PREFACE

The major goals of this book are as follows:

1. To facilitate the career development of the students and others who read it.
2. To provide an update as of 2014 of the broad field of study and practice known as career development.
3. To illustrate the relationship between theory and practice through the use of case studies. The book contains seven case studies and numerous other illustrations.
4. To help readers develop the sensitivity, knowledge, and skills needed to provide career services to clients of all age levels, genders, sexual orientations, racial groups, and ethnic groups.
5. To enable consumers of the text to produce cost-effective career development programs.

FACILITATING THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF READERS

Students usually come into training programs with the goal of becoming a licensed counselor or psychologist. In most instances, these goals are related to the title of the program; that is, school counselors expect to be qualified to work in a school, rehabilitation counselors expect to take jobs in rehabilitation agencies, and counseling psychologists often want to work in college counseling centers or engage in private practice. Many will fulfill their basic goals and spend a lifetime providing services in schools, agencies, or counseling centers. Some will change their goals before they enter practice of any type. Others will fulfill their initial objectives and enter the settings that were a part of their original goals, but after a few years they, like many others, change their career objectives. Will school counselors work in private practice? Yes, and more often than you might imagine. Will rehabilitation counselors work as school counselors? Certainly. Will counseling psychologists work as career coaches, life coaches, or some combination thereof? I have seen it happen. What about consulting as a career option or a stint as a specialist in a government agency? It happens. This book is written in a manner that allows students to sample the broad array of career options available to them if they are equipped with the knowledge and skill required of a career development specialist.

A CURRENT VIEW OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Everyone who has owned a cell phone, tablet, or computer is aware of the rapidity with which technology changes. The judicious use of technology is essential to the delivery of career development services of all types. The dispensation of information about jobs via technology, particularly by using the Internet, is often the first thing that comes to mind when laypeople are asked to consider how technology might be used to foster career development. A few are aware of the use of technology in the assessment process. Most have never considered how technology can be used as a tool to contribute to the career development of large numbers of people, beginning with exploration and culminating with the job search. The use of social media, such as Facebook, in the job hunt is a newly emerging technological trend.

Keeping abreast of the changes in the use of technology is important, but other areas that influence career development practice are also shifting. Theories change, and the influence of
preface

postmodern thinking on career development practice is the best illustration of this shift. John Krumboltz discarded many of his 40-year-old ideas and presented a fresh theory that urges career counselors to prepare their clients to take advantage of happenstance in their career choice–making and development. New assessment devices are introduced. The labor market shifts, new jobs appear, and traditional jobs change and disappear. The U.S. and global economies expand and detract, generating new opportunities and taking away others. Career coaching is an area that was nearly unheard of 20 years ago, and now the Internet is filled with websites that deal with opportunities in this area. Career development changes. These changes are accounted for in this text.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF THEORY AND PRACTICE

The phrase that there is nothing as practical as a well-thought-out theory has been attributed to more than one person. Whoever coined it is not as important as the sagacity of the statement itself. I have tried to illustrate the application of the major theories and their applications through the use of cases that involve career advising, career counseling, career coaching, traditional and postmodern approaches to assessment, and so forth. For example, in Chapter 3, Super’s C-DAC model is presented in case form. In Chapter 4, I use a table to show how John Holland’s model can be applied to career advising. Cases are highlighted in the detailed table of contents.

SENSITIVITY AND KNOWLEDGE TO HELP DIVERSE POPULATIONS

In the mid-1950s, when alternatives to the traditional trait and factor model of Frank Parsons began to emerge, the focus was largely on the career development of white males. Women, ethnic and racial minorities, and sexual orientation minorities were ignored with one exception. Donald Super developed a separate theory for women that focused largely on their role as homemakers and traditional female careers. In 1989, he discarded what would now be considered sexist ideas. Theorists such as Robert Lent, Gail Hackett, and Mark Savickas among others have forged theories and practices with an eye to inclusivity, that is, theories with applications that can be used with clients regarding their gender, race, or sexual orientation.

Assessment devices have also undergone changes that make them helpful with all clients. At one time, the Strong Interest Inventory came in blue and pink forms for men and women, respectively. The SII has long been merged into a single form. Normed tests and inventories did not include enough women or minorities in their reference groups and thus were likely to produce biased results. Issues regarding the use of assessment devices continue to the present. Practitioners need to know what the issues are and how to use various assessment devices to produce the most valid results for their clients.

PRODUCING COST-EFFECTIVE PROGRAMS

I have been asked why I emphasize the use of O*NET and accessing state-sponsored career development websites as an integral part of career development programs. The answer is simple: Because these resources are well constructed and free. I have worked in Indiana, Iowa, West Virginia, and North Carolina and consulted in many other states. In only one instance, in a wealthy school district in Ohio, have I heard, “We have all the money we need to fund our career development program.” Many universities now issue laptops to first-year students. Some public school systems do the same. Libraries and community agencies often have banks of computers that can be
used to explore careers, complete valid assessment devices, get tutored on resume development and interviewing skills, and so forth at no cost. Military recruiters will administer, score, and interpret an interest inventory and a multiple aptitude test to high school students. All of these services and more are available to individuals and institutions at no cost. Admittedly, these services require the use of computers, and some of our poorer adult clients may not have the hardware or know-how to use web-based services. Moreover, clients with disabilities may need special accommodations to maximize their opportunities to use computers to advance their career development. When there are barriers, it becomes incumbent on the career development specialists working in these institutions or agencies to help these clients find a way to access the Internet and to teach clients the skills they need to be successful. If the required accommodations are not available, the career counselor should become an advocate for their clients and work to increase available resources.

WHAT IS NEW IN THE 11TH EDITION?

1. Statistics about poverty, women, and minority groups in the labor force and trends in the labor force and education, unless presented for historical reasons, are newly updated.
2. A holistic, integrated (with practice exercises) chapter devoted to trait and factor theory and practice in career development has been added.
3. A complete, integrated chapter dealing with career developmental theory and practice has been added.
4. A complete, integrated chapter dealing with career development learning theory and practice, including illustrations of John Krumboltz’s Theory of Happenstance and social cognitive theory, has been added.
5. A chapter devoted entirely to postmodern theories has been added, including a new contextualist theory by Mark Savickas.
6. A chapter devoted to the role of gender in career development with an emphasis on facilitating the career development of women has been added. This chapter includes a discussion of the career development of sexual preference minorities as well.
7. Five (out of seven) cases are new, including a coaching case written by a worker who was the beneficiary of coaches’ work. The career counseling cases integrate assessment and counseling strategies.
8. A brief section on religious minorities has been added.
9. A brief section on career development in the federal government has been added.

WHAT HAS BEEN RETAINED IN THE 11TH EDITION?

1. The emphasis on multiculturalism throughout plus a chapter on the use of a values-based approach to career counseling is included.
2. The history of career development including theory building is addressed.
3. The CACREP accreditation standards that pertain to career development and an outline of the chapters that address them (see inside of front cover) are addressed.
4. The placement of guidelines from professional organizations such as NCDA, ASCA, and ACA are addressed in the relevant chapters.
5. Four updated chapters dealing with career development programming in public schools, higher education, business, and private practice are in place. The public school chapter
Preface

focuses on the integration of career services into the overarching ASCA model. Tips for organizing and delivering career services for elementary, middle, and high schools are included.

6. Discussions on providing career development services to veterans, ex-offenders, older workers, and disabled clients are included.

7. A chapter is included on establishing or updating career centers, both brick and mortar and virtual operations.

8. A chapter on facilitating the global job search is included, with a new section on the use of social media in the search. Job-placement services are also discussed in this chapter.

9. A chapter on traditional as well as postmodern approaches to career development assessment is included.

10. In-text student learning exercises are included that are designed to help students extend their learning using the Internet and other experiences related to the points being made in the text.

11. “Things to Remember” are included as aids for organization in each chapter.

12. Brief end-of-chapter quizzes designed to help students test their knowledge of key points in the chapter are included.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

In the opening, I discussed the goal of facilitating the career development of students enrolled in various training programs. I am indebted to my many school counseling, counseling psychology, and counselor education students, who often showed me that entering a professional training program is the beginning of the career choice-making process, not the culmination.

I would like to thank the following reviewers for their comments and insights: Sharon V. Balcome, Webster University; Shannon Ray, Nova Southeastern University; and Christopher D. Slaten, Purdue University.

The staff at Pearson Publishing was responsive to my needs as this edition evolved, and I want to express my gratitude for their assistance.

Dr. Patrick Akos, counselor educator at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, was instrumental in helping me shape the programming career development services in public schools and in identifying key resources for the book as a whole. The ideas for solution-focused career counseling that first appeared in the 10th edition and were expanded in this edition were stimulated by Patrick’s thinking. Thank you, Patrick.

My wife Sandra, who held many positions that involved the delivery of career development services during her career, proofread the entire manuscript and deserves much credit for the final product.

Finally, the book is dedicated to Lee E. Isaacson. I enrolled in his course at Purdue University dealing with career information because the course I planned to take to finish my master’s degree was not available. Happenstance? Yes! That course began a journey that involved collaboration with Lee on a very early edition of this book and a life fascinated by career development.

Duane Brown, March, 2014
PART ONE

Foundations of Career Development Practice
CHAPTER 1

Introduction to Career Development in the Global Economy and Its Role in Social Justice

THINGS TO REMEMBER

- The reality of the global economy and its implications for employment in the United States
- Why the need for career development services may be at its highest level in half a century
- The language of career development
- The reasons that careers and career development are important in the fight for social justice
- The major events in the history of career development

HISTORY OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT

As will be discussed later in this chapter, there are currently calls for the adoption of a new paradigm for the theory and practice of career counseling and career development services that focuses on both individuals and the social contexts in which they function. These ideas are not new, but throughout much of the twentieth century they were neglected. The call for understanding the individual and how he or she is influenced by his or her context is a century-old echo of the voices of the social reformers who founded the vocational guidance movement in education, business, industry, and elsewhere. Reformers in Boston, Massachusetts; San Francisco, California; and Grand Rapids, Michigan, focused on immigrants from Europe who came to the United States by the tens of thousands; high school dropouts who were unprepared for the changing workplace; oppression in the workplace; substandard public schools; and the need to apply scientific principles to career planning and vocational education. It is the latter idea, the focus on scientific principles that has received the most criticism, along with the failure to adequately address multicultural issues. Currently, some career development specialists are urging practitioners to abandon theories and strategies rooted in modern philosophies in favor of those rooted in postmodernism.

Looking backward to 1913 and earlier, it is worth noting that social reformers formed the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education (NSPIE) in 1906, which became the...
parent organization of the National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA) in 1913. These reformers were advocates for vocational education, and they carried their fight to state legislators, to the National Education Association, and beyond. One of NSPIE’s achievements was drafting and successfully lobbying for the passage of the Smith–Hughes act in 1917, legislation that laid the foundation for land grant universities and vocational education in public schools (Stephens, 1970).

These earlier reformers were advocates. One mechanism they used to initiate local reforms was the settlement house, which was a place in a working-class neighborhood that housed researchers who studied people’s lives and problems in that neighborhood. In 1901, Frank Parsons founded the Civic Service House in Boston’s North End, and in 1908, the Vocation Bureau, an adjunct of the Boston Civic Service House, was opened. Leaders working out of the North End house established trade unions and generally conducted other activities aimed at empowering workers. These reformers also performed a variety of educational activities aimed at improving vocational skills. In the Boston Civic Service House, these activities were conducted under the auspices of the Breadwinners’ Institute and the Vocation Bureau (Stephens, 1970).

The Employment Management Association (EMA), a federal agency, was formed in 1913. Its goal was to promote vocational guidance in business and industry. EMA, NVGA, NSPIE, and other organizations lobbied aggressively for systemic changes in business, education, and governmental agencies during the early years of the twentieth century and were highly successful, perhaps because more than 50 groups united in collaborative efforts to advocate for needed reforms. According to Stephens (1970), the interest in reform had dissipated by the late 1920s because of dissension within NVGA and disagreements among NVGA and other organizations, such as the National Education Association, with which they had partnered to pursue reform.

As can be seen in Table 1.1, formal interest in facilitating career development and occupational choice began in the nineteenth century in places such as San Francisco and Grand Rapids.

