicians who are promising easy solutions and/or engaging in blaming others for problems that clearly have a more complex causality.

Closing Comments

In closing, I would like to thank Professor Maree for reaching out to me to write this epilogue. I did not realize when I accepted this invitation that I would be writing about adaptability, employability, and resilience in a climate that has changed so much. However, contributions such as this one are well-timed to foster a more critical analysis of how the career development field can become a major player in advocating for just and dignified work for all. Moreover, the material in this book will help clients and communities to develop adaptability, employability, and resilience, which will optimally empower people to advocate for decent work and to understand the complexity of the forces that are reshaping the labor market. Rather than feeling disempowered by the forces that shape the labor market, the authors of these chapters have provided guideposts to lead individuals and communities to respond adaptively and resiliently to an often harsh world of work. By holding employers and public leaders responsible for ensuring that people have access to decent work, we will be building the structural supports that will nurture our natural strivings for adaptability, employability, and resilience.

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