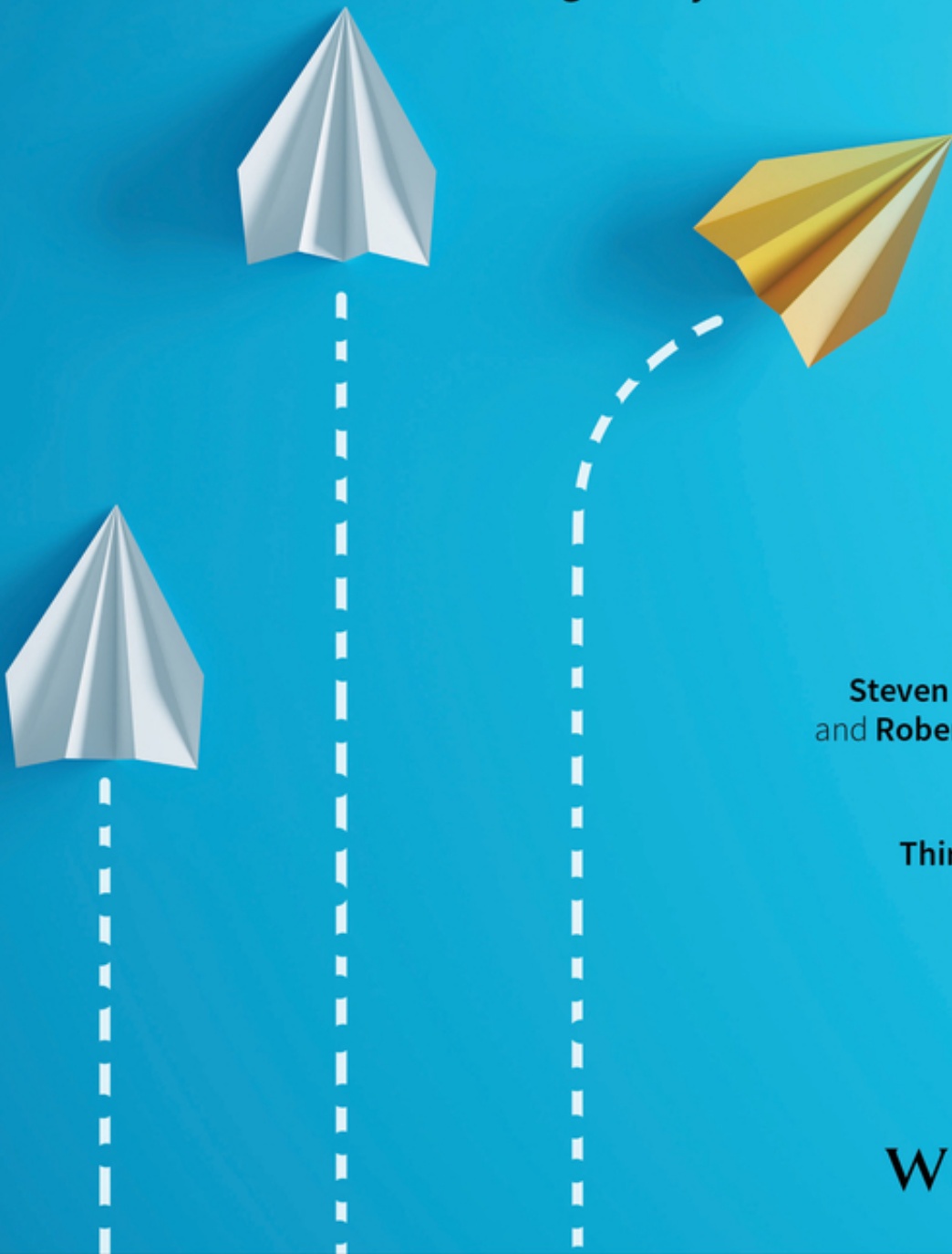


# CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND COUNSELING

Putting Theory and Research to Work



Edited by  
**Steven D. Brown**  
and **Robert W. Lent**

**Third Edition**

**WILEY**



# Career Development and Counseling



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*For Zack, Katie, and Jeremy*





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# Preface

**T**his edition of *Career Development and Counseling: Putting Theory and Research to Work*, like the first and second editions, has as its primary goal the promotion of scientifically informed career practice. It is, therefore, intended to be helpful to a wide audience of students, practitioners, and researchers who are interested in basing their work on the best that our science has to offer—theory and inquiry emanating directly from vocational psychology, career development, and related disciplines that can inform career practice.