### Table 1.1 Historical Highlights of Vocational Guidance, Career Development, and Career Counseling in the United States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1883</td>
<td>Salmon Richards publishes <em>Vacophy</em>, which calls for vacophers to be placed in every town. He envisioned the role of the vacophers as providing vocational assistance to all.</td>
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<td>1895</td>
<td>George Merrill experiments with vocational guidance at the California School of Mechanical Arts in San Francisco.</td>
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<td>1898–1907</td>
<td>Jesse B. Davis instructs students about the world of work at Central High School in Detroit. In 1907, Davis moves to a principalship in Grand Rapids, MI, where he encourages teachers to relate subject matter to vocations.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>Frank Parsons establishes Breadwinners’ Institute, a continuing education center for immigrants and youth, in the Civic Service House in Boston.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circa 1908</td>
<td>Anna Y. Reed, working in Seattle, WA, and Eli Weaver, in Brooklyn, NY, develop and organize vocational guidance programs in their respective schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>Philanthropist Mrs. Quincy Shaw organizes the Boston Guidance Bureau to provide assistance to young people based on the work of Frank Parsons, which stressed the importance of a systematic approach to selecting a vocation.</td>
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</tbody>
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(continued)
TABLE 1.1 Historical Highlights of Vocational Guidance, Career Development, and Career Counseling in the United States (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>Frank Parsons’s book, Choosing a Vocation, is published posthumously. The book contains Parsons’s tripartite theoretical model, which provided the basis for much of the vocational guidance in the first half of the twentieth century.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>The National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA) is established in Grand Rapids, MI.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1917</td>
<td>The first group intelligence test, the Army Alpha, is used as the basis for placement in World War I. This test leads to an explosion of test and inventory development in the 1920s and a more measured approach to test construction thereafter. During the 1920s and 1930s, assessment devices became important tools for psychologists and counselors interested in helping people make career decisions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1933–1935</td>
<td>New Deal programs, such as the Civilian Conservation Corps and Works Progress Administration, create employment and educational opportunities for youth and adults.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1934</td>
<td>George Herbert Mead publishes Mind, Self, and Society.</td>
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<td>1939</td>
<td>The first edition of the Dictionary of Occupational Titles is published by the U.S. Department of Labor.</td>
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<td>1939</td>
<td>E. G. Williamson publishes How to Counsel Students, one of the early primers regarding career counseling.</td>
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<td>1952</td>
<td>NVGA begins publishing the Vocational Guidance Quarterly, currently published as the Career Development Quarterly.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1953</td>
<td>Donald Super publishes “A Theory of Vocational Development” in American Psychologist. His is the second developmental theory of career development, but it becomes the most influential.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>Ann Roe publishes The Psychology of Occupations, which contains her personality-based theory of career development.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>The National Defense Education Act provides money to train school counselors and to support school counseling programs. The primary purpose of this legislation is to facilitate the recruitment of scientists, engineers, and mathematicians to aid in the U.S. response to the Soviet launch of the satellite Sputnik.</td>
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Chapter 1 • Introduction to Career Development in the Global Economy and Its Role in Social Justice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>John Holland publishes “A Theory of Vocational Guidance” in the <em>Journal of Counseling Psychology</em>, which lays the groundwork for his influential theory of vocational choice.</td>
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<td>1963</td>
<td>The Vocational Education Act provides money for vocational guidance to vocational education students.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>The National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee is established to improve career choice making. SOICCS (State Occupational Information Coordinating Committee) is established at the same time.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>The NVGA establishes competencies for career counselors.</td>
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<td>1983</td>
<td>National Certified Career Counselor Certification is established by NVGA.</td>
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<td>1984</td>
<td>NVGA changes its name to National Career Development Association (NCDA) and changes the name of its journal to <em>Career Development Quarterly</em>.</td>
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<td>1984</td>
<td>The National Board for Certified Counselors assumes the management of the National Certified Career Counselor Certification program.</td>
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<td>1987</td>
<td>NCDA holds its first national convention in Orlando, FL, since becoming part of the American Personnel Association in 1951. Currently, NCDA holds annual conferences.</td>
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<td>1989</td>
<td>NCDA, in concert with the National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (NOICC) and the Vocational Education Research Center at Ohio State University, commissions the Gallup Organization to poll Americans to ascertain their use of career development services and information, their perceptions of the availability and quality of these services, and their perceptions of various aspects of the workplace, including discrimination. NCDA and NOICC commission similar polls in 1992, 1994, and 2000.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>The Americans with Disabilities Act is passed by Congress. The act ensures, among other things, equal access to job opportunities and training for people who have disabilities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>The School to Work Opportunities Act is passed by Congress. It provides impetus for public schools to develop challenging educational programs for all, to relate academic subject matter to work, and to help students identify their interests and make educational and career plans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>The U.S. Department of Labor launches an effort to develop an occupational classification scheme to replace the <em>Dictionary of Occupational Titles</em> (DOT). Technical reports detailing the development of the new system (O<em>NET) are published during the years 1995 to 1997, and the transition from the DOT to O</em>NET is completed by 2001.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>The National Board for Certified Counselors opts to decommission the National Certified Career Counselor program. NCDA establishes a committee to explore the means of maintaining this program.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>NCDA establishes the Master Career Counselor membership category as a means of credentialing career counselors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>NCDA celebrates its 100th anniversary in Boston.</td>
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</table>

Pioneers such as George Merrill, Jesse B. Davis, Anna Y. Reed, and Frank Parsons began a movement that still impacts the lives of millions in the twenty-first century. These social reformers gave the vocational guidance movement its direction. The development of psychometric instruments that could be used to promote self-exploration and as selection devices for business and industry during and after World War I introduced a scientific dimension to the movement and provided much-needed tools for practitioners. However, it was not until the Great Depression of the 1930s that systematic occupational information became available in the form of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (DOT). This publication served as the basis for much of the occupational literature until the development of the Occupational Information Network (O*NET), which was published late in the twentieth century. The transition from the DOT to O*NET was completed in 2001.

Another school of thought was emerging in sociology that was little noticed by psychologists and career counselors. Postmodernism would not manifest itself fully among career development specialists until late in the twentieth century. However, Charles Horton Cooley, William James, and George Herbert Mead were thinking and writing about an idea—symbolic interactionism (Holstein & Gubrium, 2000)—that would come to full flower as a postmodern approach to career development (see Savickas, 2013).

The decade of the 1970s was an eventful time for career development in public schools because of federal support of a concept known as *career education*, in which funding was provided for 500 career education programs in school districts throughout the United States. However, more than 9,000 school districts experimented with career education in different forms according to Kenneth Hoyt (2005), and remnants of these programs exist in various forms today. The 2003 American School Counselor Association (ASCA) model for comprehensive school counseling programs as amended in 2008 contains many of the same elements as the career development envisioned by Hoyt in 1977.

Serious efforts began in the mid-1960s to apply computer technology to career and educational planning and assessment and for the provision of educational and occupational information. Jo Ann Harris-Bowlsbey was instrumental in the planning that led to the development of the Computerized Vocational Information System (CVIS) in 1968. CVIS provided a method for storing information on about 400 occupations. It continued as a pilot program until 1972, when it was established as a demonstration project and widely adopted (Harris-Bowlsbey, 1990, 2013).

During this same period, Donald Super and Roger Myers of Columbia University were working with Frank Minor of IBM to develop the Educational and Career Exploration System (ECES). David Tiedeman, then of Harvard University, developed the Information System for Vocational Decisions (ISVD). These were ambitious projects that attempted to incorporate much of the career counseling process into their software programs. From a technological point of view, these programs, which reached the operational stage between 1969 and 1970, were ahead of their time because of their heavy use of computer time (Harris-Bowlsbey, 2013). Today, desktop computers handle programs such as DISCOVER and SIGI PLUS, which are direct descendants of ISVD and ECES.

Career development has a rich history and, if people such as Hoyt (2005) are correct, a bright future. However, the zeal with which the early leaders of the vocational guidance movement attacked the career-related problems of their time must be recaptured by twenty-first century practitioners. Why? The problems confronting practitioners today have many parallels with the issues faced by the founders of the career development movement. There is a tide of legal and illegal immigrants entering the United States who hope to find work that will meet their economic needs. Providing career development services to illegal immigrants and their children is a
unique challenge that has not been confronted previously because of the legal issues involved in the citizenship status of these people. However, as Storlie (2011) notes, the Supreme Court (Plyler v. Doe) has ruled that undocumented children and adolescents have a right to a K to 12 education, thus giving school counselors an opportunity to provide career services to those students. Reaching the citizens in the United States who have been economically marginalized because of oppression and discrimination provides an entirely different, but equally important, challenge. Later in the chapter, I will explore the call for a new approach to career development that will better serve our diverse client groups.

THE NEED FOR CAREER DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

It is not an exaggeration to say that the need for career development services is at its highest point since the Great Depression of the 1930s. In August 2013, the unemployment rate stood at 7.4 percent, which translates to 11.7 million unemployed people looking for work. An additional 11 million were underemployed, which is defined as working part time but wanting to work full time. Uncounted millions of others who want to work have been pushed into early retirement or into accepting Social Security Disability insurance instead of continuing work because of lack of opportunity in the labor force. Another category of workers—often referred to as discouraged workers, because they have given up searching for a job—numbered 850 thousand. When the number of unemployed is added to the discouraged workers, the number comes to 12.5 million people out of work (Bureau of Labor Statistics, Harrington, 2013). If the number of workers who are involuntarily employed part time is added to the unemployed group, it is not a stretch to suggest that nearly 23 million people are suffering from some form of job loss angst. Moreover, this number does not include the workers who are employed in positions that do not allow them to use the job-related knowledge and skills they have developed. No reliable data exists regarding the number that fall into this underemployed category, but the numbers would likely be in the millions.

THE LANGUAGE OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Like all educational and psychological practitioners, career development practitioners, whether they are counselors, psychologists, or placement specialists, have a specialized vocabulary that must be mastered by the neophyte. Some words in this specialized vocabulary have already been introduced: career, career development, and work. Although jargon relating to career choice and development is interspersed throughout this book, some additional specialized vocabulary related to career development is defined and discussed in this section.

It should be noted that universal agreement regarding some of the words used to describe various aspects of career choice and development has not been reached. For example, some counselors and psychologists (e.g., Holland, 1997) have retained the word vocation and use it synonymously with the words job and occupation. However, many career counselors and psychologists reject the term vocation, because it is associated with the idea that people are “called,” sometimes by God, to their occupations instead of being active participants in choosing them. This latter group has adopted the term career choice to denote the process of selecting a career, whereas other practitioners have retained the term vocational choice. Two of the leading publications of research dealing with career/vocational development are the Journal of Vocational Behavior and the Career Development Quarterly. Both journals publish material related to career choice and development, but their titles reflect the preferences of the groups that publish them.
As will be seen, the semantic argument about which terms are most meaningful and descriptive is not restricted to the terms *career* and *vocation*. Disagreements abound about which terms are most useful to describe various aspects of career development.

**Defining Position, Job, Occupation, Career, and Career Development**

Just as *work* and *job* are often used interchangeably, so are the terms *position*, *job*, *occupation*, and *career*. More than five decades ago, occupational sociologists, such as Shartle (1959), advanced useful definitions of these terms that have since been endorsed by the NCDA. Shartle defined *position* as a group of tasks performed by one individual; thus, as many positions exist as the number of individuals working. A *job*, according to Shartle, is a group of similar positions in a single business, and an *occupation* is a group of similar jobs in several businesses.

The definitions of *position*, *job*, and *occupation* are relatively straightforward and are widely accepted, but there is some controversy over the meaning of *career*, as shown by the following five relatively recent definitions of *career*:

- The totality of work one does in a lifetime (Sears, 1982).
- Career = work + leisure (McDaniels, 1989).
- A sequence of positions that one holds during a lifetime, of which occupation is only one (Hansen, 1997).
- The course of events that constitutes a life; the sequence of occupations and other life roles that combine to express one’s commitment to work in his or her total pattern of self-development (Super, 1976, p. 4).
- Careers are unique to each person and created by what one chooses or does not choose. They are dynamic and unfold throughout life. They include not only occupations but prevocational and post-vocational concerns as well as integration of work with other roles: family, community, and leisure (Herr & Cramer, 1996).

By examining these five definitions, we can immediately get a sense of the problem involved in defining *career*. The definitions by Super (1976) and Herr and Cramer (1996) are based on a holistic lifestyle concept of career and reflect their beliefs that all life roles are interrelated. Although few people would dispute the idea that life roles are interrelated, it is obvious that the definition of *career* advanced by these authors is not universally accepted. The definition offered by McDaniels (1989) is more circumscribed in that it limits *career* to two roles that he sees as inseparable. The one offered by Sears (1982), which is the definition I have adopted for this book, is based on the concept that a career is a series of paid or unpaid occupations or jobs that a person holds throughout his or her life.

I have also adopted Sears’s (1982) definition of *career development*: a lifelong process involving psychological, sociological, educational, economic, and physical factors as well as chance factors that interact to influence the career of an individual. However, I would add *culture* to Sears’s list of factors that influence career development. Leong (1991), Luzzo (1992), and Fitzgerald and Betz (1994) correctly note that the influence of cultural background has not been adequately considered in theories of career development, in research on the process of career development, or in career development practice. Research suggests that important factors exist among cultural groups in areas such as career decision-making attitudes and work values (Leong, 1991; Luzzo, 1992). Given the increasingly multicultural nature of our society, our conceptualizations of career development and our approaches to intervening in the process must take into consideration cultural background.
Chapter 1 • Introduction to Career Development in the Global Economy and Its Role in Social Justice

Career Interventions Defined

A career intervention is a deliberate act aimed at enhancing some aspect of a person’s career development, including influencing the career decision-making process (Spokane, 1991). Many types of career interventions are available, including career guidance, career development programs, career education, career counseling, career information, and career coaching.

The concept of career intervention is a general one that encompasses techniques ranging from career counseling to assessment. In the last decade, a concerted effort has been made by the American Psychological Association (APA), the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), the ASCA, the Association of Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES), and others to identify researched-based interventions, that is, those interventions that have been proved through rigorous research to make a difference in the lives of clients. In 2003, ACES and ASCA established a National Panel for Evidenced-Based School Counseling to establish a protocol for identifying research-based practices (Carey, Dimmit, Hatch, Lapan, & Whiston, 2008). NASP and APA have established similar committees, but thus far no concerted effort has been made to identify research-based career interventions, except in schools. However, one of the long-term trends in the field of career development seems likely to consist of attempts to use stringent scientific standards to identify the best practices.

Career guidance is a broad construct that, like career intervention, encompasses most of the other strategies listed previously and has been used traditionally as the rubric under which all career development interventions were placed. Often, authors speak of career guidance programs (e.g., Herr & Cramer, 1996), which are organized, systematic efforts designed to influence various aspects of the career development of a client group, such as high school or college students (Herr & Cramer, 1996; Spokane, 1991). Career guidance programs may contain some or all of the following: systematic attempts to dispense career information, activities to enhance self-awareness, career planning classes, career counseling, job placement, and so forth. The term career guidance programs is increasingly being replaced by the term career development programs, but it is still widely used, particularly in referring to the career development efforts of counselors working in public schools.

Career education, a term coined in the 1970s (e.g., Hoyt, 1977), is a systematic attempt to influence the career development of students and adults through various types of educational strategies, including providing occupational information, infusing career-related concepts into the academic curriculum, taking field trips to businesses and industries, having guest speakers who represent various occupations talk about their jobs, offering classes devoted to the study of careers, establishing career internships and apprenticeships, and setting up laboratories that simulate career experiences. Career education programs, like career development programs, are sometimes discussed synonymously with career guidance programs, although the scope of career education programs has typically exceeded the scope of career guidance programs. The term career education, like career guidance, is being rapidly replaced by the term career development programs because of the efforts of the American School Counselor Association (2003, 2008).

Career counseling, as traditionally defined, is a service provided to a single client or a group of clients who come seeking assistance with career choice or career adjustment problems. The process of career counseling involves establishing rapport, assessing the nature of the problem, goal setting, intervention, and termination. The outcomes of career counseling are expected to be some or all of the following: the selection of a career, increased certainty about a career choice that was made prior to the beginning of counseling, enhanced self-understanding, increased understanding of one or more occupations, strategies for making adjustments within the work
role, strategies for coordinating the work role with other life roles, and enhanced mental health (Brown & Brooks, 1991).

Savickas (2013, p. 168) lays out his definition of postmodern career counseling or, as he puts it, career construction. Career construction counseling begins by having clients describe the incidents that dislocated them from the current episode of their story, their adaptive resources and readiness, and their goals for a new episode they want to construct with the counselor. The expected outcome of career construction counseling is new identity development and using that new identity to write a new life script and construct a more satisfying life. In a later chapter, I will consider Savickas’s definition in more detail along with those of other postmodern career counselors.

One aspect of career counseling that is receiving increasing attention is the relationship between career and mental health issues. Many leaders in the field (e.g., Betz & Corning, 1993; Krumboltz, 1993) have argued that the two are inseparable, although they admit that, at times, they may occur as independent processes. Today, career counselors in many agencies are attempting to aid veterans who are returning from wars in the Middle East to become meaningfully employed and cope with mental health problems such as depression and post-traumatic stress syndrome (Stein-McCormick, Osborn, Hayden, & Van Hoose, 2013). Others, such as Super (1993), have argued that although career counseling and personal counseling are related they fall on a continuum, with career counseling focusing on the specific and personal counseling on the more general concerns of the individual. Still others (Brown, 1995; Brown & Brooks, 1991) suggest that although counselors may address both personal and career problems simultaneously, in some instances proceeding with career counseling is impossible, because the psychological state (e.g., depression) of the individual precludes some clients from engaging in goal setting and rational approaches to career decision making.

Career information is sometimes referred to as labor market information (LMI), particularly when it involves providing comprehensive information about job trends, the industries in this country, or comprehensive information systems. Career information comes in a variety of formats, including computerized systems, digital recordings, and postings on websites. However, career resource centers increasingly rely on information available on the Internet. For example, the U.S. Department of Labor now places all its major publications online, including the most used piece of occupational information, the Occupational Outlook Handbook; all occupational projections; and the O*NET (the Occupational Information Network). O*NET is the most up-to-date source of information available today and is the basis for all types of occupational information. Thousands of other sources of information are also available on the Internet.

Career coaching, as it has been traditionally defined, is a process used by managers to facilitate the career development of employees (Hall & Associates, 1986). Career coaching efforts help employees identify opportunities that exist within their work settings and prepare for and enter new positions. The motivation that underpins career coaching, according to Hall and his colleagues, develops as a result of company concern for the employee and the desire to help the business identify the talent it needs to be successful.

Recently, career coaching has taken on a meaning that is in many ways akin to career counseling. Bench (2003) suggests that career coaches help clients clarify their values, become aware of the choices available to them, set goals, and move toward meeting those goals. In addition, career coaches may help clients develop management skills, manage transitions, develop job search skills and conduct job searches, or simply become more effective in their current jobs. Bench (2003) envisions career coaching as a private practice enterprise, whereas Hall and his colleagues (1986) perceive career coaching more narrowly as a managerial function that occurs
within the confines of the business. In fact, both are correct. Internal career coaching is typically conducted by the employee’s supervisor and aims to help them function more effectively on the job and prepare to move up in the company. Managers may hire external coaches to assist an employee become more effective, and employees may also hire their own career coaches.

Case Study 1: Casey was a new hire in a large electricity generating business. She was outspoken and opinionated, too much so according her manager. He brought in a career coach to help “smooth” some of Casey’s rough edges. The coach not only met with Casey but also observed her in meetings and in her interactions with fellow workers. Using an approach that focused on emotional intelligence, the coach and Casey worked on listening, monitoring her anger, and changing her responses in terms of timing and tenor. Casey’s performance ratings went up as a result. The coach also helped Casey deal with her manager’s sarcasm. This entire case will be presented in Chapter 18 Career Development in Business.

ORGANIZATIONS AND PUBLICATIONS
As noted earlier in this chapter, the National Career Development Association, a division of the American Counseling Association, was founded in 1913 as the National Vocational Guidance Association. It publishes the Career Development Quarterly. Career counselors, school counselors, counseling psychologists, and other professionals who are interested in the career development process often affiliate with this division. Counseling psychologists, along with career counselors, have historically provided leadership for the career development movement. They typically belong to Division 17, Counseling Psychology, of the American Psychological Association. That division publishes the Journal of Counseling Psychology, which features a wide array of articles but typically has a section devoted to career development. The editorial board of the Journal of Vocational Behavior, a journal not affiliated with a professional organization, has traditionally been dominated by counseling psychologists. Another journal that focuses on career development and is not affiliated with a professional organization is the Journal of Career Development. Finally, the Association of Training and Development (ASTD) has a special interest group that focuses primarily on career development within business and industry.

Why Work Is Important—or Not
There are more than 330 million people in the United States. Work is not important to all of them, which is partially attested to by the size of the labor force; 132 million people. Estimates vary widely, but there is also a large, undocumented labor force that may be as large as 12 million workers. The focus of this book is largely on people, documented or undocumented, who are working or wish to work in a defined occupation, usually for some type of tangible reward.

Some people conclude that they do not want to work because there are no jobs in their community or because getting a job would require retraining. Others become discouraged because high unemployment makes it difficult to secure the type of job they desire; they stop looking. However, in August 2013 the Bureau of Labor Statistics (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013a, 2013c) reported that there were 3.9 million job openings in the United States, but, as is always the case, there was a mismatch between the characteristics and skills of job seekers and the skills and aptitudes required to perform the available jobs. As noted previously, many people who are out of work will not move to places such as North Dakota or Texas, two states that had many job openings in 2013. Today, there seem to be labor shortages in jobs that require high levels of technological knowledge and skill and thus require retraining for most people who are
out of work. There are also employment opportunities in the service area, many of which pay minimum wage and offer no benefits. People who are receiving unemployment benefits or who have accessed the benefits offered by the social welfare system may find these jobs unattractive and may decide to remain unemployed.

**WORK STRUCTURES YOUR LIFE.** How? The average work week for a full-time employee is between 35 and 40 hours. The amount of time it takes to commute to work, which should be added to total work time, varies. Thirteen million members, or 9.4 percent of the workforce, spend at least one day working from home, up from 9.2 percent in 2010 (Shah, 2013). Telecommuting reduces the time spent in work-related activities and the expense of commuting. Employers benefit via reduced cost of office space and equipment. People who are employed on New York's Wall Street or in downtown Los Angeles may, and often do, commute for more than two hours to get to and from work. Workers spend from 33 to 40 percent of their 24-hour work days working. The percentage of waking hours spent working and performing related activities may rise to 50 percent or probably more for long-distance commuters. It is not unusual for retired workers and workers who have lost their jobs to suffer because they have "time on their hands." One result is that they return to work.

**WORK PAYS THE BILLS.** Unless you are retired with a steady income, were born rich, or have won the lottery, you are always entertaining two questions: How much money do I need, and how much money do I want? Needs include food, shelter, transportation to work, health care, and opportunities for rest and regeneration. The question becomes a bit different for people who participate in many government assistance programs. People who retired at 62 and draw social security, ex-workers on social security disability, and people receiving food stamps and other forms of public assistance are told how much they can make and what the penalty is for going over the government-set earnings limit.

The federal government indicates that a family of four earning less than $23,050 is in poverty and presumably cannot meet its needs without assistance. In order to attain this income level, a full-time worker must earn more than 10 dollars per hour or work more than 40 hours per week. At a minimum, your job should meet your needs no matter where you live. If an individual or family cannot earn enough to pay for essentials, public assistance should be sought. Career counselors working with the unemployed, the underemployed, or the working poor may find themselves in the role of helping their clients seek public assistance.

Many people who seek assistance in career planning want to earn more, sometimes much more, than the amount required to meet their needs. Wants involve the same issues as needs, that is, food, housing, transportation, communication, leisure, and health care. In 2012, the income of the average family in the United States was about $43,000. The average family in Mississippi had the lowest income, $33,000, Connecticut the highest of the states, $59,000, and families in the District of Columbia had the highest overall average, $75,000 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). Often, the final choice of work involves a variety of compromises around geographic location, working conditions, security issues, and earnings, but sooner or later earnings becomes an issue.

**WORK, MONEY, AND DISCRIMINATION:** Technically, discrimination in the workplace occurs when two people of different genders, race, ethnicity, or sexual preference do the same job at the same level of competency and one is paid more than the other. Does discrimination occur? My daughter was employed in one of the major accounting firms. She learned that newly graduated
male MBAs were paid at a significantly greater level than she was after two years in the firm. What’s more, her training to do the job was demonstrably better than that of the new hires. She went directly to her boss and made her case. I’m sure her argument was persuasive, but the threat of a discrimination suit probably was as responsible for her $20,000 raise as was her argument.

It is practically impossible to systematically examine the earnings gap between men and women regardless of the business or industry study, and conclude anything other than men earn more than women, usually about 20 percent more (Adams, 2013). Later in this book, I will take a closer look at this disparity, but people like Carrie Lukas (2012), who writes for the Forbes online magazine, suggest that we need to examine the problem in greater depth than is typically done by organizations with a bias. Later, I will look at issues such as discrimination, tenure, education, child bearing, and other variables and findings that men spend a bit more time each day working (Lukas, 2012) than women. Biological issues that contribute to the pay gap will also be addressed.

**ETHNICITY, RACE, AND EARNINGS.** The U.S. Census Bureau (2012) reported that the median income for families of various ethnic groups were as follows: Asian American households, $65,469; white households, $51,861; Hispanic households, $38,039; and African American households, $32,584. It is worth noting that the number of people within the households was not controlled and thus may vary considerably.

Household income is the amount of money earned by wage earners older than 15 living in the household. Using household income to compare ethnic groups may be misleading, because 60 percent of black families are headed by one person and thus have one breadwinner. However, it is an undeniable fact that minority workers make less money than most other workers on average. Some of this disparity can be attributed to differences in educational achievement, but historical criticism is also a major factor that has led to the current situation.