This edition of the text maintains continuity with the first two editions in several ways. First, the opening chapter sets the table for the book by describing the terrain of career development, discussing the importance of contemporary career counseling, and offering a brief history of career science and practice. This chapter is intended to encourage students to see the unique role of work in people's lives, its interface with other life domains (e.g., family, education, leisure), and the value of assisting people to surmount hurdles to their occupational functioning. It is also intended to dispel myths and biases that sometimes surface regarding career counseling and to encourage a view of career development and counseling as vital, relevant areas of scholarship and practice.

Second, Section I is devoted to major theories and emerging perspectives on career development, choice, and adjustment that (a) have either received direct empirical attention or are derived from other, well-studied theories, and (b) have clear implications for practice. While the theories and perspectives we included have received varying amounts of research support, all have the potential to generate new empirical knowledge as well as practical applications. As in the previous editions, our goal was not to provide encyclopedic coverage of all available approaches, but rather to focus selectively on those that appear to be empirically viable and useful in practice.

Third, we have retained separate sections devoted to diversity and sociocultural factors (Section II), the assessment of central career constructs and occupational information systems (Section III), and interventions for working with career issues across the life span (Section IV)—topics that are

mainstays of vocational psychology and career development. Fourth, we asked authors to be scientific and interdisciplinary in their coverage—to highlight assessment devices, information tools, and interventions that have garnered some scientific support and that have clear implications for practice—and to incorporate literatures from other fields of inquiry (e.g., industrial/organizational psychology, personality psychology) that can inform career research and practice. Finally, we continued the tradition started in the second edition of highlighting practice implications of the material presented in each chapter. Thus, each chapter concludes with a set of take-home messages for practitioners.

The major changes in the book include the elimination of three chapters that appeared in the second edition to make room for four new chapters, each reflecting recent developments in the field: “Psychology of Working Theory” (Chapter 7); “Emerging Perspectives: Calling, Meaning, and Volition” (Chapter 8); “Career Development of Older Workers and Retirees” (Chapter 14); and “Unemployment and Underemployment: Prevention and Counseling Implications” (Chapter 24). Topics from the three eliminated chapters (i.e., on adult career transitions, personality, and relational issues) were included, where relevant, in other chapters throughout the current edition.

We have many people to thank for their help throughout this process. First, we thank all of the students who have taken our courses and who continue to shape our thinking about how to teach career development and counseling in ways that are scientifically informed and useful to practitioners. Second, we are grateful to have had a gifted group of contributing authors whose chapters taught us a great deal and who were exceptionally open to editorial dialogue. Third, we appreciate the valuable input on chapter content we have received from many colleagues over the years, especially Ellen Lent and Mark Savickas. Elaine Perri provided invaluable assistance on the design and layout of the cover for this edition. Finally, as always, we thank our families for their support and inspiration. We could not have completed this edition of *Career Development and Counseling: Putting Theory and Research to Work* without them.

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March 1, 2020

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## CHAPTER 1

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# Career Development and Counseling: An Introduction

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It does not seem to be true that work necessarily needs to be unpleasant. It may always have to be hard, or at least harder than doing nothing at all. But there is ample evidence that work can be enjoyable, and that indeed, it is often the most enjoyable part of life.

Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1990, *Flow: The Psychology of Optimal Experience*)

Hard work never killed anybody, but why take a chance?