**WORK PROVIDES STATUS AND SOCIAL OPPORTUNITIES.** The workplace is a major source of friendships. Work may also provide opportunities for leisure in the form of intramural teams, after-work stops at the neighborhood watering hole, and informal activities.

In 2011, Friedman and Martin published the results of a longitudinal study of 1,528 gifted students that began in the 1920s. They reported that a number of factors were related to longevity, including a life filled with hard work. Specifically, people who worked hard and advanced in their careers lived longer. What about those people who wish to shift their lifestyle and become more responsible, conscientious workers? Is it too late for them? No. The authors of the study also reported that people who shifted their attitude toward work and became hard-working, responsible workers also lived longer. However, the evidence supporting the relationship between hard work and longevity is equivocal. Cardiologists have long understood that stress, including work-related stress, is associated with various types of heart disease.

**HISTORICAL AND RELIGIOUS MEANINGS OF WORK.** Historically, work has held religious and theological meaning. In early Hebrew writings, work was viewed as punishment, perhaps because Adam and Eve were ejected from the idyllic Garden of Eden as described in the Bible and condemned to lives of work. Some early Christians were offended by work for profit, but this view was reversed by the Middle Ages. During the Reformation, which began in the sixteenth century, work was considered the best way to serve God. Martin Luther and John Calvin viewed work positively, and it seems that their attitudes about work combined with social Darwinism and laissez-faire liberalism, which values an economy unfettered by government regulation, individual freedom and responsibility, and the rule of law, came together to form the foundation
of what is now called the Judeo-Protestant work ethic (PWE) and the idea that working hard and diligently is important.

Peterson and Gonzalez (2005) argue that the PWE is not only outdated but also the root of many of the ills in our society. They suggest that the PWE is the basis for anti-Semitism and for blaming the poor and disenfranchised and suggesting that their plight exists because they do not exert enough effort to improve themselves. They suggest that this blame-the-victim approach is deliberately and politically motivated as a means to justify oppressions and abuse in the workplace. They also suggest that the PWE has limited multicultural applicability, is antiwomen, omits the debt that our culture has to our non-Judeo-Christian ancestors, and cannot be readily applied to the immigrant population. Arguably, the Confucianism work ethic (CWE) emphasis on education, self-discipline, and loyalty that can be found throughout Asian culture mirrors the concept of the PWE as it is thought of in this country.

Domurat and Zajenkowska (2012) do not disagree that the PWE and Confucian work ethic (CWE) have been used as the basis for oppression of the masses and women in particular. However, they argue and present evidence to support their case that the presence of CWE and PWE have fueled economic growth in the United States, Western Europe, and many Asian countries. With regard to the application of the PWE to immigrants, it seems likely that adult immigrants bring their work ethic with them and that it will be maintained by the cultural (perhaps subcultural) context in which they find themselves.

Is the PWE responsible for the ills identified by Peterson and Gonzalez? In one instance, they need to check their facts. They begin their discussion of anti-Semitism with Martin Luther (in the sixteenth century), when in fact anti-Semitism was widespread much earlier, probably as early as the first century, when Christians separated themselves from Judaism. My point is that anti-Semitism had nothing to do with the PWE. I agree that the PWE needs to be supplemented with perspectives from other cultures. However, to push their point about the evils of the PWE Peterson and Gonzalez contend that European Americans hold up Asians as model minorities, not to praise Asians but to support the belief that other minorities are underachieving and thus not working hard enough to achieve success. Democratic governments and the application of the PWE and CWE have produced economic growth unparalleled in the history of the world (Domurat & Zajenkowska, 2012). However, the exception to the democracy plus work ethic formula for success is China. After the Soviet Union failed, the leadership of China opened the way to entrepreneurship, which arguably freed the population to act on their CWE and in turn produced the fastest growing economy in the twenty-first century.

**USING OUR WEALTH.** I am not in favor of abandoning the PWE or the CWE. I am in favor of using the wealth produced in this country to assist the needy and widen the opportunity structure for the poor and disenfranchised. Better usage of wealth in other countries has typically come in the form of the adoption of socialist institutions such as single-payer health care systems in countries such as the United Kingdom and Canada, K to Graduate School tax payer–funded educational programs in France and Australia, and subsidized housing in the United Kingdom and to a lesser extent in the United States. Communism, which is the ultimate wealth-redistribution system of government, failed in Russia and China and limps along in Cuba. Modern China is in a sense a mixed model: strong central government plus an entrepreneurial economy.

Finally, Peterson and Gonzalez’s argument that the PWE is patriarchal and thus antifeminist is probably accurate, but that is changing. In 2013, 37 percent of the households in which there were two wage earners, women earned more than men (Wang, Parker & Taylor, 2013). However, their view that it currently sponsors an antiwomen ethic depends entirely on your
concept of the role of women in our society. Some radical feminists have decried the role of woman as mother and caregiver because it is a traditional role that can, in fact, be linked to the thousands of years old Judeo-Protestant ideas about the role of women in society. Many women have rejected feminism for this reason. Career counselors will undoubtedly deal with women caught between tradition and adopting the role of independent worker. These women need to be empowered to create their own life path. It is probably more accurate to indicate that the position of most religious groups in the United States on the role of women in our society is reflected by paraphrasing a popular bumper sticker: The role of women is in the house—and the Senate.

**SELF-ESTEEM.** A psychological by-product of work is the development of self-esteem. People feel a sense of mastery in dealing with objects of work, and their self-esteem is enhanced because they are engaging in activities that produce something that other people value. Unemployed people often suffer low self-esteem, because they believe they cannot produce something other people value (Goldsmith & Diette, 2012).

**CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN THE GLOBAL ECONOMY**

The dissolution of the Soviet Union occurred formally in December, 1991. The formation of the global economy began long before 1991, but the opening of a number of independent states that had made up the Soviet Union accelerated the process. In 2005, Friedman, a Pulitzer Prize-winning columnist for the *New York Times*, declared in his book about the global economy that the world is flat. His book was not an attempt to turn the clock back to pre-Columbian times, when it was widely believed that sailing ships that ventured too far out to sea would fall off the end of the flat earth to their destruction. Rather, it was Friedman’s attempt to explain how the economy, once made up largely of discrete local economies, had merged into a global economy. Earlier, Joseph Stiglitz (2003), a Nobel Prize winner in economics who acknowledged that globalization of the world’s economies was in full swing, defended the impact of the global economy against what he termed its discontents and laid out some of the problems with the economic changes that were occurring and are likely to continue to occur regardless of the barriers that politicians and others erect to protect local economies. The bottom line for both Stiglitz and Friedman is that the global economy is a reality, and, for better and sometimes for worse, it is here to stay.

Today, few scholars or knowledgeable lay people need proof of the existence of the global economy. The interconnectedness of the major economies of the world is a reality as is the economic recession that began in 2008 and continues to some degree at this time in the form of high unemployment, lower earning, and nearly a million discouraged workers (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013c). In January 2008, the unemployment rate in the United States stood at 4.9 percent. It grew to over 10 percent as banks failed, mortgages went unpaid, and credit card debt spiraled upward. It now stands at approximately 7.0 percent. Among the major worker groups, the unemployment rates were as follows: adult women (6.5 percent), African Americans (12.6 percent), adult men (7.0 percent), teenagers (23.7 percent), whites (6.6 percent), and Hispanics (9.4 percent).

As would be expected, the economic downturn in this country impacted other economies. However, as the U.S. economy has recovered the economies of other countries have also improved. In mid-2013, the unemployment rate in the European Union according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS; 2013d) stood at a collective 10.9 percent. Greece’s rate was nearly 27 percent. Other EU countries had substantially lower unemployment rates. Austria and Denmark fared the best with 4.6 percent and 6.8 percent, respectively. Russia’s economy, which is closely
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tied to the price of petroleum, had fared a bit better than the average EU country in that its unemployment rate stood at about 5.4 percent (Trading Economics, 2013a). Nevertheless, if the demand for and thus the price of oil continues to decline, it is expected that the unemployment rate in Russia might rise dramatically. Reports from China, which has the world’s most carefully managed economy and is the major exporter of goods to the United States, indicate that the urban unemployment in 2013 stood at 4.1 percent (Trading Economics, 2013b). The latest available data from Japan, another major U.S. trading partner, places its unemployment rate at 3.9 percent (Trading Economics, 2013a).

The global economy has given us new vocabulary and a new reality about the labor market. Words and phrases such as offshoring, workforce restructuring, outsourcing, insourcing, home sourcing, in-forming, and of course all of the words, phrases, and ideas associated with the Internet have been incorporated into our day-to-day conversations. Words such as offshoring and outsourcing in particular make it clear that jobs that once were protected by a country’s borders, and in some instances by protective tariffs, are now offered on a competitive basis to workers around the world.

Placing jobs and entire industries offshore—that is, in other countries—was initiated decades ago by business leaders in industries such as textiles, furniture, and steel. They saw this as a way to increase profits because of lower wages and fewer government regulations and environmental protection requirements in those countries. Labor cost differences have received the greatest attention and blame for offshoring and outsourcing, perhaps because data regarding the relative labor costs in the United States and other countries are readily available from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012). In 2011, the average comparative compensation (wages plus fringe benefits) costs for U.S. production workers was $35.53. Several countries had higher costs, including Germany, Australia, and many European countries. Spain, Portugal, Hungary, the Czech Republic, and Greece were the exceptions. Most Asian countries for which data were available had labor costs that were lower than the United States, some dramatically lower. The Philippines ($2.01), Taiwan ($9.53), Republic of Korea ($18.91), and Japan ($35.71) are examples (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). Data about wages in China and Russia may be harder to collect, and that is perhaps the reason they are not included in the Bureau of Labor statistical database. However, a 2005 report estimated that the average net monthly wages for Chinese manufacturing workers was $134 (World Salaries, 2005) but wages are rising in China (Trading Economics, 2013b). It is also worth noting that the average work week for the workers in China is six days long.

As mentioned earlier, the most frequently cited basis for outsourcing is the differential between U.S. wages and those in other countries. Wage differential is also one of the reasons for insourcing—the placement of jobs in the United States by businesses in other countries. Hyundai, Kia, Toyota, Honda, Mercedes Benz, Nissan, BMW, and other auto manufacturers now assemble many of their cars in the United States, primarily but not exclusively in “right-to-work” states, such as Indiana, North Carolina, South Carolina, Alabama, and Tennessee, that prohibit the establishment of “closed shops”—unionized labor forces that preclude workers from employment in a workplace unless they join the union. Another reason that foreign businesses place a part of their operation in the United States is the size of the U.S. market. Since World War II, the United States has been the world’s largest economy, and its citizens, relative to people in many other countries, generally have a great deal of money at their disposal once necessities such as food and housing are accounted for. Although it is assumed by many that the U.S. economy is losing the outsourcing–insourcing battle for jobs, accurate statistics are difficult to find. What can be assumed is that in the flattened world described by Friedman (2005) U.S. workers will
increasingly find themselves looking for jobs outside of this country, and they need to prepare for that eventuality.

WHAT FACTORS LED TO GLOBALIZATION?

Friedman (2005) identified a number of economic “flatteners,” including the aforementioned fall of the Soviet Union that opened up the economies of Eastern Europe. He also listed the Internet, which first came into commercial use in the United States in the 1990s. Friedman points out that almost as quickly as the Internet became a commercial force a digital divide developed between richer and poorer countries.

The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), the development of the European Union, and U.S. and Chinese trade agreements are all factors that are aimed at increasing economic productivity by easing the flow of goods and services among countries and reducing the cost of products sold at home. The emergence of NAFTA revealed that a new occupational classification system was needed in order to compare the economic relationships among the United States, Canada, and Mexico. The North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) was developed jointly by the U.S. Economic Classification Policy Committee (ECPC), Statistics Canada, and Mexico’s Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía. This system provides the three countries with a basis for collecting comparative economic data and thus monitoring the impact of NAFTA.

Student Learning Exercise 1.1

Fill in the blanks in the following statement:

1. Friedman (2005) seems to think that the primary “flatteners” of the world’s economy were (1) __________; (2) __________; and (3) __________. Brown (the author of this book) believes that Friedman may have overlooked a very important factor in his list, which is __________.

THE UNFLATTENED WORKER AND SOCIAL JUSTICE

There are literally dozens of definitions of social justice. In the simplest terms, it is the belief or philosophy that all persons, regardless of ethnic origin, gender, social status, race, or religion, are to be treated equally. It assumes that each of us has the personal responsibility to work with others to improve our institutions as tools to empower personal development, promote economic equality, and ensure social fairness. Has social justice been advanced by the global economy?

The fact is that many of us have been the beneficiaries of globalization because of the access to global markets that can produce goods and services at costs less than they can be produced in the United States. However, manufacturing workers in the United States cannot be counted as beneficiaries of the global economy for the most part. Further, Stiglitz (2003) suggests that the African, Asian, and South American poor cannot be listed among those who have been helped by globalization and suggests that globalization may have exacerbated their plight in some instances. It has certainly been the case that some of the developed countries have exploited workers in poorer countries and added to the pollution of the environment as well.

Friedman (2005) offers some additional ideas when he discusses why the flattening process has bypassed millions. In order for the workers in a country to be advantaged by the opportunities presented by the global economy, people need to have governments that provide an
infrastructure that includes education, health care, and a social network that helps them weather personal disasters, such as loss of jobs. Most of the countries in the world cannot boast of this type of infrastructure.

**Social Justice in the United States**

In his famous “I have a dream” speech, Martin Luther King Jr. envisioned the United States as a place that would be free from racism and discrimination and where there would be equal opportunity for all. Civil rights legislation has brought about many of the changes he envisioned, but certain aspects of the society he hoped would develop are missing, including economic equity.

However, improving education and eliminating the digital divide remain as major barriers to social justice. Nearly 30 percent of students leave school before graduation. Because many of these early leavers return to school, complete a diploma program at a community college, or pass an equivalency exam, the exact dropout rate is difficult to ascertain. We do know, based on the results of international educational assessment programs, that U.S. students do not stack up well when compared to students in other countries. The results of the 2009 assessment of 15-year-olds found that U.S. students placed fifteenth in math, thirteenth in science, and seventh in reading proficiency when compared to the students in 63 other countries (NCES, 2012). Traditionally, Hispanic and African American Students have fared worse than white and Asian American students on these measures. These results are by no means disastrous, but they are not high enough to sustain our leadership in an increasingly technological world.

Social justice cannot be fully realized unless people have meaningful jobs. Roberts, Povich, and Maher (2012–2013) repeatedly make the point that education and skills training are the keys to ending poverty for many individuals and families. Because many career development specialists work in educational institutions, they have a unique opportunity to influence the programs and policies in these institutions that help or hurt the poor. It is not enough to have legislation that precludes discrimination in the workplace when the opportunity to prepare for and enter those jobs is missing. However, wage differentials between men and women and white and minority workers illustrates clearly that economic equity is an unrealized dream, albeit for a multitude of reasons.

Macartney, Bishaw, and Fontenot (2013) reported the results of the 2007 to 2011 American Community Survey (ACS) for the Bureau of the Census. Among other things, this survey details poverty rates in the United States. Their report contains the following information: 42.7 million or 15.1 percent of Americans had incomes below the poverty level; the percentage of white people earning below the poverty line was 9.9; and the percentages for African Americans, people of Hispanic origin, Asian Americans, and American Indians and Alaska Natives were approximately 25, 22, 12, and 28, respectively. The report also revealed that half of the 23.1 million men and women with a disability were not employed in May 2012. In another report, Roberts, Povich, and Maher (2012–2013) illustrate that working alone will not cure poverty. They report that many working families, probably as many as 104 million families or 47.5 million people, may not have enough money to meet their needs for food, shelter, medical care, and other essentials.

**IS A NEW MODEL FOR CAREER DEVELOPMENT PRACTICE NEEDED?**

As a future practitioner, you must decide, what model will I practice? What techniques will I use? How can I be an effective tool in the lives of my clients? Some people are unhappy with the models used in the past that are rooted in the European philosophy of people like René Descartes,
Chapter 1 • Introduction to Career Development in the Global Economy and Its Role in Social Justice

who famously said, “I think, therefore I am.” His idea largely ignores the interaction between the person and his or her context. Postmodern counselors and psychologists would argue that Descartes was more accurately thinking about thinking that built on thinking and thus built a recursive loop. It is important to note that the importance of the mind as the source of existence is not solely a Western cultural idea. Buddha supposedly said, “The mind is everything. You will become what you think.” The topic of your personal model will be addressed more fully in Chapter 3, but your thinking about this matter should already have begun.

Blustein, McWhirter, and Perry (2005), Peterson and Gonzalez (2005), Savickas (2013), and many others have indicated a need for the redefinition and overall reconceptualization of the theory and practice of career development. Peterson and Gonzalez assert that the underlying traditional assumptions of career development are faulty; they suggest that linear logic, the concept of objective truth, and emphasis on the need for empirical proof for career development practices be replaced with recursive thinking, relativism, and the subjectivity of postmodernism. Recursion is a concept taken from a variety of sources, including philosophy, linguistics, mathematics, and psychology. It is a process by which the mind builds processes and structures that draw upon the latest thought. Recursive questioning is used to identify embedded themes and metaphors that the individual uses to describe him- or herself in the various aspects of his or her life. Traditionalists use the interview to gather factual information and may try to identify thoughts independent of context.

Blustein and colleagues (2005) concur with Peterson and Gonzalez; they agree that a new conceptual base is needed for career development, but, drawing on the work of Prilleltensky (1997), they come to a different conclusion regarding the new paradigm. Prilleltensky criticized the traditional approach as being a value-free model that embraces individualism and meritocracy, which is a self-contradictory statement. Individualism and belief in meritocracy are values. At the heart of Prilleltensky’s ideas is the belief that goal-oriented change is possible; that is, people can choose to better themselves and, as a result, do so. These concepts are not in conflict with the traditional model. The assertion has been that apologists for the traditional model have paid little attention to the factors that led to the oppression, discrimination, and marginalization of millions of people. Also, traditionalists have not addressed the inequitable distribution of power and money in U.S. society, according to their critics. It is probably accurate that historically the implementation of the traditional model of career development has focused on the individual in an apolitical fashion and largely ignored issues such as racism, sexism, and political and economic disenfranchisement. These vestiges of an outdated belief system need to be eliminated. Blustein and colleagues suggest that emphasis on meritocracy and free enterprise are misguided, because the race for social attainment starts at different places for the poor, some racial and ethnic groups, and people with disabilities. This accusation is both off base and unfair to the groups mentioned. Can the poor, members of racial and ethnic minorities, and people with disabilities perform meritoriously? Of course they can, but we must do more in a number of areas to make sure they have the opportunity to do so.

Empowerment is another alternative to the traditional approach. Prilleltensky (1997) identifies the empowerment model, as it is defined in feminist therapy, as the second candidate to underpin psychological practice, or, in our case, career development. This model is aimed at equalizing power and subscribes to a distributive philosophy that suggests that all people should have somewhat equal access to the benefits of society. Equalizing power may occur through a variety of processes, including individual action, lawsuits, political action, collective bargaining, economic boycotts, and wealth redistribution.

Wealth redistribution via taxation and government-run social programs is an often debated idea, sometimes contentiously. However, a close examination of wealth redistribution in the United States suggests that there are already redistribution efforts in place. Social security, Medicare, the
Affordable Healthcare Act, Medicaid, and food stamp programs are tax payer subsidized. The question is not should we share wealth, but how much should the “haves” be required to give to the less fortunate. Currently, top wage earners living in states such as Hawaii, California, and New York pay more than 50 percent of their earnings in federal and state income tax, whereas citizens in Texas, Florida, and five other states pay no state income taxes. According to Bleeker (2013), the tax rate in the United States, when compared to other countries, ranks 53rd for workers who earn $300,000, whereas Denmark, Italy, France, Greece, and Belgium rank in the top five. In general, Western European countries have more generous social welfare programs than the United States.

Like Peterson and Gonzalez (2005), Prilleltensky identifies postmodernism as a third alternative to underpin psychological practice. However, he dismisses it, apparently because of its relativism on the issue of values. Blustein et al. (2005) endorsed what is termed emancipatory communitarianism. This approach also espouses the belief that the focus of practice should be on both individuals and the systems in which they function, which is in line with postmodern thinking. Professionals who adopt emancipatory communitarianism endorse the values of social justice, value human diversity, subscribe to establishing mutual goals, engage in political action to correct inequities in the systems that impact students and workers, and orient themselves both to their clients and to nonclients who are discriminated against or marginalized by the educational and economic systems in the United States. Clearly, Prilleltensky and, by default, Blustein and his colleagues are espousing a concept of social justice that goes beyond legally ensuring human rights to one that advocates a fairer division of the wealth, resources, and power in U.S. society. The statistics quoted in previous sections regarding employment, wages, and poverty seem to support the assumption by Blustein and colleagues (2005) that suggests that the current historical models of career development have not provided a basis for addressing the social ills of many of our client groups. Most career development models, including the ubiquitous Holland (1997) theory, focus on providing one-to-one assistance to client groups. Not one of the extant models provides a basis for addressing the vocational and economic problems that have been identified thus far. Blustein and colleagues recommend that the values from emancipatory communitarianism (Prilleltensky, 1997) be incorporated into existing theory, which, as will be shown in Chapter 3, raises a number of conceptual issues. However, helping clients overcome the barriers to career choice and aiding in the implementation of those choices is a core belief of most career development practitioners.

Practice has almost always outstripped theory in the career development arena, and practitioners need not wait for theorists to provide models to move ahead. Career development practitioners can borrow from community psychology, organizational development theory, change theory and practice, and the emerging literature dealing with collaboration in the change process (Brown, Pryzwansky, & Schulte, 2011). In fact, additional theory building may not be needed at all if career development specialists broaden their horizons and adopt theory and practices from other fields. The skills needed by all career counselors include the traditional skills of individual and small-group career counseling; career coaching; career and educational planning and assessment; job placement; design and delivery of psychoeducational learning experiences; and design and implementation of transitional experiences for a wide array of clients, such as students requiring special education, adults with disabilities, veterans, and adults who have been displaced. The skills needed by career development practitioners who wish to address some of the social injustices in U.S. society include consultation, collaboration, systemic assessment, program design, leadership, and advocacy. In addition, career development practitioners must be fully knowledgeable about legislative initiatives, such as the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA), the Ticket to Work and Work Incentives Improvement Act of 1990, and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA).
Adopting a social justice agenda based on a collective social value is not without problems. Individualism is one of the core values of U.S. society (Brown, 2002), and it is difficult for many people in the United States to forgo the idea that honesty and individual effort are the prime ingredients for success in the workforce. Sociologists have long realized the relationship between parental status and occupational attainment (Hotchkiss & Borow, 1996). The status attainment model first articulated by Blau and Duncan (1967) and expanded by Sewell, Haller, and Portes (1969) suggests that family status and certain cognitive variables, such as intelligence and attitudes about education and occupations, is transmitted through the family, influencing educational attainment, the level of occupation attained, and, ultimately, earnings. Consider the following pairs of people:

• Two high school students, both of whom are white, are of equal intelligence. Student 1 comes from a family in which both parents completed college and have a combined income of $88,000; student 2’s parents graduated from high school and went directly to work. No other family members attended college. Student 2’s family income is at the median income level for white families, which is approximately $54,000.

• Two high school students are of equal intelligence. Student 1 is white and lives with his divorced mother. His father stopped paying child support several years ago, and his mother makes $10.00 per hour in the local textile plant, which is expected to close within the next six months. Student 2 is also white, but both of her parents have stable jobs assembling computers for a leading computer manufacturer. Their combined earnings exceed $30 per hour.

• An African American student and a white student both attend the same college. The African American student attended a substandard high school, whereas the white student attended a well-regarded public school in the suburbs. The African American student obtained a generous scholarship but will still have to work 15 hours per week to support himself, whereas the white student’s parents are underwriting the entire expense for their son’s college education. Both students want to attend law school after completing their Bachelor of Arts degrees.

• Two African American high school students with excellent grades want to go to medical school. Because of their financial situations, both students will attend in-state, public universities. Both are admitted to Prestigious University (PU), but because her father was discriminated against when he attended PU student 1 elects to attend a decidedly inferior university.

Although the emphasis of this book will be on the importance of getting a job, hopefully the information presented earlier that highlighted the plight of the working poor dispelled the myth that escaping from poverty is as easy as getting a job. Jobs may be full-time or part-time and minimum wage or something higher. It is entirely possible to have a job or perhaps more than one full-time job and be among the working poor, depending on the number of family members, the cost of housing, and a variety of other factors (Roberts, Povich, & Maher, 2012–2013). People are classified as working poor if they spend at least 27 weeks working per year and are living below the poverty level.

THE FUTURE OF WORK

Projections about work, particularly those set forth by the BLS in its publication titled Occupational Outlook Quarterly and Handbook, will be addressed in detail in the final chapter of this book. Futurists such as Toffler (1980), Johnston and Parker (1987), and Naisbit and Aburdene (1990) have correctly predicted many of the changes that have occurred in the labor force,
although they have often failed to gauge the magnitude of the recent shifts due to globalization. Most futurists anticipated the importance of the computer in the workplace. For example, as noted earlier predictions about the decentralization of the workplace were on target. Many major airlines, such as Delta, have outsourced many of their reservation agent jobs to other countries, but electronically communicating about x-rays with radiologists in other countries, going abroad for medical treatment, and offshoring software development to places such as Ireland and India evaded the projections of all but the most astute career futurists. The displacement of clerical workers in all industries by “smart” software that “learns” to interpret the voices of a user and type the messages was missed by many futurists.