*Charlie McCarthy* (as voiced by the ventriloquist, Edgar Bergen)

**W**hy do people work? What role does it play in our lives? Why should counselors and psychologists focus on work behavior? What do they have to offer people who are in the process of preparing to enter the world of work, adjusting to the workplace, experiencing problems or challenges in their work lives, or preparing to leave the work role? How does involvement in paid work relate to other life roles, such as family member, caregiver, or volunteer? When might it conflict with, and when might it harmonize with, involvement in other life domains? Is counseling for work issues any different than counseling for personal, social, or other issues?

These are all questions that captivate and challenge those who study the psychology of work behavior or who assist students, workers, and retirees in the process of preparing for, entering, surviving or thriving within, or disengaging from the work world. Not surprisingly, such questions form

the foundation for this book, which is aimed at introducing students (and reacquainting professionals) in the helping professions with the literature on career development and counseling. This literature includes foundational and evolving theories of work and career behavior, research on a host of work-related topics, and efforts to translate theory and research into interventions for promoting optimally satisfying and successful work lives.

This chapter is designed to set the stage for the rest of the book by briefly considering the role of work in people's lives, sketching the conceptual and professional boundaries of career development and counseling, discussing some of the myths and realities that surround the field, and describing its historical context and contemporary challenges. Our primary goal is to convince the reader that work is one of the most important domains of life that counselors and psychologists can study—and that it is also one of the most meaningful targets of intervention in our roles as counselors, therapists, educators, and advocates. Freud was said to have equated mental health with the capacity to love and to work. Although these capacities may not be sufficient by themselves to define mental health, it is clear that work has a central location in many people's lives—one that frequently intersects with other life roles, is an integral part of one's life story, and can have an immense impact on one's overall quality of life.

### WHY DO PEOPLE WORK?

It seems fitting to begin by pondering the reasons why people work and the various roles that work can play in their lives. At first glance, the question of why people work may hardly seem worth asking. People work because they have to, don't they? They need the money that work provides to put food on the table and a roof over their heads. True, work is certainly a means of survival. But this does not tell the whole story. As the old saying goes, people do not live by bread alone.

#### WORKING TO LIVE OR LIVING TO WORK? THE DIFFERING ROLES OF WORK IN PEOPLE'S LIVES

In this section, we briefly consider the *why* of work behavior, or the various sources of work motivation (also see Blustein & Duffy, Chapter 7, this volume).

*Work as need fulfillment.* One way to view the question of why people work is through the lens of Abraham Maslow's (1943) famous hierarchy, where human needs range from those that focus on basic survival (e.g., the need for

food) all the way to self-actualization (e.g., the need to realize one's inner potential). Maslow's hierarchy is often pictured as a pyramid, with more basic needs (e.g., food, safety, security) at the bottom. In this view, the satisfaction of basic needs provides a foundation for meeting higher-order social and psychological needs, such as friendship, intimacy, self-esteem, and personal growth.

One of the problems in applying such a needs hierarchy to work motivation is that it may be used to imply that some reasons to work are somehow nobler or loftier than others or that poor people work only because they *have to* (i.e., to survive), while those who are wealthier work because they *want to* (i.e., to satisfy higher-order needs). To avoid such a bind, one can simply view Maslow's needs as reflecting a range of work motivators, without imposing the added assumptions that they are ordered in importance or merely reflect social class differences. Thus, in addition to meeting basic survival needs, work can provide the context for fulfilling (at least a portion of) one's needs for security (e.g., enhancing the material comfort of one's family), social belonging and intimacy, personal esteem (e.g., providing a sense of personal worth and accomplishment), purpose, and self-actualization. People may be motivated to work for any combination of these reasons; they are not mutually exclusive or necessarily hierarchical, except to the extent that basic survival is obviously a prerequisite for fulfilling other needs. Swanson and Schneider (Chapter 2, this volume) and Rounds and Leuty (Chapter 16, this volume) provide a more complete consideration of work needs and values, including the roles they play in career choice and work adjustment.

*Work as an individual's public identity.* Moving beyond Maslow's hierarchy and the issue of need fulfillment per se, work may also serve other personally and culturally important roles in people's lives. For example, tied to the esteem and self-actualization bases of work is the issue of identity, which can have both public and private significance. Perhaps particularly in individualistic or Western societies, work can be seen as an expression of one's public image. Note how often people in the United States ask each other, "What do you do?" (i.e., what form of *work* do you do?) when meeting a new acquaintance. One's occupation can be a shorthand way of announcing one's social address (e.g., education, social class, prestige). Fair or not, what one does for a living is often viewed as an essential part of who one is as a person.