In this same vein, most futurists who studied the workplace expected that technology would decrease employment opportunities in some areas and would increase opportunities in others. Not surprisingly, given the use of computers in all phases of education, health care, business, and elsewhere, the demand for people who can create software that educates, monitors, and entertains is at an all-time high. Systems analysts who can design computer systems that increase efficiency and productivity are also in demand. Construction companies need specialists who can install fiber-optic cable to connect computers and telephones; technological equipment repairers are in demand; and knowledgeable salespeople who can explain the potential of various types of technological innovations are needed.

The rapid impact of the Internet on the dissemination of information and as a social networking and sales tool has surprised all but the savviest prognosticators. Webmasters, the people who design and maintain websites on the Internet, are in demand. Salespeople with specialized skills needed to market products on the Internet are also in demand, along with people who can create software and hardware that take advantage of the Internet’s potential. Finally, all experts agree that technology will continue to change the face of the workplace throughout the twenty-first century by eliminating and creating jobs, by changing the physical nature of the workplace, and by creating new tools for workers to use.

The shifts in the population makeup of this country will also have a significant impact on the workplace. Currently, approximately 3.5 in 10 workers in the United States are nonwhite. At some point during the first half of the twenty-first century, nonwhites will make up a majority of workers. This may be why the U.S. Department of Labor noted in the Secretary’s Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS Skills, 1991) that one of the skills needed by future workers is the ability to function in a multicultural workplace. Although the trend in the past has been toward earlier retirement, changes in Social Security that increase the age at which payments may be received and improved health care may reverse this trend, with the result that older workers will work longer. Regardless of the impact of Social Security and longevity, it is likely that the average age of workers will increase in the short term because of the sheer number of workers in the cohort who are now in their 50s and 60s, known as "baby boomers."

Because one’s occupation generally determines where and how one lives, the community activities and organizations in which one participates, and many other aspects of life, social status has long been associated with one’s job. It is difficult to predict whether this relationship will become more or less intense. If, as some writers predict, technological change results in a small group of highly trained technical experts and a great mass of low-skilled workers who work infrequently at uninteresting and unrewarding positions, then it is likely that social status will become detached from occupation and shift to some other basis. However, if technological change produces a general upgrading of most workers and provides most people with an opportunity to participate in activities that not only appear to be worthwhile but also are challenging and satisfying, then social status may become even more closely related to one’s job.
Although the discussion about the sources and extent of global warming continue to rage, the search for alternatives to fossil fuel is in full swing and will have a tremendous impact on the nature of the workplace. Hydrogen-powered automobiles, wind-driven turbines that generate electricity, and solar-powered energy cells are but a few of the ideas that have companies and governments engaging in a competitive frenzy for leadership. Change is in the offing, but work is here to stay for most people.

THE GOALS OF THIS BOOK

Career development interventions are erroneously considered to be less interesting and certainly less potent than the work associated with personal counseling or psychotherapy. This line of reasoning also projects the idea that career interventions are in some ways simpler to understand and easier to apply than other approaches. One of the goals of this book is to demonstrate that these beliefs do not reflect reality. Psychotherapy puts people back on the road of life. Career development interventions advance them down that road toward self-fulfillment, dignity, social equity, and self-esteem. Modern career development interventions are no longer based on simplistic “test ’em and tell ’em” models, although assessment plays a key role in many career interventions. Career development interventions at one time could be classified as aligned solely with modern philosophy, but today many practitioners have embraced postmodern philosophy and interventions.

The major purpose of this book is to provide a foundation for practitioners who are interested in facilitating the career development process of children, adolescents, and adults and all that this entails. In many instances, fostering career development involves providing experiences that increase self-awareness, the influence of the context in which one functions, and knowledge of occupations. However, to be successful in finding and succeeding in a career, much more than knowledge of self and careers is required. Successful workers are motivated decision makers and are sensitive to individual differences that other workers bring to the workplace. They have highly honed the job-finding process and bring skills to the workplace that can add to productivity. Successful workers are also aware of the relationships among education, training, and job success; they engage in lifelong learning. Practitioners who hope to assist clients to take advantage of the opportunities presented to them by the occupational structure also need a wide variety of skills and knowledge, including understanding the theoretical foundations that underpin career development practice and the skills needed to select and use assessment devices with a wide variety of groups. They also need culturally sensitive career counseling, advocacy, and consultation skills and the ability to locate and use educational and career information. Each of these areas and others are addressed in this book.

Summary

Career development professionals face tremendous challenges as well as the opportunity to assist millions of students and workers in the twenty-first century. The biggest challenges lie in the area of helping disenfranchised and marginalized workers to gain meaningful employment in the modern workplace and to get a fair share of the economic benefits available in the economy. Just as it did at the turn of the twentieth century, the effort to help these workers today often must begin with the educational process. However, all workers must begin to see themselves as members of a global workforce and understand how their occupations may be enriched or endangered by competition from workers throughout the world.
Chapter Quiz

T  F  1. Economists believe that the progress toward the establishment of a global economy is for the most part irreversible.

T  F  2. One of the major factors in the “flattening” of the earth according to Friedman was the failure of the economy of the former Soviet Union.

T  F  3. There is widespread agreement regarding the meaning of career.

T  F  4. Blustein suggests that we replace current models of career development in favor of one that emphasizes social justice.

T  F  5. African Americans account for just over 50 percent of the working poor in this country.

T  F  6. It seems likely that the number of discouraged workers who have stopped hunting for a job plus the underemployed is larger than the number of unemployed.

T  F  7. The saying, “When the United States sneezes, the rest of the world catches a cold” refers to the fact that an economic downturn in the United States produces higher rates of unemployment with our trading partners than it does at home.

T  F  8. In 2009, it was entirely possible that the need for career development services was at its highest level since the Great Depression.

T  F  9. Job, occupation, and career are synonymous terms.

T  F  10. The concerns of the pioneers of vocational development were focused primarily on immigrants and young people.

References


Chapter 1 • Introduction to Career Development in the Global Economy and Its Role in Social Justice


This chapter is in many ways the most important chapter in this book. Ethical practice is the cornerstone of any profession and is essential if the public is to accept an individual practitioner or a professional group. Career development practice, career counseling, assessment, and information dissemination all are areas in which ethical dilemmas lurk. The major aim of this chapter is not to endorse one particular code of ethics; it is to endorse ethical principles found in most ethical codes. Not unexpectedly, the principles on which codes of ethics are based are for the most part universal. To be sure, there are nuances in the various codes of ethics because of a unique role or technique used by the professional group. Where these nuances are related to career development practice, they will be highlighted. The approach here will be to synthesize the principles of several codes of ethics, including, but not limited to, the ethical statements adopted by the American Counseling Association (2005), the National Career Development Association (2007), the American Psychological Association (2010), and the American School Counselor Association (2010). By using broad strokes to look at ethics, I hope to avoid embroiling students in the mind-numbing details that characterize all codes of ethics. The details are important, but at this juncture a thorough knowledge of ethical principles should suffice to alert would-be practitioners to areas in which the details become important and their particular code of ethics must be consulted.

Chief among the requirements of ethical practice is the importance of standards of competency. No one would knowingly hire a surgeon or an architect without first ascertaining their competence. Professional associations develop competency statements that are often embedded
in program-accrediting standards to make certain that people who enter their professional fields are competent. In addition, graduates of professional programs are often required to take rigorous examinations prior to being licensed to practice and to engage in in-service education to maintain their credentials. This two-tiered approach to verifying that individuals are competent has served professions well, but history and current practice tell us that the two-tiered approach is not a foolproof way of ensuring competency.

Unfortunately, the standards for career development practitioners in many states are woefully weak, and the public is not rigorously protected from incompetency. This is partially true because standards for career development practice have only recently been developed and incorporated into training guidelines. The licensing of counselors in all 50 states was not complete until 2009, and the licensing of specialist career counselors is in its infancy. However, there is an exception of sorts. The licensure of psychologists, some of whom offer career counseling, has been in place for more than a quarter of century, although these licensing laws generally do not pertain to subspecialists, such as vocational psychologists. Rather, these laws depend on psychologists adhering to the code of ethics issued by the American Psychological Association (2010), which admonishes them to practice within the limits of their competence. Those who fail to heed this warning can have their licenses revoked, as can counselors and others who are licensed by state licensing boards for professional counselors.

**ETHICAL PRINCIPLES**

Ethical codes for career counselors have been developed by the National Career Development Association (2007), the American School Counselor Association (2010), the American Counseling Association (2005), the National Board for Certified Counselors (2012), the Commission on Rehabilitation Counselor Certification (2010), and a few other subspecialties. Although counselors who belong to several organizations and hold state-level licenses or certifications may be professionally obligated to adhere to several codes of ethics, the principles of all of the codes are the same. In some respects, psychologists (APA, 2010) and social workers (NASW 2008) have done a better job of unifying their ethical codes and thus their professions. The purpose of this chapter is not to compare and contrast ethical codes. That would take a book, not a brief chapter. Instead, this chapter identifies principles of ethical standards that are embedded in all codes of ethics. If practitioners learn and follow these principles, then ethical practice will result.

Career development services such as career counseling, assessment, job placement, and career coaching are offered by a variety of practitioners, including school counselors, college counselors, career counselors, mental health counselors, rehabilitation counselors, and counseling psychologists. Some people who offer these services, such as those who do career coaching or job placement, may not be counselors or psychologists and thus may not necessarily be obligated to follow a code of ethics. Practitioners in private practice, as opposed to those who work in public institutions, typically are licensed by the states in which they practice and must follow the code of ethics adopted by their licensing boards. However, no career development practitioners should be so foolish as to ignore the ethical principles of their professional group. To do so is to place themselves at risk. Malpractice lawyers thrive when practitioners fail to follow the ethical canons of their professions and damage to clients, real or imagined, occurs.

All practitioners should not only follow the extant codes of ethics of their professions but also maintain awareness of changes that are almost always in the works. The following are four examples of interim statements that deal with technology and assessment that were issued between 1993 and 2004 and have now been largely incorporated into codes of ethics. These
interim standards dealt with two topics: technology and cultural sensitivity. Recently, the National Board for Certified Counselors (n.d.) issued an updated statement, The Practice of Internet Counseling, that attempts both to define the practice in this area and set standards for practitioners. Novotney (2011), writing in the APA Monitor, makes a powerful argument for the use of video conferencing and the telephone to deliver services to a broad range of clients. Synchronous and asynchronous chat is also being used to provide services to clients. Because of the pervasiveness of communication that uses various forms of technology, it seems likely that ethical standards will continue to evolve in this area, and therefore more interim statements can be expected. Some ethical standards include:

- Ethical Standards for Internet Online Counseling (American Counseling Association, 1997)
- Multicultural Assessment Standards (Prediger, 1993)

Providing culturally sensitive career counseling and assessment services has been a long-standing concern of counselors, psychologists, and social workers. Prediger’s (1993) statement is a reflection of this concern. In 2005, ACA revised their code of ethics with one major aim in mind: to make all of the standards in the code culturally sensitive. Kaplan (2006a, p. 2) quoted one member (Courtland Lee) of the committee charged with the revision as follows: “That (cultural sensitivity) was a primary charge of the Ethical Revision Task Force—to look at the revision with an eye on making the code more culturally sensitive.” The National Association of Social Workers (2008) and the American Psychological Association (2010) have made similar changes.

The remainder of this chapter focuses on the general principles of ethical practice as identified by VanHoose (1986), Koocher and Keith-Speigel (1998), Srebalus and Brown (2003), and others. The section numbers appearing with each principle refer to the ACA Code of Ethics (American Counseling Association, 2005).

**Principle 1: Above All, Do No Harm (Sections A.4.a and C.6.e)**

The do-no-harm principle puzzles most students until they consider that the misapplication of their knowledge and skills can, in fact, harm their clients. The career counselor who encourages high school or college students to make their own decisions may harm the relationships of those clients with their parents if their clients follow up on the counselor’s expectations. Furthermore, clients may perceive that they are being rejected by the counselor because of their cultural values and, thus, their self-esteem may be lowered. The career counselor who fails to adhere to multicultural guidelines in the use of tests and inventories or misapplies them with people who are disabled is likely to generate faulty information that may harm clients’ prospects in the labor market. Clients may feel alienated by a counselor who maintains eye contact that is not in accordance with the norms in their own cultures. Doing no harm requires competence in the use of counseling techniques, coaching strategies, and assessment devices. It also requires counselors to provide up-to-date, accurate information about educational and occupational options. Furthermore, doing no harm requires that counselors develop knowledge of the cultural backgrounds and worldviews of their clients and an understanding of the cultural conflicts that may occur between the client’s culture and the dominant culture.