*Work as personal identity or self-construction.* Work as identity can also be an expression of self-image, a means through which people "implement a self-concept," in the view of Donald Super (see Hartung, Chapter 4, this volume). This may be most obvious in artistic forms of work. For example,

we typically think of artists as expressing themselves through their creations or performances. But self-expression or, more broadly, using work to become the sort of person one imagines—to construct a self—can be a potent source of motivation for many persons and in virtually any form of work. Taking Super's thoughts about work motivation a step further, Edward Bordin, another influential career scholar, emphasized people's capacity to seek work that they find intrinsically interesting or from which they can derive pleasure. To illustrate his point, Bordin (1994, p. 54) asked, "Is a professional athlete working or playing?"

Such views of work motivation are sometimes criticized with the argument that many people are not free to choose work that expresses anything more than the need for a paycheck, or that not everyone is lucky enough to be able to do work that is pleasurable. One may ask whether those who work for a minimum wage, in unskilled jobs, in fast food restaurants, on assembly lines, or in coal mines, have the luxury of "playing" at, or implementing their self-concepts through, work? There is little question that lack of economic resources can limit one's choice of work or that jobs may differ in their obvious outlets for self-expression. At the same time, it is not hard to think of less-affluent persons who find meaning, dignity, and enjoyment in their work. Thus, it seems unfair to equate the prestige or external trappings of a job with its personal significance to the individual without exploring his or her own perspective on their work and what they derive from doing it.

The notions of work as an opportunity to construct and tell one's life story (Savickas, Chapter 6, this volume), or to respond to a "calling" beyond oneself (e.g., a way to help others or to serve a higher power; Dik, Steger, & Autin, Chapter 8, this volume), capture the sense that work can play extremely valuable, self-defining roles in people's lives, regardless of social class and even when performed under difficult or harsh conditions. It is possible to view someone else's life story as mundane, boring, or marked only by exploitation. However, that same story may be far more intriguing and meaningful to the person who is living it.

*Work as normative expectation, group identity, and social contribution.* Particularly in collectivist cultures, work may be seen as an expression of group as well as personal identity. For example, choice of work may be made less on a personal basis and more in collaboration with members of one's family, tribe, or community. Consideration may be given to the needs of the collective, to selecting work that serves (and reflects positively on) the group, and that preserves relational harmony. Such functions of work may be seen as extensions of Maslow's (1943) focus on security, social esteem,

and actualization needs—but with the focus on benefits for the group rather than for the individual alone.

Of course, prevailing social norms in most societies maintain that one *must* work if one is able to do so. It is a strong expectation conveyed by social agents in the family, school, and other social institutions. This norm is well-captured in the early rock n roll hit, *Get a Job*, in which the singer comically bemoans the social pressure to find work. Indeed, those who fail to find work are often derided with labels such as bum, shirker, lazy, good-for-nothing, or couch potato—especially if their failure to find work is attributed to their character or to a lack of effort. And such social derision is often accompanied by internalized anxiety, frustration, and anger. Allan and Kim (Chapter 24, this volume) describe the adverse financial, emotional, and relational consequences experienced by unemployed or underemployed persons.

*Work as existential response and aid to mental health.* From an existential point of view, work may be seen as a way to structure one's time and to construct personal meaning in an otherwise meaningless universe. Kierkegaard, the famous philosopher, spoke of work as a means by which people find distraction from their self-consciousness, especially from thoughts of their own mortality. Such a view of work may help explain why some people become so heavily invested in their work, sometimes to the point of work addiction, and why many become depressed when the loss of the work role, either through involuntary layoff or retirement, erodes their sense of life structure or meaning. Several societal problems, like crime, also stem partly from, or can be exacerbated by, lack of access to suitable work. The old adage, "an idle mind is the devil's workshop," captures the value of work as a way to structure time, maintain mental health, and promote prosocial behavior. The concept of psychological "flow" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) demonstrates how pleasurable it can be to become so absorbed in an activity that one temporarily loses one's sense of self and becomes oblivious to the passage of time.

In sum, people work for a variety of reasons, especially, to earn a living, honor and contribute to their families and communities, achieve self-growth, pursue their sense of a higher purpose or meaning in life, establish a public identity, advance a personal narrative, and structure their lives. Many of the ideas we have presented on why people work or what they derive from working align with either of two venerable philosophical positions. In the *hedonic* view, people are motivated to survive and to experience as much personal pleasure (and to avoid as much pain) as possible. This position subsumes Maslow's survival, security, and esteem (and, perhaps, love and belongingness) needs. In the *eudaimonic* view, people are motivated to

“live the good life,” not merely the happy life. Doing good is elevated above feeling good; work confers opportunities to achieve personal growth, purpose, meaning, and social contribution. The eudaimonic position subsumes Maslow’s focus on esthetic and cognitive needs (e.g., knowledge, goodness, justice) and self-actualization (or developing one’s inner potential). Again, these sources of motivation may be seen as complementary (rather than as mutually exclusive) contributors to work behavior.

#### WORK VIS-À-VIS OTHER LIFE DOMAINS AND ROLES

Paid work is but one of life’s domains, though it is the focal point of many people’s waking lives—if not in terms of psychological investment, then at least in terms of hours spent. Assuming an 8-hour workday, many full-time workers spend at least one third of most weekdays at work—as much or more time as they spend sleeping or engaged in just about any other single activity. And this estimate does not include the many additional hours or days that some people put into their work, above and beyond the traditional work week. If work accounts for a third of a typical weekday and sleep accounts for another third, that means all other activities (e.g., leisure, parenting, volunteering) are compressed into the remaining third, or are put off until the weekend—assuming that one is not doing paid work then, too. Many people also think about their work when they are not at work. It is no wonder, then, that work can be seen as having the potential to conflict with or overshadow other life roles, like that of family member. Yet research suggests that work and other life roles also have the potential to enrich one another (see Schultheiss, Chapter 9, this volume).

Super (Hartung, Chapter 4, this volume) was perhaps the first vocational theorist to view career development in the context of other life domains or roles, noting that, in addition to their roles as workers, people can be invested in student, family, romantic, leisure, volunteer, and other life roles. Because work can interface with these other roles, it makes sense to reframe career planning as life-career planning or “life design” (Savickas, Chapter 6, this volume). Such a broadened view suggests that people consider how central or peripheral a role paid work will play in their lives. It also opens the door to extending research and interventions to those who perform non-paid (e.g., caregiving) work (Schultheiss, Chapter 9) or who wish to enrich their leisure or civic lives. In a literal sense, *occupations* can be seen as any activities that occupy people’s time and energy—or as roles that people occupy—whether or not such activities or roles involve paid compensation.

Super also emphasized the notion of role salience, which implies that work, or any life role, can vary in its centrality or importance for any given individual and at different stages of life. Thus, work is not *the* most valued role



for everyone. This acknowledgment allows for a less work-centric view of people's lives, freeing career counselors to view their clients as whole people with interests and commitments outside of work, and providing a valuable link to the study of gender in career development (Richardson, 1993). Historically, men have often been socialized to focus primarily on their work trajectories, giving less thought to other life domains, whereas women have been more likely to consider their work lives in the context of other life roles, such as romantic partner or parent. Life-career planning and the allowance for differential role salience simultaneously challenge traditional role expectations for males as *the* way to define career development for everyone, normalize alternative ways to pursue work, honor the feminist commitment to equality, and offer the possibility of more flexible work choices for all.

#### THE WHAT, WHEN, WHERE, AND HOW OF WORK

To this point, we have mainly focused on the *why* of work—the reasons why people work—and how work relates to other life domains or roles. In so doing, we have been discussing the general forces that impel, or motivate, people to work. And we have so far sidestepped the crucial what, when, where, and how questions, including the issue of *what* specific form of work people either choose or feel compelled to do, the *how* of choice-making (the process through which work “choices” are made by the individual and/or important others), the *when* of work decisions (points at which key work choices are made), and the *where* of work (the impact of the environment on choice and subsequent work outcomes).