Doing no harm has been stressed in another way in the 2005 ACA ethical code. Counselors are admonished to use only those techniques that grow out of well-established theorizing and/or research support, preferably the latter (Kaplan, 2006a). This standard does not preclude career
counselors from using other techniques, but if they do they must tell the client that the technique is developing and that it is thus far unproven.

**Principle 2: Be Competent (Sections C.2.a, b, c, d, and f)**

The last sentence in the foregoing section speaks to cultural competence, something that will be stressed throughout this book. The competencies needed by counselors who engage in career counseling, coaching, assessment, and other aspects of career development practice are listed later in this chapter. It is worth noting that few, if any, practitioners master all of the competencies listed in the National Career Development Association (NCDA) statement of career counseling competencies. Therefore, career development practitioners must know the limitations of their skills, knowledge, and abilities.

The acquisition of the knowledge and skills needed to be a competent practitioner is typically gained through formal coursework and under the supervision of professionals qualified to teach the needed skills. This is why licensing laws and certification standards typically require the completion of formal coursework from accredited preparation programs. However, the content of formal course offerings may, and often does, lag behind the developments in a field as dynamic as career development practice. For example, the technological innovations that have occurred with increasing rapidity in career development practice have forced counselors who wish to take advantage of these developments to engage in self-study, attend accredited workshops, and consult with other professionals. These educational approaches to competency development are acceptable as long as practitioners remember the importance of attending to the client’s welfare by limiting their practice until skill development is completed.

Professionals are responsible for maintaining their competence through continuing education (ACA, 2005, sec. C.2.f) and monitoring their own competence. In the event that a counselor becomes impaired and no longer able to practice effectively, the counselor is obligated to terminate the practice (ACA, 2005, section C.2.g). Being competent also involves sensitivity to multicultural issues (ACA, 2005, section A.2.c and section A Introduction) and the application of that knowledge to areas such as assessment and evaluation (ACA, 2005, section E.8).

**Principle 3: Respect Clients’ Rights to Choose Their Own Directions (Section A.4.b)**

Respecting one’s clients is the cornerstone of ethical practice. Respect in an ethical context means respecting clients’ cultures, right to nondiscriminatory practice, approach to making decisions, and individualism. Clients have the right to choose their own paths.

I typically limit personal anecdotes to the introduction, but one experience that occurred during my training and a much more recent incident are worth illustrating here to show how the principle of a client’s right to choose his or her own direction can be violated. The first incident involved a demonstration of the interpretation of the Strong Interest Inventory. The interpretation went well until the counselor asked the high school student to summarize what he had learned from the inventory and its interpretation. When the student hesitated, the counselor said, “I think this means mechanical engineering at Purdue University for you.” Many career counselors forget that they are influential, and careless statements made without qualifications can have disastrous consequences. In another incident, a college counselor admitted that she had encouraged her Asian American student to leave his parents out of the decision-making process because of her lack of knowledge regarding her client’s culture. She asked what she could do to make amends. I suggested that she apologize to the student and admit her ignorance. I also
recommended that she become familiar with the cultural values and worldviews of all of the clients she advises.

In summary, clients have the right to choose to have others make their decisions. They also have the right to choose for themselves. How their right to choose a direction is implemented depends on a number of factors, but abridging it by declarative statements about what is “best” is unethical. Not understanding the worldview of clients is an egregious ethical error.

**Principle 4: Honor Your Responsibilities (Section C)**

Counselors and psychologists are responsible for maintaining their physical and psychological well-being so that they can adequately serve their clients. Professionals who deliver career development services also have responsibilities to their clients, professions, employers, and communities, including the laws of those communities. The problem is how these responsibilities will be prioritized. Most codes of ethics contain a statement such as the one found in the ACA code, which states that the counselor’s primary responsibility is “to respect the dignity and to promote the welfare of clients” (American Counseling Association, 2005, section C).

What if there is a conflict between promoting the welfare of the client and the existing federal and community laws? The code of ethics of the American Psychological Association (2010) explicitly suggests that there may be times when the client’s needs should be placed ahead of the laws of the community. The ACA Code of Ethics (2005) is less explicit about this matter. Consider the following ethical dilemma: Maria tells her counselor that her father has a fraudulent work permit and is in this country illegally. All codes of ethics require that disclosure between client and practitioner be held in confidence unless the client or the public is in jeopardy; therefore, keeping Maria’s disclosure poses no immediate ethical dilemma. However, what if a client discloses the fact that she or he has a counterfeit green card and is using it to secure employment on a military base? This actually occurred at Camp Lejeune, North Carolina. This places the professional in an ethical bind because of national security issues for which there is no easy answer. However, given the potential consequences for the career counselor and the men and women in the military the counselor elected to call the personnel office of the military base and report the person with the bogus green card.

Codes of ethics are meant to serve as decision-making guides, but in some instances the path to take in the decision-making process is not altogether clear. Codes of ethics provide guidelines, not road maps. The career counselor’s values and judgments fill in the gaps.

**Principle 5: Make Accurate Public Statements (Section C.3)**

Career counselors in private practice typically engage in various types of advertising to publicize their businesses. Ethical behavior requires that these advertising statements accurately reflect the practitioner’s credentials and the limits of his or her practice. For example, counselors who earned doctorates in communication and master’s degrees in counseling may not use the communications degrees in their advertisements, because this may mislead clients into believing that they are consulting a person with a doctorate in counseling (American Counseling Association, 2005). Only degrees that relate to preparation for providing career development services may be used in advertisements.

Private practitioners are not the only career counselors who make public statements. Career counselors’ opinions about a number of things, ranging from job hunting to jobs of the future, are often solicited by members of the media. Counselors may also be asked about the use of certain instruments in the career counseling process and aspects of career development practice.
as well. Statements made in interviews and press conferences should be based on factual infor-
mation, and facts should be clearly delineated from opinion.

**Principle 6: Respect Counselors and Practitioners from Other Professions (Section D)**

As was stated at the outset of this chapter, career development professionals come from many
subspecialties in counseling professions and other professions as well, including psychology and
social work. Turf wars among these groups have occurred and continue to do so at this time.
Two incidents may serve as useful examples. Psychologists in Indiana and elsewhere lobbied for
legislation that would preclude counselors from using psychological tests and inventories in their
practices on the grounds that only psychologists were sufficiently trained to use them. Until
2009, practitioners from other professions successfully lobbied against a licensing law for coun-
selors in California. These battles have caused animosity among some groups, but such feelings
should not preclude career development professionals from respecting the credentials and skills
of other professionals. Offering career development services is not the domain of a single group.

One question in particular arises in discussions of respect for other professions: What
should be the stance of career development specialists with regard to groups such as career
coaches, who may not be licensed or hold other recognized credentials and thus may operate
without oversight? One obligation of established professionals is to protect the public from
unscrupulous practitioners within their own ranks. Does that obligation extend to protecting
the public from unscrupulous practitioners from outside their professions? The answer is a qualified
yes. The qualification has to do with how the public is protected. Educating nonprofessionals
about the qualifications needed to provide career development services is a legitimate means of
protecting the public, as is lobbying for the extension of credentialing legislation that regulates
the practice of individuals who provide career development services. Attacking an individual is
perilous from a legal point of view unless there is clear-cut evidence that she or he is harming the
public. Even then, a defamation suit may be lodged by the person who is being criticized.

**Principle 7: Advocate for Clients in Need (Section A.6.a)**

In 2005, the ACA included advocacy in its code of ethics. Until that time, only the code of ethics
for rehabilitation counselors (Commission on Rehabilitation Counselor Certification, 2010)
required practitioners to advocate for their clients. It expected that other professional organiza-
tions would follow suit. For example, the ASCA National Model for School Counseling Pro-
grams (American School Counselor Association, 2003) places considerable importance on
advocacy, as do the implications of the multicultural counseling standards (Arrendondo et al.,
1996). It seems likely, therefore, that an advocacy standard will soon find its way into most of the
codes of ethics for counselors, although the likelihood of this occurring for psychologists is less
clear. The position here is that, with or without an ethical standard, it is a moral imperative that
career development counselors take up some of the social and economic dilemmas of their cli-
ents through advocacy for them.

Advocacy is a process in which the career development professional assumes some or all of
the responsibility for representing a client or group to another group, government agency, com-

munity agency, or business for the purpose of improving the client’s access to resources, services,
or jobs. To be effective, the effort must be data based, organized, and sustained. It often requires
collaboration with other like-minded individuals or groups. The ultimate aim of advocacy is the
empowerment of the group or individual being represented in a manner that will allow them to
represent their own interests in the future. It is necessary, therefore, to include the disenfran-
chised group or individual in each step of the process (Brown & Trusty, 2005; Fiedler, 2000). The
advocacy process outlined by Fiedler involves five steps: (1) define the problem, (2) collect infor-
mation, (3) plan action, (4) take assertive action, and (5) evaluate and follow up. Of these steps,
one is more important than step 3, planning action. At this point, the desired outcomes of the
action are identified, the positions of the targets of the advocacy are outlined, and the strategies
needed to overcome their opposition are delineated in detail.

Advocacy requires some degree of risk taking, which may be the reason that professional
groups have avoided taking positive positions about its use on behalf of clients. However, it
seems unlikely that groups such as legal and illegal immigrants as well as individuals who are
disabled and those who live below the poverty level will overcome the obstacles that confront
them in the labor market unless professionals in the field become their allies outside the office.

CASE STUDY
What Should the Counselor Do with a Request from the FBI?

Several months ago, a college counselor spent several sessions with a first-year student who was
concerned that he was not ready for college. The counselor received a request from the FBI,
which was conducting an investigation of the former client. He had dropped out of college,
joined the Marine Corps, and applied to play in the Marine Band. Because the band plays for the
president, background checks are conducted on all potential band members. The FBI agent
requested that the counselor turn over all records, including test results, and submit to an inter-
view about his ex-client. See suggestion at the end of the chapter.

LEGAL ISSUES AND CAREER COUNSELING

We live in a litigious society in which the threat of lawsuits has prompted most professionals to
purchase liability insurance. Legal standards for career counselors and other professional are the
result of laws such as the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA), which was passed
in 1974 and ensured that parents have access to their children’s records until they reach the age
of 18, at which time the right to access the records passes to the student. This legal standard but-
tressed the ethical canon demanding that career counselors respect the right of their clients to
confidentiality. However, FERPA focuses only on records, not on the verbal communication that
occurs in the counseling context.

Privileged communication laws contained in some state licensing statutes and as free-stand-
ing legislation provide additional protection against disclosure of sensitive information. Privileged
communication is a guarantee by a legal body, typically a state legislature, to clients that informa-
tion given to practitioners will be held in confidence. Disclosure of the information by the practi-
tioner is punishable by fines, short jail terms, or both. In addition, career counselors can be sued for
failure to protect sensitive records, test results, electronic communications, and verbal reports.

Liability suits, perhaps the most feared of all legal actions, may be lodged successfully
against career counselors who practice outside their area of expertise (malpractice), fail to make
appropriate and timely referrals, or abandon their clients. Counselors become liable when there
is a breach of the duty that they have toward clients and harm or damage results. The 2005 ACA
The code of ethics is quite clear with regard to all of these issues, which suggest that following a personal code of ethics is perhaps the best protection against lawsuits.

Liability suits may also result when career counselors fail to select tests and inventories judiciously, misinterpret test results, or use counseling techniques that are not considered to be among the best practices by the profession. In addition, counselors who do not carefully craft recommendations for jobs and educational programs may find themselves face-to-face with a trial lawyer—a costly proposition, because the defense in even an unsuccessful lawsuit can amount to more than 50,000 dollars.

In summary, career counselors can avoid legal entanglements by being aware of legal statutes that impinge on the counseling relationship and by following the guidelines set forth in them, following the ethical canons set forth in their codes of ethics, familiarizing themselves with the guidelines established by their profession for the selection, use, and interpretation of tests and materials, and carefully safeguarding the confidentiality of all information that results from the counseling process.

**Student Learning Exercise 2.1**

1. Check to see if the state in which you are studying has a privileged communication law.
2. Call the chairperson of the state counseling association, psychological association, or licensing board and ask about charges of unethical behavior that have been presented to the association or board. What is required to file a charge of unethical behavior?
3. Go to the Yellow Pages of your telephone directory or to a search engine on the Internet and find what appear to be the most highly qualified practitioners offering career development services. What are the credentials they list in their advertisements?