Much of this book is devoted to addressing these very questions. The major theories of career development, contained in the first section of the book, grapple with these questions to varying degrees. For example, the theories of person-environment fit (Swanson & Schneider, Chapter 2; Nauta, Chapter 3) tend to emphasize the what and where questions (i.e., the content of people's work and the role of the environment in attracting them to or repelling them from certain forms of work). The developmental theories (see Hartung, Chapter 4) highlight the how and when questions (e.g., the ages or stages at which work-related decisions are made and the processes by which these decisions are aided or stifled). The chapters in the second section of the book emphasize the roles of person and social factors (e.g., gender, social class) in people's work “choice” and adjustment. The chapters in the third section focus on attributes that career counselors often assess when assisting people to select or adjust to work. And the chapters in the final section involve the how of facilitating career development—that is, problems or challenges that can impede career progress, along with interventions designed to surmount them.

## GRAPPLING WITH PERSONAL AGENCY: DOES IT MAKE SENSE TO SPEAK OF WORK CHOICE?

We placed the word “choice” in quotation marks in the previous paragraph to highlight the controversy that sometimes surrounds discussions of personal agency or volition in the career literature. Career development theories have occasionally been criticized for assuming that people are entirely free to choose their own occupational paths and for ignoring conditions that limit people’s career options (e.g., Warnath, 1975). A bit of reflection, however, suggests that, even with the benefit of favorable environments, people are rarely free to choose any form of work they wish; conversely, those who are less favored are rarely devoid of any volition, though they may be faced with a narrower range of options. Agency tends to come in bottles that are neither completely full nor empty. We do not believe that modern career theories assume that environments are irrelevant to personal choice; neither do they assume that the Horatio Alger “rags to riches” narrative is the norm (i.e., that personal initiative is all that counts). To the contrary, they generally acknowledge that people’s social addresses *do* matter and that factors, such as financial resources and educational barriers, can aid or thwart people’s career ambitions.

Certain cultural and economic contexts allow individuals relatively greater (though not total) freedom to exercise their agency in work selection. Under other conditions, “choice” may be severely limited by financial, educational, or other constraints. In some cultural contexts, work choices may be highly responsive to the wishes of important others (e.g., family members). Environmental factors also come into play when people attempt to implement their choices. As Vroom (1964) observed, “people not only *select* occupations, they *are selected for* occupations” (p. 56). Indeed, employers, admissions committees, and others serve as gatekeepers that help to determine initial and continued access to particular work and educational options. Thus, in a theme that runs throughout the study of career development, choice and other work outcomes may be seen as resulting from the interaction or interplay between the person *and* environment.

We see it is as a sign of progress in the career literature that rhetorical arguments are, increasingly, being preempted by theoretical and empirical efforts to grapple with specific mechanisms through which agency is expressed in career behavior, along with the personal and contextual variables that may strengthen or weaken its effects. In addition, researchers and practitioners, along with theorists, are showing increasing commitment to the need to understand and facilitate the career behavior of a much wider range of client populations, reconnecting with the earliest social justice themes of the career development field, such as how we can be helpful to clients with fewer

socioeconomic resources, the unemployed, and other groups who may be challenged to assert agency in their work lives (see, for example, Juntunen, Ali, & Pietrantonio, Chapter 11; Fabian & Morris, Chapter 13; Allan & Kim, Chapter 24).

### WHAT IS A CAREER? WHAT IS CAREER DEVELOPMENT?

To this point we have been using the term *work* as the most inclusive way to refer to the subject matter at the center of this book. *Work* may also be less laden with excess conceptual and cultural baggage than are other terms used to describe essentially the same area of human functioning. Some writers have, in fact, suggested that the field of vocational psychology be recast as “work psychology” or the “psychology of working” (Blustein, 2006). While we appreciate this argument, we also find the older terms, such as *vocational psychology* and *career counseling*, as still serviceable, if occasionally less than ideal. We decided to retain “career development and counseling” in the title of this book to maintain continuity with a large body of literature that has accumulated on the study and promotion of work behavior. It is appropriate at this stage, however, to define our terms more carefully.