**THE COMPETENCIES NEEDED BY CAREER COUNSELORS**

The Association for Assessment in Counseling and Education (AACE, 2010, 2013) and the National Career Development Association collaborated to develop a statement regarding the assessment and evaluation competencies needed by career development professionals. These can be found online at http://ncda.org/aws/NCDA/asset_manager/get_file/18143/aace-ncda_assmt_eval_competencies. A year earlier, the NCDA (2009) adopted a statement titled Minimum Competencies for Multicultural Career Counseling and Development. These two statements provide a comprehensive set of guidelines for the development and practice of skills.

Professional counselors typically hold a master’s degree or higher, but they may not have acquired the knowledge and skills needed to provide career-related services. The NCDA and AACE career counseling competency statement can serve as a guide for career counseling training programs or as a checklist for persons wanting to acquire or to enhance their skills in career counseling. The competencies in the list that follows are an amalgamation of two NCDA (1997, 2009) statements about the competencies needed by career counselors as well as the AACE (2010, 2013) statement of needed assessment and evaluation competencies.

**NCDA Competencies**

NCDA, sometimes in association with other organizations, has been in the forefront of developing standards for the competencies needed by career counselors. The following section addresses the most recent statement of competencies by NCDA.
Chapter 2 • Ethical and Legal Guidelines and Competencies Needed for Career Development Practice

CAREER DEVELOPMENT THEORY. Professionals engaging in career counseling and development should demonstrate a knowledge of:

1. The strengths and limitations theories and techniques associated with those theories
2. Role relationships as they relate to life–work planning
3. Information, techniques, and models related to career planning and placement
4. How their theory of choice can be applied to individuals of different genders, clients who have different sexual orientations, different races and ethnic groups, and to people who have different physical and mental capacities

INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP COUNSELING SKILLS. Individual and group counseling competencies considered essential for effective face-to-face career counseling and web-based services include:

1. Awareness of her/his own cultural beliefs as well as those of potential clients and how these might impact the counseling relationship
2. Establish and maintain productive individual relationships as well as group climate
3. Collaborate with clients in identifying personal goals
4. Identify and select techniques appropriate to client or group goals and client needs, psychological states, and developmental tasks
5. Identify and understand clients’ personal characteristics as they relate to careers
6. Identify and understand social contextual conditions affecting clients’ careers
7. Identify and understand familial, subcultural, and cultural structures and functions as they relate to clients’ careers
8. Identify and understand clients’ career decision-making processes
9. Identify and understand clients’ attitudes toward work and workers
10. Identify and understand clients’ biases toward work and workers based on gender, race, and cultural stereotypes
11. Challenge and encourage clients to take action to prepare for and initiate role transitions by:
   • Locating sources of relevant information and experience
   • Obtaining and interpreting information and experiences and acquiring skills needed to make role transitions
12. Assist clients to acquire a set of employability and job-search skills
13. Support and challenge clients to examine life–work roles, including the balance of work, leisure, family, and community in their careers
14. Design and apply evaluation models to individual and group work and use the data produced by these efforts to improve practice

INDIVIDUAL/GROUP ASSESSMENT. Individual/group assessment skills considered essential for professionals engaging in career counseling include the ability to

1. Evaluate and select valid and reliable instruments appropriate to the client’s gender, sexual orientation, race, ethnicity, and physical and mental capacities
2. Assess personal characteristics, such as aptitude, achievement, interests, values, and personality traits, using both qualitative and quantitative assessment strategies
3. Assess leisure interests, learning style, life roles, self-concept, career maturity, vocational identity, career indecision, work environment preference (e.g., work satisfaction), and other related lifestyle/development issues
4. Assess conditions of the work environment (such as tasks, expectations, norms, and qualities of the physical and social settings)
5. Use computer-delivered assessment measures effectively and appropriately
6. Interpret data from assessment instruments and present the results to clients and to others
7. Assist the client and others designated by the client to interpret data from assessment instruments
8. Write an accurate report of assessment results

INFORMATION/RESOURCES. Information/resource base and knowledge essential for professionals engaging in career counseling includes demonstrating a knowledge of:

1. Education, training, and employment trends, labor market information, and resources that provide information about job tasks, functions, salaries, requirements, and future outlooks related to broad occupational fields and individual occupations
2. Resources and skills that clients use in life–work planning and management
3. Community/professional resources available to assist clients in career planning, including job search
4. Changing roles of women and men and the implications that this has for education, family, and leisure
5. Methods of use of computer-based career information delivery systems (CIDS) and computer-assisted career guidance systems (CACGS) to assist with career planning

PROGRAM MANAGEMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION. Knowledge and skills that are necessary to develop, plan, implement, and manage comprehensive career development programs in a variety of settings include:

1. Designs that can be used in the organization of career development programs
2. Organizational needs assessment and evaluation techniques and practices
3. Organizational theories, including diagnosis, behavior, planning, organizational communication, and management useful in implementing and administering career development programs
4. Methods of forecasting, budgeting, planning, costing, policy analysis, resource allocation, and quality control
5. Leadership theories and approaches to evaluation and feedback, organizational change, decision making, and conflict resolution
6. Professional standards and criteria for career development programs
7. Societal trends and state and federal legislation that influence the development and implementation of career development programs; career counselors should also demonstrate the ability to:
   - Implement individual and group programs in career development for specified populations
   - Plan, organize, and manage a comprehensive career resource center
   - Implement career development programs in collaboration with others
   - Identify and evaluate staff competencies
   - Mount a marketing and public relations campaign on behalf of career development activities and services

COACHING, CONSULTATION, AND PERFORMANCE IMPROVEMENT. Knowledge and skills considered essential for enabling individuals and organizations to effectively impact the career counseling and development process include the ability to:

1. Use consultation theories, strategies, and models to enhance performance
2. Establish and maintain a productive consultative relationship with people who can influence a client’s or group of clients’ careers
3. Mentor employees
4. Design program evaluation strategies and use the information yielded by program evaluation to improve the program

DIVERSE POPULATIONS. Knowledge and skills considered essential from providing career counseling and development processes to diverse populations include the ability to:

1. Find appropriate methods or resources to communicate with individuals with limited proficiency in English
2. Identify alternative approaches to meet career planning needs for individuals of diverse populations
3. Identify community resources and establish linkages to assist clients with specific needs
4. Assist other staff members, professionals, and community members in understanding the unique needs/characteristics of diverse populations with regard to career exploration, employment expectations, and economic/social issues
5. Advocate for the career development and employment of diverse populations
6. Design and deliver career development programs and materials to hard-to-reach populations

SUPERVISION. Knowledge and skills considered essential for critically evaluating counselor performance, maintaining and improving professional skills, and seeking assistance for others when needed in career counseling (typically covered in a separate course) include the ability to:

1. Recognize own limitations as a career counselor and seek supervision or refer clients when appropriate
2. Use culturally and gender-sensitive supervision on a regular basis to maintain and improve counselor skills
3. Consult with supervisors and colleagues regarding client and counseling problems and issues related to one’s own professional development as a career counselor
4. Understand supervision models and theories

ETHICAL/LEGAL ISSUES. Information base and knowledge considered essential for the ethical and legal practice of career counseling includes a knowledge of:

1. Culturally sensitive ethical standards relevant to career counseling
2. Current ethical and legal issues that affect the practice of career counseling with all populations
3. Current ethical/legal issues with regard to the use of computer-assisted career guidance systems
4. Ethical standards relating to consultation issues
5. State and federal statutes relating to client confidentiality

TECHNOLOGY. Knowledge and skills considered essential for using technology to assist individuals with career planning include a knowledge of:

1. Various computer-based guidance and information systems as well as services available on the Internet
2. Standards by which such systems and services are evaluated
3. Ways in which to use computer-based systems and Internet services to assist individuals with career planning that are consistent with ethical standards

4. Characteristics of clients that make them profit more or less from the use of technology-driven systems

5. Methods to evaluate and select a system to meet local needs

CREDENTIALING CAREER DEVELOPMENT PRACTITIONERS

In 1981, the National Career Development Association (NCDA) established a certification program for career counselors as a means of recognizing individuals who meet minimum training, knowledge, and skill requirements to practice career counseling. Certification as a National Certified Career Counselor (NCCC) was administered by the National Board of Certified Counselors (NBCC) until 2000, when the credentialing program was terminated. In response to NBCC’s decision, NCDA established two special membership categories in 2001 to credential career development specialists. These categories are Master Career Counselor (MCC) and Master Career Development Professional (MCDP). To qualify for MCC certification, counselors must meet the following standards (National Career Development Association, 2013):

- Be a member of the NCDA for two years
- Hold a master’s degree in counseling or a closely related field from an accredited institution
- Complete three years of post-master’s experience in career counseling
- Possess and maintain either the National Certified Counselor credential offered by the NBCC or a state-level license as a counselor or psychologist
- Complete at least three credits in each of six NCDA competencies listed in the foregoing section of this chapter (counselor competencies)
- Complete a supervised practicum in career counseling during training or two years of supervised post-master’s experience under a certified supervisor or a licensed counseling professional
- Document that at least 50 percent of current job duties are directly related to career counseling

To qualify for membership as an MCDP, professionals must meet the following criteria:

- Be a member of NCDA for two years
- Hold a master’s degree in counseling or a closely related field from an accredited institution
- Complete three years of post-master’s experience in career development experience, training, teaching, program development, or materials development
- Document that at least 50 percent of current full-time job duties are directly related to career development

Clearly, the MCC and MCDP were developed to recognize two types of professionals: one who is actively engaged in career counseling and another who is engaged primarily in career development activities. However, the MCDP could ethically engage in career counseling. Another, and perhaps even more far-reaching, development is the credentialing of paraprofessionals in the United States and beyond. The Career Development Facilitators program began at Oakland University in Michigan in the mid-1990s as a means of training specialists to facilitate career development groups, to serve as career coaches, to mentor people engaged in the job search, to coordinate career resource centers, to provide occupational information, and to provide a variety of other career development services. The program is currently overseen by NCDA.
and the Center for Credentialing in Education. CDFs undergo training to help them provide career development services in their own countries. Currently, there are CDF programs operating in 14 countries, including the United States. The training program for CDFs aims to develop the following knowledge and skills: basic helping skills, understanding of labor market information, assessment skills, meeting the needs of special populations, ethical and legal competencies, understanding of career development models, understanding of employability skills, training clients and peers, program management and implementation, public relations, and technology and consultation skills. It is worth noting that career counseling is not included in the list of services that Career Development Facilitators can provide. To qualify for this credential, applicants must meet the following requirements:

- Complete 120 hours of training in a specified course of study
- Possess one of the following: a graduate degree plus one year of career development work experience; a bachelor’s degree plus two years of career development work experience; two years of college plus three years of career development work experience; or a high school diploma or GED plus approximately four years of career development work experience

The CDF has now evolved into a credential called the Global Career Development Facilitator (GCDF; Center for Credentialing and Education, 2010). Initially, this credential was developed in response to interest in Japan, but GCDF credentials are now available in fourteen countries, including Bulgaria, Canada, China, Turkey, Germany, South Korea, Greece, Japan, Romania, China, New Zealand, Macedonia, and the United States (Center for Credentialing and Education, 2010).

Summary

Career development professionals follow a variety of ethical codes depending on their professional identities and credentialing. However, with the exception of advocacy, these codes of ethics have similar principles. In this chapter, six principles that are embedded in most professional codes of ethics have been identified and discussed. A seventh principle, advocating for one’s clients, has been added to this list because it seems that many of our clients’ goals will be unrealized unless professionals assert themselves on their behalf.

THE CAREER COUNSELOR AND THE FBI

The career counselor who is asked for information during a background check should ask to see a permission-to-disclose release from the former client. Because this is not a criminal investigation, non-compliance in the absence of a signed permission form is not a criminal offense.

Chapter Quiz

T  F  1. Career counseling is one of the services that Global Career Development Facilitators may provide if an MCC is unavailable.

T  F  2. The ethical canon, do no harm, refers to the ethical guideline to maintain confidentiality because of the embarrassment that may result when information falls into the wrong hands.

T  F  3. Privileged communication is a legal term that, when embedded in a law, protects clients from the disclosure of information by their counselors.
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T F 4. In order for a client to sue a career counselor, the client must first prove that he or she has suffered some type of loss.

T F 5. People who qualify as Master Career Development Facilitators may ethically provide career counseling.

T F 6. The National Board for Certified Counselors created the first certification program for career counselors.

T F 7. After a number of years of wrangling, career counselors from a number of professional groups have agreed on a single code of ethics.

T F 8. The NCDA has identified 11 competencies that must be acquired prior to certification as an MCC.

T F 9. The APA code of ethics indicates that psychologists should base their practice on research; the ACA code does not contain the same suggestion.

T F 10. Except for rehabilitation counselors, codes of ethics for career counseling practitioners have had no ethical guidelines pertaining to advocacy until quite recently.

References


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