### WORK, JOB, OCCUPATION, VOCATION, CAREER—WHAT’S THE DIFFERENCE?

*Work* refers to the domain of life in which people provide services or create goods, typically (though not always) on a paid basis. It can also refer to the specific activities that one performs for pay or on a volunteer basis. In most societies, work is associated with the period of life after formal schooling (although some students engage in work as well as academic roles) and before retirement (which may or may not involve disengagement from paid work). *Job* is a specific work position held over a defined period of time (e.g., being a quality inspector at one factory for 10 years). Although *job* and *career* are sometimes used synonymously in popular discourse, vocational psychologists often use the term *career* to refer to a sequence, or collection, of jobs one has held over the course of one’s work life. In this sense, people may hold different jobs over the course of a single career. However, it is also common to use *career* to refer to one’s involvement in a particular job family (e.g., engineering), which may include multiple jobs (e.g., being an engineer at company A for 10 years and at company B for another 10 years). It is in this context that one can speak of a *career change*, which is to say a shift from one job family to another (e.g., from engineer to teacher).

Other terms commonly used to refer to work behavior include *occupation* and *vocation*. Both of these terms are often used interchangeably with *career*. For example, many writers speak of occupational choice, vocational choice,

or career choice as meaning the same thing. But each of these terms, particularly vocation and career, may also have somewhat unique connotations. *Vocation* is sometimes viewed as an antiquated term. It originated from the Latin verb, *vocare*, to call, and historically has been used in some religious circles to refer to a divine “calling” to pursue a religious path. *Vocation* was later used to refer to secular forms of work as well, and leaders of the vocational guidance movement (e.g., Parsons, 1909) sought to assist people to locate jobs that would best match their personal qualities and be experienced as satisfying. In more recent times, the term *vocation* has been associated with vocational/technical (as opposed to “academic track”) education and is sometimes used to refer to jobs that do not require higher education. As a result, some clients may be a bit confused about how they can be helped by someone identifying themselves as a *vocational* counselor or psychologist. Still, *vocation* has had staying power as a generic term.

*Career* has a more contemporary feel than *vocation* and is more commonly used in popular discourse. Potential clients may be more likely to understand why they might see someone called a career counselor as opposed to a vocational counselor, and many professionals in our field prefer to refer to themselves as career counselors or psychologists. However, some writers find the term *career* as objectionable, arguing that it implies choice and privilege and that not everyone who works has a subjective sense of career. According to this line of reasoning, careers imply higher-status work. Thus, engineering is a career but housepainter is not because the former requires more education and tends to command greater prestige and more favorable work conditions and pay. Although we are sensitive to concerns about classism, we are not sure that the term *career* necessarily implies all these things (or that housepainters would agree that they cannot have careers). Moreover, it is hard to dismiss the term without also dismissing the extensive literature with which it is associated. In short, *career* is a compromise that most professionals in the field have been willing to make in the absence of an alternative term that meets with universal acceptance. Yet it is well for readers to be aware of the controversy that sometimes still surrounds it.

On balance, we view it as a positive development that career theorists and researchers now often use “work” as the more inclusive term in an effort to level the economic playing field and to promote social justice. Somewhat paradoxically, however, it has been difficult to escape entirely an emphasis on more privileged forms of work in the literature. For example, terms such as “decent work” (Blustein & Duffy, Chapter 7) or “meaningful work” (Dik et al., Chapter 8) may be seen as synonymous with middle class or white collar work (e.g., work that is relatively clean, safe, well-compensated, consistent with personal values, and accompanied by employer-provided benefits). On the one hand, such concepts encourage career scientists and practitioners

to attend to equitable work conditions that may allow people to flourish and not merely survive at work. They also represent a reaction to concerns about the current prevalence of precarious (e.g., unstable, insecure) work. On the other hand, they may underestimate the power of economic forces and the difficulties that many workers face in obtaining better working conditions or of locating jobs they find more self-expressive or meaningful. Moreover, if what constitutes decent and meaningful work lies at least partly in the eye of the beholder, workers may see the significance and decency of their own work from a somewhat different perspective than that assumed by theorists and researchers peering in from the outside. Such dilemmas reflect the inevitable growing pains of a vital and still evolving field. The ensuing discourse will, we are confident, help the field to further mature, honoring its social justice legacy and broadening the scope of its science and practice.

#### WHAT IS CAREER CHOICE AND DEVELOPMENT?

*Career development* can be seen as a process that encompasses much of the lifespan—one that begins in childhood (and includes the formal and informal experiences that give rise to talents, interests, values, and knowledge of the world of work); continues into adulthood via the progression of one's career behavior (e.g., entry into and adjustment to work over time); and may culminate with the transition into, and adjustment to, retirement. It is a concept designed to capture the dynamic, changing nature of career or work behavior and is sometimes used as incorporating *career choice* and at other times as distinct from it. The latter may be seen as the process of selecting and entering a particular career path, whereas career development refers to one's experience before, during, and after career choice.

The period before initial career choice or work entry typically overlaps with one's educational life. Some writers conceive of this period of academic or educational preparation as a part of the larger career development process; others treat it as distinct from, but conceptually related to, career development. Of course, career choice is not necessarily a static decision or one-time event. Many people revise their career choices over time for various reasons (e.g., to pursue work that better fits their interests and talents, to shift paths after involuntary job loss, or to re-enter the workforce after raising children or caring for other loved ones). Career choice, in turn, often consists of at least two phases: setting a choice goal and then taking steps to implement this goal, for instance, through additional training or a job search process.

*Career development* is sometimes used synonymously with career *advancement* or *management*. We see these terms as somewhat distinctive, however. Career advancement implies a linear process or one in which the individual progressively improves his or her career standing over time, as in the

metaphor of climbing a career ladder. Career management connotes a situation in which the individual is actively engaged in directing the course of his or her own career development; that is, it implies a view of the person as an active agent, anticipating and adjusting to new opportunities and behaving proactively to prevent (or reactively to cope with) negative situations. Career development, by contrast, connotes a continuous stream of career-relevant events that are not necessarily linear or positive in impact and that may or may not be subject to personal agency (e.g., being born into poverty, losing a job due to the bankruptcy of one's company). Although development ordinarily implies forward movement, it also holds the potential for stasis or regression.

Super, the dean of the developmental career theorists, described a number of life stages through which careers were assumed to evolve (growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, disengagement; see Hartung, Chapter 4), and other developmental theorists also point to distinct stages or life periods that are crucial to career choice and development (e.g., Gottfredson, 2005). The current book is organized with three larger developmental periods in mind, namely, the periods prior to work entry (e.g., see Rojewski, Chapter 20; Sampson, Osborn, & Bullock-Yowell, Chapter 21), during work entry (e.g., Brown, Chapter 22), and after work entry (e.g., Lent & Brown, Chapter 23; Allan & Kim, Chapter 24; Hirschi & Pang, Chapter 14), which may well involve a recycling through periods of exploration, preparation, and entry into new career paths.

### WHAT IS CAREER COUNSELING AND HOW IS IT DISTINCTIVE?

We use the term *career counseling* in this book, as will most of the chapter authors, to refer to services offered to resolve or prevent problems with work behavior, regardless of the prestige or level of education associated with a given work option. In this section, we describe the purview of career counseling, other services that may augment or overlap with it, and the relation of career and personal counseling.

### FORMATS AND TARGETS OF CAREER COUNSELING

Career counseling typically takes place between an individual client and counselor, though many career counselors also employ group counseling or workshops, particularly in educational settings in which a number of clients are dealing with common developmental challenges (e.g., academic or career-related choices). Career counseling can be directed at a fairly wide range of clients' presenting problems, but these may largely be captured within three larger categories: